Adaptations
Are Essential:
Early Years Writing

A Resource Guide
For Adapting Learning and Assessment Tasks
For Students With Mild Disabilities

Adaptations Are Essential: Early Years Writing was developed by Dr. Mark Jewell, director of Curriculum, Instruction and Assessment, Federal Way Public Schools.

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Introduction

"Adaptations Are Essential" is a series of resource guides written for teachers and other service providers who work with students with mild disabilities. The guides describe strategies for aligning students' individualized education programs (IEPs) with the State of Washington's essential academic learning requirements (EALRs). Separate resource guides have been developed for mathematics, reading, and writing. Each guide includes the following components:

- General information about adapting instruction and assessment and why such adaptations are essential.
- A decision making model for adapting instruction and assessment.
- Suggestions for adapting assessments using materials from the Washington Assessment of Student Learning (WASL) and Washington Model for Classroom-Based Evidence (CBE).
- Research-validated teaching strategies for helping students achieve various EALRs.

"Adaptations Are Essential" was written in response to SSB 6062 passed by the Washington Legislature in 1998. The legislation requires that a portion of the federal special education funds the state receives be allocated to support projects designed to help teachers improve services provided in general education classrooms to students with disabilities.

"Adaptations Are Essential" has been reviewed and fieldtested by teachers throughout the state of Washington. Many of the state's educational service districts (ESDs) assisted with the review and fieldtest process. A listing of teachers and ESD personnel who participated in the initial review and pilot of the resource guides follows.

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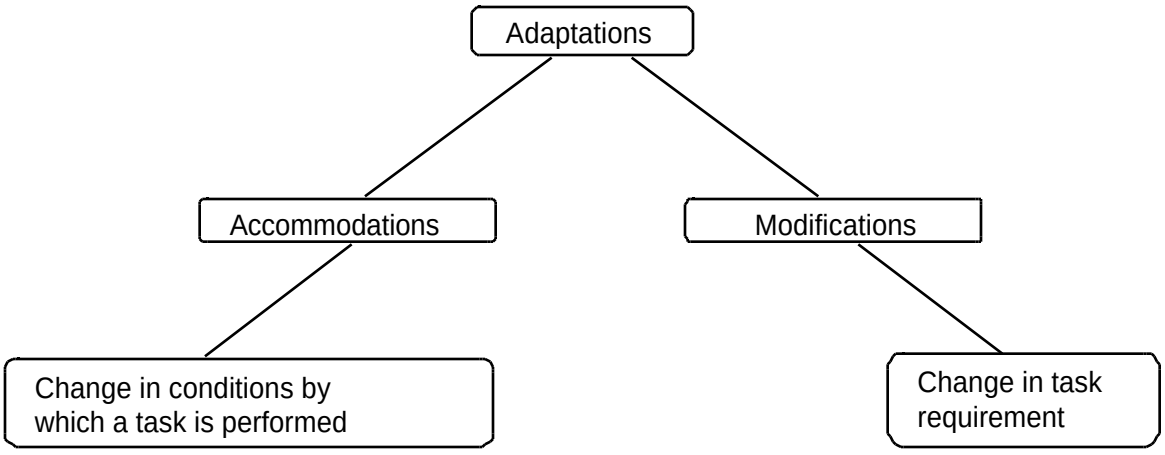
Jim Coldwell, Mount Vernon School District

A special note of appreciation is also extended to Dr. Anita Archer who has given permission to reproduce “Guidelines for Adapting Materials for Students with Disabilities” in its entirety (pp. 85–86).

What Are Adaptations?

For the purpose of this resource guide, an adaptation is defined as any change made in the learning and assessment tasks of the general education program. While the general education program is designed to meet the needs and learning characteristics of typical learners, the program can be made more appropriate for students with disabilities by making changes in the learning environment, instructional materials and activities, teaching strategies, student performance requirements, and by providing alternate learning and assessment tasks.

This resource guide describes two types of adaptations: accommodations and modifications.



- An **accommodation** is an adaptation that results in the student with a disability accomplishing the same goals and objectives as the nondisabled student and ***does not fundamentally*** alter the general education program.

An accommodation ***changes the conditions*** by which a disabled student accomplishes the same task as the nondisabled student. Accommodations are used to minimize the impact of a disability and circumvent deficiencies in specific academic areas. Accommodating deficits in order to meet individual learning needs is a time-honored tradition in special education.

> ***Example:*** If a task of the third grade social studies program is to learn about the major groups of American Indians, an accommodation for a student with a learning disability might be to have the student read articles that are written at a lower readability level than what the rest of the class is assigned. The task remains the same for the student with a disability (i.e., learning about the major groups of American Indians), but the instructional materials have been adapted to meet that student's needs.

- A **modification** is an adaptation that results in the student with a disability accomplishing different goals and objectives as nondisabled students and fundamentally alters the general education program.

A modification ***alters the task*** in a way that the student is able to accomplish a different, but perhaps related, task than that assigned to the nondisabled peers. Modifications are used to remediate deficiencies in specific academic areas by bringing the goals and objectives of the curriculum in closer alignment with the student's present level of educational performance. Modifying the goals and objectives of general education is an important part of specially designed instruction.

> ***Example:*** If a task of the fourth grade reading program is for students to summarize nonfiction articles, a modification for a student with a disability might be to use vocabulary words from the assigned article to practice writing complete, meaningful sentences. The task has been changed for the student with a disability; however, the student is working with the same materials as the nondisabled classmates.

An adaptation should be based on the needs of individual students and evaluated to determine its effectiveness. One measure of the effectiveness of an adaptation is how well it increases a student's access to the learning opportunities of the general education program. A second measure of the effectiveness of an adaptation is how well it helps a student achieve the goals and objectives that have been established for the student. This resource guide is designed to help teachers design, implement, and evaluate adaptations that are identified on the basis of individual needs of students.

Why Are Adaptations Essential?

Adaptations are essential for sound educational reasons and compelling legal reasons. First, learning can be increased reliably and dramatically when teachers adapt academic tasks. In contrast, learning problems occur when there is a mismatch between a learner's ability and the tasks assigned to that student.

Second, while there is no legal requirement for adapting learning and assessment tasks for general education students, there are legal safeguards regarding adaptations for students with disabilities. The legal requirements for adaptations are specified in the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, and the Education Reform Act of 1993 (ESHB 1209).

Adaptation Requirements of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act

On June 4, 1997, President William Clinton signed the reauthorized Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). The 1997 reauthorization was the fourth time since 1975 that Congress approved amendments to the national law creating federally funded special education programs. The basic intent of the original legislation was to provide equal educational opportunity for students with disabilities. The reauthorization reaffirmed the federal government's commitment to a free appropriate public education for students with disabilities.

For general education teachers, the most important part of the legislation is probably the requirement that students with disabilities must be educated with their nondisabled peers "to the maximum extent possible." The law further states that removal of students with disabilities from general educational settings should only happen when students with disabilities cannot be successful there with supplementary aids and services. Supplementary aids and services are the adaptations needed for the special education student to benefit from the general education program.

In addition to the basic provisions of the original IDEA legislation, the new amendments require both classroom teachers and specialists to develop adaptations for special education students in the following areas:

Curriculum and instruction requirements. IDEA '97 requires that disabled students' work be linked to the general education curriculum.

Assessment requirements. IDEA '97 requires that all students with disabilities be included in state or district assessment programs or be given an alternate assessment.

IDEA '97 further requires states to set performance goals for students with disabilities that are consistent, to the maximum extent appropriate, with the goals and standards established by the state for other students. States must establish performance indicators that address disabled students' performance on assessments and dropout and graduation rates and that public reports be provided on progress toward those goals. Each state is required to issue a progress report on its disabled students and report on their participation in assessments to federal officials every two years.

Adaptation Requirements of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973

By definition, special education students have disabilities that result in significant problems with learning and behavior that interfere with their progress in school. While not all students with disabilities are eligible for federally funded special education programming, all students with disabilities must be ensured equal educational opportunity. This legal safeguard was conferred by the Rehabilitation Act (P.L. 93-112). Passed by Congress in 1973, this was the first federal civil rights law to specifically protect the rights of children and adults with disabilities. The law was passed in an attempt to end education and job discrimination on the basis of a person's disability. Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act prohibits discrimination of students with disabilities and requires that schools provide them with equal opportunity, which includes a legal right to access to the general education program, extracurricular activities in their local schools, and instructional and curriculum adaptations. Adaptations are necessary for most students with a disability and Section 504 ensures that students with disabilities have access to accommodations for the purpose of ensuring equal opportunity.

Assessment Requirements of the Education Reform Act of 1993

Since the passage of its Education Reform Act of 1993, the state of Washington has been engaged in a sustained effort to improve the quality of schooling. Washington has specified content standards for major subject areas and a new assessment system is under development to measure pupil progress toward achieving the new high standards.

Results achieved by fourth grade special education students on the 1997, 1998, 1999, and 2000 WASL appear in the table below.

Grade 4 Special Education Students Meeting Standard on the WASL

	1997 (n = 5,698)	1998 (n = 7,552)	1999 (n = 8,677)	2000 (n = 7,737)
Listening	29 percent	45.8 percent	44.8 percent	40.1 percent
Reading	6.7 percent	13.6 percent	19.7 percent	27.2 percent
Writing	7.7 percent	7.8 percent	7.7 percent	10.3 percent
Mathematics	2.2 percent	7.9 percent	11.5 percent	14.5 percent

Public schools in the state of Washington serve approximately 111,000 special education students. Given the high-stakes nature of the new assessments, teachers have a powerful incentive for ensuring that special education students attain the new standards. Increasing the numbers of special education students as well as general education students who successfully complete state-level assessments in Washington will require that teachers acquire and use more effective teaching strategies.

Summary

Adaptations are essential for both students with disabilities as well as other youngsters with low achievement not placed in a special education program. All special education students are legally entitled to an individualized education program that includes not only access to the general education program but also special education and related services. Meeting the academic, emotional, and physical needs of students with disabilities requires adapting the general education program. For some students with disabilities, the instruction received in the regular classroom will suffice with minor adjustments or accommodations. However, for those students experiencing significant behavioral, motivational, or academic difficulties, the instructional program may need to be altered more substantially using modifications. It is important to note, however, that adaptations do not guarantee equal results for persons with or without disabilities. Such adaptations only afford equal opportunity to achieve equal results.

How Do You Adapt Learning and Assessment Tasks?

Special education students may not need adaptations (e.g., supplementary aids and program modifications) in every area of the general education program. However, schools must ensure that students be given special assistance in areas of identified need. Knowledge of a student's special education label gives very limited information about how best to teach that child. Consequently, teachers must consider what adaptations are appropriate for students on a case-by-case basis.

This section describes a decision making model for considering what areas of a student's instructional program should be adapted. The model takes into account what is taught, how it is taught, and how it is assessed. The model uses an acronym that will help teachers remember the steps of the strategy. The acronym is **I-C-U-E,** and it is a play on words. Pronounced like "I.Q.," the acronym uses the word "I" and "cue" to help teachers use a smart way to adapt learning and assessment tasks.

The I-C-U-E Process for Adapting Instruction and Assessment

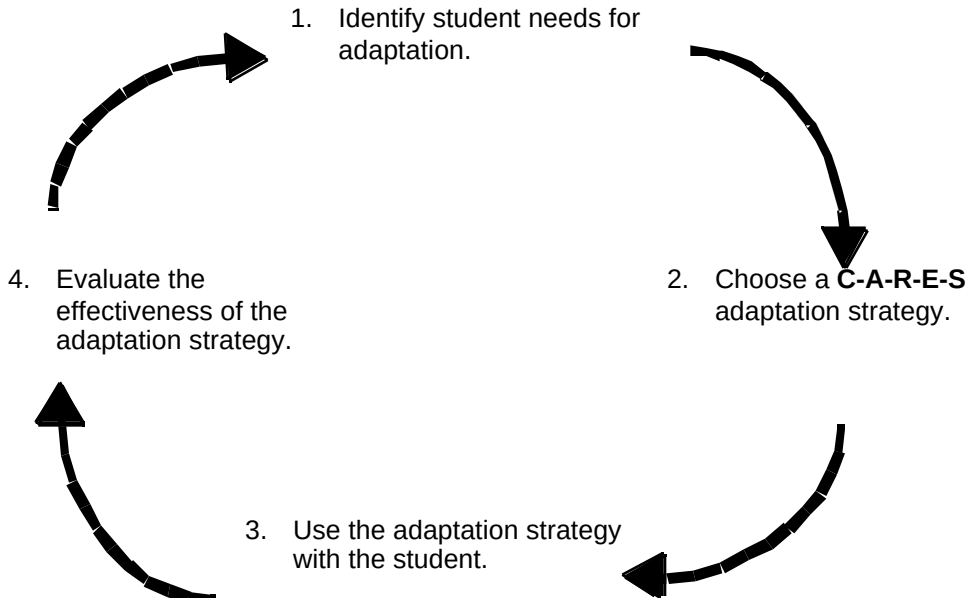
One component of this resource guide is a decision making process for adapting the general education curriculum. The process represents a systematic approach to adapting instruction and assessment for special education students as well as other students with special needs. The **I-C-U-E** process for adapting instruction and assessment includes four steps:

1. **Identify student needs for adaptation.**

1. **Choose a C-A-R-E-S adaptation strategy** (see pp.13–19).

1. **Use the adaptation strategy with the student.**

1. **Evaluate the effectiveness of the adaptation strategy.**



I Identify student needs for adaptations. To identify a student's needs for adaptations, the teacher must consider the skills, abilities, and behaviors demonstrated by the child. An understanding of the major cognitive, academic, psycho-motor, and social-emotional characteristics provide a starting point for anticipating what kind of adaptations the student may need.

1. **Review student's evaluation report and individualized education program (IEP) for recommendations about adaptation.** According to federal and state statutes, teachers should receive information from the evaluation report that addresses "how the students' disability affects the involvement and progress in the general curriculum" (WAC 392-172-10905).

   In addition, the student's IEP must include a statement of "the specific accommodations, modifications, and supports that must be provided to the student" (WAC 392-172-158). Teachers should be able to use this information as a starting point for deciding how to adapt assessment and instruction for special education students.

1. **Determine the requirements for successful performance in the general education program.** After considering the information in a student's evaluation and IEP, teachers need to analyze the general education curriculum (i.e., the curriculum provided nondisabled students) to clarify specifically what students must know and be able to do in order to perform satisfactorily in the instructional program. By carefully analyzing students' learning needs and specific demands of the assessment and learning tasks, teachers can provide reasonable adaptations in the general education program for most special education students.

Two important questions should be asked to determine the requirements for successful performance in the general education program:

· What are the specific tasks that the student must master to succeed in this classroom?

· What is the sequence in which these tasks will be presented?

Teachers may want to create a list of what the setting demands are of the general education program. A setting demand is simply a requirement of a specific environment. It is useful to list what knowledge and skills the student is expected to have already in place in order to master current course content. An example of a setting demands inventory appears on the next page.

3. **Identify factors hindering student performance on the assessment or learning tasks of the general education curriculum.** Teachers need to consider what factors may hinder a student's ability to complete the academic tasks of the general education program. Pugach and Wesson (1990, p. 90) recommended considering the following ten questions:

1. What do we wish the student would do that he or she is not doing?
1. What is the student doing that we wish he or she was not doing?
1. When does the behavior occur? Does it happen at a certain time of the day?
1. Does the student have the problem during activities, independent activities, or small-group activities?
1. Does the problem occur during a particular academic topic or across different topics?
1. Do other children also have this problem? If so, who and how many children? Is there something that needs to be changed for the whole class?

1. Does the student know that the problem exists, or is he oblivious to the problem? Has the student been directly informed to change his or her behavior?
1. Is the problem related to school behaviors (attention, work completion), social behaviors (peer relationships, self-concept), or academic behaviors (learning new concepts, remembering to apply strategies)?
1. Is it a problem that can be ignored because addressing it may create more of a disruption than the problem itself?
1. Should we discuss the problem with another teacher so that we can get someone else's perspective on it and because talking about it may help us understand the problem more fully?

Setting Demands Inventory

I expect my students to:	**I have taught and/or modeled the skill:**	
___ read grade-level instructional materials independently	__ yes	__ no
___ preview what is read	__ yes	__ no
___ identify main ideas	__ yes	__ no
___ support generalizations	__ yes	__ no
___ take notes from reading assignments	__ yes	__ no
___ write in response to what they read	__ yes	__ no
___ answer multiple-choice questions	__ yes	__ no
___ answer short-answer questions	__ yes	__ no
___ answer extended-response questions	__ yes	__ no
___ increase their reading vocabulary	__ yes	__ no
___ use context clues	__ yes	__ no
___ use the dictionary	__ yes	__ no

C Choose a C-A-R-E-S adaptation strategy. After identifying student needs for adaptations, a teacher must decide which level of intervention may be needed to help a student perform the teaching or assessment task. This resource guide presents a five-level approach to adaptation called **C-A-R-E-S.**

Level 1 represents adaptations that change the learning environment.
Level 2 represents adaptations that alter materials and activities.
Level 3 represents adaptations that revise teaching strategies.
Level 4 represents adaptations that exchange task requirements.
Level 5 substitutes an alternate learning or assessment task.

The first three levels represent accommodations because they do not fundamentally alter the general education program's goals and objectives. The last two levels represent modifications because they fundamentally alter goals and objectives of the general education program.

A complete description of the **C-A-R-E-S** approach is described on pp. 13–19 of this guide.

U Use adaptation strategies. Adaptations may require substantial preplanning by teachers. It is a good idea to develop a formal plan for using adaptations, especially if the teacher has not used the adaptation in the past. A plan might include the following components:

1. Develop a description of what complete implementation of the strategy will look like.

1. Make a timeline of when the adaptation will be tried out.

1. Assess obstacles that might prevent you from implementing the adaptation and try to determine a course of action to overcome each obstacle.

1. Implement the change strategies.

E Evaluate the effectiveness of the adaptations. Adaptations should facilitate learning. To determine whether adaptations are effective, teachers need to develop a plan that identifies (1) the data collection procedures and (2) the frequency of assessment.

Data collection procedures. Teachers have many choices in selecting evaluation activities. Teachers must distinguish between ***skill-span assessment*** and ***specific skill assessment***. ***Skill-span assessment*** is used for surveying a variety of skills. ***Specific skill assessment*** is continuous and occurs throughout the year. While administered only at Grades 4, 7 and 10, the Washington Assessment of Student Learning (WASL) is an example of a skill-span assessment. Individual activities found in the classroom-based evidence models (CBEs) are examples of specific skill assessment.

Assessment frequency. The frequency with which assessment occurs should be specially designed to account for the strengths and weaknesses of individual students. Some students may benefit from more frequent assessment. Kerr and Nelson (1989) developed the following recommendations for adjusting the frequency of assessment:

- Use session-by-session (one or more daily) recording when student progress is rapid through a small-step sequence.
- Use daily recording when student behavior fluctuates and daily program adjustments are needed.
- Use daily recording when the daily progress of the student is needed for intervention modifications.
- Use biweekly probes or weekly probes when student progress is slow.
- Use biweekly or weekly probes when general monitoring of progress is needed and frequent adjustments are not needed.
- Use biweekly, weekly, or monthly probes when evaluating maintenance or generalization of previously mastered skills.

Using the C-A-R-E-S Approach to Adaptation

The approach to adaptations described in this resource guide is based on the ***principle of least assistance*** (Adelman and Taylor, 1993). According to this principle, adaptations are ordered from least to most support. Teachers start with one type of minimal support and increase it only as they see that the child requires it. This approach to adaptation is sometimes called trial teaching, dynamic assessment, or diagnostic teaching.

Using adaptations helps a teacher to identify the task on which the student should be instructed. In this sense, adaptations are really hypotheses about the minimal instructional adjustments needed for the child to succeed in materials at or near his or her grade placement. The level of support provided can always be increased, but if we start with high levels of support it may not be clear whether the student could perform just as well with less assistance.

Accommodations
(adapted task conditions)

1. **Change** the learning environment in which the task is to be performed.

1. **Alter** instructional materials and activities used by student to complete the task.

1. **Revise** teaching strategies for presenting the task to the student.

Modifications
(adapted task requirements)

1. **Exchange** task requirements that define successful performance.

1. **Substitute** an alternate task that more clearly matches a student's present levels of performance.

Accommodations
(adapted task conditions)

C Change the learning environment in which the task is to be performed. Sometimes the student with a disability can participate successfully in general education if the learning or assessment environment is adapted. According to Kaplan and Drainville (1991), the learning environment includes all of the following components:

1. Physical arrangement, size, and comfort of the furniture and equipment.
1. Sensory climate: temperature, ventilation, lighting, colors, and odors.
1. Traffic flow and amount of physical activity.
1. Schedule and time of day.
1. Social climate, including the teacher and peers.
1. Daily curriculum and related school activities.
1. Physical and emotional health of the student, teacher, and peers.
1. Teaching style and expectations of the teacher.
1. Learning styles and self-esteem of students.

Accommodations can be as simple as changing the student's desk location closer to the teacher. A more complex accommodation may involve the teacher determining whether the learning task will be completed in the context of full-group, small-group, or individualized instruction.

This adaptation strategy maintains the student in the general education classroom. However, the regular classroom may or may not be suited to accomplishing the general education program for the student with a disability. Federal and state rules and regulations require that a full continuum of placement options be made available for students with disabilities.

A Alter instructional materials and activities used by the student to complete the task. Students spend a large portion of the day interacting with printed materials. Some printed materials and activities may be poorly written or not appropriate for the reading level of an individual student or group of students. Teachers should analyze the quality of printed materials and activities prior to presenting to students. A copy of guidelines for evaluating printed materials and activities developed by Dr. Anita Archer can be in found on pp. 85–86.

Determining the appropriateness of materials and activities. Teachers can use a student's sight vocabulary, oral reading rate and accuracy, and ability to answer comprehension questions to determine whether the instructional materials are at an appropriate level of difficulty. The independent level refers to materials that are easy to read for the student; the instructional level refers to those materials that are difficult enough to require assistance; the frustration level refers to those materials that are too difficult for students to read. For example, a student at any grade level is considered to be reading at an independent level if the student is (1) able to recognize more than 90 percent of sight vocabulary in the passage, (2) read correctly from the passage more than 120 words per minute, (3) have fewer than six words read incorrectly in the minute of reading, and (4) is able to answer correctly more than 90 percent of the comprehension questions that appear at the end of a passage.

Placement Guidelines for Reading Materials

Skill Area	Measurement Mode	Independent	Instructional	Frustration
Sight Vocabulary	Percent correct	>90	80–90	<80
Rate	correct words/min.	>120	70–119	<70
Accuracy	error words/min.	<6	6–10	>10
Comprehension	percent correct	>90	75–90	3<75

Materials and activities can be adapted by (1) clarifying the directions for completing the task and (2) scaffolding the tasks.

1. Clarify task directions. If the directions contain several steps, they can be simplified by presenting only one portion at a time and by writing each portion on the chalkboard as well as stating it orally. When using written directions, be sure that students are able to read and understand the words as well as comprehend the meaning of the sentences. While all of the following are appropriate accommodations for learning tasks, the last two strategies may not be permitted for assessment tasks.

- Give directions both orally and in writing.
- Restate oral directions in simpler language.
- Give only one or two oral directions at a time.
- Be sure students are able to see directions written on the chalkboard.
- Keep written directions on the student's reading level.
- Explain any new or unfamiliar terms.

2. Scaffold the learning task. Scaffolding refers to the guidance an adult or peer provides through verbal communication as a way of doing for the student what the student cannot do without assistance (Cazden, 1988). Teachers can add features to learning or assessment tasks that are particularly helpful for students who have difficulty focusing on relevant instructional cues. Sometimes referred to as procedural facilitators, these features scaffold, or structure, the task and help the student know exactly what to do.

Procedural facilitators fall loosely on a hierarchy from the least amount of assistance to the greatest amount of assistance. For example, when a student makes an error, the teacher might begin prompting at the "top" of the hierarchy, cueing the student to respond. If the cue fails to produce a correct answer, the teacher might then move down the hierarchy, systematically giving increasing levels of assistance.

Scaffolding Levels

Level	Description	Example
Cue	Ask again; student may not have attended to the question.	"Read the word."
Visual	Highlight correct response in some way.	F<u>ee</u>t (teacher underlines the double-vowel pattern).
Verbal	Partially supply or describe the answer.	"The ***smallest*** coin." "Line up the ones column."
Model	Show or tell the correct answer.	"The word is 'rope.' What's the word?"
Manual	Give physical assistance.	Place hand over the child's to write her or his name.

Revise teaching strategies for presenting the task to the student. If students are not succeeding with a task after changes have been made in the learning environment and materials have been altered, teachers should consider revising their teaching strategies. Current teaching strategies may lack clarity, fail to provide adequate guided practice, or do not include sufficient examples. Deborah Simmons, Doug Fuchs, and Lynn Fuchs (1991) developed an instructional template to help teachers include explicit teaching steps within their lessons. This template reminds teachers of steps to use before, during, and after instruction for explicit teaching.

Instructional Template for Explicit Teaching Procedures
(Simmons, Fuchs, and Fuchs, 1991)

Before Instruction

- Note time allocated for instruction (total instructional time and estimated time for teacher-directed instruction).
- Determine lesson objective (the student will be able to . . .).
- List preskills to review ("Before we begin, let's review . . . ").

During Instruction

- Frame lesson ("Today we're going to learn . . . " "This is important because . . . ").
- Present target skill ("Listen and watch as I show you . . . ").
- Guide practice ("Let's try this one together.").
- Correct errors and provide feedback (correct response—"That's right"; hesitant response—"Good" and repeat the rule or procedure; and incorrect response—use prompts on process errors and model correct response on factual errors).
- Prepare for independent practice ("Let's do the first one together.").

After Instruction

- Monitor independent practice (circulate throughout the room and provide feedback to students through brief interactions).
- Review new skills (review skills at the end of the lesson and systematically throughout the instructional year).

Simmons, D.C., Fuchs, D., and Fuchs, L.S. (1991). Instructional and curricular requisites of mainstreamed students with learning disabilities. ***Journal of Learning Disabilities, 24,*** 354–360.

Teachers are often inclined to revise teaching strategies before having tried to change the learning environment or alter instructional materials. Revising teacher strategies often requires significant change in teaching behavior. This effort may not be warranted if students are successful with the first two levels of **C-A-R-E-S** adaptations.

Assuming that the initial instruction included the characteristics described by Simmons, Fuchs, and Fuchs, and a student is unable to perform a learning or assessment task, the teacher may want to consider the following strategies:

1. Provide additional presentation of target skills and information. Students may not have acquired a skill or information previously presented by a teacher for a variety of reasons. For example, a student may have been absent or attending a different school when a teacher originally presented a lesson. Teachers must be willing to provide repeat instruction on target skills in such cases.

2. Increase practice opportunities. Students require different amounts of practice to master skills or content. When a skill is newly introduced, students should have brief massed practice sessions on that skill. In subsequent lessons, the student should practice the objective at more interspersed intervals.

3. Increase motivation for successful performance of task. Given that not all academic tasks are reinforcing for every student, teachers must be able to identify methods to effectively motivate students to succeed in performing learning tasks. Below is a list of some intrinsic and extrinsic reinforcers. Teachers can use this hierarchy of potential reinforcers to find alternative ways to increase motivation for completing the task.

Hierarchy of Potential Reinforcers With Classroom Examples

Reinforcers	Classroom Examples
Intrinsic reinforcers	challenge of learning, sense of accomplishment
Knowledge of results	feedback on accuracy, confirmation, number or percentage correct
Social reinforcers	attention, praise, approval, calls and notes to parents
Activity reinforcers	special privileges, duties, free time, games
Token reinforcers	letter grades, points, check marks, stars, signatures which can later be exchanged for other reinforcers
Concrete reinforcers	toys, prizes, school supplies, awards
Primary reinforcers	food, candy, treats

The timing of consequences is also important. Collecting all the work at the end of the day only to discover that some of the children made errors on more than 50 percent of the items does not result in efficient learning. Teachers can, for example, permit students to finish one row of problems, then self-check by comparing their answers to those provided by the teacher.

Modifications

(adapted task requirements)

E Exchange task requirements that define successful performance. Modifying the requirements that define successful performance of a task is the fourth alternative to consider when adapting instruction. A task can be modified along several dimensions of performance criteria and conditions under which the task is completed. The exchange task requirements form on the next page can be used for considering what dimensions of a learning task may be adapted by exchanging task requirements. The form contains components of clearly specified task requirements, including those components required by federal law to be included in a short-term objective of an individualized education program (IEP).

Task conditions refer to the circumstances under which the student must perform a task. The condition may specify which materials may be used to do the task, how the task may be accomplished (e.g., from memory, from the textbook, etc.), and the location of the performance.

- ***Change presentation mode.*** Read the items aloud to the student rather than expect the student to read the items independently.

Task characteristics specify what the student must perform, do, or produce that is used to evaluate the achievement of the task.

- ***Change response mode***. For students who have difficulty with fine motor responses (such as handwriting), the response mode can be changed to underlining, selecting from multiple choices, sorting, or marking. Students with fine motor problems can be given extra space for writing answers on practice sheets or can be allowed to respond on individual chalkboards.

Criteria for successful performance refer to the standard toward which the student can strive. If students are not achieving acceptable performance levels, teachers may need to change the criteria of acceptable performance. Performance criteria can be changed by adjusting requirements for quantity, rate, accuracy, frequency, and/or duration.

- ***Change quantity***. The number of problems, questions, or tasks can be reduced or increased.

- ***Change rate***. If rate is a relevant aspect of performance, time limits for completing tasks can be extended or shortened.

- ***Change accuracy expectation.*** A lower or higher rate of accuracy can be established.

- ***Change frequency expectation***. The number of times a task is to be performed can be reduced or increased.

- ***Change duration expectation***. Expectations for how long a task should be performed can be reduced or increased.
- Evaluation procedures refer to the methods by which the teacher will use to collect data to determine whether a student can accomplish the task.

Schedule refers to how frequently the teacher will collect data to determine whether a student can accomplish the task.

Exchange Task Requirements Form

Original Task: Given a rough draft prepared in response to a prompted writing assignment designed to elicit expository mode, the student will write a final copy, editing for subject-verb agreement, punctuation, capitalization, spelling, and using paragraphs as part of the Washington Assessment for Student Learning in Grades 4, 7, and 10.

	Original Task	Adapted Task
Task Conditions	Given a rough draft prepared in response to a prompted writing assignment designed to elicit expository mode.	
Task Characteristics	The student will write a final copy, editing for.	
Criteria for Successful Performance	Subject-verb agreement, punctuation, capitalization, spelling, and using paragraphs.	
Evaluation Procedures	As part of the Washington Assessment of Student Learning.	
Schedule	In Grades 4, 7, and 10.	

S Select an alternate task that more closely matches student's present levels of performance. Selecting an alternate learning or assessment task represents the most extreme form of adaptation. An alternate task might be either a prerequisite task or a task not directly related to the original target task.

Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (1956, p. 87) can be used for planning alternate tasks. Given a student's present levels of educational performance, you may want to consider tasks at a lower level of cognitive complexity to ensure students have the prerequisite skills. For example, comprehending an idea or concept is essential to applying it, analyzing, or using it creatively or evaluatively. Teachers should assess whether students understand an idea before asking them to use it.

Because Bloom's Taxonomy is organized from simple to complex, some educators interpret it as a ranking from trivial (knowledge) to important (synthesis, evaluation). However, this is not the intent of taxonomy. Different levels of tasks are appropriate for different purposes and for students at different stages of development. If a student fails to perform at one of the higher levels of the taxonomy, teachers should determine if prerequisite knowledge and skills at the lower levels is a problem.

The I-C-U-E Adaptation Planner for Writing

Accommodations (adapted task conditions)	
Change the environment.	· Reduce extraneous noise. · Use peer mediated learning (e.g., partner reading). · Increase time allocated for writing instruction.
Alter instructional materials and activities.	· Establish a purpose for the writing assignment.
Clarify directions.	· Simplify language of writing prompts.
Scaffold the learning task.	· Use questions to prompt students to consider audience and purpose. · Highlight key words and phrases (e.g., color coding) and concepts (e.g., outlines, study guides). · Utilize visual aids (e.g., charts, graphs) to supplement writing tasks.
Revise teaching strategies.	
Provide additional presentations.	· Have students write every day.
Increase practice opportunities.	· Use brief individual conferences with students to assess progress.
Increase motivation.	· Have students select prompt. · Systematically target and reinforce writing traits.
Modifications (adapted task requirements)	
Exchange task requirements.	
Change conditions.	· Allow use of computer or word processor.
Change presentation mode.	· Read prompt to students.
Change response mode.	· Provide scribe for student to dictate composition. · Have student compose orally on audio cassette.
Change quantity criteria.	· Reduce or increase the number of writing assignments per grading period.
Change rate criteria.	· Increase the amount of time for completing the writing assignment.
Change accuracy criteria.	· Use dual grading so students can be evaluated separately on content and conventions.
Select an alternate task.	
Substitute a similar but easier task.	· Teach story writing before essay writing.
Substitute a prerequisite task.	· Provide instruction on handwriting or keyboarding. · Teach students components of text structure.
Substitute an important task not necessarily related to the target task.	· Teach student to use voice recognition technology.

Adapting Assessment Tasks for Writing

Just as learning tasks should be adapted in light of the unique needs of students, so should assessment tasks. The annual IEP conference should include a consideration of assessment adaptations. The 1997 reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) requires special education students either to participate in state and district assessments or participate in an alternate assessment. The decision to exempt a special education student from such assessments must be made during the IEP meeting.

Students with disabilities frequently have difficulty displaying their knowledge or skills on assessments. In some cases, tests can be adapted in ways that can help teachers assess students with disabilities fairly and with a reasonable amount of accuracy. Adaptations for assessments are usually accommodations. That is, they represent changes in the conditions (e.g., environment or process) under which the assessment is administered.

It is important to note that not all adaptations are appropriate for criterion- or norm-referenced assessments. There is less flexibility for adapting norm-referenced achievement tests like the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills. The importance of following the instructions in the directions for administration cannot be overemphasized. Unless the test is administered according to the standard directions, the test results will contain an indeterminate amount of error and thereby prevent proper interpretation.

Teachers have far more flexibility in adapting the classroom assessments they design themselves or other informal assessments they obtain from other sources. Teachers can use the **I-C-U-E** process and the **C-A-R-E-S** approach to make sure that classroom-based assessment results reflect special education students' knowledge and skills, not their disabilities. Many of these adaptations will also benefit students who do not have disabilities. A chart showing some adaptations organized according to the **C-A-R-E-S** approach is on the following page

Examples of Adapted Assessment Tasks

Accommodations (Adapted task conditions)	
· Change the assessment environment.	· Determine whether assessment will be administered in full-group, small-group, or individualized basis. · Ensure physical accessibility. · Allow for isolation during assessment.
· Alter assessment materials and activities.	
· Clarify directions.	· Record assessment directions. · Underline key words in directions. · Give samples at start of task.
· Scaffold assessment task.	· Record assessment items. · Use capital letters for matching or multiple choice. · Underline key words in assessment items. · Provide manipulatives.
· Revise assessment procedures.	
· Provide additional assessments.	· Allow for reassessment.
· Increase practice opportunities.	· Provide audiotapes of lectures. · Provide notes from lectures. · Familiarize students with assessment format.
· Increase motivation.	· Provide options for completing task. · Provide feedback. · Pair task with positive consequences. · Assign grade based on amount of improvement over prior assessment grade .

Modifications (Adapted task requirements)	
· Exchange task requirements.	
· Change conditions.	· Allow use of dictionary. · Allow use of calculator or other math manipulatives.
· Change presentation mode.	· Present content in different medium (e.g., film, book, video, etc.). · Allow use of video instead of reading. · Give assessment in Braille. · Give assessment orally.
· Change response mode.	· Oral report instead of essay. · Allow for dictation of responses. · Allow the student to use pocket charts or study cards for the assessment. · Allow student to demonstrate or dramatize.
· Change quantity criteria.	· Assign small sections of the task. · Use shortened assessment that contains same concepts.
· Change rate criteria.	· Give students additional time on assignments. · Provide additional time if power assessment.
· Change accuracy criteria.	· Adjust cut score for passing. · Grade only relevant concepts.
· Select an alternate task.	· Assess student from a different domain.

The Washington State Assessment System

The Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction administers a comprehensive assessment system in accordance with state law. Three key components are norm-referenced tests (e.g., the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills [ITBS] and the Iowa Tests of Educational Development [ITED]), the Washington Assessment of Student Learning (WASL), and assessment resources such as the Washington Model for Classroom-Based Evidence (CBE) found in the assessment toolkits developed originally by the Commission on Student Learning.

Both the WASL and the CBEs are designed to provide information about how well students have acquired the knowledge and skills needed to meet specific components of the essential academic learning requirements. The table below shows which EALRs in writing are assessed in the WASL and CBEs. Since not every EALR is tested by either the WASL or and CBEs, teachers will need to create their own assessments to determine whether their students have achieved EALRS not included in the WASL or CBE.

Assessment Component	Grade Level	Writing EALRs Assessed
Washington Assessment of Student Learning		
· Early Years	4	1.1, 1.2, 1.3
Washington Model for Classroom-Based Evidence		
· "Writing Process"	4	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 3.1, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4, 3.5, 4.1, 4.2

The table on the next page shows the relationship between the EALR components and how they are assessed on the WASL and the Washington Model for Classroom-Based Evidence.

The abbreviation or term SM in the table refers to student masters.

How the Essential Academic Learning Requirements in Writing Are Assessed in the Benchmark 1 WASL and CBEs

Essential Academic Learning Requirement	WASL Example Test (Grade 4)	"Writing Process" CBE
1.1 develop concept and design	Both Day 1 and Day 2 prompts.	SM 5, SM 10, SM 11, SM 15, SM 16, SM 17, SM 22, SM 25, SM 32, SM 35
1.2 use style appropriate to the audience and purpose	Both Day 1 and Day 2 prompts.	SM 5, SM 10, SM 11, SM 15, SM 16, SM 17, SM 22, SM 25, SM 32, SM 35
1.3 apply writing conventions	Both Day 1 and Day 2 prompts.	SM 11, SM 15, SM 16, SM 17, SM 22, SM 25, SM 32, SM 35
2.1 write for different audiences		SM 1, SM 2, SM 10, SM 11, SM 15, SM 16, SM 17, SM 22, SM 25, SM 32, SM 35
2.2 write for different purposes		SM 1, SM 2, SM 3, SM 4, SM 5
2.3 write in a variety of forms		SM 3, SM 5
2.4 write for career applications		
3.1 prewrite (generate ideas and gather information)		SM 3, SM 4, SM 5, SM 6, SM 7, SM 8, SM 9, SM 10, SM 18, SM 19, SM 20, SM 21
3.2 draft (elaborate on a topic and supporting ideas)		SM 11, SM 18, SM 22, SM 23, SM 24
3.3 revise (collect input and enhance text and style)		SM 12, SM 14, SM 18, SM 25, SM 26, SM 27
3.4 edit (use resources to correct spelling, punctuation, grammar, and usage)		SM 13, SM 18, SM 28, SM 29, SM 30, SM 31
3.5 publish (select a publishing form and produce a completed writing project to share with a chosen audience)		SM 14, SM 15, SM 18, SM 32, SM 34
4.1 assess own strengths and needs for improvement		SM 14, SM 19, SM 23, SM 35
4.2 seek and offer feedback		SM 24, SM 36, SM 37

How Writing Is Assessed on the WASL

The purpose of the Washington Assessment of Student Learning (WASL) is to measure students' level of proficiency in the essential academic learning requirements.

The writing section of the WASL assesses skills and reports achievement in two broad categories: (1) content/organization/style and (2) mechanics. Content/organization/style are defined in the first three components of the essential learnings for writing.

Content/Organization/Style	Mechanics
• Developing concept and design (EALR 1.1).	• Writing complete sentences (EALR 1.3).
• Representing one main idea or topic (EALR 1.1).	• Using correct subject-verb agreement (EALR 1.3).
• Communicating own perspective and ideas (EALR 1.2).	• Using capitalization and punctuation accurately in the final draft (EALR 1.3).
• Demonstrating awareness of audience (EALR 1.2).	• Spelling age-level words correctly in the final draft (EALR 1.3).
• Using patterns and vocabulary from literature and nonfiction (EALR 1.2).	• Using paragraphs consistently (EALR 1.3).
• Using figurative language and imagery (EALR 1.2).	• Using correct letter formation and legible handwriting (EALR 1.3)
	.

Writing prompts. The WASL includes two writing tasks, or prompts, at Grades 4 and 7 and three tasks at Grade 10. Each writing task clearly states a designated topic, audience, and purpose. Students are expected to write to the designated topic, audience, and purpose. Each task will contain a verb (e.g., explain, persuade/convince, tell, evaluate, compare/contrast, analyze, etc.) which will serve to cue writing for the intended purpose. Students will be asked to write in a mode using a certain form, such as write a persuasive essay or persuasive letter. Students write rough drafts on scratch paper and final drafts in the test booklet. Additional pages inserted into the booklet are not scored.

Examples of Writing Prompts at Grades 4, 7, and 10

Grade	Modes/Purpose	Examples of Prompts
4	Narrative	· Tell about a time when you were happy.
	Expository	· For a school newspaper article entitled "Pets," explain why a certain pet is your favorite.
7	Expository	· Explain the advantages of video technology.
	Persuasive	· Compose a letter to your principal convincing him or her to make an improvement to the school grounds.
10	Brief Expository (e.g., memo, letter)	· Write a memo to a group of community volunteers reminding them about the details of an upcoming event.
	Extended Expository (compare/contrast, analyze, evaluate)	· Compare and contrast two stories you have read recently. · Analyze a recent event in the news. · Write a critical review for your school newspaper evaluating a short story, a novel, or play you have read.
	Persuasive	· Choose an action you believe would help the homeless. In an essay, persuade a group of community leaders to take the action you desire.

Washington Grade 4
Content/Style/Organization Style Guide for All Prompts

Points	Description
4	• Maintains consistent focus on the topic and has ample supporting details. • Has a logical organizational pattern and conveys a sense of completeness and wholeness. • Provides transitions which clearly serve to connect ideas. • Uses language effectively by exhibiting word choices that are engaging and appropriate for intended audience and purpose. • Includes sentences of varied length and structure. • Allows the reader to sense the person behind the words.
3	• Maintains adequate focus on the topic and has adequate supporting details. • Has a logical organizational pattern and conveys a sense of wholeness and completeness, although some lapses occur. • Provides adequate transitions in an attempt to connect ideas. • Uses effective language and appropriate word choices for intended audience and purpose. • Includes sentences that are somewhat varied in length and structure. • Provides the reader with some sense of the person behind the words.
2	• Demonstrates an awareness of the topic and includes some (or few) supporting details, but may include extraneous or loosely related material. • Shows an attempt at organizational pattern, but exhibits little sense of wholeness and completeness. • Provides transitions which are weak or inconsistent. • Has a limited and predictable vocabulary that may not be appropriate for the intended audience and purpose. • Shows limited variety in sentence length and structure. • Attempts somewhat to give the reader a sense of the person behind the words.
1	• Presents information or ideas and few supporting details which may be inconsistent or interfere with the meaning of the text. • Has little evidence of an organizational pattern or any sense of wholeness and completeness. • Provides transitions which are poorly utilized, or fails to provide transitions. • Has a limited or inappropriate vocabulary for the intended audience and purpose. • Has little or no variety in sentence length and structure. • Provides the reader with little or no sense of the person behind the words.
0	• Response is “I don’t know,” response is a question mark, response is one word, response is only the title of the prompt, or the prompt is simply recopied.

Conventions Guide for All Prompts

Points	Description
2	· Consistently follows the rules of standard written English for capitalization and punctuation. · Word usage (e.g., subject/verb agreement, pronoun cases, etc.) is correct with very few lapses, if any. · Correctly spells commonly used words.
1	· Generally follows the rules of standard written English for capitalization and punctuation. · Word usage (e.g., subject/verb agreement, pronoun cases, etc.) is correct except for occasional lapses. · Usually spells commonly used words correctly.
0	· Basically does not follow the rules of standard written English for capitalization and punctuation, though some elements may be correct. · Word usage (e.g., subject/verb agreement, pronoun cases, etc.) is occasionally, but not consistently, correct. · Indicates difficulty spelling commonly used words correctly and errors impede communication. · Response is "I don't know," response is a question mark, response is one word, response is only the title of the prompt, or the prompt is simply recopied.

Off-mode writing. A writing sample will be judged "off mode" when the student has not written to the purpose designated in the task. An example of an "off-mode" response would be when the directions in the prompt state: "Write a letter to the editor of ***Student Voices*** to express an opinion about an issue of vital concern to you and your peers," and a student writes a narrative describing a time she was treated unfairly due to a school dress code. The student is responding to the task but is not writing in the correct mode. Such a writing sample will be scored for conventions but will receive no credit for content/organization/style.

Off-task writing. A student's writing sample will be judged "off task" (i.e., off prompt, off topic) when there is no evidence to indicate that the student has read the task other than the purpose. In order to prevent previously rehearsed responses, scorers consider whether or not information from the prompt was used in the student's response. An example of an off-task response would be if the directions in the prompt ask students to write a letter of complaint to a toy company about receiving a damaged toy, and a student wrote a letter of complaint to a chamber of commerce complaining about the weather. Such a response will not receive credit for either conventions or content/organization/style.

Writing scores. Students receive a total writing score that is used to determine whether or not the standard has been met. The score represents a composite of raw score points for the two prompts. A student can earn up to six raw score points for each writing prompt (four points maximum for content/organization/style; two points maximum for mechanics). A student must earn nine raw score points for both prompts in order to meet standard. The raw score is converted to standardized scores ranging from 150 to 600, with a score of 400 representing the minimum score for demonstrating proficiency.

How Writing Is Assessed in the CBE

The Washington Model for Classroom-Based Evidence (CBE) was developed by the Commission on Student Learning. These CBEs are part of the assessment toolkits that have been distributed throughout the state to school districts through the ESDs since 1997. CBEs provide activities, discussion questions, assessment suggestions, and scoring criteria for teachers to gather information about student ability to perform the essential academic learning requirements.

These resources have been prepared as reproducibles called student masters (SMs). "Writing Process" is the CBE in writing developed for the early years grades.

"Writing Process." "Writing Process" includes 38 activities based on the skills and strategies needed by students to write effectively. The activities appear as student masters that are designed to be appropriate for third grade students. The table on the next page shows which essential learnings component the student master assesses.

In addition, the four-point rating scale for "Writing Process" is included on page 30.

Essential Learnings Components Assessed in "Writing Process"

Student Master	Essential Learning Components Assessed
SM 1 Welcome to the Writing Process	2.1, 2.2, 2.3
SM 2 Getting Started	2.1, 2.2, 2.3
SM 3 The Writing Process	2.2, 2.3, 3.1
SM 4 Where Should You Begin	2.2, 2.3, 3.1
SM 5 Learning About Prewriting	1.1, 1.2, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 3.1
SM 6 Freewriting	3.1
SM 7 Brainstorming	3.1
SM 8 Clustering or Webbing	3.1
SM 9 Questioning	3.1
SM 10 Prewriting Activity	1.1, 1.2, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 3.1
SM 11 Learning About First Drafts	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 3.3, 4.1
SM 12 Learning About Revising	1.2, 1.3, 3.3
SM 13 Learning About Editing	3.4, 4.1
SM 14 Give Yourself A Break	3.3
SM 15 Learning About Final Drafts	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4, 3.5, 4.1
SM 16 Suggestions for Publishing	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4, 3.5, 4.1, 4.2
SM 17 Bring Your Writing Home	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 2.1,2.2, 2.3, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4, 3.5, 4.1, 4.2
SM 18 Tips for Using a Computer	3.1, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4, 3.5
SM 19 Thinking About Your Writing	2.3, 3.1, 4.1, 4.2
SM 20 Assignment and Prewriting	1.1, 1.2, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 3.1
SM 21 Prewriting Self-Evaluation/Prewriting Conference with the Teacher	1.1, 1.2, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 3.1
SM 22 Writing a First Draft	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 2.2, 2.3, 3.2, 4.1, 4.2
SM 23 First Draft Self-Evaluation	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 2.2, 2.3, 3.2, 4.1, 4.2
SM 24 First Draft Peer Review	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 2.2, 2.3, 3.2, 4.1, 4.2
SM 25 Revising	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 2.2, 2.3, 3.2, 4.1, 4.2
SM 26 Revised Draft Self-Evaluation	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 2.2, 2.3, 3.2, 4.1, 4.2
SM 27 Revised Draft Peer Review	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 2.2, 2.3, 3.2, 4.1, 4.2
SM 28 Editing	3.4, 4.1
SM 29 Editing Self-Evaluation	3.4, 4.1
SM 30 Editing Peer Review	3.4, 4.1
SM 31 Give Yourself a Break	3.4, 4.1
SM 32 Writing a Final Draft	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 3.3, 3.4, 3.5, 4.1, 4.2
SM 33 Final Draft Self-Evaluation	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 3.3, 3.4, 3.5, 4.1, 4.2
SM 34 Postwriting Conferences	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 3.3, 3.4, 3.5, 4.1, 4.2
SM 35 Student Evaluation and	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 3.1, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4, 3.5
SM 36 Teacher Evaluation and Individual Conferences	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 3.1, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4, 3.5
SM 37 Bring Your Writing Home	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 3.1, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4, 3.5
SM 38 Resources for Writing	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 3.1, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4, 3.5

Rating Scale for "Writing Process"

Points	Prewriting	First Draft	Revision	Editing
4	• Shows evidence of applying a prewriting strategy. • Indicates elaboration of ideas. • Shows thorough evidence of generating ideas for writing. • Includes a sufficient amount of ideas that relate to one topic.	• Has one clear topic sentence • Is organized into several sentences. • Adds substantive information to the prewriting ideas and drops extraneous information. • Provides the beginnings of the student's final paper.	• Has changed or eliminated repetitive or off-topic sentences. • Has revised the paper for coherence, placing sentences and ideas that go together next to one another. • Replaces marginal word choices with more vivid and interesting words. • Gives the reader a sense of the person behind the words.	Contains no errors in: • Punctuation. • Capitalization. • Grammar. • Spelling.
3	Includes three of the elements above.	Includes three of the elements above.	Includes three of the elements above.	Contains one or two errors in: • Punctuation. • Capitalization. • Grammar. • Spelling.
2	Includes two of the elements above.	Includes two of the elements above.	Includes two of the elements above.	Contains several errors in: • Punctuation. • Capitalization. • Grammar. • Spelling.
1	Includes one of the elements above.	Includes one of the elements above.	Includes one of the elements above.	Contains many errors in: • Punctuation. • Capitalization. • Grammar. • Spelling.
0	Includes none of the elements above.	Includes none of the elements above.	Includes none of the elements above.	Contains so many errors in the elements below that writing lacks coherence and communication is severely impaired: • Punctuation. • Capitalization. • Grammar. • Spelling.

Scoring criteria. The “Writing Process” CBE includes observation criteria for each step of the writing process. The criteria applies a four-point rating scale for determining student proficiency in prewriting, first draft, revision, editing, and final draft/publishing.

Four-Point Rating Scale for “Writing Process”

Points	Description
4	Proficient in concept/skill.
3	Developing concept/skill.
2	Emerging concept/skill.
1	No evidence of concept/skill.

Observation Criteria

Prewriting
- Applies a prewriting strategy.
- Generates ideas for writing.
- Elaborates ideas.
- Includes ideas that relate to one topic.
- Is productively engaged in prewriting.
- Conducts a self-evaluation.
- Uses resources for ideas/help, as needed.

First Draft
- Has one clear topic sentence.
- Is organized into sentences and paragraphs.
- Adds information to the ideas.
- Is productively engaged in drafting.
- Conducts a self-evaluation.
- Participates in a peer review.
- Participates as a peer reviewer.
- Uses resources for ideas/help, as needed.

Revision
- Removes wordiness and off-topic sentences.
- Tries to organize ideas.
- Tries to use vivid and interesting words.
- Is productively engaged in revising.
- Conducts a self-evaluation.
- Participates in own peer review.
- Participates as a peer reviewer.
- Uses resources for ideas/help, as needed.
- Produces revised drafts until satisfied with paper.

Editing
- Writing contains few or no errors in spelling.
- Writing contains few or no errors in punctuation.
- Writing contains few or no errors in capitalization.
- Writing contains few or no errors in grammar.
- Is productively engaged in editing.
- Conducts a self-evaluation.
- Participates in own peer review.
- Participates as a peer reviewer.
- Uses resources for ideas/help, as needed.
- Produces a clean final draft.

Final Draft/Publishing
- Produces a clean final draft.
- Shares writing with chosen audience.

How to Use CBEs

Like other instructional materials, CBEs are designed so teachers can (1) use these materials as they have been prepared, (2) use them with adaptations, or (3) use them to create other high-quality assessments.

Use CBEs as is. You can use the classroom-based evidence models taking into account the current performance levels of your students. Specific instructions are provided for teachers in each of the CBEs. It is important to note that CBEs were not designed for students to work through without teacher guidance and support. Furthermore, it is important to know for the grade level for which each of the CBEs were intended. Most CBEs specify the grade level for which they have been written.

Using CBEs with adaptations. You can tailor the classroom-based evidence models to your students' needs by supplementing them with your own assessment materials and strategies. Some student masters are designed specifically to go with the writing selection that accompanies the model; other student masters may be used with any writing selection you may want to use with your students.

Marilyn Friend and William Bursuck (1986) identified adaptations that may be used before, during, and after the assessment period. The table below identifies some of the possible adaptations that can be used to enhance the use of the CBEs.

Before Assessment	During Assessment	After Assessment
· Study guides. · Practice assessment. · Teaching assessment-taking skills. · Modified assessment construction. · Individual tutoring.	· Alternative forms of response. · Alternative means of response. · Alternative sites. · Direct assistance. · Extra time.	· Change letter or number grades. · Change grading criteria. · Use alternatives to number and letter grades. · Follow-up instruction.

Adaptations before the assessment. When using CBEs or administering any other classroom-based assessments to a group of children that includes students with disabilities, teachers should consider how easily a classroom assessment can be adapted for use with the students.

- ***Study guides***. Teachers can develop study guides for students to use as they complete an assessment from the CBE. Such study guides would define words, draw student attention to key concepts, and basically lead the student through the materials in a way that supports successful completion of the tasks.

- ***Practice assessments***. Teachers can prepare activities similar to those found in the student masters and help students become familiar with the assessment tasks prior to using the student masters with the rest of the class. Like a study guide, the practice assessment provides support for the student in terms of an additional practice opportunity.

- ***Teaching assessment-taking skills***. Teachers can provide students with direct instruction on specific assessment-taking strategies. Part of such instruction might include helping students understand the vocabulary used in assessments. A list of key words used in short-answer and extended-response items and their definitions follow.

Key Words in Short-Answer or Extended-Response Questions

Key Word	Definition
Compare	Show similarities.
Contrast	Show differences between things.

Define	Give the formal meaning of a term.
Describe	Tell in detail about something.
Diagram	Give a drawing and label it.
Discuss	Give details and, if relevant, the positive and negative points of a subject as well as evidence for these positions.
Evaluate	Give the positive and negative points of a subject as well as your judgment about which outweighs the other and why.
Illustrate	Explain by giving examples.
Interpret	Explain the meaning of something.
List	Give a series of points and number them 1, 2, 3 . . . .
Outline	Give the main points and important secondary points. Put main points at the margin and indent secondary points under the main points. Relationships may also be described with logical symbols, as follows: 1. _____ a. _____ a. _____ 1. _____
State	Give the main points.
Summarize	Give a condensed account of the main points.

Adapted from ***Reading and Study Skills*** (2nd ed.) by J. Langan, 1982, p. 193, New York: McGraw-Hill.

- ***Modified assessment construction***. Teachers can adapt the response mode for items. For example, to adapt a multiple-choice assessment item, the teacher could reduce the number of choices. The table below shows some additional options to the traditional assessment formats.

Options for Modifying Assessment Construction

Format	Alternative Response Forms
Multiple-choice	· Provide yes-or-no questions. · Reduce the number of choices. · Provide more information from which to make a choice. · Use matching items.
Short-answer	· Provide a listing of facts and information to use in the answer. · Allow the student to list information or choose from several prepared short answers. · Use the cloze technique in prepared paragraphs. · Scramble information to be arranged.
Essay	· Provide a partial outline for the student to complete. · Allow the student to tape record answers, note important points to be included in the response. · Use take-home assessments to allow for extra time.

Adaptations during the assessment. An important question for teachers to ask regarding classroom-based assessment for a student with a disability is whether the student can be appropriately and meaningfully assessed using the same conditions under which the CBE is completed by other students.

- ***Alternative presentation modes***. CBEs may be adapted in improved type, large-type, Braille, and audiocassette versions for those with visual disabilities. Teachers may want to consider providing a reader or a cassette tape of the assessment items. Tapes allow the student to hear instructions and items as well as read them. Also, tapes are convenient for assessment make-ups.

- ***Alternative means of response***. An amanuensis (a scribe), a sign language interpreter, and a tape recorder to register answers are adaptations that might be used by a student to complete a CBE.

- ***Alternative sites***. Teachers may need to consider alternative locations for students to complete a CBE. Moreover, some accommodations permit continued administration in group settings while others require individual administration.

- ***Direct assistance.*** Clarifying directions or the meaning of key vocabulary are examples of direct assistance teachers may provide for students completing CBEs.

- ***Alternative times***. Time limits can be enforced, extended, or waived altogether for students completing CBEs. Students also may be given extra rest pauses.

Adaptations after the assessment. When a teacher adapts a CBE for an individual student, caution should be exercised in interpreting results. Results of an adapted CBE are best interpreted by developing hypotheses as opposed to making decisions. The goal of any interpretation of an adapted CBE should be an expected result on the comparable CBE. Teachers need to know how the person taking an adapted form of a CBE would have performed if he or she could have taken the assessment under standardized conditions.

- ***Change letter or number grades***. Use language reflecting performance levels rather than letter grading (e.g., A, B, C, etc.).

- ***Change grading criteria***. Grade on improvement over present levels rather than in terms of grade-level criteria.

- ***Use alternatives to number and letter grades***. Use narrative reports to provide explicit feedback on areas of strength and weakness.

- ***Follow-up instruction***. Provide group-based or tutorial lessons on areas of skill deficiency.

Using CBEs to create high-quality assessments. Teachers can use the classroom-based evidence models to create their own high-quality assessments. This is advisable for several reasons. First, developing classroom assessments can increase teacher understanding of the EALRs and help them recognize the characteristics of quality work that define the standards in the various subject areas.

Second, standardized achievement tests offer teachers limited options for adapting assessment tasks. In contrast, teachers have much flexibility in designing and constructing responsive classroom assessments. For example, teachers may use alternative response forms when existing formats appear to be a barrier to student performance on classroom

assessments. Such modifications often allow students to demonstrate their achievements more effectively.

Teachers may also want to create their own assessments to evaluate broader outcomes for their students. Typical tests tend to overassess student "knowledge" and underassess student "know-how with knowledge." For example, a more traditional map reading assignment would have students compute the mileage between several cities using a mileage key. In contrast, activities found in CBEs would have students create their own maps, within a real context, to show how well they can apply what they have learned to an actual problem.

Developing classroom assessments can increase teacher understanding of the EALRs and help them recognize the characteristics of quality work that define the standards in the various subject areas.

Developing and evaluating tasks for performance-based assessments. Performance-based assessments, like standardized assessments and curriculum-based assessments, must be carefully designed and scored so that they can provide information that is helpful for instruction and that is viewed with credibility by parents, students, and administrators. Grant Wiggins (1992) outlined a number of considerations in designing, administering, and scoring performance-based assessments:

1. Assessment tasks should be, whenever possible, authentic and meaningful—worth learning.

1. The set of tasks should be a valid sample from which apt generalizations about overall performance of complex capacities can be made.

1. The scoring criteria should be authentic, with points awarded or taken off for essential successes and errors, not for what is easy to count or observe.

1. The performance standards that anchor the scoring should be genuine benchmarks, not arbitrary cut scores or provincial norms.

1. The context of the problems should be rich, realistic, and enticing—with inevitable constraints on access to time, resources, and advance knowledge of the tasks and standards appropriately minimized.

1. The tasks should be validated.

1. The scoring should be feasible and reliable.

1. Assessment results should be reported and used so that all customers for the data are satisfied.

Adapted tasks for CBEs. A list of adapted tasks for each student master has been developed to illustrate possible ways of adapting the CBE for "Writing Process." A "guiding question" summarizes the overall task included in the student master. The adapted task illustrates one possibility for collecting information to answer the guiding question.

Adapted Task Forms for "Writing Process"

Guiding Question	Adapted Task
SM 1 What are the parts of the writing process?	Have students describe other processes with which they are familiar (e.g., making a sandwich, making the bed, etc.).
SM 2 What is the purpose of writing?	Ask students to explain how writing and speaking are similar and how they are different.
SM 3 What do you do in each step of the writing process?	Cut the writing process diagram into pieces. Have students use each piece as a prompt to explain what they will do during each part of the process.
SM 4 What is prewriting?	Have students choose a wordless picture book and explain what the author's purpose might have been for writing the book.
SM 5 What is freewriting?	Have students freewrite. Younger students may be asked to draw a picture and write something about it. Older students may do a journal writing. Tell them to write for three minutes without lifting their pencil from the paper. Have students judge (1) how many different ideas were given, (2) how many words were written, and (3) which phrase or thought could be developed into something else.
SM 6 What is brainstorming?	Ask students to recall the sensory details for a picnic at the beach or a trip to the store. Brainstorm together and list on the chalkboard all the details students can remember. Then ask students to show how ideas can be organized.
SM 7 What is clustering or webbing?	Have students imagine they have discovered an animal that no one has ever seen before. The animal has features from several animals and has unusual eating habits and behavior. Have students cluster details around the categories of appearance, eating habits, and behavior.
SM 8 What is questioning?	Have students think of five questions they would ask a new next-door neighbor. Have students think of answers to the questions and dictate an account of the neighbor who came to live next door.
SM 10 Can you prewrite?	Ask students to explain the purposes of prewriting (e.g., choose a topic; consider function, form, and audience; generate and organize ideas for writing).
SM 11 Can you draft?	Have students dictate their drafts to an adult or some capable student.

SM 12 What is revision?	Ask students to describe the types of changes they can make in their writing (e.g., additions, substitutions, deletions, and moves).
SM 13 What is editing?	Have each student edit compositions with one color of pencil and sign his/her name. Have students exchange compositions and use a different color of pencil for peer editing.
SM 14 What is writer's block?	Ask students to identify reasons why they may have trouble writing.
SM 15 What is a final draft?	Have students compare the example of the final draft appearing on SM 14 with the first draft appearing on SM 11.
SM 16 What is publishing?	Have students brainstorm their own list of how to make their writing publicly known.
SM 17 What can you do when you bring your writing home?	Have students identify ways they can share their writing when they bring it home.
SM 18 Can you use a computer for writing?	Have students compare the amount of words they include in writing samples they prepared using a computer with writing samples they prepared without a computer. Ask students what they think accounts for the difference they may find.
SM 20 Can you prewrite?	Have students keep track of how many times they use each type of prewriting strategy and with what form of writing.
SM 21a Can you self-evaluate your prewriting?	Have students compare their prewriting with their final draft to determine areas of improvement.
SM 21b Can you conference with your teacher about your prewriting?	Have students generate a list of questions they asked during the conference.
SM 22 Can you complete a first draft?	Have students dictate their drafts.
SM 23 Can you review a draft written by a classmate?	Have students generate a list of questions they will want to ask their classmates about their draft.
SM 24 Can you revise your draft?	Choose a short poem that is familiar to student. Change two or three words in the poem with ones that are awkward. Show both versions of the poems and have students identify the substitutions. When they have identified the changes, have them explain how they decided which were the original words.
SM 25 Can you self-evaluate your revised draft?	Help students plan what they will do at the end of the peer revising conference.
SM 26 Can you review a revised draft written by a classmate?	Write a simple sentence on the chalkboard such as: The dog sat outside. Have students work in small groups to add at least five concrete details to the sentence. Have each group read its version to the rest of the class to demonstrate how many interpretations an abstract sentence can produce.

SM 27 Can you edit your revised draft?	Have students provide examples of errors in capitalization and punctuation along with their correct forms.
SM 28 Can you self-evaluate your edited revised draft?	Have students identify the kinds of proofreading errors they make most frequently and set goals for reducing that category of error.
SM 29 Can you complete a editing checklist?	Instead of having students focusing on all four editing error types, have students focus on only one or two types for a writing sample.
SM 30 Can you edit a classmate's writing?	Have students provide reasons why it is easier to proofread somebody else's paper than one's own.
SM 31 What do you do if you get writer's block?	Ask students to identify steps they will take if they find they have writer's block.
SM 32 Can you write a final draft?	Have students brainstorm hard copy formats that their final draft can take (e.g., shape book, loose leaf, cassette tape, etc.).
SM 33 Can you self-evaluate your final draft?	Ask students why they should self-evaluate their writing efforts.
SM 34 What have you learned about the writing process?	Ask students if they enjoyed the writing project.
SM 34 How do you evaluate your work and submit to your teacher?	Ask students why they should maintain a writing folder.
SM 35 How do you submit a writing folder?	Ask students to self-assess which part of the writing process was easiest for them and which was most difficult.
SM 36 How will your teacher evaluate your writing and help you be a better writer?	Help students prepare questions in advance that they may ask during a teacher conference.
SM 37 How will you bring home your writing?	Help students prepare questions that they might ask their family in response to the writing folder.
SM 38 What tools can you use for writing?	Show students references and research resources. Ask students which part of the writing process is appropriate for each resource.

Informal Criterion-Referenced Techniques

Teachers can analyze student writing samples by content/organization/style and mechanics using informal criterion-referenced techniques. A form is presented for collecting and analyzing data from writing samples, and use of the form is illustrated.

Informal Procedures for Assessing Writing

Writing Component	Procedure
Ideation refers to the content of a writing sample.	According to Polloway and Smith (1982), the content of a writing sample can be assessed by answering the following questions: 1. Is the writing sample relevant to the selected or assigned topic? 1. Does the sample represent original thinking? 1. Are ideas expressed clearly in a logical and appropriate sequence? 1. Does the student appear to have a basic interest in the topic and does he or she appear to be motivated to commit ideas to the written form?
Vocabulary refers to word choice and is part of the writer's style.	One method of determining vocabulary variety is the type-token ratio (TTR). Type-token ratio measures the variety of words used (types) in relation to overall number of words used (tokens).To determine the type-token ratio, divide the number of different words used by total words used. In the sentence "The cat is on the chair in the living room," there are eight word types (***the*** is used three times) and ten tokens. Thus, eight types/ten tokens = .8 (type token ratio). A low type-token ratio shows more vocabulary redundancy and perhaps a child's inadequate vocabulary.
Syntax is the construction of sentences or the way words are put together to form phrases, clauses, and sentences. Syntax is part of the writer's style.	The T-unit is a main clause and the subordinate clauses that accompany it. 1. Determine the number of main clauses and the subordinate clauses that accompany it. 1. Determine average length of T-unit by dividing the total number of words by the total number of T-units. 1. Analyze (a) the number of sentences used, (b) the number of T-units, (c) the number of words per T-unit.
Fluency refers to the quantity of writing a child produces and is part of the writer's style.	A common measure of fluency is average sentence length (ASL). To compute ASL, divide the total number of words used by the total number of sentences.
Sentence types refers to the four sentence forms and four sentence functions. Sentence types are part of writer's style.	Count and tally the four sentence forms (sentence fragments, simple sentences, compound sentences, and complex sentences) and the four sentence functions (declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory).
Structure refers to grammar and punctuation and is an aspect of conventions.	Stuckless and Marks (1966) developed a technique called the grammatical correctness ratio (GCR). To calculate a GCR, divide the number of grammatical errors by the total number of words in the writing sample then multiply by 100 to calculate a percentage. Perform a frequency count of specific grammatical errors such as punctuation, capitalization, subject-verb agreement, verb tense, inappropriate plurals, etc.
Spelling correctly is an aspect of conventions.	Compare the spelling accuracy of words in a writing sample with a list of high-frequency words.

Informal Assessment of Writing Form

Name:_____ Date: _____

Content/Organization/Style

Ideation Questions

1. Is the writing sample relevant to the selected or assigned topic? Yes No
1. Does the sample represent original thinking? Yes No
1. Are the student's personal experiences reflected in the sample? Yes No
1. Are ideas expressed clearly in a logical and appropriate sequence? Yes No
1. Does the student appear to have a basic interest in the topic and does he or she appear to be motivated to commit ideas to the written form? Yes No

Vocabulary

Type-Token Ratio (TTR)

Number of different words (types) ____

Number of total words (total) ____ Type/Total = ____

Fluency

Average Sentence Length (ASL)

Number of words ____ Number of sentences ____

Number of words/number of sentences ____

Conventions

Grammatical Correctness Ratio (GCR)

Total number of errors ____ Total number of words ____

Number of errors divided by number of words X 100 = ____ (GCR)

Structural Error Analysis

Types of Errors	Frequency
Punctuation	
Capitalization	
Subject-verb agreement	
Verb tense	
Inappropriate plurals	

Alternate Teaching Strategies for Writing

Teachers can adapt writing instruction in many ways to enhance student written expression. This resource guide presents alternate teaching procedures that have been research-validated and originally appeared in such research journals as the ***Elementary School Journal, Exceptional Children, Journal of Educational Psychology, Journal of Learning Disabilities, Journal of Special Education, and Learning Disabilities Quarterly.*** Teaching strategies have been described only for those components of the essential learnings for which a research study was located that specifically addressed the component.

Essential Academic Learning Requirement	Alternate Teaching Strategy
1.1 develop concept and design	• Planning Strategy (Graham, MacArthur, Schwartz, and Page-Voth, 1992).
1.2 use style appropriate to the audience and purpose	• Essay Composing Strategy (Graham and Harris, 1989).
1.3 apply writing conventions	• Error-Monitoring Strategy (Schumaker et al., 1982).
2.1 write for different audiences	• CSIW (Englert, Raphael, Anderson, Anthony, and Stevens, 1991).
2.2 write for different purposes	• CSIW (Englert, Raphael, Anderson, Anthony, and Stevens, 1991).
2.3 write in a variety of forms	• CSIW (Englert, Raphael, Anderson, Anthony, and Stevens, 1991). • Story Grammar Strategy (Graham and Harris, 1989).
2.4 write for career applications	
3.1 prewrite (generate ideas and gather information)	• Bank Street Writer (Kerchner and Kistinger, 1984). • Web Making (Zipprich, 1995).
3.2 draft (elaborate on a topic and supporting ideas)	
3.3 revise (collect input and enhance text and style)	• Sentence Combining Exercises (Nutter and Safran, 1983). • Peer Revising Strategy (MacArthur, Schwartz, and Graham, 1991). • CATS (Giordano, 1982).
3.4 edit (use resources to correct spelling, punctuation, grammar, and usage)	• Error Monitoring Strategy (Schumaker et al., 1982). • Add-A-Word (Pratt-Struthers, Struthers, and Williams, 1983). • Analogy Approach to Spelling (Englert, Hiebert, and Stewart, 1985).
3.5 publish (select a publishing form and produce a completed writing project to share with chosen audience)	
4.1 assess own strengths and needs for improvement	• Story Writing Self-Management (Ballard and Glynn, 1975). • Narrative Check-Off (Martin and Manno, 1995). · Self-Instructional Procedure for Writing (Blandford and Lloyd, 1987). · Attitude Toward Writing Scale (Graham, Schwartz, and MacArthur, 1993) · Writing Self-Efficacy Scale (Graham, Schwartz, and MacArthur, 1993)

4.2 seek and offer feedback	• Peer Revising Strategy (MacArthur, Schwartz, and Graham, 1991).

Planning Strategy
(Graham, MacArthur, Schwartz, and Page-Voth, 1992)

Essential Learning
1.1 Develop concept and design.

Background and Research Question
Four fifth grade students with learning disabilities were taught a strategy to facilitate setting product and process goals, generating and organizing notes, continued planning during writing, and evaluating goal attainment. Strategy instruction had a positive effect on the students' essay writing and knowledge of the writing process, and effects were maintained over time.

Translating Research Into Practice
Preteaching. Help students identify and define the components of both a good essay and a good story. Have the students practice identifying the elements in short essays and stories.

Preassessment. Obtain a baseline of writing performance by having students write an essay or story.

Review current performance level. Discuss with each student his or her performance on the initial writing assessment. Point out whether the student included the basic essay components (e.g., premise, reasons, conclusion) and the quality of each component. Discuss the goal of the training (to learn a strategy for planning and writing better papers) and why this is important. Have students write and sign a contract indicating they will learn the strategy.

Describe the composition strategy. Explain that PLANS is a prewriting strategy that involves setting product and process goals, generating possible content to use in the paper, and sequencing notes before writing by numbering them. Introduce the target strategy using a chart that includes the following information:

PLANS

1. Do **PLANS:**

   - **P**ick goals.
   - **Li**st ways to meet goals.
   - **A**nd, make,
   - **N**otes.
   - **S**equence notes.

2. Write and say more.

3. Check to see if goals are met.

Pick goals. For the first substep of the strategy, encourage students to set realistic goals by limiting them to a small set of alternatives. ***Product goals*** include (1) purpose (e.g., write a paper that will convince my friends, write a paper that will be fun to read, write a paper that will teach something), (2) structure (e.g., write an essay that has all the parts, write a story that has all the parts, etc.), and (3) fluency (e.g., write a paper that is 80 words or longer, write a paper that is 100 words or longer.) The fluency goals should be adjusted for each student according to his or her pretest performance.

List ways to meet goals. For the second substep of PLANS, direct students to develop one or more process goals for accomplishing each product goal they selected.

Write and say more. The second step of the strategy is a self-administered prompt to remind students to continue planning once writing had actually started.

Check to see if goals are met. The third step involves evaluating the paper to determine if the selected goals were accomplished. If a goal is not met, encourage students to reflect on how it can be accomplished in the future.

Model the use of the strategy by writing an essay by "thinking out loud." While modeling the strategy, show the students how to set up a planning sheet that will help them complete steps 1 and 3. Use statements or instruction (including problem definition, planning, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement). Discuss the importance of what we say to ourselves while we work. Have students list their own examples of things they can say to themselves to help them use the strategy. Have students keep these notes along with the strategy and goal charts in a writing folder.

Mastery of strategy steps. Have students rehearse the steps of the strategy until the steps are memorized. Permit students to paraphrase the steps as long as meaning remains intact.

Guided practice. Have students compose an essay as a whole-group activity as you direct and monitor the process. Display the strategy chart, the goal chart, and the student-generated self-instruction list as prompts. The students should write the essay using the strategy and self-instructional statements.

Independent practice. Have students compose two to three essays using the strategy and self-instructional statements. Provide positive and corrective feedback as needed. Encourage students to transition to covert self-instructions. Eventually fade the strategy, goal, and self-statement charts.

Source

Graham, S., MacArthur, C., Schwartz, S., and Page-Voth, V (1992) Improving the compositions of students with learning disabilities using a strategy involving product and process goal setting. ***Exceptional Children, 58***(4), 322–334.

Essay Writing Strategy
(Graham and Harris, 1989)

Essential Learning
1.2 Use style appropriate to audience and purpose.

Background and Research Question
The study with three sixth grade students with learning disabilities found that a self-instructional strategy to facilitate the generation, framing, and planning of persuasive essays had a positive effect on the students' writing performance and self-efficacy. Effects were maintained over time and transferred to a new setting and new writing genre.

Translating Research into Practice
Prior to training in the strategy, have students compose one or two essays to establish present levels of performance.

Preteaching. Develop any preskills necessary for students to understand, acquire, and exhibit the strategies that are not present in the student's repertoire (i.e., define what a persuasive essay is, what a topic sentence is, what supporting details or reasons are, etc.).

Review current performance level. Review each student's current level of performance and discuss the training goal. Discuss data obtained during baseline assessment and identify strategies that the student is currently using.

Describe the composition strategy. Describe the strategy using a small chart to list the steps. Explain the advantages of the strategy. Discuss the significance and potential benefits of learning the strategy.

TREE

1. Think who will read this, and why am I writing this?
2. Plan what to say using **TREE.**
   - Note **topic** sentence.
   - Note **reasons.**
   - **Examine** reasons.
   - Note **ending.**
3. Write and say more.

Model the use of the strategy by writing an essay by "thinking out loud." While modeling the strategy, show the students how to set up a planning sheet that will help them complete steps 1 and 3. Use statements or instruction (including problem definition, planning, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement). Discuss the importance of what we say to ourselves while we work. Have students list their own examples of things they can say to themselves to help them use the strategy. Have students keep these notes along with the strategy and goal charts in a writing folder.

Mastery of strategy steps. Have the students memorize and rehearse the strategy steps. Students can paraphrase the steps as long as the meaning remains intact.

Controlled practice of strategy. Have students compose an essay as a whole-group activity as you direct and monitor the process. Display the strategy chart, the goal chart, and the student-generated self-instruction list as prompts. The students should write the essay using the strategy and self-instructional statements.

Independent performance and data collection. Have students compose two to three essays using the strategy and self-instructional statements. Provide positive and corrective feedback as needed. Encourage students to transition to covert self-instructions. Eventually fade the strategy, goal, and self-statement charts.

Source

Graham, S. and Harris, K.R. (1989). Improving learning disabled students' skills at composing essays: Self-instructional strategy training. ***Exceptional Children, 56***(3), 201–214.

Error-Monitoring Strategy
(Schumaker, Deshler, Alley, Warner, Clark, and Nolan, 1982)

Essential Learnings
1.3 Apply writing conventions.
3.4 Edit (use resources to correct spelling, punctuation, grammar, and usage).

Background and Research Question
Investigators at the University of Kansas developed several strategies that students used successfully to improve their writing of reports, essays, tests, and assignments. The error-monitoring strategy was developed to teach students a process for detecting and correcting errors in their writing and for producing a neater written product. Mastery of the error-monitoring strategy reduced the number of errors that students made from one in every four words to one in every 33 words.

Translating Research into Practice
Students are taught to ask themselves a series of questions regarding capitalization, overall appearance, punctuation, and spelling. Students then correct their errors and rewrite the passage before submitting it to the teacher. Research conducted by the Kansas team indicates that 98 percent of all students who are low-achieving master learning strategies if the eight-stage instructional procedure described below is used.

1. Pretest students to determine their current proofreading habits. Inform the students of their performance strengths and weaknesses. Ask students to make a commitment to learning a new strategy to remedy the weaknesses.

2. Describe COPS to students, explaining advantages to using it and how students can benefit if they master the strategy. Have students write their own goals on how fast they will learn the new strategy.

COPS

C—Capitalization.
O—Overall appearance.
P—Punctuation.
S—Spelling.

3. Demonstrate the steps of the COPS strategy while thinking aloud. Encourage students to ask any questions they may have about how the strategy is used.

COPS

C—Have I capitalized the first word and proper nouns?
O—How is the overall appearance? (Look at spacing, legibility, indention of paragraphs, neatness, and complete sentences.)
P—Have I put in commas and end punctuation?
S—Have I spelled all the words correctly?

4. Have students practice stating the steps of COPS until they can name the steps in order at a mastery level.

5. Give students ample practice using COPS in less difficult assignments.

6. Have students practice COPS in grade-level assignments.

7. Administer a posttest to determine if performance has progressed to a point that allows students to cope with grade-level assignments.

8. Set aside time for generalization instruction to make sure that the student can use the strategy in a variety of settings.

Source

Schumaker, J.B., Deshler, D.D., Alley, G.R., Warner, M.M., Clark, F.L., and Nolan, S. (1982). Error monitoring: A learning strategy for improving adolescents' academic performance. In W.M. Cruickshank and J.W. Lerner (Eds.), ***Coming of age: Vol. 3. The Best of ACLD,*** 170–183. Syracuse, NY: Syracuse University Press.

Cognitive Strategy Instruction in Writing
(Englert, Raphael, Anderson, Anthony, and Stevens, 1991)

Essential Learnings
2.1 Write for different audiences.
2.2 Write for different purposes.
2.3 Write in a variety of forms.

Background and Research Question
One of the most promising research-validated programs for improving written expression is cognitive strategy instruction in writing (CSIW). Developed by Carol Sue Englert and her colleagues at Michigan State University, CSIW teaches students how to use cognitive strategies while introducing all the subprocesses of writing (planning, organizing, writing, editing, and revising) as they write expository texts.

Dr. Englert and her colleagues evaluated the effectiveness of CSIW in a study that included 183 fourth and fifth grade students from 12 schools (128 regular education students and 55 students with learning disabilities).

CSIW resulted in four important outcomes. First, students taught using CSIW achieved significantly greater knowledge of the writing process and strategies than students who did not receive CSIW instruction. Second, CSIW students increased their mastery of the structures underlying text and sensitivity to audience and purpose of writing. Third, CSIW students increased their ability to generate their own structures on self-selected writing. Fourth, students with learning disabilities instructed using CSIW improved at rates that allowed their performance to closely approximate that of normally achieving students.

CSIW includes three instructional approaches that have been shown to be effective by recent research: (1) process writing (daily writing on student-selected topics; group sharing; peer collaborating, editing, and revising sessions; and publication of student papers), (2) schema building (teacher-directed instruction on organizational structures such as narration, comparison/contrast, problem/solution, enumeration, description, and sequence), and (3) dialogic approach (teacher models writing strategies through the think-aloud technique to help children internalize metacognitive strategies such as self-talk for planning, drafting, editing, and revisions).

Translating Research Into Practice
1. **Introduce children to text structure and writing strategies through the use of examples of student writing.** In the initial phase of CSIW, students are introduced to a variety of written products and strategies for improving writing through teacher modeling. Teachers use the overhead projector to show well-written and poorly written text and to model and rehearse for the class text comprehension strategies and ways to expand on text. These demonstrations illustrate how different kinds of writing are designed to answer different types of questions.

2. **Introduce the planning think sheet.** When modeling is completed, students are given “think sheets,” which contain steps and questions to guide them in each stage of writing on the type of composition being produced. For example, the planning think sheet prompts students with the following questions: (1) Who am I writing for? (2) Why am I writing this? (3) What do I know about the topic? and (4) How can I group my ideas?

3. **Introduce the organization think sheet.**

4. **Have children write their first draft.**

5. **Introduce the edit think sheet.**

6. **Introduce the editor think sheet and have children revise their writing.**

7. **Introduce the revise think sheet and have the children revise their writing.** Feedback on drafts is provided through self-evaluation and peer editing, both of which are also structured by think sheets. Peer conferencing is used to discuss peer feedback and to brainstorm ideas to assist in revision.

CSIW PLANNING THINK SHEET

Name_____ Date_____

Topic_____

WHO am I writing for?

_____

_____

WHY am I writing this?

_____

_____

WHAT do I know about the topic?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____

HOW can I group my ideas?

____ Explanation ____ Comparison/Contrast ____ Problem/Solution ____ Other

CSIW ORGANIZATION THINK SHEET
FOR EXPLANATION

Name _____ Date _____

What is being explained?

_____

In what order do things happen?

First, _____

Then, _____

Then, _____

Then, _____

Finally,

_____

Clues: Who does it, things you need, how you do it.

CSIW EDIT THINK SHEET
FOR EXPLANATION

Name_____ Date_____

REREAD MY PAPER.

What do I like best? (Put a * by the parts I like best.)
What parts are not clear? (Put a ? by unclear parts.)

QUESTION MYSELF.

Did I:

• Tell what was being ***explained?***	YES	SORT OF	NO
• Tell what things you ***need?***	YES	SORT OF	NO
• Make the ***steps*** clear?	YES	SORT OF	NO
• Use ***keywords*** (first, second)?	YES	SORT OF	NO
• Make it ***interesting?***	YES	SORT OF	NO

PLAN BY LOOKING BACK.

What parts do I want to change?

1 _____

2 _____

Write two or more questions for my editor.
1 _____

2 _____

3 _____

TALK TO MY EDITOR.
Read your paper with your editor. Then the editor should read the paper and complete the EDIT(OR) THINK SHEET. Next, meet and talk about your answers.

CSIW EDIT(OR) THINK SHEET
FOR EXPLANATION

Name_____ Date_____

READ THE PAPER.
What's the paper about?

_____

_____
What do you like best? Put a * by the parts you like best.

What parts are not clear? Put a ? by unclear parts.

QUESTION MYSELF
Did the author:

• Tell what was being ***explained?***	YES	SORT OF	NO
• Tell what things you ***need?***	YES	SORT OF	NO
• Make the ***steps*** clear?	YES	SORT OF	NO
• Use ***keywords*** (first, second)?	YES	SORT OF	NO
• Make it ***interesting?***	YES	SORT OF	NO

PLAN.
What two parts would you change?

1._____
2. _____

One thing that would make it more interesting is:
_____
_____

TALK WITH THE AUTHOR.
1 Compare your comments on the Edit and Edit(or) pages.
2 Talk about how to fix up the paper. Help the author if he or she wants help.

CSIW THINK SHEET FOR REVISION

Name_____ Date_____

1. What suggestions did your editor give?

   a._____

   b._____

   c._____

   d._____

Put a check next to suggestions you will use.

2. How will you make your paper more interesting?

_____

_____

_____

3. Go back to your first draft and make your revisions.

Source

Englert, C.C., Raphael, T.E., Anderson, L.M., Anthony, H.M., and Stevens, D.D, (1991). Making strategies and self-talk visible: Writing instruction in regular and special education classrooms. ***American Educational Research Journal, 23,*** 337–372.

Bank Street Writer
(Kerchner and Kistinger, 1984)

Essential Learning
3.1 Prewrite (generate ideas and gather information).

Background and Research Question
Leanne Kerchner and Barbara Kistinger conducted a study combining the process approach to writing with the Bank Street Writer word processing program. One group of students were taught components of the writing process and how to operate Bank Street Writer. The second group was taught language arts emphasizing spelling with no instruction on Bank Street Writer. Students were assessed in October and May on the Test of Written Language (TOWL). After seven months of instruction, the group of students using Bank Street Writer outperformed control students on the TOWL in terms of thematic maturity, style, and overall written language quotient. Results suggested that improved written language skills on the computer transfer to pencil-and-paper tasks.

Translating Research Into Practice
The following components were used in combining the writing process with the Bank Street Writer word processing program:

Prewriting conference. Meet with student to discuss choice of topic. Allow students to choose their own topic.

Composing at the keyboard. Encourage students to get ideas on the screen and to not worry about spelling and other aspects that can be corrected later.

Printing a draft. Have students produce copy with wide margins and triple spacing using "print-draft" option of Bank Street Writer.

Editing conference. Meet individually with students or have them meet with peers to review draft for spelling, sentence structure, punctuation, clarity, or any predetermined criteria.

Editing at the keyboard. Have students select the "edit" option of Bank Street Writer to make changes in draft.

Printing final copy. Have students select "print-final" option of Bank Street Writer.

Illustrating the composition. Encourage students to produce a picture to accompany their text.

Provide an audience. Encourage students to share their favorite writing with classmates.

Source
Kerchner, L.B. and Kistinger, B.J. (1984). Language processing/word processing: Written expression, computers and learning disabled students. ***Learning Disability Quarterly, 7***(4), 329–335.

Web Making
(Zipprich, 1995)

Essential Learning
3.1.1 Generate own ideas (brainstorm); organize and plan writing (outlines, webbing, story mapping, listing, jotting, free writing, etc.).

Background and Research Question
Mary Ann Zipprich conducted a four-month study to determine whether narrative story writing ability of students with learning disabilities could be improved by teaching the students to use web making. Dr. Zipprich worked with 13 intermediate-level elementary students with disabilities. Students were taught to use story webs to know what to include when writing their own stories. Results indicated that the story web technique had a positive effect on planning time and overall rating of writing quality. However, teaching students web making did not improve sentence structure and mechanics of writing.

Translating Research Into Practice
The web making strategy is implemented through a model-lead-test format:

Model Phase
1. Show the students a picture and have them study it.
2. Present an overhead transparency of a web that has the story grammar elements on it. Explain that the web helps remind students of the critical parts of a story.
3. Have students generate ideas for characters, conflicts, and solutions. Write the ideas on the overhead transparency.
4. When the web is complete, have each student write a story.

Lead Phase
1. Show students a picture.
2. Give each student a copy of the web.
3. Have students think of ideas for a story and complete the web on their own.
4. Have students share their ideas with whole class.
5. Have students write their best story using their own ideas or ideas shared by the group.

Test Phase
1. Show students a picture.
2. Give students a copy of the web.
3. Have students think of ideas for a story and complete the web on their own.
4. Have students write their own story.

Source
Zipprich, M. A. (1995). Teaching web making as a guided planning tool to improve student narrative writing. ***Remedial and Special Education, 16***(1), 3–15.

Story Grammar Strategy
(Graham and Harris, 1989)

Essential Learning
2.3 Write in a variety of forms.

Background and Research Question
Steve Graham and Karen Harris conducted a study to examine the effectiveness of cognitive strategy for improving narrative composition performance. The study included 22 learning disabled students and 11 normally achieving students in the fifth and sixth grades. The students with learning disabilities were assigned to one of two groups: (1) self-instructional strategy training or (2) self-instructional strategy training plus self-regulation training. The normally achieving students served as a normative comparison group. The composition performance of students with learning disabilities was indistinguishable from normally achieving students after self-instructional strategy training.

Translating Research Into Practice
Describe how each of the three steps of the strategy will be used in planning and writing.

1. **Introduce the learning strategy.** Help students define, identify, and generate story grammar elements by preparing the following a chart.

Seven Questions for Story Writing
Who is the main character; who else is in the story?
When does the story take place?
Where does the story take place?
What does the main character want to do?
What happens when he or she tries to do it?
How does the story end?
How does the main character feel?

Discuss the meaning of each component of the chart. Have students practice stating the components until they can recite the mnemonic and its meaning from memory. Have students identify story grammar elements in stories that they are reading and when looking at a picture.

2. **Explain the goal of the learning strategy.** Tell students that learning the strategy will help them write better stories.

Describe the learning strategy.

A Five-Step Writing Strategy
1. Look at the picture.
2. Let your mind be free.
3. Write down the story part reminder: **(W-W-W, What = 2, How = 2)**
3. Write down story part ideas for each part.
4. Write your story; use good parts and make sense.

Model and discuss with students three creativity self-statements helpful in thinking of good story parts:

- "Take my time, good parts will come to me."
- "Let my mind be free, think of new, fun ideas."
- "What ideas do I see in this picture?"

Have students generate two or three of their own preferred self-statements, record them on paper, and practice these self-statements to generate story parts.

3. **Model the strategy and self-instructions.** Display the mnemonic and five-step strategy charts, the list of creativity self-statements, and a stimulus picture.

- Problem definition: "What is it I have to do?"
- Planning: "Now, I'd better write down my story parts- reminder
- Self-evaluation: "Am I using all my parts so far?"
- Self-reinforcement: "Good, I like these parts."

Discuss the importance of what we say to ourselves while we work. Have students generate and record their own examples of the four types of self-instruction.

4. **Have students memorize the five steps of the learning strategy.** Paraphrasing of statements is allowed as long as meaning is kept constant.

5. **Provide guided practice on use of the strategy.** Plan a story with students following the first four steps of the five-step strategy.

After stories are written, have each student in each group count the number of story elements included in the story. Compare counts and graph the results on a chart.

6. **Provide independent practice of the strategy.** Have students draft two stories using the five-step strategy and self-instructional statements. Provide positive and corrective feedback as needed. Review each story and discuss how missing elements (if any) could be included. Allow students to use the charts and self-instruction list only for the first story.

Emphasize the student's role as an active collaborator. Throughout the instructional sessions, encourage students to share what they are learning at school and home.

Source

Graham, S. and Harris, K.R. (1989). Components analysis of cognitive strategy instruction: Effects on learning disabled students' compositions and self-efficacy. ***Journal of Educational Psychology, 81***(3), 353–361.

Sentence Combining Exercises
(Nutter and Safran, 1983)

Essential Learning
3.3 Revise (collect input and enhance text and style).

Background and Research Question
This study investigated the use of sentence combining exercises (SCE) to improve the writing of students with learning disabilities. Adult tutors implemented SCE training for 13 students with learning disabilities in Grades 1–6 over a 10-week period, with a control group of tutors working with 11 students with learning disabilities.

Pre- and postwriting samples were analyzed for mean number of words, mean number of words per T-unit, percentage of well-formed T-units, and mean number of adjectives per T-unit. The experimental group made significant gains on mean number of words ($p<.05$) and mean number of words per T-unit ($p<.001$). The control group made no significant gains on the writing measures.

Translating Research Into Practice
1. Introduce students to sentence combining using index cards. For younger students, print or have students print on index cards words from sentences the students have composed. Each word should be written on separate cards.

2. Have students, either individually or in small groups, move the cards to make their combinations. If students need a new word like “and” or “which,” they use a blank card and felt-tip marker to write the word. Older pupils quickly catch the idea and move on to doing their SCEs with paper and pencil.

3. Explain that two related sentences can be combined in a variety of ways. For example, sentences can be rewritten by combining subjects, predicates, or the preposition “that.”

Sentences can be rewritten by combining subjects:

Original Sentences

Joe	is	tall

Bill	is	tall

Combined Sentence

Joe	and	Bill	are	tall

Sentences can be rewritten by combining predicates.

Original Sentences

The	children	went	out	to	recess

The	children	played

Combined Sentence

The	children	went	out	to	recess	and	played

Sentences can be combined with "that."

Original Sentences

I	have	a	cat

It	likes	to	chase	mice

Combined Sentence

I	have	a	cat	that	likes	to	chase	mice

4. Have students "decombine" sentences they have written into simple sentences. After pupils practice combining the sentences and discussing alternate versions, they read the original version.

Original Sentence

The	cold	and	hungry	campers	huddled	around	the	fire

"Decombined" Sentences

The	campers	huddled	around	the	fire

They	were	cold	and	hungry

Sources

Nutter, N. and Safran, S.P. (1983). ***Sentence combining and the learning disabled student***. Unpublished paper (ERIC Document Reproduction Service NoED 252994).

Nutter, N. and Safran, J. (1984). Improving writing with sentence-combining exercises. ***Academic Therapy, 19***(4), 449–455.

Add-A-Word Spelling
(Pratt-Struthers, Struthers, and Williams, 1983)

Essential Learnings
1.3.4 Spell age-level words correctly in the final draft.
3.4.4 Correct common errors in spelling, punctuation, and capitalization.

Background and Research Question
Janice Pratt-Struthers, Thomas Bruce Struthers, and Randy Lee Williams conducted a study to determine whether the spelling performance of nine students with learning disabilities could be improved using Add-A-Word Spelling. The program is designed as an alternative to generic, whole-class spelling lists. In Add-A-Word Spelling, spelling lists are generated from an analysis of the words the students use frequently but consistently misspell in their compositions. As a result of the program, the mean percent of target words went from zero during baseline to over 90 percent at the end of the study.

Translating Research Into Practice

1. Collect baseline data on individual student writing for 15 to 30 days to determine words that they consistently misspell.

2. Give each student an individualized list of ten words drawn from the baseline period.

3. Each day, have students:

   - Copy each word from the list.
   - Cover the word by folding his/her paper.
   - Write the word for a second time.
   - Compare the second spelling of the word against the spelling on the teacher-made list.

4. If the student spells the word correctly, have the student go on to the next word on the list and repeat the process. If the student misspells the word, have the student repeat the process until the word is spelled correctly.

5. When the student has finished the list of ten words, give a spelling test containing all the words.

6. If a word is spelled correctly for two consecutive days, remove it from the list and replace it with a new word that the student has had difficulty spelling in compositions.

7. Retest each word five days after it has been removed from the list and once per month after that. If the word is misspelled, put it back on the list.

Source
Pratt-Struthers, J., Struthers, B., and Williams, R.L. (1983). The effects of the add-a-word strategy on spelling accuracy during creative writing. ***Education and Treatment of Children, 6,*** 277–283.

Peer Revising Strategy
(MacArthur, Schwartz, and Graham, 1991)

Essential Learnings
3.3 Revise (collect input and enhance text and style).
4.2 Seek and offer feedback.

Background and Research Question
Charles A. MacArthur, Shirley S. Schwartz, and Steven Graham investigated the effectiveness of a peer-revising strategy for students with learning disabilities in Grades 4, 5, and 6. Twenty-nine students with learning disabilities were taught using a process approach to writing, with 13 students being taught a reciprocal peer-revision strategy. Students taught the revising strategy made more revisions and produced papers of higher quality than control students.

Translating Research Into Practice
1. Provide a general introduction to the purpose of the strategy. Discuss the importance of revision and the value of peer revising.

2. Describe the steps in the strategy and the reason for each step. Stress the importance of positive feedback.

> **LISTEN** to each other's papers and read along.
>
> **TELL** what your partner's paper is about and what you liked best.
>
> **REREAD** your partner's paper and make NOTES:
>
> - Is everything CLEAR?
> - Can any details be added?
>
> **DISCUSS** your suggestions with your partner.
>
> **REVISE** your own paper and correct errors.
>
> Exchange papers and check for errors in sentences, capitalization, punctuation, and spelling.

3. Have students model the use of the strategy and discuss the modeling.

4. Have students copy the steps of the strategy and memorize the steps.

5. Explain and model each step in the strategy and have students practice the steps.

6. Have students practice the entire strategy in pairs using their own writing. Provide guidance until students can execute the strategy without teacher assistance.

7. Explain that the student can use the strategy without a peer and model the use of the strategy alone.

Source

MacArthur, C.A., Schwartz, S.S., and Graham, S. (1991). The effects of a reciprocal peer revision strategy in special education classrooms. ***Learning Disabilities Research and Practice, 6,*** 201–210.

CATS
(Giordano, 1982)

Essential Learning
3.3 Revise (collect input and enhance text and style.)

Background and Research Question
Gerard Giordano developed a strategy to improve basic skills in penmanship, spelling, and grammar. The strategy simultaneously develops rapport between disabled writers and their instructors.

Translating Research Into Practice
Copy. The student says a sentence, the teacher writes it, and the student copies it on paper.

- Student says: I like to fish with my dad.
- Teacher writes: I like to fish with my dad.
- Student writes: I like to fish with my dad.

Alter. The teacher circles a content word in the sentence, and the student substitutes another word for it.

- Teacher writes: I like to fish with my dad.
- Student writes: I like to fish with my brother.

Transform. The student changes the sentence into a question, present tense into past, or singular forms into plural.

- Student writes: Do I like to fish with my brother?

Supply. The teacher asks a question that the student can answer by writing an original sentence using familiar words and phrases.

- Teacher says: Do you like to fish with your brother?
- Student writes: Yes, I like to fish with my brother.

Source
Giordano, G. (1982). CATS exercises: Teaching disabled writers to communicate. ***Academic Therapy, 18,*** 233–237.

Analogy Approach to Spelling
(Englert, Hiebert, and Stewart, 1985)

Essential Learnings
1.3.4 Spell age-level words correctly.
3.4.4 Corrects errors in spelling.

Background and Research Question
Carol Sue Englert, Elfrieda Hiebert, and Susan Stewart conducted an experiment to determine whether students with mild disabilities could be taught to use spelling patterns of words they could already spell to unknown words. Englert and her colleagues assigned 11 students to an experimental group instructed in a strategy for spelling unknown words by using spelling patterns from known words. The 11 students assigned to the control were taught to spell high-frequency sight words using a model-lead-test format. Results indicated that students with mild disabilities can be taught the strategy and they spell significantly more words correctly than students who are not taught the strategy.

Translating Research Into Practice
1. **Teach students the rule that "when words rhyme, the last parts are often spelled the same."** Require students to memorize the rule. Have students demonstrate an understanding of the rule by (1) identifying which words from a set of printed words rhyme with a word that the teacher reads aloud to the student and (2) stating which letters of a printed and dictated word were spelled the same based upon the rhyming rule.

2. **Give students a pretest to determine words that they can already spell correctly.** These correctly spelled words become part of the each student's individual list of spelling bank words. Students are presented with a set of unknown words containing spelling patterns found in the words from the students' spelling bank words.

3. **Have students practice daily two or three words from each student's spelling bank words using the following word study technique:**

- Spell the word aloud while looking at its printed equivalent.
- Spell the word from memory.
- Write the word from memory twice.
- If student misspells word, the printed word is introduced again and the procedure is repeated.

Show students practice words that contain the same spelling patterns found in each students' spelling bank words and perform these three tasks:

- Find the printed spelling bank word that rhymes auditorily with each orally presented word.

- Identify the portion in both words that rhymed and was spelled the same.

- Spell the new word using the rhyming elements of the spelling bank word.

5. **Have students read lists of words and complete fill-in-the-blank (cloze sentences) that contain deleted words.** If students are unable to write the word correctly, prompt them to "Think of the spelling bank word that rhymes with __." If student still cannot spell the word correctly, give the student her or his spelling bank word lists and tell the student to search for the word that rhymes with the target word.

Source

Englert, C.S., Hiebert, E.H., and Stewart, S.R. (1985). Spelling unfamiliar words by an analogy strategy. ***Journal of Special Education, 19***(3), 291–306.

Self-Questioning Strategy for Teaching Spelling
(Wong, 1986)

Essential Learnings
1.3.4 Spell age-level words correctly in the final draft.
3.4.4 Correct common errors in spelling, punctuation, and capitalization.

Background and Research Question
Dr. Bernice Y.L. Wong conducted an exploratory study to see if she could improve spelling performance by teaching structural analysis of words plus a self-questioning strategy. She conducted the study with eight students who had been identified as poor spellers by their teachers.

On a pretest, the students had a mean accuracy of 27. A week after treatment, the accuracy had improved to 78 percent. Two weeks after treatment, the mean accuracy was 79 percent. The results reported by Dr. Wong suggest that effective spelling instruction involves two key components: (1) conveying knowledge of phonics and the linguistic structure of words (domain specific knowledge) and (2) knowledge of spelling strategies (e.g., self-monitoring strategies).

Translating Research Into Practice
1. Demonstrate how to use the spelling grid to break words into syllables. Explain the structure of words by showing how the root/base word, plus affix, changes spelling.

Spelling Grid

Word	No. of Syllables	Syllables in Word	Base Word	Addition	Suffix	Change in Spelling

2. Demonstrate how to use the prompt card.

Prompt Card

1. Do I know this word?
2. How many syllables do I hear in this word? (Write down the number.)
3. Write the word the way I think it is spelled. I'll spell out the word.
4. Do I have the right number of syllables?
5. I underline any part of the word that I am not sure how to spell. I try to write the word.
6. I check to see if it is right. If it is not right, I underline the part of the word that is not correct and write it again.
7. When I have finished writing the word, I tell myself that I'm a good writer. I have worked hard at spelling.

3. Follow the five-day cycle: Day 1—Pretest. Day 2—Teach students five to six words. Write words on board, pronounce them, and explain their meaning. Day 3—Teach the remaining words. Day 4—Review words by looking at the grid and individual prompt card. Day 5—Posttest. Students may use prompt card.

Source

Wong, B.Y.L. (1986). A cognitive approach to teaching spelling. ***Exceptional Children, 53***(2), 169–173.

Self-Instructional Procedure for Writing
(Blandford and Lloyd, 1987)

Essential Learnings

1.3.6 Use correct cursive letter formation and legible handwriting. s
3.4 Edit (use resources to correct spelling, punctuation, grammar, and usage).
4.1.1 Use established criteria to reflect on and improve writing.

Background and Research Question

The study evaluated the use of a card displaying seven self-instructional questions designed to prompt students to think about their handwriting. Use of the card with two male students with learning disabilities resulted in improved handwriting which persisted over time even after the card was no longer available.

Translating Research Into Practice

1. Schedule a journal writing period for at least five minutes each day. After the first five minutes of journal writing, put a slash after the last word written by students. Students can continue to write, but only the writing completed within the five minutes is used for evaluation purposes.

2. Determine each student's score for a five-minute writing sample. Analyze each letter written and award one point for each of the following criteria:

- The letter must be no more than 1/16 inch above or below the line.
- The letter must be correctly formed.
- Capital letters with ascenders must be the correct height.
- Lower-case letters must be 1/2 space tall.
- Words are separated by at least 1/8 inch but no more than 1/4 inch.

To obtain a percentage of correctly written letters and properly spaced words, divide the number of points awarded by the total number of points possible.

3. Teach students to use the following card to improve their handwriting. Read the task card and model examples of doing each part correctly. Model how to check or mark an X. Tell the students to read the task card each day before they write in their journals, use the card as a reminder while writing, and fill in the grid.

Handwriting Task Card

	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thurs.	Fri.
1. Am I sitting correctly?					
· Is my paper positioned correctly?					
· Am I holding my pencil correctly?					
2. Are all my letters sitting on the line?					
· Are all my tall letters touching or nearly touching the top line?					
· Are my short letters filling only one-half of the space?					
3. Am I leaving enough, but not too much space between words?					

If you forget how to form a letter, use the letter chart. Be neat.

Source

Blandford, B.J. and Lloyd, J.W. (1987). Effects of a self-instructional procedure of handwriting. ***Journal of Learning Disabilities, 20,*** 342–346.

Story Writing Self-Management
(Ballard and Glynn, 1975)

Essential Learning
4.1 Assess own strengths and needs for improvement.

Background and Research Question
Keith D. Ballard and Ted Glynn of the University of Auckland in New Zealand investigated the effectiveness of self-management to improve the writing performance of third grade students. Students were taught how to self-assess and record the number of sentences they wrote, the number of different action words, the number of different describing words. Self-assessment and self-recording had no effect on improving length of student expression, different describing words, and different action words. With the addition of reinforcement contingencies for number of sentences, writing output more than doubled. Substantial increases in different describing words and action words were achieved when reinforcement contingencies were applied. On-task behavior and subjective ratings of quality also increased.

Translating Research Into Practice
1. Prepare and display the three charts below. Explain to students that checking their own writing against criteria presented in the "Good Writing Chart" can help them improve their writing.

2. Begin each lesson with a discussion of example sentences, describing words, and action words.

IDEAS CHART

farm ship horse rain leaf spider flower boy dimes school
dog man bus fence pencil book

WRITING TIME CHART

A quiet time for you to do some writing.

Choose something to write about.

- A news event.
- Something you have done or plan to do.
- Happenings at school.
- A story.

Work by yourself.

Write about things that interest you.

GOOD WRITING CHART

1. Write in sentences.

- A sentence tells you something.
- It is a group of words that make sense.
- It begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop.

2. Use describing words.

- There are two kinds of describing words.

Words that describe things:

The plant grew a ***green*** leaf.
What a ***small*** spider!
The cat was ***fat***.
Look at ***beautiful*** flower.
He is a ***strong*** boy.
I found two shiny dimes.

Words that describe how you do something:

She read ***quietly***.
The dog ran ***quickly***.
He was talking ***loudly***.
He went ***slowly*** to his desk.
The man laughed ***happily***.

3. Use action words.

- Action words tell what you do.
- They are doing words.

He ***ran*** for the bus.
I am ***jumping*** the fence.
She is ***looking*** for a pencil.
He ***read*** a book.

3. Teach students to observe, record, and reinforce their own writing performance. Provide students with a counting sheet to complete and hand in clipped to their stories.

Counting Sheet

Name _____ Date _____

Number of Sentences Written _____

Number of Describing Words Used in Your Writing _____

Source

Ballard, K.D. and Glynn, T. (1975). Behavioral self-management in story writing with elementary school children. ***Journal of Applied Behavioral Analysis, 8,*** 387–398.

Narrative Check-Off
(Martin and Manno, 1995)

Essential Learning
4.1 Assess own strengths and needsfor improvement.

Background and Research Question
Kerri Martin, a researcher from the University of Virginia, and Carla Manno, a middle school teacher, investigated a self-management procedure to improve narrative writing performance. Three middle school boys with learning and behavior problems used the procedure to improve the completeness and quality of their story compositions. Results indicated that stories were more complete when students used a simple check-off system to plan and monitor their work.

Translating Research Into Practice
1. Collect pictures from magazines that you think will be interesting to your students.

2. Tell students to choose a picture and write a story about it.

3. Tell students that you are going to help them to plan and monitor their story writing using a form with three columns. The first column lists six elements of a story. The second column provides space for students to write briefly while planning their stories. The third column provides space for the students to check off elements as they include them in their written story.

4. Give each student two pictures, some paper, and a story planner form.

5. Define the story elements on the form for the students.

6. Provide examples for each story element.

7. Model the use of the story planner form with pictures.

8. Show students how to write briefly on the story planner form in the “Write As I Plan” column and to check off each element in the “Check As I Write” column while working on their stories.

9. Make sure students are using the form completely.

Story Planner

	Write As I Plan:	Check As I Write:
Main Character		
Other Characters		
Setting		
Problem		
Plan (Action)		
Ending		

Source

Martin, K.F. and Manno, C. (1995). Use of a check-off system to improve middle school students' story compositions. ***Journal of Learning Disabilities, 28***(3), 139–149.

Attitude Toward Writing Scale
(Graham, Schwartz, and MacArthur, 1993)

Essential Learning
4.1 Assess own strengths and needs for improvement.

Background and Research Question
Steve Graham, Shirley S. Schwartz, and Charles A. MacArthur conducted a study to determine if students with learning disabilities and their normally achieving peers differed in their attitudes toward writing. The researchers interviewed 29 students with learning disabilities, as well as 29 normally achieving students.

Attitude toward writing was measured by asking students to indicate their agreement with statements about preference for writing, amount of writing done after school, the value of writing, and so on. While students with learning disabilities were generally positive about writing, they viewed it less favorably than their regular education classmates.

Translating Research Into Practice
A copy of the instrument used to assess student attitudes toward writing appears on the next page. Items 2, 4, and 6 are worded in a negative direction; to make the scoring system similar on all items, change scores of 2 to 5, 2 to 4, and 4 to 2, and 5 to 1.

Attitude Toward Writing Scale

1. I like to write.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree

2. I would rather read than write.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree

3. I do writing of my own outside of school.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree

4. I avoid writing whenever I can.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree

5. I would rather write than do math problems.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree

6. Writing is a waste of time.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree

Source

Graham, S., Schwartz, S., and MacArthur, C. (1993). Knowledge of writing and the composing process, attitude toward writing, and self-efficacy for students with and without learning disabilities. ***Journal of Learning Disabilities, 26,*** 237–249.

Writing Self-Efficacy Scale
(Graham, Schwartz, and MacArthur, 1993)

Essential Learning
4.1 Assess own strengths and needs for improvement.

Background and Research Question
Steve Graham, Shirley S. Schwartz, and Charles A. MacArthur conducted a study to determine if students with learning disabilities and their normally achieving peers differed in their sense of efficacy as writers. The researchers interviewed 29 students with learning disabilities, as well 29 normally achieving students.

Students were asked, to their ability, to produce one of the best papers in their class in response to a series of common school assignments. They were also asked to judge their ability to use common writing processes, such as generating ideas or making revisions while writing a paper. The researchers found no differences between the groups of students in their evaluations of their competence in either writing or carrying out the writing process.

Translating Research Into Practice
A copy of the instrument used to assess student attitudes toward writing appears on the next page. Items 3, 7, and 9 measure efficacy in doing common writing assignments; all the rest of the items measure efficacy for carrying out specific writing processes. Items 2, 8, and 10 are worded in a negative direction. To make the scoring system similar on all items, change scores of 2 to 5, 2 to 4, and 4 to 2, and 5 to 1.

Source
Graham, S., Schwartz, S., and MacArthur, C. (1993). Knowledge of writing and the composing process, attitude toward writing, and self-efficacy for students with and without learning disabilities. ***Journal of Learning Disabilities, 26,*** 237–249.

Writing Self-Efficacy Scale

1. When writing a paper, it is easy for me to get ideas.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree

2. When writing a paper, it is hard for me to organize my ideas.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree

3. When my class is asked to write a report, mine is one of the best.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree

4. When writing a paper, it is easy for me to get started.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree

5. When writing a paper, I fine it easy to make all of the changes I need to make.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree

6. When writing a paper, it is easy for me to write my ideas into good sentences.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree

7. When my class is asked to write a story, mine is one of the best.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree

8. When writing a paper, it is hard for me to keep the paper going.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree

9. When my class is asked to write a book report, mine is one of the best.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree

10. When writing a paper, it is hard for me to correct my mistakes.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree

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Guidelines for Adapting Materials for Students With Disabilities
(Archer, 1977)

Rating Scale:
1 = Inadequate 2 = Adequate 3 = Excellent M = Easily Modified

Effectiveness of Materials: 1 2 3 M

Yes No Is information that indicates successful fieldtesting or class testing of the material provided?
Yes No Has the material been successfully fieldtested with students similar to the target population?
Yes No Are testimonials and publisher claims clearly differentiated from research findings?

Prerequisite Skills: 1 2 3 M

Yes No Are the prerequisite student skills and abilities needed to work with ease in the material specified?
Yes No Are the prerequisite student skills and abilities compatible with the objectives of the material?
Yes No Are the prerequisite student skills and abilities compatible with the target population?

Content: 1 2 3 M

Yes No Does the selection of subject matter, facts, and skills adequately represent the content area?
Yes No Is the content consistent with the stated objectives?
Yes No Is the information presented in the material accurate?
Yes No Is the information presented in the material current?
Yes No Are various points of view, including treatment of cultural diversity, individuals with disabilities, ideologies, social values, gender roles, and socioeconomic status, represented objectively?
Yes No Are the content and the topic of the material relevant to the needs of students with disabilities?

Sequence of Instruction: 1 2 3 M

Yes No Are the scope and sequence of the material clearly specified?
Yes No Are facts, concepts, and skills ordered logically?
Yes No Does the sequence of instruction proceed from simple to complex?
Yes No Does the sequence proceed in small, easily attainable steps?

Standards: 1 2 3 M

Yes No Does the selection of subject matter, facts, and skills adequately represent the content area?
Yes No Is the content consistent with the stated objectives?
Yes No Is the information presented in the material accurate?

Initial Assessment and Placement: 1 2 3 M

Yes No Does the material provide a method to determine initial student placement in the curriculum?
Yes No Does the initial assessment for placement contain enough items to place the learner accurately?

Ongoing Assessment and Placement: 1 2 3 M

Yes No Does the material provide evaluation procedures for measuring progress and mastery of standards?
Yes No Are there enough evaluative items to measure learner progress accurately?
Yes No Are procedures and/or materials for ongoing record keeping provided?

Teaching Procedures: 1 2 3 M

Yes No Are instructional procedures for each lesson either clearly specified or self-evident?
Yes No Does the instruction provide for active student involvement and responses?
Yes No Are a variety of cueing and prompting techniques used to gain correct student responses?
Yes No When using verbal instruction, does the instruction proceed clearly and logically?
Yes No Does the material use teacher modeling and demonstration when appropriate to the skills being taught?
Yes No Does the material specify correction and feedback procedures for use during instruction?

Practice and Review: 1 2 3 M

Yes No Does the material contain appropriate practice activities that contribute to mastery of the skills and concepts?
Yes No Do practice activities relate directly to the desired outcome standard?
Yes No Does the material provide enough practice for students with learning problems?
Yes No Are skills systematically and cumulatively reviewed throughout the curriculum?

Archer, A. (1977). ***Instructional materials for the mildly handicapped: Selection, utilization, and modification***. Eugene, OR: Northwest Learning Resources System, University of Oregon. Permission to reproduce granted by author.

Bloom's (1966) Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Cognitive Domain

Level of Objective	Task	Examples
Knowledge — Remembering information in about the same form as it was presented; recognizing and recalling vocabulary and details on a literal level Previously memorized facts, names, figures, places, ideas, and phenomena must be stated.	Define, describe, identify, label, list, match, name, outline, recall, reproduce, select, and state.	Knows common terms. Knows specific facts. Knows methods and procedures. Knows basic concepts. Knows principles. Defines "main idea."
Comprehension — Being able to put answers in one's own words; translating information from one form to another to interpret and estimate future trends The student is required to explain a directly stated main idea, to compare and contrast, or tell the sequence of events in a story.	Convert, defend, distinguish, estimate, explain, extend, generalize, give examples, infer, paraphrase, predict, rewrite, and summarize.	Understands facts and principles. Interprets verbal material. Interprets charts and graphs. Translates verbal material to mathematical formulas. Estimates future consequences implied in data. Justifies methods and procedures. Identifies the main idea of stories.
Application — Using learned material in new and concrete situations; using rules and generalizing Information learned previously must be used to arrive at a correct answer or action in a new situation.	Change, compute, demonstrate, discover, manipulate, modify, operate, predict, prepare, produce, relate, show, solve, and use.	Applies concepts and principles to new situations. Applies laws and theories to practice situations. Solves mathematical problems. Constructs charts and graphs. Demonstrates correct usage of a method or a procedure. Identify the main idea of a newspaper article.
Analysis — Breaking information into parts to understand its structure One might be asked to identify someone's motive for an action, to draw a conclusion, or to provide evidence for a prediction about what will happen next in a story.	Break down, diagram, differentiates, discriminate, distinguish, identify, illustrate, infer, outline, point out, relate, select, separate, and subdivide.	Recognizes unstated assumptions. Recognizes logical fallacies in reasoning. Distinguishes between facts and inferences. Evaluates the relevancy of data. Analyzes the organizational structure of a work (art, music, writing). Gives ways to find the main idea in stories.
Synthesis — Putting elements together into a whole Students must put together elements and parts to form a new whole that did not exist before	Categorize, combine, compile, compose, create, devise, design, explain, generate, invent, modify, organize, plan, rearrange, reconstruct, relate, reorganize, revise, rewrite, summarize, tell, and write.	Writes well-organized theme. Gives a well-organized speech. Writes a creative short story (poem, music). Proposes a plan for an experiment. Integrates learning from different areas in a plan for solving a problem. Formulates a new scheme for classifying objects (events or ideas). Writes a new story based on the main idea of a story you've read.
Evaluation — Judging against a criterion.	Appraise, compare, conclude, contrast, criticize, describe, discriminate, explain, justify, interpret, restate, summarize, and support.	Judges the logical consistency of written material. Judges the accuracy with which conclusions are supported by data. Judges the values of a word (art, music, writing) by use of internal criteria. Judges the value of a work (art, music, writing) by use of external standards of excellence. Judges the author's effectiveness in

		presenting the main idea of a story.

I-C-U-E Planning and Evaluation Form

Identify student needs for adaptation:
Choose a **C-A-R-E-S** adaptation strategy:

Intervention Level	Adaptation Strategies	Change Date	Evaluation
Accommodations			
1. **C**hange the learning environment.	· Change physical environment (e.g., classroom and schedule). · Change socio-emotional climate.		
2. **A**lter instructional materials and activities.	· Clarify directions. · Scaffold instruction.		
3. **R**evise teaching strategies.	· Provide additional presentations. · Make consequences more attractive. · Increase practice opportunities.		
Modifications			
4. **E**xchange task requirements.	· Change conditions. · Change presentation mode. · Change response mode. · Change quantity criteria. · Change rate criteria. · Change accuracy criteria.		
5. **S**elect an alternate task.	· Select a prerequisite task. · Select a task from a different domain.		

Use the adaptation strategy with the student.
Evaluate the effectiveness of the adaptation strategy.

Accommodations Checklist for All Students

Scheduling Timeline	**WASL**	**ITBS**
· Administer the assessment over the entire testing window.	Yes	Yes
· Adjust materials to attention span.	Yes	No
· Provide frequent breaks.	Yes	Yes
· Allow students to continue working on each subtest as long as they are productively engaged. Time for individual students will vary considerably on a performance assessment.	Yes	No
· Administer the assessment at a time of day most beneficial to students.	Yes	Yes
Settings	**WASL**	**ITBS**
· Allow students to use study carrels or other private space.	Yes	Yes
· Use preferential seating (e.g., near the test administrator to see or hear directions better).	Yes	Yes
· Assess students individually or in a small group to reduce distractions.	Yes	Yes
· Assess students in a familiar school environment that maximizes high performance.	Yes	Yes
· Provide special lighting, furniture, or acoustics.	Yes	Yes
· Allow low level of calming music or nature sounds to reduce distractions.	Yes	Yes
· •Allow freedom for students to move or stand as needed.	Yes	Yes
Aids or Assistance	**WASL**	**ITBS**
· Use student's first (primary) language or signing (including ASL) to give assessment directions ONLY.	Yes	Yes
· Reread directions or quietly repeat for individuals.	Yes	Yes
· Clarify language on directions only.	Yes	No
· Have students reread directions.	Yes	Yes
· Assist the students in tracking the assessment items by pointing or placing a finger on them. Allow the test administrator or another familiar adult to sit beside students.	Yes	Yes
· Encourage students to sustain effort and remain on task.	Yes	Yes
· Provide physical assistance in turning pages, handling materials, etc.	Yes	Yes
· Secure papers and materials to work area with tape or magnets,	Yes	Yes
· Provide pencils adapted in size or grip.	Yes	Yes
· Underline or mark their booklets with a pencil. Students may NOT use a highlighter on the test booklet (it bleeds through to the other side and may make scanning difficult).	Yes	Yes
· During both days of writing, students are permitted to use published materials such as a dictionary and a thesaurus in print or electronic form (but no spell check).	Yes	Not Applicable
· Tape record directions for use with small groups or individuals.	Yes	Yes
Format	**WASL**	**ITBS**
· Use the space available. If students cannot write within available space, their work must be transcribed VERBATIM into the test booklet. Added pages will not be scored.	Yes	Not Applicable

Accommodations Checklist for Special Populations

Scheduling Timeline	**WASL**	**ITBS**
· Administer the assessment over the entire testing window.	Yes	Yes
· Adjust materials to attention span.	Yes	No
· Provide frequent breaks.	Yes	Yes
· Allow students to continue working on each subtest as long as they are productively engaged. Time for individual students will vary considerably on a performance assessment.	Yes	No
· Administer the assessment at a time of day most beneficial to students.	Yes	Yes
Settings	**WASL**	**ITBS**
· Provide architecturally accessible testing sites.	Yes	Yes
· Assess students in a hospital or institution; home bound students in their home (with appropriate test security procedures).	Yes	Yes
· Allow students to use study carrels or other private space.	Yes	Yes
· Use preferential seating (e.g., near the test administrator to see or hear directions better).	Yes	Yes
· Assess students individually or in a small group to reduce distractions.	Yes	Yes
· Assess students in a familiar school environment that maximizes high performance.	Yes	Yes
· Provide special lighting, furniture, or acoustics.	Yes	Yes
· Allow low level of calming music or nature sounds to reduce distractions.	Yes	Yes
· Allow freedom for students to move or stand as needed.	Yes	Yes
Aids or Assistance	**WASL**	**ITBS**
ESL		
If an ESL student falls within a "limited English speaker range" (based on a state-approved language proficiency test), allow student to:		
· Use a reader to read math assessment items VERBATIM in English.	Yes	No
· Provide published English, native language, or visual dictionaries only on the writing test. Only published thesaurus or dictionary in print or electronic form may be used (no student-created dictionaries).	Yes	Not Applicable
IEP or 504		
If the student's IEP or Section 504 plan documents a disability that affects reading or written communication, allow the student to:		
· Answer orally, point, use voice recognition technology, or sign in (SEE or ASL) an answer. A scribe records the student's response VERBATIM (e.g., from written dictation or audio tape) without interpretations, translation, or corrections. If a scribe is used, the scribe should write down the student's answer VERBATIM without punctuation or capital letters and then the scribe should ask the student to edit the text (directing the scribe to add punctuation and capital letters).	Yes	Yes
· Use appropriate physical supports or assists (e.g., easel, magnifier, arm or stabilizer guide, text-talk converter, communication device to indicate responses, noise buffers, FM or other sound amplification device to assist in hearing directions, slantboard or wedge).	Yes	Yes
· Use a reader to read math assessment items VERBATIM in English, or use SEE sign or ASL.	Yes	No
· Use computer or word processor for recording responses (no spell check or student-created dictionaries) when a computer is indicated on the IEP or Section 504 plan for written communication. Student responses must be transcribed verbatim into the test booklet. Added pages will not be scored.	Yes	Not Applicable
· Isolate portions of the assessment page to focus student's attention (mask).	Yes	Yes
· Use math manipulatives (except calculators) as indicated. Use calculators only as specifically permitted in test directions.	Yes	Yes
Format	**WASL**	**ITBS**
· Allow Braille or large-type editions for the assessment, with appropriate test security measures for all students who use large print.	Yes	Yes