

STRENGTHENING STUDENT EDUCATIONAL OUTCOMES
Behavior Menu of Best Practices and
Strategies

2020



Behavior: Menu of Best Practices and Strategies

2020

Authorizing legislation: RCW 28A.165.035

Gayle Pauley, Assistant Superintendent of Special Programs and Federal Accountability

Jon Mishra, Director, Title I, Part A/LAP

Prepared by:

Annie Pennell, LAP Program Supervisor

Joshua Lynch, Student Discipline and Behavior Program Supervisor

Sheila Gerrish, LAP Program Supervisor

LAP@k12.wa.us, 360-725-6100



Table of Contents

Welcome	4
Background and Philosophy	6
Strengthening Student Educational Outcomes	6
Learning Assistance Program	7
LAP K–4 Focus on Literacy	7
LAP Eligibility	7
Behavior Services	7
LAP Allowable Activities	8
Readiness to Learn (RTL)—Up to Five Percent	8
Academic Readiness	8
Washington State Institute for Public Policy	10
Integrated Student Supports	11
Integrated Student Supports in Washington State	11
Core Components of the WISSP	11
References	12
Multi-Tiered System of Supports	13
Multi-Tiered System of Supports	13
Core Instruction	14
Tiered Supports	15
System of Assessment	16
Data-Based Decision Making Teams	20
References	21
Implementation	22
Background, Research, and Implementation Fidelity	22
Active Versus Passive Implementation	22
Implementation Science	23
Plan, Do, Study, Act	23
District and Building Resources for Implementation	25

Content Philosophy	28
Addressing Behavior in Washington State Schools	28
Discipline Policies and Practices	29
Social-Emotional Learning (SEL)	30
Cultural Responsiveness and Equity in Student Discipline	32
School Climate, Relationships, and Student Supports	37
References	38
Behavior Menu	43
Overview	43
Behavior Menu at a Glance	45
Student-Centered Practices and Strategies	46
Behavioral Health	47
Behavior Support and Monitoring Practices	53
Mentoring	64
Peer Mediation	68
Restorative Justice	71
Social Skills Instruction	83
Educator-Focused Practices and Strategies	93
Behavior Consultant Teacher/Instructional Coach	94
De-Escalation	99
Professional Learning Communities	102
Targeted Professional Learning	108
Trauma-Informed Approaches	113
Transition and Readiness Practices and Strategies	118
Credit Retrieval and Mastery of High School Standards	119
Grade 8 to High School Transitions	125
Kindergarten Transitions	131
Family and Community Practices and Strategies	142
Family Engagement	143
School-Community Partnerships	151

Conclusion	.157
Appendices	.158
Appendix A: 2020 Expert Panel	.158
Appendix B: Acknowledgements	.159
Expert Panel Members	.159
OSPI Staff, National Advisors, and Consultants	.163
Appendix C: List of Acronyms	.167

Welcome

Students throughout the state of Washington receive tutoring, extra classes, summer programs, and other interventions with the help of funds from the Learning Assistance Program (LAP). The state of Washington invests several hundred million dollars per year in LAP to help students

meet grade-level standards. About 15.5 percent of students statewide are served by LAP.

In 2013, the Legislature passed a bill (ESSB 5946), requiring the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction (OSPI) to improve the LAP system and K–4 literacy outcomes. Now, OSPI annually convenes expert panels to identify best practices that can help students grow and succeed academically. Their work informs the Mathematics, English Language Arts, and Behavior Menu of Best Practices and Strategies. Each year, districts report on the academic growth of students receiving LAP services. Districts can either use the best practices from the menus, or provide data showing that their alternative practices are effective in achieving student growth. These provisions are detailed in RCW 28A.165 and RCW 28A.655.235.

The Legislature also passed a companion bill that authorized and enabled the <u>Washington State</u> <u>Institute for Public Policy</u> (WSIPP) to identify evidence-based and research-based best practices for student interventions. OSPI and WSIPP annually collaborate on the development of the menus.

We know an opportunity gap exists among different student populations. Poverty is a striking example of a factor that can significantly disrupt a student's learning. Students learning English as an additional language face the task of learning a new language and new academic content at the same time. Students who have or are experiencing trauma may exhibit behavioral anomalies that can interrupt their academic progress. Teachers are actively seeking ways to better support all students. Throughout the menus, the expert panels have identified best practices shown to reduce the opportunity gap among all students.

This report contains not only best practices for behavior, but also foundational content describing Washington state's approach to school discipline and other initiatives designed to improve social-emotional learning for all students. It describes how a Multi-Tiered System of Supports (MTSS) framework is critical for implementing a high-achieving educational system. It also explains how assessment data and reporting serve to continuously improve LAP and student outcomes. We have included a rich set of resources and references for those who wish to further explore the identified best practices.

We are starting to see the promise in this focused partnership between districts, Educational Service Districts (ESDs), OSPI, WSIPP, and the Legislature. This is the fifth year the behavior menu has been published, and each year the professionals who comprise the panel searched current literature for proven interventions, made improvements to the existing practices, and provided additional advice support to teachers, student support staff, and school administrators who are implementing LAP with their students.

"We have a duty to educate all students. Collecting the best strategies that districts use to reach those who need extra help is a great step toward meeting that responsibility."

Chris Reykdal, State Superintendent of Public Instruction

We thank you for your thoughtful read of this menu and for your ongoing commitment to serve students who need support the most.

The Learning Assistance Program Team
Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction
June 2020

Background and Philosophy

STRENGTHENING STUDENT EDUCATIONAL OUTCOMES

The Strengthening Student Educational Outcomes Act (<u>ESSB 5946</u>) passed the state Legislature in 2013. It required OSPI to convene a behavior panel of experts to develop a menu of best practices and strategies to provide additional support to students who have not yet met grade-level standard and are enrolled in LAP. The same legislation also required OSPI and school districts in Washington to significantly change behavior and discipline policies and practices.

At the heart of the behavior menu is a focus on addressing behavior to accelerate student learning. The work of the behavior panel aligns with the work of the OSPI Student Discipline Task Force, the Educational Opportunity Gap Oversight and Accountability Committee (EOGOAC), and the Social Emotional Learning Indicators Workgroup.

Washington state law contains guidelines for how school districts can provide services, using the practices and strategies in the behavior menu to support students in



Photo by Dick Milligan, WA Senate

LAP. In addition to the behavior menu, OSPI developed menus for math and ELA. Districts are required to use a practice or strategy from one of the state menus, or exercise the option of using an alternative practice or strategy, per OSPI guidelines.

The menus for behavior, math, and ELA are resources for school districts supporting students in grades K–12 with LAP services. All three menus will be updated annually by July 1.

To learn more about this process, please see the <u>project webpage</u>.

LEARNING ASSISTANCE PROGRAM

The Learning Assistance Program (LAP) offers supplemental services for K–12 students scoring below grade-level standard in English Language Arts (ELA) and mathematics. These supports focus on accelerating student growth so that students make progress towards grade-level performance standards during the period of time they are provided services. These supports may include academic readiness skill development or behavior supports to address barriers preventing students from accessing core instruction. The intent is for LAP-served students to increase academic growth during the period of time they are provided services. Districts are required to use best practices when designing LAP programs to increase student achievement.

LAP K-4 Focus on Literacy

Districts must <u>focus first on K–4 students</u> who have not yet met grade-level standards in reading or are lacking the readiness skills needed for learning to read. The K–4 focus first on literacy does not mean that *all* LAP funds are to be used exclusively on K–4 literacy. OSPI guidelines allow that a district may meet the K–4 focus on literacy by ensuring that of the total number of K–4 students served by LAP districtwide, approximately 50 percent are students receiving ELA services. Districts are not capped at 50 percent and may serve more students in K–4 ELA. Additionally, districts may serve less than 50 percent under specific <u>OSPI Guidelines</u>.

LAP Eligibility

Districts identify the students eligible for LAP by using multiple measures of performance. These should include nationally normed assessments and/or state assessments to identify students scoring below grade-level standards for ELA or math. Other options to measure student eligibility include teacher-made assessments, teacher observations, teacher recommendations, and parent referrals. Credits earned, grade point average (GPA), discipline referrals, and absenteeism are also potential measures.

Entrance and exit assessment data for any LAP service are used to measure student academic growth in ELA or math, regardless of whether the student receives LAP academic services or LAP behavior services. A student may receive LAP services for academic and behavior support or just behavior support.

Behavior Services

Districts may serve students who have not yet met grade-level standards in ELA or math with behavior services. These services are available for students when the district believes addressing behavioral needs would improve students' academic performance.

Prior to receiving LAP behavior services, students must have been identified, using multiple measures of performance, as scoring below standard for their grade level in either ELA or math.

While additional indicators must be used to identify a student for behavior services, the impact of behavior services is measured by academic growth. The assumption is that the provision of behavior services should positively influence student academic outcomes.

LAP Allowable Activities

Allowable LAP activities are guided by state statue (RCW 28A.165). They must be aligned to a best practice from the menu or an approved district alternative. Districts must use data to inform program development and integrate best practices and strategies to support supplemental instruction/services that accelerate growth for students who have not yet met grade-level standards.

Allowable activities may include extended learning time, extra support in the classroom, educator professional learning, family engagement, and purchase of specialized learning materials. Additional assistance for students identified in 8th grade to successfully transition into high school may be provided through LAP. Graduation assistance is an option for 11th- and 12th-grade students who are not on track to meet graduation requirements. Academic readiness and Readiness to Learn (RTL) are also LAP-allowable activities. These terms are often confused and are defined separately below.

Readiness to Learn (RTL)—Up to Five Percent

Up to five percent of a district's LAP base funds may be used for RTL.

District RTL programs provide academic and non-academic supports for students at risk of not being successful in school. They may be offered by the district (in-house), or in partnership with community-based organizations. The goal of RTL community supports is to reduce barriers to learning, strengthen engagement, and ensure all students are able to attend school ready to learn. The school board must approve any community-based organization or local agency in an open meeting before LAP funds may be expended. However, if no external organization is involved and the district is operating their own RTL program, school board approval is not needed.

Students do not need to have been identified as scoring below grade-level standard in math or ELA to participate in RTL programs. RTL programs are designed to serve students significantly at risk of not being successful in school. Each district determines the eligibility criteria for participation in RTL programs.

Academic Readiness

As part of the academic readiness component, schools use LAP funds to support students with necessary preparation skills needed to engage in math or ELA content. Readiness is applicable for all grades. However, LAP does pay particular attention to early grade classroom readiness

skills. K–2 readiness includes emerging literacy, early numeracy, and classroom preparedness skills. Emerging research is showing that building early numeracy skills is a strong predictor of future academic success.

The <u>Teaching Strategies GOLD® Objectives and Dimensions</u> observation tool identifies core skills in the social-emotional, physical, language, cognitive, literacy, and mathematics domains essential for being ready for kindergarten. The panels strongly emphasized social emotional, cognitive, numeracy, and language skills as being necessary for K–2 readiness. Each panel also recognized the importance of incorporating *play* into academic readiness activities.

WASHINGTON STATE INSTITUTE FOR PUBLIC POLICY

The 2013 Legislature directed WSIPP to "prepare an inventory of evidence-based and research-based effective practices, activities and programs for use by school districts in the Learning Assistance Program" (Senate Bill 5034, Section 610). The WSIPP Inventory of Evidence- and Research-Based Practices: Washington's K–12 Learning Assistance Program classifies LAP strategies as evidence-based, research-based, or promising based on the average effect sizes for identified interventions, a cost-benefit analysis, and other criteria. Both OSPI and WSIPP consider the two reports as companions. As such, OSPI and WSIPP coordinated their tasks to ensure that the content of both reports were consistent, while still adhering to the unique directives given to each agency.

Both agencies collaborated on identifying topics for consideration as best practices and strategies. Each year, WSIPP Research Associates have contributed as key participants in the expert panel sessions as a non-voting member. They provided research references to the panel members, and solicited panel member input regarding effective practices. The two agencies then followed different, complementary processes to identify and classify practices for inclusion in each menu.

The identification of best practices and strategies in the OSPI menus was informed by WSIPP's findings and ultimately determined by the expert panel. OSPI included notations indicating whether the practices included in the menus are *evidence-based* or *research-based*, as determined by WSIPP. Additional practices and strategies are included in the menus as *promising* based on the research reviewed by the panel of experts.

INTEGRATED STUDENT SUPPORTS

Integrated Student Supports (ISS) promote students' academic success through a school-based approach. An ISS approach involves "developing or securing and coordinating supports that target academic and non-academic barriers to achievement" (Moore & Emig, 2014, p. 1). Current and emerging evidence suggests ISS has positive effects on student engagement, academic achievement, and social-emotional outcomes (Moore et al., 2017). In addition, ISS models like Building Assets, Reducing Risks (BARR) are associated with educators' increased feelings of self-efficacy and willingness to collaborate (Borman, Bos, O'Brien, Park, & Liu, 2017).

According to Child Trend's <u>Theory of Change</u>, an ISS system enables educators to mobilize both academic (i.e. reading or math interventions) and non-academic (e.g. mental health, medical care, behavior intervention plans, or basic needs support) supports to promote students' academic success and overall health and well-being. Research in the interdisciplinary field of developmental science highlights risks to child development and learning, and offers insight into the protective factors most likely to mitigate those risks. Researchers at Boston College's Center for Optimized Student Support have synthesized these findings into <u>Principles of Effective Practice for Integrated Student Support</u> to guide implementation of effective systems of student support. There are several different models of ISS, but *integration* is the defining feature. In practice, integration involves aligning various supports to match students' needs and embedding the ISS program into all aspects of the operations of a school (Moore & Emig, 2014).

Integrated Student Supports in Washington State

In 2016, the Washington state legislature created the <u>Washington Integrated Student Supports Protocol</u> (WISSP) through <u>4SHB 1541</u>. The bill outlined a set of interdependent strategies for closing educational opportunity gaps, and was based on the recommendations of the State's <u>Educational Opportunity Gap Oversight and Accountability Committee</u> (EOGOAC). The bill charged the <u>Center for the Improvement of Student Learning</u> (CISL), within OSPI, with developing the <u>WISSP</u> and making <u>recommendations to the Legislature</u> to support implementation in districts across the state.

Core Components of the WISSP

The following components of the ISS framework adopted by the Legislature in 4SHB 1541 are included in the WISSP.

Needs Assessments: Professional staff (teachers, school counselors, social workers, etc.) assess students' needs and strengths to identify the areas in which they may need additional support. Additionally, staff conduct system level needs assessments at the school, district, and community level to identify existing resources and potential areas to build capacity.

Integration within the school: Existing school leadership and student support teams help to facilitate ISS in partnership with a lead coordinator. This level of integration requires the buy-in, support and engagement of school leaders. When a partner organization facilitates ISS implementation, the organization works closely with school leadership and staff to ensure effectiveness. To facilitate this level of integration, partner staff are based in the school or, at minimum, have office space within the district.

Coordination of Supports: School staff and partner organizations work together to connect students to existing supports in a timely manner. A central point of contact coordinates these efforts.

Use of Data: School staff use data to identify students' needs and strengths, to monitor their progress over time, and to guide future planning. Data may include academic assessment outcomes, discipline referrals, attendance records, home-language survey information, or other student level data.

Community Partnerships: Schools partner with individual community members, local businesses, health and social service providers, and other community organizations to address the needs of students and their families.

The Washington Integrated Student Supports Protocol is not meant to replace existing systems of support such as Response to Intervention (RTI), School-wide Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS), Inter-connected Systems Framework (ISF), or other tiered-systems of support that address one or more domains of learning. Rather, the purpose of the protocol is to encourage schools to use needs assessments to identify students' academic and non-academic barriers to learning, collaborate with their community to secure additional resources for students and their families, use data to monitor progress, and strive for greater alignment across student support services and programs like LAP.

References

- Borman, T.H., Bos, J.M., O'Brien, B.C., Park, S.J., & Liu, F. (2017). <u>I3 BARR validation study impact findings: cohorts 1 and 2</u>. American Institutes for Research.
- Moore, K. & Emig, C. (2014). <u>Integrated Student Supports: A summary of the Evidence Base for Policymakers</u>. Child Trends.
- Moore, K., Lantos, H., Jones, R., Schindler, A., Belford, J., Sacks, V., & Harper, K. (2017). Making the grade: A progress report and next steps for integrated student supports. Child Trends.
- Walsh, M., Wasser Gish, J. Foley, C., Theodorakakis, M., & Rene, K. (2016). <u>Principles of Effective Practice for Integrated Student Support</u>. Center for Optimized Student Support.

MULTI-TIERED SYSTEM OF SUPPORTS

Multi-Tiered System of Supports

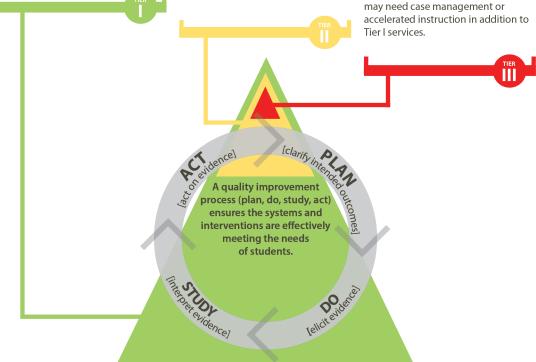
Multi-Tiered System of Supports (MTSS) is a service delivery framework focused on problem solving and prevention for all students. MTSS is a holistic approach that connects all of the academic and non-academic interventions, supports, and services available in schools and communities to support instruction and eliminate barriers to learning and teaching. Multiple levels of instruction, assessment, and intervention are designed to support the academic and non-academic needs of ALL students within the MTSS framework. Common tiered frameworks in Washington include Response to Intervention (RTI), Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS), and Social and Emotional Learning (SEL).

ALL students benefit from school-wide Tier I instruction and supports (such as teaching academic and behavioral expectations, career and technical competencies, and social emotional skills) to be prepared for career, college, and life.

supplemental Tier II instruction and supports (such as a reading or math intervention or behavioral checkin). These students are identified as needing more intensive or accelerated academic, career, behavioral, and/or mental health interventions in addition to Tier I services.

A SMALL NUMBER of

students can benefit from intensive
Tier III instruction and supports
(such as those provided through
community partnerships and
specialized programs to provide more
intensive or accelerated academic,
career, behavioral, and/or mental
health supports). These students
may need case management or
accelerated instruction in addition to
Tier I services



<u>Figure</u>

Core Instruction

A positive school climate and high-quality core instruction are the foundation of successful MTSS implementation. If more than 20 percent of students are not meeting grade-level expectations, a focus on improving core instruction is essential. To support students with a range of skills, abilities, knowledge, and interests, Meyer, Rose and Gordon (2014) suggest a Universal Design for Learning (UDL) approach. It is critical for educators to produce content, instruction, and assessments in a way that addresses the uniqueness of every student, and UDL provides a framework to do just that. By designing a flexible curriculum responsive to exceptional learners, teachers provide learning opportunities that are more accessible for all.

The UDL Guidelines are based on the idea that students are accessing three cognitive networks as they learn: *affective*—the "why" of learning; *recognition*—the "what" of learning; and *strategic*—the "how" of learning. <u>The UDL Guidelines</u> provide a matrix that unpacks the why, what and how into three levels of learning: accessing, building and internalizing. Concrete suggestions for incorporating each network into teaching provide educators with a way to rethink and transform the learning opportunities they offer their students. There are a number of websites with information about UDL and materials for coaches and teachers, including: the State Education Resource Center (<u>SERC</u>) tutorial on Culturally Responsive UDL, <u>CAST</u>, <u>The IRIS</u> <u>Center</u>, and the <u>National Center on Universal Design for Learning</u>. Additional UDL resources are available on OSPI's <u>Educational Technology Program</u> page.

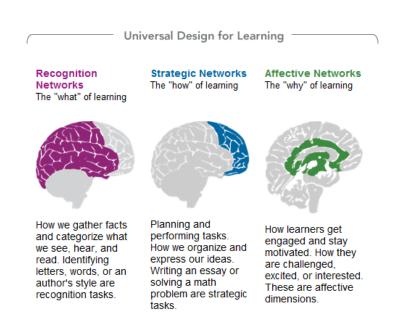


Figure 3. Retrieved from www.udlcenter.org. © CAST, 2011. Used with permission.

Tiered Supports

Within a multi-tiered framework, the tiers refer to supports students receive rather than students. For example, there are not tier 2 or tier 3 students. There are instead, tier 2 and tier 3 supports. In a three-tiered framework, **all** students receive tier 1 instruction, **some** students receive tier 2 services/support, and a **small number** of students receive tier 3 services/support. Normally, tier 3 academic services in an MTSS model are for both highly capable students and students who have not yet met grade-level expectations.

When students are not meeting their learning goals in the general education classroom, school improvement teams meet to discuss the best approach to provide effective differentiated instruction in the core curricula and interventions through a systematic support framework. Learning Assistance Program (LAP) allowable activities primarily provide students tier 2 and tier 3 supports. For the purpose of LAP, tier 3 refers to services intended to address the needs of students who have not yet met academic learning goals.

Number of Students

Description of Tier

All

Tier 1 is for all students and is designed to meet the needs of at least 80 percent of the student population. Differentiated instruction during core learning time is the first response for students who have not yet met academic and non-academic goals.

Some

Tier 2 is for students who need additional support to meet academic and non-academic goals. A standard assessment plan and clear criteria are necessary for successfully entering and exiting students from tier 2 interventions. Supports should be designed to quickly screen for and target students who need extra instruction or services to get back on track. This level of support is available to all students and typically addresses the needs of around 15 percent of a student population.

A small number

Tier 3 is for interventions that are individualized and intensive. Tier 3 interventions may take longer for students to meet learning goals. When tier 1 and tier 2 are implemented well, tier 3 typically addresses the needs of about five percent of a student population. Tier 3 supports are available for ALL students, as opposed to the common misunderstanding that they are reserved for students in special education.

System of Assessment

An important element of the MTSS framework, assessment creates data so that teams can make informed decisions. A well-designed assessment system must be both balanced and comprehensive and, most importantly, provide actionable information.

A balanced assessment system means that districts/schools engage in a variety of assessments, identifying specific assessments for different learning needs. While various types of assessments are useful for different purposes, districts should also analyze whether or not some types of assessments are used more frequently or receive more emphasis over the other types. Districts/schools should make adjustments if the system is out of balance. It is critical to ensure the results of an assessment are used for the intended purpose and not extrapolated or misused otherwise. For example, confusion between universal screening and diagnostic assessment can lead to misuse of results from screening measures. It is also important to note that different types of assessment can be used for more than one purpose and, generally, no one piece of assessment information can fulfill all purposes.

A *comprehensive* assessment system includes tools and processes that are specifically designed to address various stages of learning. Assessment tools include: universal screening, diagnostic data collection, formative assessment processes, progress monitoring, benchmark tests, and summative assessments. Assessments can be used to identify learning needs, investigate learning challenges, inform current learning, monitor learning progress, and verify learning.

A comprehensive assessment system should include:

Universal screening tools: These tools are used to identify all students who may potentially need more support. By design, universal screeners tend to over identify students, meaning more students are identified *as potentially needing additional support* than are *actually needing additional support* in an attempt to not miss anyone who might benefit from additional layers of support. Screeners are used in many different ways—in everyday life, before an eye exam, during oil changes for cars, or when checking blood pressure. Universal screening takes place at scheduled intervals (e.g., at the beginning of the school year, every 8 weeks), and is followed by more targeted diagnostic assessment for students identified as potentially needing additional support. These screeners inform decision makers of whether or not diagnostic data collection is necessary. Screeners also serve the purpose of assessing how well all students are responding to core instruction and if modifications or adjustments are needed to the school-wide tier 1 plan.

Diagnostic data collection: Collecting diagnostic data can help identify the initial skill level for each student and can determine the need for supports, interventions, enrichments, and resources. Diagnostic data are collected before instruction or after screening occurs to identify the appropriate instruction and/or intervention plan. Diagnostic data provides detailed

information. Diagnostic data can help determine why a person's temperature is high, why the indicator light went on in a car, or whether a full eye exam is needed. For example, in reading, a diagnostic test may measure a student's ability to evaluate print, understand phonics, decode letters and sounds, recognize words, analyze word patterns and sounds, determine oral reading accuracy and fluency, and comprehend reading passages. Once the diagnostic data are available, educators can determine what to teach and select appropriate interventions to address specific skill deficiencies.

Formative assessment processes: Formative assessment is not a single event—it is an ongoing process used by educators and students to assess learning and adjust instruction. The formative assessment process is deliberate and provides actionable feedback to improve students' learning. There are four main attributes in the formative assessment process:

- 1) clarify intended learning
- 2) elicit evidence
- 3) interpret evidence
- 4) act on evidence

As teachers embed the formative assessment process into their classes, student involvement is key. Students should understand the learning target and how what they are doing relates to their own learning. They should be able to self-reflect on their progress and set attainable and specific goals. Similarly, teachers evaluate what has been learned and adjust instruction accordingly.

Progress monitoring tools: Student performance and progress should be reviewed on a regular basis and in a systemic manner to identify students who are making adequate progress, at some risk of failure if not provided extra assistance, or at high risk of failure if not provided specialized supports. Progress monitoring is used to determine if students are responding to the instruction being provided. It is useful in determining the next level of instruction or intervention to be used with individual students, a small group, or an entire class. While formative assessment is closely linked to the immediate learning that occurs during a lesson, progress monitoring assesses what the student understands as a result of the unit of instruction. Progress monitoring occurs on a more frequent basis for students receiving tier 2 and tier 3 supports.

Summative assessments: Summative assessments are outcome-based assessments of learning that has already occurred. The goal of standardized summative assessment is to confirm and verify student learning and skill acquisition. Summative assessments are typically given once after an instructional unit, course, semester, program or school year to measure student

attainment of desired learning outcomes, i.e., how students did on grade-level learning standards. Examples of summative assessments may include benchmark tests, final projects, midterm exams, or state assessments. Summative assessment data can be used to inform system-wide instructional decisions. Summative assessments are limited in providing adequate data to drive instructional decisions because they measure one point of learning at the end of a unit, course, semester, program or school year. For the individual student, summative data results should be used in combination with other measures to inform instruction.

Benchmark assessments: A type of summative assessment, benchmark assessments are outcome-based and usually measure skills and knowledge demonstrated by a specific period of time (e.g. end of unit test). At the elementary level, students are typically assessed on their progress toward skills that should build throughout the year. These assessments are administered at predetermined time points (e.g. October, January, March, and June). Students' skills are viewed relative to a goal, or "benchmark," which indicates the desired progress toward end-of-year standards for that time point. The data from benchmark tests should generally be used to inform instructional steps to improve student learning. This is different from formative assessment because benchmark assessments capture a snapshot of student learning rather than functioning as an on-going formative process. Benchmark assessments may also be used to evaluate programs, curriculum, and intervention strategies.

Some assessments can function with dual purpose. It's important to have a clear purpose and desired outcome when deciding which assessments to use.

TYPE	PURPOSE	Data Outcomes	Guidance
Universal Screening Tools	To IDENTIFY students who need extra support(s) – usually for all students, but can be a targeted group	-Identify or flag students who are struggling or at risk of failure who need further monitoring -Identify students who might have specific learning challenges (i.e. Dyslexia, language proficiency) -Evaluate effectiveness of academic curriculum	-Data can be collected one or more times a year -When there is a summative test that provides individual student data, screeners are best applied to a specific group of students who might benefit from extra support(s)
Diagnostic Data Collection	To INVESTIGATE the specific needs for students identified as needing extra support(s) – for some students	-Inform educators about possible causes of student challenges -Identify appropriate focus for interventions -Explore and identify possible instructional and/or intervention approaches -Guide analysis of data points to use for progress monitoring	-The goal is to help educators plan effective and individualized instruction and/or interventions -Students can often provide meaningful insight about their learning strengths and needs; their self- assessments should be considered
Formative Assessment Process	To INFORM current instruction so teachers can adjust – for all students, ongoing	-Reveals depth of understanding and partial or developing understandings -Provides feedback to educators about which strategies have been successful	-Student engagement is a key element -Formative assessment processes can vary greatly, from in-the-moment learning checks to classroom tasks – not all of these will be traditional "data" collection but will still guide and inform instruction
Progress Monitoring Tools	To MONITOR the progress of specific students who have been identified as needing extra support(s) – for some students	-Provides information about a specific group of students -Provides information about progress toward previously identified learning targets during a specific period -Helps educators adjust instruction and/or interventions	-Student engagement is a key element -Educators can use this combined with formative assessment processes for the whole group to more closely monitor a specific student group -The method and amount of data should vary

TYPE	PURPOSE	Data Outcomes	Guidance
Summative Assessments	To VERIFY learning has occurred – for all students	-Standardized test results to measure specific outcomes (such as grade-level standards) -To confirm what students know and are able to do at a specific time (end of year, end of unit) -Includes benchmark tests	-Because data provides information about individual students and groups, it can be used to make systematic decisions about instruction, curriculum and programs -Because the data only measures one single point in time, it should be used with other measures to gather a complete picture of student learning
Benchmark Assessments	To VERIFY learning has occurred by a specific time – usually for all students	-Standardized measure of specific outcomes at a specific point in time -To check what students know and are able to do at a specific point in time	-Can be used to inform and adjust instruction as these are usually at regular intervals through the school year -Districts will often use this to check systems and monitor student progress -Should align to year-long goals and school curriculumStudents should be part of this process (self-reflection)

Data-Based Decision Making Teams

Decision-making within an MTSS framework is done with a systematic and comprehensive approach. This process includes decisions about the development of the MTSS framework, the selection of assessments used to identify students, the design of an implementation plan, and evaluation of a school or district's individual students' needs. Schools should thoughtfully create a plan that respects the school's unique culture, resources, and circumstances within a collaborative systemic approach.

Schools and districts will need to establish and monitor systematic structures, including a comprehensive and balanced assessment system. As teams engage in ongoing collaboration in data collection and analysis to address student needs, they should also develop a feedback process to evaluate the effectiveness of their MTSS framework and implementation.

Data collected can be used to inform instruction or to make decisions about tiered supports. Examining trends of data can help evaluate programs and guide decisions regarding instructional effectiveness, student responsiveness, and intervention adaptations or modifications.

References

- Lane, K. L., Kalberg, J. R., & Menzies, H. M. (2009). <u>Developing Schoolwide Programs to Prevent</u> <u>and Manage Problem Behaviors: A Step-by-Step Approach</u>. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- McIntosh, K., & Goodman, S. (2016). *Integrated Multi-Tiered Systems of Support: Blending RTI and PBIS*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Meyer, A., Rose, D.H., & Gordon, D. (2014). *Universal Design for Learning: Theory and Practice*. Wakefield MA: CAST.

Implementation

BACKGROUND, RESEARCH, AND IMPLEMENTATION FIDELITY

The behavior menu was created to guide schools and districts as they develop supports and services for students who have not yet met grade-level standards. It is critical to ensure best practices are used to design intensive intervention plans for students. These plans need to be implemented with fidelity because even proven practices, when poorly implemented, can fail to raise student educational outcomes.

Often, the word *fidelity* is viewed negatively; however, the LAP team encourages approaching fidelity in a similar manner as integrity or commitment. Implementation fidelity is about delivering an intervention as it was intended to be delivered according to the implementation team's plan.

The panel of experts recognizes that there are a number of steps that must be taken to ensure that the practices within the menus are implemented with fidelity across the state. Using implementation science is optional. This information is provided as a resource for buildings and districts.

Active Versus Passive Implementation New practices are implemented at the district/building level each year. Some are implemented with success, while others are not. All too often, promising innovations and practices are abandoned after just a year or two because the expected results were not actualized and the best practice was viewed as ineffective. But, was the practice ineffective or was implementation ineffective?

As schools/districts select practices from the menu, the implementation plan, and the degree to which the plan is delivered, is key to successfully achieving the desired student

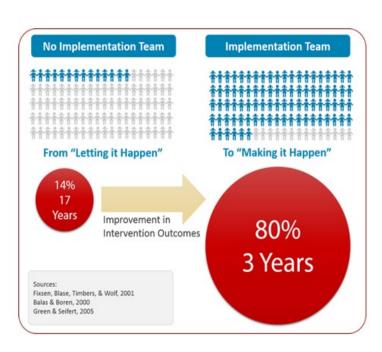


Figure 2. Used with permission from the National Implementation Research Network.

outcomes. Active implementation is the direct result of action-driven teams, purposeful planning, and systematic improvement cycles.

Figure 1 displays both passive and active implementation. When passive implementation occurs, it takes approximately 17 years to accomplish trivial results (14 percent). Whereas with active implementation, teams can move toward full implementation (with 80 percent effectiveness) in three years.

Implementation Science

Implementation science provides a framework to support the implementation of best practices in education. Implementation science values local conditions and context-specific issues with the assumption that one size will not fit all. Full implementation of best practices takes purposeful planning and time. Implementation science includes a systematic process to ensure full implementation is actualized. The frameworks include the what, how, and who to assist implementation teams with the process. The most effective implementation teams consist of decision makers and practitioners across the system to develop and review systematic improvement cycles.

The National Implementation Research Network (NIRN) focuses on active implementation. The Active Implementation Hub (AI Hub) is a free resource available to schools/districts who want to deepen their understanding of implementation science and the power of active implementation. Modules on the AI Hub provide an overview of active implementation and include implementation drivers, teams, stages, improvement cycles, usable interventions, and fidelity checklists.

Plan, Do, Study, Act

The *Plan, Do, Study, Act* approach in implementation and improvement science, and the *Plan, Do, Check, Act* approach in Lean organizations, are iterative improvement cycles that support active implementation. Iterative cycles are repetitive and use a trial-and-learning approach. In each cycle, implementation teams plan, provide the intervention, review the results, and identify areas for improvement. These teams review student outcomes and adult behaviors, specifically identifying if the intervention was delivered as intended by the plan; then, teams identify specific actions to improve the plan.

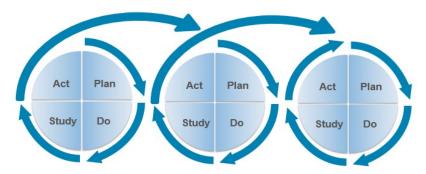


Figure 3. Used with permission from the National Implementation Research Network.

With each improvement cycle, implementation teams learn what went well and what needs to be adjusted to deliver the intervention more effectively in order to benefit student outcomes. Over the course of three active improvement cycles, the effectiveness of an intervention generally reaches 80 percent effectiveness.

Each phase of the *Plan, Do, Study, Act* cycle guides implementation teams:

- Plan-Implementation teams identify purpose, desired outcomes, and success criteria for
 implementation. Teams identify data and progress monitoring tools that will be used to
 measure the success of the intervention, who is responsible for collecting data, and when
 data will be collected and reviewed. Teams will identify challenges that may impact
 implementation (e.g., transportation, staffing, etc.) and specify how to move
 interventions forward.
- **Do-**Implementation teams execute the intended intervention plan. Educators complete intended outcomes according to the plan and collect data to ensure the intervention support was delivered.
- **Study**–Implementation teams reflect on the execution of the intended intervention plan. Teams review success criteria and outcomes. Reflective discussions include: what went well, what can be improved, and what unexpected barriers or surprises occurred.
- Act-Implementation teams apply learning to identify action steps to improve the
 process. Teams make targeted adjustments to the original plan to impact student
 outcomes. Implementation teams use these action steps to begin planning for the next
 cycle.

Improvement cycles vary in length. The improvement cycle may span across a single school year or for a specific amount of time (such as a quarter, trimester, or semester). Rapid improvement cycles generally range from 30–90 days. Implementation teams should discuss and determine which cycle is best to use with the intervention they are implementing.

References

- Carroll, C., Patterson, M., Wood, S., Booth, A., Rick, J., & Balain, S. (2007). A conceptual framework for implementation fidelity. *Implementation Science*.
- Fixsen, D. (2012). <u>Implementing Literacy Programs to Improve Student Achievement</u>. U.S. Department of Education.
- Klingner, Janette K, Boardman, Alison G., & McMaster, Kristen L. (2013). "What Does It Take to Scale Up and Sustain Evidence-based Practices?" *Exceptional Children*. V 79, n 2. 195–211.

District and Building Resources for Implementation

<u>Al Hub</u> is a web-based resource that has been developed and maintained by the State Implementation and Scaling-up of Evidence-based Practices Center (SISEP) and NIRN at The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill's Frank Porter Graham Child Development Institute. *Implementation Science Modules & Lessons* are available to assist implementation teams. The modules provide self-paced content, activities, and assessments that are designed to promote the knowledge and practice of implementation science and *scaling-up*, improving and expanding the impact of, best practices.

One tool within the AI Hub is the Hexagon Tool. The <u>Hexagon Tool</u> can help states, districts, and schools appropriately select evidence-based instructional, behavioral, and social-emotional interventions and prevention approaches by reviewing six broad factors in relation to the program or practice under consideration. NIRN developed the <u>Hexagon Discussion and Analysis Tool</u> for Implementation Teams to guide deeper discussions and address unique needs.

PROGRAM INDICATORS

(IT)

Administration & System

CAPACITY TO IMPLEMENT **EVIDENCE** Staff meet minimum Strength of evidence—for whom in what conditions: qualifications Able to sustain staffing, Number of studies coaching, training, data systems, Population similarities performance assessment, and Diverse cultural groups administration Efficacy or Effectiveness Financially Structurally Outcomes – Is it worth it? Cultural responsivity capacity **EVIDENCE** Fidelity data Buy-in process operationalized Cost – effectiveness data Practitioners Families **USABILITY CAPACITY USABILITY** FIT WITH CURRENT Well-defined program **INTIATIVES** Mature sites to Alignment with community, observe regional, state priorities **SUPPORTS** FIT Several replications Fit with family and community values, culture and history Adaptations for context Impact on other interventions & **NEED** initiatives Alignment with organizational structure **SUPPORTS NEED Expert Assistance** Target population identified Staffing Disaggregated data indicating population needs Training Parent & community perceptions of Coaching & Supervision need Racial equity impact assessment Addresses service or system gaps Data Systems Technology Supports

IMPLEMENTING SITE INDICATORS

NIRN provides a glossary of terms for educators who are new to implementation science.

The <u>Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching</u> is grounded in improvement science and has several resources to accelerate learning and address problems of practice.

Improvement science is a systematic learning-by-doing approach. The Carnegie Foundation highlights using *Plan, Do, Study, Act* for implementation and provides a variety of resources for facilitating improvements in education, including teacher effectiveness. Resources recommended by the panel of experts for optional use are the <u>90-day Cycle Handbook</u> and the Six Core Principles of Improvement.



Figure 4. <u>Image</u> used with permission from the Carnegie Foundation.

The Six Core Principles of Improvement

Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching

	Principles	Descriptions
1.	Make the work problem-specific and	Starting question: "What specifically is the problem
	<u>user-centered</u> .	we are trying to solve?"
2.	<u>Variation</u> in performance is the core	Focus on what works, for whom, and under what
	problem to address.	set of conditions.
3.	See the system that produces the	Explore and think about how local conditions
	current outcomes.	shape work processes. Share your hypotheses for
		change with others to help clarify your goal.
4.	We cannot improve at scale what we	Include measures of key outcomes and processes
	cannot measure.	to track if the implemented change is an
		improvement.
5.	Anchor practice improvement in	Try to use rapid cycles of <u>Plan, Do, Study, Act</u>
	disciplined inquiry.	(PDSA) to learn and improve quickly.
	Principles	Descriptions
6.	Accelerate improvements	Find other partners and share what you learn in
	through networked communities.	order to be more productive.

The Carnegie Foundation provides a <u>glossary</u> of improvement science terms and network improvement communities.

Content Philosophy

The practices and strategies contained in this menu align with an overall philosophy that equitable educational opportunities and student outcomes are more attainable when learning environments and support services contribute to the social-emotional well-being and academic achievement of *all* students. Emphasized throughout this menu is the idea that behavioral expectations, interventions, and services should be developmentally appropriate, culturally responsive, and data-informed.

Addressing Behavior in Washington State Schools

Throughout the state of Washington, educators, interest groups, and OSPI are modifying the way behavior is addressed in schools and changing the behavior of the school system. Recent state-level reforms regarding school discipline are increasingly aligning, in theory and practice, with the ongoing efforts of education practitioners, researchers, and advocates. Educators are reevaluating school discipline policies and behavioral supports in order to implement practices that optimize conditions for student learning, promote positive behaviors, and reduce disproportionate outcomes in student discipline.

In 2012, Washington Appleseed & Team Child released Reclaiming Students: The Educational & <u>Economic Costs of Exclusionary Discipline in Washington State</u>, a report documenting the disruptive effects school discipline policies and practices were having on students in Washington. One of the key recommendations in the report was to "drastically reduce reliance on out-of-school exclusions, replacing them with evidence-based and promising practices that address student behaviors while keeping students engaged in school and on track to graduation" (Mosehauer, McGrath, Nist, & Pillar, 2012 p. 46). In early 2013, the Educational Opportunity Gap Oversight and Accountability Committee (EOGOAC) submitted a report to the legislature that contained a comprehensive list of recommendations for closing the opportunity gap in Washington's education system. The EOGOAC report included recommendations for reducing disproportionality in student discipline, citing findings from the Washington Appleseed & Team Child report. Within the next month legislation was introduced based on the recommendations of the EOGOAC (HB 1680). Many of the recommendations from the Washington Appleseed & Team Child report and the EOGOAC were adopted by Washington legislators and passed into law in 2013, as part of ESSB 5946. This menu of best practices, as well as the ability to use LAP funding to address behavior, were two of many outcomes from that legislation.

What has emerged from national research organizations, state agencies, communities, and school districts are data-informed initiatives grounded in relevant and emerging research. These efforts focus on reducing the use of exclusionary discipline practices, developing instructional approaches to behavior that enhance learning, and integrating strategies to improve school

climates. Recent research supports the concept that academic achievement and social-emotional development are interrelated components of the learning experience (Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor, & Schellinger, 2011; Yoder, 2014). A student's academic and behavioral needs may be interrelated because components of one domain can influence the other; therefore, researchers recommend that educators adopt an integrated and systemic approach towards addressing behavior and academics (McIntosh & Goodman, 2017). Educators and researchers are increasingly recognizing the need to implement behavioral strategies that holistically address students' academic and non-academic needs.

Discipline Policies and Practices

The 2012 report from Washington Appleseed & Team Child was instrumental because it provided, for the first time, a broad picture of discipline practices in the state of Washington. The unseen impacts on specific groups of students were made visible. The available data indicated that, in response to a range of behaviors, schools were regularly making discretionary discipline decisions to exclude students from school. Data revealed exclusionary discipline was often imposed without providing educational services during periods of exclusion, and sometimes for indefinite periods of time. Also evident was that students of color and students identified as low-income were disproportionally impacted by exclusionary discipline practices. The report offered several recommendations to improve discipline data quality and to change discipline policies (Mosehauer, et al., 2012).

ESSB 5946 required OSPI to convene a discipline task force. The Student Discipline Task Force confirmed the findings in the Washington Appleseed & Team Child report and emphasized the need to develop common state definitions for behavioral infractions, particularly for discretionary disciplinary offenses reported under the broad category of *other*. The task force's primary task was to develop data collection and definition standards related to school discipline in order to revise the statewide Comprehensive Educational Data and Research System (CEDARS). In addition to completing the CEDARS revisions, the task force proposed several policy recommendations for policy makers and educators to consider—including adopting a restorative justice model to address behavior and increasing family engagement (OSPI, 2014).

In early 2014, as the discipline task force was still conducting its work, the U.S. Department of Education (ED) released several resources—including *Guiding Principles: A Resource Guide for Improving School Climate and Discipline*—to assist states, districts, and schools in reforming school discipline approaches. Later that year, the Council of State Governments Justice Council published The School Discipline Consensus Report—a comprehensive, practical, and consensus-based resource. The consensus-based report and ED guidance both recommended reserving any removal of students from the classroom as a *last resort*, focusing on improving school climate or conditions for learning, and proactively using data to inform the delivery of equitable,

developmentally appropriate, and culturally responsive behavioral interventions (ED, 2014; Morgan, Salomon, Plotkin, & Cohen, 2014). General consensus continues to exist among researchers, practitioners, and government agencies that when school discipline is not administered proportionally to behavioral violations the consequences can be disruptive to student learning.

Recent legal developments require school districts to improve discipline policies and address disproportionate responses to student behavior. In 2014, OSPI's Office of Equity and Civil Rights created WAC 392-190-048, requiring districts to annually review disaggregated discipline data for disproportionality and to "take prompt action to ensure that the disproportion is not the result of discrimination." At the federal level, under the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), states and school districts are required to develop a plan that describes how they will support efforts to reduce "the overuse of discipline practices that remove students from the classroom" in order to receive certain federal funds. A bill based on the EOGOAC recommendations for closing the opportunity gap, including significant changes introduced in a section on "Disproportionality in Student Discipline," passed into state law following the 2016 legislative session (4SHB 1541). This bill included a directive to support educator cultural competence, and established the Washington Integrated Student Supports Protocol (WISSP)—an initiative that emphasizes coordinating the delivery of academic and non-academic supports to improve student educational outcomes. In 2018, OSPI adopted New Student Discipline Rules that comprehensively revised Chapter 392-400 of the Washington Administrative Code (WAC). Washington's discipline regulations now emphasize preventative approaches to behavior and explicitly encourage districts to use best practices and strategies included in this menu.

Social-Emotional Learning (SEL)

Schools today are faced with challenges as they attempt to meet the social-emotional and academic needs of an increasingly diverse student body. Academic standards tend to be clearly defined at a state level, but social, emotional, and behavioral expectations are often defined according to local social norms and are subject to individual interpretations. While schools are familiar with a number of tools and strategies to identify students' academic needs, comparable approaches for identifying social-emotional or behavioral needs are not yet well known and can be complex.

Educators and researchers recognize that social-emotional competencies and skills related to school preparedness develop early in life. A recent study reports that children who enter kindergarten with underdeveloped social-behavioral skills are more likely to be retained in grade level, identified for special education services, and suspended or expelled from school (Bettencourt, Gross, & Ho, 2016). While focusing on social-emotional development in early childhood is critical, SEL should take place throughout a student's primary and secondary

education. Research indicates that SEL programs can positively influence a variety of student educational outcomes across grade levels and have lasting positive effects on a range of developmental outcomes (Durlak et al., 2011; Taylor, Oberle, Durlak, & Weissberg, 2017). Educators can implement interventions in accordance with a malleable view of intelligence, or growth mindset, which can support a student's capacity to engage in self-efficacy and self-regulated learning (Boykin & Noguera, 2011; Yeager et al., 2016). At the classroom level, a recent meta-analysis found that classroom management programs focusing on social-emotional development had strong effects on both academic and social-emotional outcomes (Korpershoek, Harms, Boer, Kuijk, & Doolaard, 2016).

In 2012, the *Washington State Early Learning and Development Guidelines* was released. This document is an updated version of a prior publication, both of which describe behaviors and skills related to early childhood development. While the *Guidelines* "provide essential information to support and enhance children's development and learning," they should not be used as "an assessment tool or for use to determine children's eligibility for various programs or services" (DEL, OSPI, & Thrive by Five Washington, 2012, p. 2). The content is not exhaustive but every five years the *Guidelines* may be subject to review and revision to incorporate new learning. The *Guidelines* emphasize how important a holistic approach to early child development is for future learning and is aligned with the WaKIDS Whole-Child Assessment, an observational tool used in full-day kindergarten classrooms throughout Washington. Social-emotional development is a major component of these state documents.

In 2015, the Legislature directed OSPI "to convene a workgroup to recommend comprehensive benchmarks for developmentally appropriate interpersonal and decision-making knowledge and skills of social-emotional learning for grades kindergarten through high school that build upon what is being done in early learning" (ESSB 6052 Sec 501 (34)). Building upon the Early Learning and Development Guidelines, this workgroup submitted recommendations in the form of a report, Addressing Social Emotional Learning in Washington's K-12 Public Schools, to the Legislature on October 1, 2016. Similar to the guidance on using the Guidelines, the Social Emotional Learning Benchmarks Workgroup (SELB) cautioned that the standards and benchmarks "should never be used as an assessment tool" (OSPI, 2016, p. 10). Based on the recommendations of the SELB workgroup and in accordance with ESB 6620 Sec. 4, OSPI completed an SEL Online Education Module in September of 2017. Also in 2017, the Legislature directed OSPI to convene the Social Emotional Learning Indicators Workgroup to "identify and articulate developmental indicators for each grade level for each of the social emotional learning benchmarks, solicit feedback from stakeholders, and develop a model of best practices or guidance for schools on implementing the benchmarks and indicators" and to "submit recommendations to the education committees of the legislature and the office of the governor by June 30, 2019" (ESSB 5883 Sec. 501 (31)).

Washington's SEL standards are 1) Self-Awareness; 2) Self-Management; 3) Self-Efficacy; 4) Social Awareness; 5) Social Management; and 6) Social Engagement. Washington State's SELB was informed by standards previously developed in Illinois, Oakland, CA, and Anchorage, AK. Additionally, SELB recommended focusing on integrating cultural competency and trauma-informed approaches into the future development of standards, benchmarks, and indicators. The SELB final report established guiding principles around professional learning, school/family/community partnerships, and cultural responsiveness—and set forth recommendations that SEL implementation efforts include principles of <u>Universal Design for Learning</u>, a focus on equity, and a holistic approach (OSPI, 2016).



Figure 5: Core SEL Competency Wheel (CASEL, 2017)

The Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL) is a national organization that is striving to make SEL an integral part of the education system. CASEL defines SEL as "the process through which children and adults acquire and effectively apply the knowledge, attitudes, and skills necessary to understand and manage emotions, set and achieve goals, feel and show empathy for others, establish and maintain positive relationships, and make responsible decisions." When developing SEL standards, education policy-makers often adopt, modify, and/or refer to

CASEL's definition of SEL, as was the case in Washington (Dusenbury, Yoder, Dermody, & Weissberg, 2019). Many states, including Washington, are currently learning from each other by participating in the <u>Collaborating States Initiative</u> sponsored by CASEL. Although definitions may vary and are likely to change as new research in SEL emerges, educators and policy makers will continue to incorporate SEL concepts into their pedagogies, relational interactions, and policies.

Cultural Responsiveness and Equity in Student Discipline

All student behaviors occur within larger social and cultural contexts, and whether behaviors are perceived as appropriate or inappropriate varies across cultures, genders, and life experiences (Klingner et al., 2005). Families, students, staff, and other groups representing all demographics of the community should have equitable opportunities to engage in policy-making processes. Laws in the state of Washington require school districts to develop discipline

policies/procedures with parent and community participation (RCW 28A.600.020) and to consult with staff, students, families, and the community when reviewing and updating discipline policies/procedures (RCW 28A.320.211).

School discipline policies and behavioral expectations contain sets of values, whether consciously or unconsciously adopted, that are disseminated through written and oral communication channels. Ensuring historically underrepresented groups have a voice in school policies or processes may be an effective way to improve teacher-student relations while also increasing the likelihood that students will perceive the school system as fair (Way, 2011). Evidence points to the prevalent use of punitive and zero-tolerance policies over the years as contributing to increased levels of exclusionary discipline and racial disparities, even while failing to improve school learning environments or reduce overall student misbehavior and producing collateral consequences that negatively impact all students (Curran, 2016; Perry & Morris, 2014).

Although discipline practices vary significantly between and within school districts, the overwhelming majority of suspensions are for minor or highly subjective categories of behavioral violations that educators exercise vast discretion in administering. Consequently, black students are disproportionately excluded for discretionary behavioral violations compared to white students, even though racial disparities in discipline cannot be explained by higher rates of misbehavior, poverty, or other variables (Fabelo et al., 2011; Huang, 2016; Skiba et al., 2011; Skiba & Williams, 2014). One state-level study found that, compared to white students, American Indian/Alaska Native students disproportionally lost more instruction time due to exclusionary discipline and were more likely to be excluded for minor behavioral violations—particularly for attendance-related reasons (Sprague, Vincent, & Tobin, 2013).

Even when schools adopt policies and procedures with clear behavioral expectations that include the use of preventative and supportive discipline practices, educators still exercise discretion that can produce racial disparities through *differential selection* in office discipline referrals and *differential processing* of discipline resolutions (Anyon et al., 2014; Gregory, Skiba, & Noguera, 2010). Implementation of school-wide preventative and supportive programs may lead to overall reductions in office discipline referrals and exclusions without addressing persistent racial disparities or closing the gap between racial subgroups (Vincent & Tobin, 2011). Therefore, educators should review disaggregated discipline data at regular intervals while also ensuring that any adopted evidence-based practices demonstrate cultural validity and produce equitable outcomes (Banks & Obiakor, 2015; Skiba et al., 2011; Vincent, Randall, Cartledge, Tobin, & Swain-Bradway, 2011).

<u>Civil Rights Data Collection</u> (CRDC) reports show that students with disabilities and students of color continue to be disproportionately overrepresented in suspension rates at the national level. The U.S. Government Accountability Office (GAO) recently completed a study finding that

<u>Discipline Disparities for Black Students, Boys, and Students with Disabilities</u> continue to be widespread and persistent—irrespective of the type of discipline action or school and the level of poverty at the school (Nowicki, 2018). Additionally, the representation of culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students in special education programs is also disproportionate (Klingner et al., 2005; Sullivan, 2011). The panel of experts urge educators to be aware of disproportionality in special education programs and disciplinary practices. To ensure equitable student outcomes, the panel urges educators to avoid delaying making a referral for a special education evaluation, while also avoiding preemptively labeling student's behavior as a disorder or disability. Systematic approaches to disproportionality are complex:

The persistent disproportionate representation of students who are CLD in special education is a complex problem that is related to the construction of difference, educational opportunity, and local context of policy and practice. For many students, special education identification and placement is appropriate and indeed necessary; however, for others, it may be the result of factors outside the student and unrelated to the presence of disability per se. Evidence of disproportionality should be treated as indicative of underlying problems across and within multiple levels of the system (Sullivan, 2011, p. 331).

The implementation of Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS) or other school-wide systems should be an inclusive and reflective process involving culturally responsive decision-making regarding what constitutes appropriate or inappropriate behavior (Banks & Obiakor, 2015; Klingner et al., 2005; Sprague, Vincent, & Tobin, 2013). The Technical Assistance Center on PBIS developed a series of Equity & PBIS resources for supporting equitable student outcomes within a PBIS framework, including PBIS Cultural Responsiveness Field Guide: Resources for trainers and coaches and Key elements of policies to address discipline disproportionality: A guide for district and school teams. Researchers emphasize that to effectively prevent and reduce discipline disparities, multiple components are likely necessary—including the use or implementation of disaggregated data, a culturally responsive behavior framework, engaging instruction, equitable discipline policies, and strategies for neutralizing implicit bias in decision-making processes related to discipline (McIntosh, Girvan, Horner, Smolkowski, & Sugaui, 2018). Table 1 is a comprehensive framework based on a synthesis of ten research-based principles that, when implemented in a culturally conscious manner, hold promise for creating a positive school climate and reducing disparities in school discipline (Gregory, Skiba, & Mediratta, 2017).

Table 1 Framework for Increasing Equity in School Discipline				
Prevention	1.	Supportive Relationships	Authentic connections are forged between and among teachers and students.	
	2.	Bias-Aware Classrooms and Respectful School Environments	Inclusive, positive classroom and school environments are established in which students feel fairly treated.	
	3.	Academic Rigor	The potential of all students is promoted through high expectations and high-level learning opportunities.	
	4.	Culturally Relevant and Responsive Teaching	Instruction reflects and is respectful of the diversity of today's classrooms and schools.	
	5.	Opportunities for Learning and Correcting Behavior	Behavior is approached from a nonpunitive mind-set, and instruction proactively strengthens student social skills, while providing structured opportunities for behavioral correction within the classroom as necessary.	
Intervention	6.	Data-Based Inquiry for Equity	Data are used regularly to identify "hot spots" of disciplinary conflict or differential treatment of particular groups.	
	7.	Problem-Solving Approaches to Discipline	Solutions aim to uncover sources of behavior or teacher-student conflict and address the identified needs.	
	8.	Inclusion of Student and Family Voice on Conflicts' Causes and Solutions	Student and family voice are integrated into policies, procedures, and practices concerning school discipline.	
	9.	Reintegration of Students after Conflict or Absence	Students are supported in reentering the community of learners after conflict or long-term absence has occurred.	
Prevention and Intervention	10.	Multitiered System of Supports	Schools use a tiered framework to match increasing levels of intensity of support to students' differentiated needs.	

Table 1: Framework for Increasing Equity in School Discipline (Gregory, Skiba, & Mediratta, 2017).

Educators' implicit biases can partially contribute to racial disparities in student discipline (Gilliam, Maupin, Reyes, Accavitti, & Shic, 2016). A recent study on the intersection of race and gender found discipline gaps between black girls and white girls for subjective offenses to be

larger than the gap between black and white boys—with the authors noting that "the ambiguous and comparatively inconsequential nature of behaviors like disobedience and disruptiveness may create a space for unintentional, implicit racial and gender bias." (Morris & Perry, 2017, p. 144). Therefore, in addition to establishing behavioral expectations in a culturally sensitive manner, culturally responsive efforts should include professional learning that focuses on increasing educators' self-awareness of implicit biases (Bal, Schrader, Afacan, & Mawene, 2016). Although root causes of disparities are varied and complex, researchers continue to recommend that educators repeal zero-tolerance policies, implement integrated educational supports, use disaggregated discipline data to address disparities, and focus on relationships to improve school-connectedness (Welsh & Little, 2018). Educators must ensure that best practices and strategies, including those contained in this menu, are adapted to local and cultural contexts in order to prevent the best of intentions from producing unintended outcomes (Nelson-Barber & Johnson, 2016).

If decision makers lack an understanding of the cultural differences and needs of the school community, phenomena such as disproportionate discipline rates and lack of student engagement will likely persist. In addition to improving discipline data collection systems and addressing disproportionality in student discipline, cultural competence training and integrated student supports are significant components of recent state legislation to ensure equitable outcomes in Washington schools.

To achieve a high quality public education for *all* students, *all* educators must be able to work effectively in diverse settings. To become effective in diverse contexts, educators must be willing to learn about systemic racism and inequities in the public education system and to develop culturally competent skills and mindsets (EOGOAC, 2017). Professional learning opportunities aimed at increasing cultural competencies are focused on increasing educators' knowledge of student cultural histories and contexts (as well as family norms and values in different cultures), abilities to access community resources for community and family outreach, and skills in adapting instruction to align to students' experiences and identifying cultural contexts for individual students (RCW 28A.410.260). In accordance with best practices regarding family engagement, districts should make every effort to ensure cultural competence training programs are developed and implemented in partnership with families and communities (EOGOAC, 2017).

When classrooms and schools are staffed with culturally competent educators, schools are more likely to effectively work towards closing the opportunity gap and increasing student achievement. OSPI has created a toolkit to support educators as they integrate students' <u>funds</u> of knowledge in the classroom. Additional resources that support culturally responsive practices

include <u>Culturally Responsive Teaching Matters!</u>, <u>Culturally Responsive Classroom Management</u>, and <u>Culturally Responsive Teaching</u>.

School Climate, Relationships, and Student Supports

Over the past several years, research has found that a positive school climate contributes significantly to increased academic achievement, and may actually be more influential on learning outcomes than other resources available to schools (Voight, Austin, & Hanson, 2013). A positive school climate, which requires positive teacher-student relationships, can potentially mitigate racial disparities in school discipline and negative effects of low socioeconomic status on academic achievement (Berkowitz, Moor, Astor, & Benbenishty, 2016; Okonofua, Walton, & Eberhardt, 2016). More schools are implementing strategies that encourage student self-discipline instead of focusing on trying to control student behavior through sanctions or threats of punishment (Mayworm & Sharkey, 2014). As educators look forward, they will continue to adopt strategies and make systemic changes in response to government initiatives and emerging research.

When schools attempt to create a culture of compliance by using punishments, such efforts may actually generate defiance and the unintended consequences of increased disruptive behavior (Way, 2011). Studies on student-teacher relationships and student cooperation indicate that relational approaches can mitigate defiant behavior and potentially reduce racial gaps in discipline referrals (Gregory et al., 2016; Gregory & Ripski, 2008). A recent study found that punitive climates can induce punitive attitudes regarding student discipline that decrease students' respect towards teachers and their motivation to behave in class, but that scalable empathic-mindset interventions for teachers could result in improved relations with students and lower suspension rates (Okonofua, Paunesku, & Walton, 2016). Another study, focused on reducing the likelihood of black students receiving discipline referrals, found promising results from an intervention designed to mitigate root causes of exclusionary discipline decisions stemming from student-teacher interactions in the classroom (Cook et al., 2018). The results of these studies are promising for future research in other practices and strategies that explicitly aim to improve student-teacher relationships and to foster safe and supportive school climates.

Schools are encouraged to use surveys to develop responsive policies and programs that serve student needs. The U.S. Department of Education released <u>ED School Climate Surveys</u> as part of a concerted effort to assist educators in creating safe and supportive learning environments within their schools. The <u>Healthy Youth Survey</u>, the result of a collaboration between OSPI and other state agencies, is designed to help schools and other service providers identify trends in attitudes and behaviors among youth throughout Washington. Survey results can assist schools in identifying individual/peer, school, community, and family conditions that impact student learning and school climate.

School-wide preventative approaches that also aim to improve school climate, such as PBIS, SEL, or restorative justice, can be particularly effective towards improving student outcomes (Mayworm & Sharkey, 2014; Voight et al., 2013). Research on SEL programs suggests that social-emotional supports can be provided more effectively when integrated into daily educational routines (Durlak et al., 2011). Social engagement is a key component of restorative justice in schools, a systemic approach that encourages the development of social-emotional competencies and internalization of behavioral values within a relational context (Morrison & Vaandering, 2012). Educators throughout the state of Washington are innovatively combining elements of various practices and strategies as they develop comprehensive student support systems to meet the needs of all students.

School-wide programs and supports may limit any potential stigma associated with referrals for additional services while also fostering student engagement and self-discipline (Bettencourt et al., 2016; Mayworm & Sharkey, 2014). In addition to direct classroom observations, schools use a variety of indicators to determine whether a student could benefit from additional supports, such as office referrals, attendance, and academic performance. Universal instruction and supports are necessary and should remain in place even while a student is being assessed and receiving supplemental services. Before a student is referred for additional services in LAP, it is important to ensure best practices are implemented with consistency in the classroom and school environment. Educators can then more easily determine whether the behaviors a student is displaying are the result of environmental variables or individual student needs, whether academic or non-academic, and respond accordingly.

References

- Anyon, Y., Jenson, J. M., Altschul, I., Farrar, J., McQueen, J., Greer, E., Downing, B., & Simmons, J. (2014). The persistent effect of race and the promise of alternatives to suspension in school discipline outcomes. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 44, 379–386.
- Bal, A., Schrader, E. M., Afacan, K., & Mawene, D. (2016). Using learning labs for culturally responsive positive behavioral interventions and supports. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, *52*, 122–128.
- Banks, T., & Obiakor, F. E. (2015). Culturally responsive positive behavior supports: Considerations for practice. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, *3*, 83–90.
- Berkowitz, R., Moore, H., Astor, R. A., & Benbenishty, R. (2016). A research synthesis of the associations between socioeconomic background, inequality, school climate, and academic achievement. *Review of Educational Research*. 0034654316669821.

- Bettencourt, A., Gross, D., & Ho, G. (2016). The Costly Consequences of Not Being Socially and Behaviorally Ready by Kindergarten: Associations with Grade Retention, Receipt of Academic Support Services, and Suspensions/Expulsions. *Baltimore Education Research Consortium*.
- Boykin, A. W., & Noguera, P. (2011). *Creating the Opportunity to Learn: Moving from Research to Practice to Close the Achievement Gap.* ASCD.
- Cook, C. R., Duong, M. T., McIntosh, K., Fiat, A. E., Larson, M., Pullmann, M. D., & McGinnis, J. (2018). Addressing discipline disparities for Black male students: Linking malleable root causes to feasible and effective practices. *School Psychology Review*, 47, 135-152.
- Curran, F. C. (2016). Estimating the effect of state zero tolerance laws on exclusionary discipline, racial discipline gaps, and student behavior. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 38, 647–668.
- Department of Early Learning (DEL), Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction (OSPI), & Thrive by Five Washington (2012). <u>Washington State Early Learning and Development Guidelines: Birth through 3rd Grade</u>. Washington State Department of Early Learning.
- Durlak, J., Weissberg, R., Dymnicki, A., Taylor, R., & Schellinger, K. (2011). The impact of enhancing students' social and emotional learning: A meta-analysis of school-based universal interventions. *Child Development*, *82*, 405–432.
- Dusenbury, L., Yoder, N., Dermody, C., & Weissberg, R. (February, 2019) <u>An Examination of Frameworks for Social and Emotional Learning (SEL) Reflected in State K-12 Learning Standards</u>. Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning.
- Educational Opportunity Gap Oversite and Accountability Committee (EOGOAC), (2017). Closing the opportunity gap in Washington's public education system. <u>2017 Annual Report</u>.
- Fabelo, T., Thompson, M. D., Plotkin, M., Carmichael, D., Marchbanks, M. P., & Booth, E. A. (2011).

 <u>Breaking schools' rules: A statewide study of how school discipline relates to students' success and juvenile justice involvement</u>. *Council of State Governments Justice Center*.
- Gilliam, W. S., Maupin, A. N., Reyes, C. R., Accavitti, M., & Shic, F. (2016). <u>Do early educators' implicit biases regarding sex and race relate to behavior expectations and recommendations of preschool expulsions and suspensions?</u>. *Yale Child Study Center, September*, 991–1013.
- Green, A., Nese, R. N. T., McIntosh, K., Nishioka, V., Eliason, B. M., & Canizal Delabra, A. (2015). Key elements of policies to address discipline disproportionality: A guide for district and

- <u>school teams</u>. OSEP Technical Assistance Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports.
- Gregory, A., & Ripski, M. B. (2008). Adolescent trust in teachers: Implications for behavior in the high school classroom. *School Psychology Review*, *37*, 337–353.
- Gregory, A., Skiba, R. J., & Noguera, P. A. (2010). The achievement gap and the discipline gap: Two sides of the same coin?. *Educational Researcher*, *39*, 59–68.
- Gregory, A., Hafen, C. A., Ruzek, E., Mikami, A. Y., Allen, J. P., & Pianta, R. C. (2016). Closing the racial discipline gap in classrooms by changing teacher practice. *School Psychology Review*, *45*, 171–191.
- Gregory, A., Skiba, R. J., & Mediratta, K. (2017). <u>Eliminating Disparities in School Discipline: A Framework for Intervention</u>. Review of Research in Education, 41, 253–278.
- Huang, F.L. (2016). Do Black students misbehave more? Investigating the differential involvement hypothesis and out-of-school suspensions. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 1-11.
- Klingner, J., Artiles, A., Kozleski, E., Harry, B., Zion, S., Tate, W., Riley, D. (2005). Addressing the disproportionate representation of culturally and linguistically diverse students in special education through culturally responsive educational systems. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 13 (38).
- Korpershoek, H., Harms, T., Boer, H. de, Kuijk, M. van, & Doolaard, S. (2016). A meta-analysis of the effects of classroom management strategies and classroom management programs on students' academic, behavioral, emotional, and motivational outcomes. *Review of Educational Research*, 0034654315626799.
- Leverson, M., Smith, K., McIntosh, K., Rose, J., & Pinkelman, S. (2016). <u>PBIS Cultural</u>
 <u>Responsiveness Field Guide: Resources for trainers and coaches</u>. OSEP Technical assistance
 Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports.
- Mayworm, A., & Sharkey, J. (2014). Ethical considerations in a three-tiered approach to school discipline policy and practice. *Psychology in the Schools*, *51*, 693–704.
- McIntosh, K., Girvan, E. J., Horner, R. H., Smolkowski, K., & Sugai, G. (2018). <u>A 5-point intervention approach for enhancing equity in school discipline</u>. OSEP Technical Assistance Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports.
- McIntosh, K., & Goodman, S. (2016). *Integrated Multi-Tiered Systems of Support: Blending RTI and PBIS*. Guilford Publications.

- Morgan, E., Salomon, N., Plotkin, M., & Cohen, R. (2014). <u>The school discipline consensus report:</u>

 <u>Strategies from the field to keep students engaged in school and out of the juvenile justice system</u>. *The Council of State Governments Justice Center*.
- Morris, E. W., & Perry, B. L. (2017). Girls behaving badly? Race, gender, and subjective evaluation in the discipline of African American girls. *Sociology of education*, *90*, 127-148.
- Morrison, B., & Vaandering, D. (2012). Restorative justice: Pedagogy, praxis, and discipline. *Journal of School Violence*, 11, 138–155.
- Mosehauer, K., McGrath, N., Nist, J., & Pillar, K. (2012). <u>Reclaiming Students: The Educational and Economic Costs of Exclusionary Discipline in Washington State</u>. Washington Appleseed & Team Child.
- Nelson-Barber, S., & Johnson, Z. (2016). Acknowledging the perils of "best practices" in an indigenous community. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 47, 44–50.
- Nowicki, J. M. (2018). <u>K-12 Education: Discipline Disparities for Black Students, Boys, and Students with Disabilities</u>. Report to Congressional Requesters. GAO-18-258. *US Government Accountability Office*.
- Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction (OSPI). (2014). <u>Student Discipline Task Force Final</u> <u>Report</u>.
 - Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction (OSPI). (2016). <u>Addressing Social Emotional</u> <u>Learning in Washington's K–12 Public Schools</u>.
- Okonofua, J. A., Walton, G. M., & Eberhardt, J. L. (2016). A vicious cycle: A social–psychological account of extreme racial disparities in school discipline. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, *11*, 381–398.
- Okonofua, J., Paunesku, D., & Walton, G. (2016). Brief intervention to encourage empathic discipline cuts suspension rates in half among adolescents. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 201523698.
- Perry, B. L., & Morris, E. W. (2014). Suspending progress: Collateral consequences of exclusionary punishment in public schools. *American Sociological Review*, 79, 1067–1087.
- Skiba, R. J., Horner, R. H., Chung, C. G., Rausch, M. K., May, S. L., & Tobin, T. (2011). Race is not neutral: A national investigation of African American and Latino disproportionality in school discipline. *School Psychology Review*, 40(1), 85.
- Skiba, R., & Williams, N.T. (2014). *Are Black kids worse? Myths and facts about racial differences in behavior*. The Equity Project at Indiana University.

- Sprague, J.R., Vincent, C.G. and Tobin, T.J., 2013. Preventing Disciplinary Exclusions of Students from American Indian/Alaska Native Backgrounds. *Family Court Review*, *51*, pp.452-459.
- Sullivan, A. (2011). Disproportionality in special education identification and placement of English language learners. *Exceptional Children*, 77, 317–334.
- Taylor, R. D., Oberle, E., Durlak, J. A., & Weissberg, R. P. (2017). Promoting positive youth development through school-based social and emotional learning interventions: A meta-analysis of follow-up effects. *Child development*, 88, 1156-1171.
- U.S. Department of Education (ED). (2014). <u>Guiding Principles: A Resource Guide for Improving School Climate and Discipline</u>. Washington, D.C.
- Voight, A., Austin, G., & Hanson, T. (2013). <u>A Climate for Academic Success: How School Climate Distinguishes Schools That are Beating the Achievement Odds. Full Report</u>. *California Comprehensive Center at WestEd*.
- Vincent, C. G., Randall, C., Cartledge, G., Tobin, T. J., & Swain-Bradway, J. (2011). Toward a conceptual integration of cultural responsiveness and schoolwide positive behavior support. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, 13, 219–229.
- Vincent, C. G., & Tobin, T. J. (2011). The relationship between implementation of school-wide positive behavior support (SWPBS) and disciplinary exclusion of students from various ethnic backgrounds with and without disabilities. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, 19, 217-232.
- Way, S. (2011). School discipline and disruptive classroom behavior: The moderating effects of student perceptions. *The Sociological Quarterly*, *52*, 346–375.
- Welsh, R. O., & Little, S. (2018). The school discipline dilemma: A comprehensive review of disparities and alternative approaches. *Review of Educational Research*, 88, 752-794.
- Yeager, D. S., Romero, C., Paunesku, D., Hulleman, C. S., Schneider, B., Hinojosa, C., Lee, H. Y., O'Brien, J., Flint, K., Roberts, A. & Trott, J. (2016). Using design thinking to improve psychological interventions: The case of the growth mindset during the transition to high school. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 108, 374.
- Yoder, N. (2014). <u>Teaching the whole child: Instructional practices that support social-emotional learning in three teacher evaluation frameworks</u>. *Washington, D.C.: American Institute of Research Center on Great Teachers and Leaders*.

Behavior Menu

OVERVIEW

The expert panels worked together with the Washington State Institute for Public Policy (WSIPP) to develop a comprehensive menu of best practices and strategies based on the most current evidence and rigorous research available. Panelists referred to the following WSIPP definitions for evidence-based, research-based, and promising practices.

Evidence-based

A program or practice that has been tested in heterogeneous or intended populations with multiple randomized, or statistically controlled evaluations, or both; or one large multiple site randomized, or statistically controlled evaluation, or both, where the weight of the evidence from a systemic review demonstrates sustained improvements in at least one outcome. Evidence-based also means a program or practice that can be implemented with a set of procedures to allow successful replication in Washington and, when possible, is determined to be cost-beneficial.

Research-based

A program or practice that has been tested with a single randomized, or statistically controlled evaluation, or both, demonstrating sustained desirable outcomes; or where the weight of the evidence from a systemic review supports sustained outcomes [. . .] but does not meet the full criteria for evidence-based.

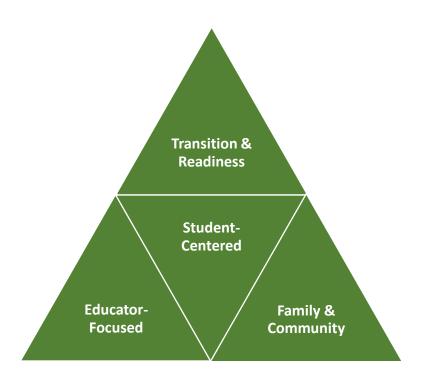
Promising

A practice that, based on research evidence, a well-established theory of change, or guidance from expert panels, shows potential for improving student outcomes but does not meet the criteria for classification as an evidence-based or research-based program. The expert panels and WSIPP collaborate to identify promising practices for inclusion in the inventory and menus.

The behavior menu lists practices and strategies that have been shown to support the behavioral needs of students who have not yet met grade-level standards. It is important to note that the work of the expert panel was to identify proven general practices and strategies, not specifically branded programs that might include those practices. Districts considering adoption of programs or curriculum are encouraged to review the materials for alignment to the best practices and strategies outlined in this menu. Any chosen program or curriculum should be evaluated on an ongoing basis to ensure it effectively impacts student achievement.

Menu Organization

The menus have been organized into four categories of practices and strategies. Entries in the student-centered category directly involve the student (e.g., mentoring, social skills instruction, and restorative justice). Educator-focused practices and strategies include activities such as targeted professional learning, deescalation, or trauma-informed approaches. Entries in the transition and readiness category are intended to prepare students

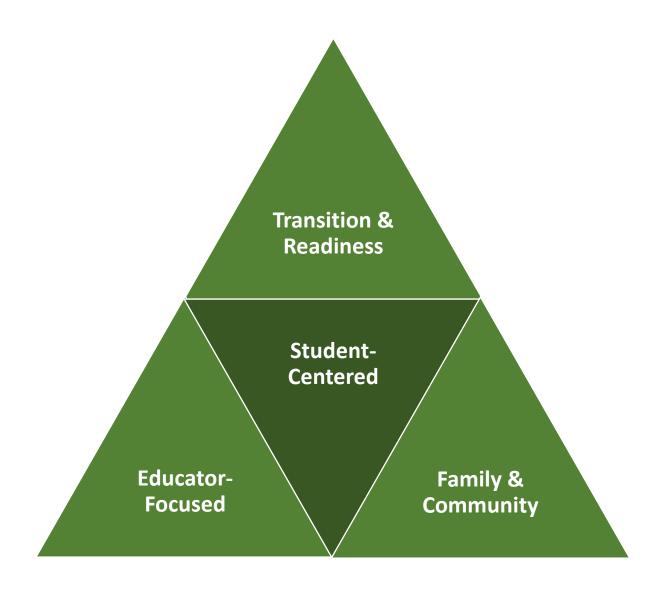


engage in learning, transition from middle to high school, and graduate from high school. Family and community practices and strategies include activities related to family engagement and school-community partnerships.

BEHAVIOR MENU AT A GLANCE

Student-Centered Practices and Strategies				
Behavioral Health	Research-Based			
Behavior Support and Monitoring Practices	Research-Based			
Mentoring	Research-Based			
<u>Peer Mediation</u>	Promising			
Restorative Justice	Promising			
Social Skills Instruction	Research-Based			
Educator-Focused Practices and Strategies				
Behavior Consultant Teacher/Instructional Coach	Research-Based			
<u>De-escalation</u>	Promising			
Professional Learning Communities	Promising			
Targeted Professional Learning	Research-Based			
Trauma-Informed Approaches	Promising			
Transition and Readiness Practices and Strategies				
Credit Retrieval and Mastery of High School Standards	Promising			
Grade 8 to High School Transitions	Promising			
Kindergarten Transitions	Promising			
Family and Community Practices and Strategies				
Family Engagement	Research-Based			
School-Community Partnerships	Research-Based			

STUDENT-CENTERED PRACTICES AND STRATEGIES



Behavioral Health

Behavioral health encompasses the full spectrum of social, emotional, and mental health needs of students and educators. Behavioral health is important for all students and applies across all tiers of supports. From a whole child perspective, behavioral health includes social-emotional health and basic needs, as well as encompasses factors like resiliency, motivation, emotional regulation, and self-management. A student's behavioral health can be influenced by many variables such as environmental conditions, biochemistry, genetics, trauma, resiliency, and family, community, or school relationships. Within a multi-tiered framework, strategies to support behavioral health are universally provided within the school context. For students needing additional support or intensive intervention, services can be school-based or community-based. Schools can deliver supports to students exhibiting behaviors that indicate their behavioral health needs are not being met, whether or not they meet criteria for a behavioral health disorder, as well provide intensive services and case management for students with severe behavioral needs.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Use behavioral health screeners and diagnostic data to enhance the identification process and facilitate the linking of students to appropriate intervention services.
- Conduct an environmental scan on protective factors that exist within the school (e.g. a quality improvement study on student resiliency) and use the results to leverage available resources when designing targeted behavioral health interventions.
- Develop a formalized process for identifying students who exhibit risk factors leading to behaviors that interfere with the learning process, by partially utilizing academic performance, behavioral data, disciplinary data, and attendance records.
- Create a dedicated space with a positive environment within each school to provide tier
 2 and tier 3 intervention services (e.g. confidential and supportive counseling) while
 ensuring that tier 1 supports continue to occur in the classroom.
- Deliver professional learning to build relationships and capacity of the school staff to support students with behavioral health needs in partnership with families, community, and community service providers. Consider professional coaching between behavioral health providers, teacher consultation, school counseling, and whole school support.
- Explore having a case manager or community resource person to facilitate and integrate community and school resources to address social, emotional, and mental health needs of students.

- Build relationships with Educational Service Districts (ESDs) and community-based organizations (CBOs) to explore how Prevention & Intervention services can serve students' behavioral health needs.
- Deliver professional learning to staff to support students with autism spectrum disorder or other neurodiversity, and sensory processing needs in the classroom. Partner with families and community service providers such as Applied Behavior Analysis (ABA) practitioners.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

- Students who are prone to using tobacco, alcohol, marijuana, illicit drugs, or other substances may do so for a variety of reasons and students who use similar substances may have different individual behavioral health needs. Differentiate between experimentation, self-medication, and substance abuse when providing appropriate interventions. Improve staff's understanding about the intersection of mental health and substance use.
- Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer (LGBTQ) as well as gender nonconforming students could benefit from school safety and climate initiatives that explicitly address LGBTQ-related bullying and harassment. All school personnel should receive professional learning on LGBTQ topics, including gender identity and expression. School-based mental health professionals should engage in targeted efforts to minimize hostile experiences faced by LGBTQ students as well as promote a welcoming and healthy school environment.
- Some students with specific behavioral health needs may already have a 504 plan or may currently be receiving special education services. Both students with a 504 plan and students eligible for special education are eligible to receive LAP services. LAP services, however, are not to be used as a substitute for the provision of special education described in a student's Individualized Education Plan (IEP). Educators are encouraged to share and discuss how the individual behavioral health needs of students with disabilities on a 504 plan or an IEP can be supported by an integrated, universal behavioral health support system designed to meet the needs of all students.
- Educators who believe that a student with behavioral health needs may have a disability and may be in need of services should be familiar with district procedures for making a referral for an evaluation under Section 504 and/or special education. Participation in LAP may not be used to delay evaluating a student for services under Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 or the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). A student is not required to obtain or currently have a mental/behavioral health diagnosis in order to be referred under Section 504 or the IDEA. Educators are encouraged to

document and share any observations about a student with behavioral health needs with other staff members involved in determining possible eligibility for services under Section 504 or the IDEA. However, educators are cautioned against using clinical or diagnostic language that could inappropriately label a student.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Develop culturally responsive behavioral health practices. Behavioral health prevention services, supports, and interventions need to be culturally relevant and sensitive to the family and students' culture.
- If referrals for tier 2 and tier 3 behavioral health interventions are high, consider whether tier 1 social-emotional learning can be improved or expanded. Review your region's Healthy Youth Survey data to help identify tier 1 student needs and any gaps in protective factors.
- Ensure basic needs (i.e. food, sleep, secure housing, etc.) are taken care of and consider the effects of poverty, scarcity, or inadequate nutrition on a student's behavior.
- Consider the stigma associated with mental health diagnosis, identity and labeling and the differences/intersections between the impacts of trauma, mental health and special education. Support mental health literacy and destigmatizing by teaching students about their own brain functioning and development.
- Enhance behavioral health service delivery to students by ensuring rapid response and regular follow-up to interventions.
- Adopt early childhood mental health screening and consultation. Signs of potential behavioral health disorders can manifest early and children can benefit from early intervention. Keep in mind that pediatricians are often the initial providers of behavioral health services for children, rather than therapists or psychiatrists.
- Ensure your school library has books available that appropriately and inclusively address behavioral health issues.
- Administering sanctions or punitive consequences in response to behavioral violations is not an effective practice for responding to substance use or mental health concerns.
 Shift school policies and practices around smoking and vaping from a discipline issue to an opportunity to identify and provide supports.
- Coordinate interventions to facilitate students in transitioning through services and supports with minimal disruption to their daily routine, programs, and education.
- Including a behavioral health specialist on the school's MTSS or PBIS team could increase school staff's understanding of behavioral health issues and provide consistency between behavioral health providers, parents, and the school.

- Schools should help facilitate access to and coordination with community health services, including school-based services provided by community-based organizations. Behavioral health services should be coordinated between school and community providers whenever possible.
- Any intervention plan must include the primary adults and supports in the student's life.
- Supports and services at all grade levels must include developmentally appropriate content and strategies.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- Treatment and Services Adaptation Center
- CASEL: <u>Effective Social and Emotional Learning Programs</u>
- University of Washington College of Education: <u>School Mental Health Assessment</u>, <u>Research</u>, <u>& Training (SMART) Center</u>
- University of Maryland School of Medicine: School Mental Health
- National Child Traumatic Stress Network (NCTSN)
- Harvard University: <u>Center on the Developing Child</u>
- Washington State Department of Social and Health Services: <u>Wraparound with Intensive Services (WISe) Implementation</u>
- The Community Guide

Supporting Research

Behavioral health refers to a state of mental/emotional being and/or choices and actions that affect wellness (SAMSHA, 2011). It includes behaviors resulting from actual or suspected substance abuse, violence (domestic, peer, or community) and/or mental health concerns of students and/or their caregivers (OSPI, 2012; Quinn, Osher, Hoffman, & Hanley, 1998).

The effects of behavioral health interventions are enhanced when:

- 1) They are comprehensive, integrated, multifaceted, and coordinated with other school and community resources (Adelman & Taylor, 2011).
- 2) The intensity of the intervention is commensurate with the severity or intensity of the problem behavior (Quinn et al., 1998).
- 3) The effectiveness and efficiency of the individual student system matches the effectiveness and efficiency of the school-wide system (Quinn et al., 1998).

Research indicates that student risk behaviors peak in mid or late adolescence, as do adolescent stressors. Protective factors, such as resiliency and the capability to overcome barriers, can

develop when students are engaged with the right support services. Research has shown that middle school students who learn these fundamental life skills delay the onset of alcohol, tobacco and drug use, and social and emotional behavior problems, such as violence, aggression, delinquency and issues with mental health (OSPI, 2012). School-based mental health professionals can play an important role in supporting LGBTQ students' behavioral and mental health needs while ensuring schools are a safe and supportive environment for all students (Kuff, Greytak, & Kosciw, 2019). For schools in rural communities, it is important for educators to acknowledge the unique barriers that families and students living in rural communities may face while focusing on solution-oriented approaches to accessing behavioral and mental health resources (Blackstock, Chae, Mauk, & McDonald, 2018). As schools increasingly expand multitiered system of supports to meet the behavioral needs of all students, the potential for providing a broader variety of less intensive mental health interventions may reduce reliance on intensive interventions if early access is prioritized (Barrett, Eber, & Weist, 2013). However, if a crisis intervention is warranted, typically a certified mental health or substance abuse professional should be deeply involved.

Research clearly highlights that behavioral and mental health interventions are most successful when embedded within the school's continuum of services and implemented as part of a comprehensive school-wide positive behavior intervention system (Fazel, Hoagwood, Stephan, & Ford, 2014; OSPI, 2012; Quinn et al., 1998). It is also important for school and district leadership to have access to certified mental health and substance abuse professionals who can also provide guidance and assistance with behavioral health interventions. Effective, integrated behavioral health supports are important to reduce problem behaviors (internalizing or externalizing) and to neutralize potential stigmatization or discrimination (Thornicroft et al., 2016). School-based services should be coordinated with other community resources, and should complement other treatments that the student is receiving (Adelman & Taylor, 2011; Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor, & Schellinger, 2011; OSPI 2012; Quinn et al., 1998).

References

Adelman, H., & Taylor, L. (2011). Expanding school improvement policy to better address barriers to learning and integrate public health concerns. *Policy in Education*, *9*, 431–446.

Barrett, S., Eber, L., & Weist, M. (2013). Advancing education effectiveness: Interconnecting school mental health and school-wide positive behavior support. *Center for School Mental Health*.

- Blackstock, J. S., Chae, K. B., Mauk, G. W., & McDonald, A. (2018). Achieving Access to Mental Health Care for School-Aged Children in Rural Communities: A Literature Review. *Rural Educator*, *39*, 12–25.
- Durlak, J., Weissberg, R., Dymnicki, A., Taylor, R., & Schellinger, K. (2011). The impact of enhancing students' social and emotional learning: A meta-analysis of school-based universal interventions. *Child Development*, *82*, 405–432.
- Fazel, M., Hoagwood, K., Stephan, S., & Ford, T. (2014). Mental health interventions in schools in high-income countries. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 1, 377-387.
- Kuff, R. M., Greytak, E. A., & Kosciw, J. G. (2019). <u>Supporting Safe and Healthy Schools for Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender, and Queer Students: A National Survey of School Counselors, Social Workers, and Psychologists</u>. *Gay, Lesbian and Straight Education Network (GLSEN)*.
- Quinn, M., Osher, D., Hoffman, C., & Hanley, T. (1998). *Safe, drug-free and effective schools for all students: What works!*. Washington, D.C.: American Institutes for Research.
- Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA). (2011). <u>Leading Change:</u>
 <u>A Plan for SAMHSA's Roles and Actions 2011–2014</u>. HHS Publication No. (SMA) 11-4629.
 SAMHSA.
- Thornicroft, G., Mehta, N., Clement, S., et. al. (2016). Evidence for effective interventions to reduce mental-health-related stigma and discrimination, *The Lancet*, *387*, 1123-1132.

Behavior Support and Monitoring Practices

Behavior support and monitoring practices involves educators using specific strategies to reinforce positive behaviors and reduce problem behaviors in the classroom while monitoring how students respond and making adjustments to support students in meeting behavioral expectations or student performance goals. Decisions most often occur within the context of a multi-tiered system of supports framework by behavior support teams proactively using data to understand the function, or reason, for student behaviors so as to select the most appropriate and effective approach.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Provide professional learning on universal or tier 1 classroom strategies to address problem behaviors within the classroom. Tier 1 strategies may include:
 - Establishing classroom rules, routines, and transition activities;
 - Proximity or active supervision (scanning, escorting, and interacting) for students that may be off task and pre-correction prompts;
 - o Increasing opportunities for students to respond during instructional lessons;
 - o Behavior-specific praise to recognize and reinforce appropriate behaviors;
 - Optimizing conditions for learning in the classroom environment by adapting seating arrangements, visual supports, wall space, temperature, lighting, or noise levels;
 - Reinforcing target behaviors by providing individual incentives or group contingencies.
- Implement a tier 2 intervention program for students who require additional support in meeting school-wide behavioral expectations. For example, students can check-in with assigned school personnel at multiple times during the school day regarding the student's behavior goals and daily interactions can be structured to intentionally create opportunities for positive adult attention, relationship-building, and instructional feedback on student's daily behavioral successes.
- Establish data-based teams to regularly review student data (e.g. attendance, behavior, and academic indicators) to inform decision making processes. Identify students who need support and progress monitor students already identified. Develop exit criteria and a transition plan for students no longer needing additional support.
- Adopt a peer-based behavior coaching model to help teachers implement behavior support strategies and practices with fidelity.

- Create a daily behavior and/or academic report card to monitor student progress. Behavioral progress monitoring records are used by staff to provide students with specific feedback or instruction to monitor performance and develop skills.
- Have students develop routines and common language to assist with their communication skills regarding classroom behaviors (e.g. Stop. Think. Go.).

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

- Students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds and contexts benefit when school personnel actively strive to neutralize implicit bias in decision-making processes related to classroom behavioral expectations or behavior goals. Professional learning on classroom behavior strategies should focus on the role of implicit bias in observing, interpreting, and responding to student behavior. Otherwise, teachers and other school personnel risk labeling behaviors that are culturally appropriate as disruptive. Implementation of behavior support and monitoring practices involves ethical decision-making regarding which behaviors to change, who is responsible for changing them, and the norms that serve as a background for this behavior change. Therefore, schools must include families and community members, or organizations reflecting the cultural and ethnic makeup of the student body, in all decision-making. Schools must also consider language access needs—both how to reduce communication barriers and how to incorporate a student's primary language into individualized plans.
- Students who have been bullied or harassed, or who are at risk of being targets, could be
 vulnerable in behavior monitoring group-settings and would instead benefit from an
 individualized progress-monitoring plan. Also, be careful to distinguish between
 behavioral needs that warrant extra support and behavioral responses to bullying or
 other forms of harassment.
- For students with autism and other neurodiversity in the classroom, establish predictable routines using visual supports and visual schedules. Use visual stories to support changes in routines.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Clearly define student behaviors in a way that is reliably measurable, observable, and culturally responsive.
- Ensure classroom educators have a basic understanding of functional behavioral analysis (FBA). Teachers can observe and document the potential function of a student's behavior and use the data to inform the selection of appropriate interventions and strategies.
- Whenever possible, adopt a team-based approach to implementation and leverage the expertise of multiple professionals—which can help to develop a sustainable model.

- Develop and use methods for data-based decision-making to guide the process of providing behavior supports.
- Select and use methods for measuring the fidelity of behavior support implementation and provide ongoing professional learning to address gaps in implementation. Ensure there is fidelity to the program as well as fairness and equity.
- Continually assess needs for professional development and provide ongoing training opportunities for staff related to behavior supports.
- Ensure a systematic approach to include the use of technology for tracking and selfmonitoring/assessment.
- Integrate social, emotional, and academic indicators in the behavior monitoring tool.
- Use common definitions to identify behaviors (where possible align single words with codes in required reporting formats to simplify data collection efforts).
- When directly measuring behavior, determine both the dimension of behavior measurement and data collection/measurement procedures using goals that are achievable within reasonable timeframes.
- Identify the factors that impact the various types of behavior. Determine if variables are attributed to school-based or external factors and address them accordingly.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- Comprehensive, Integrated, Three-Tiered (Ci3T) Model of Prevention: <u>Behavior Education</u> Program (BEP)/Check-In/Check-Out
- Positive Behavioral Interventions & Supports OSEP Technical Assistance Center
- University of Missouri: Evidence Based Intervention Network
- Portland State University Graduate School of Education: <u>Basic FBA to BIP</u>
- National Center on Intensive Intervention: <u>Behavioral Progress Monitoring Tools</u> and <u>Behavior Strategies to Support Intensifying Interventions</u>
- University of Washington: <u>ibestt Intervention Guides</u>
- University of Connecticut, NEAG School of Education: <u>Direct Behavior Ratings</u>

Supporting Research

Behavior support and monitoring practices involves collecting student behavior data on a regular basis over a period of time and using the data to design behavior supports that assist students in meeting behavioral goals. Such practices and strategies are effective when used

individually, but they can be especially powerful and efficient when implemented within a multitiered system of support (MTSS) framework, such as School-Wide Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports (SW-PBIS; Horner, Sugai, & Anderson, 2010).

Universal-level, tier 1 supports are provided to all students in all school settings (classrooms, hallways, playgrounds, cafeteria, transportation). Typically, universal behavior practices are tied to general behavioral expectations that are more specific to each area of the school, and sometimes to different areas within classrooms, such as certain academic areas or routines (Epstein, Atkins, Cullinan, Kutash, & Weaver, 2008). The practice examples listed in this menu are suggestions that might be helpful for all students in a class, or setting. Ideally, behavioral outcomes in these settings are aligned with school-wide expectations (which are defined, taught, and reviewed with all students), students are acknowledged and rewarded for these behaviors, and data collection systems are in place to determine the effectiveness of practices. Finally, adjustments to the strategies are made based on the student's response, with different or more intensive interventions, as needed.

Tier 2 intervention strategies are provided to small groups of students, or are "targeted" to meet the needs shared by a group of students (Bruhn, Lane, & Hirsch, 2014; Mitchell, Stormont, & Gage, 2011). Typically, tier 2 interventions are available for a student to enter at any time, based on their need or response to less (tier 1) or more (tier 3) intensive interventions. In addition, the nature of these interventions can make them less costly and more efficient than individualized (tier 3) interventions. As with interventions provided at more intensive levels, it is helpful to understand the function of a student's behavior when selecting these interventions.

Tier 3 strategies are intended for individual students. They include common, well-researched, well-established practices that are used by teachers and other educators, often within tier 2 behavior support teams, to support students exhibiting challenging behaviors (i.e., "behaviors of concern"). There are other ways to describe these strategies, such as (a) using antecedent strategies (Chambers, 2006; Cosden, Gannon, & Haring, 1995; Coy, J. N., & Kostewicz, D. E., 2018; Davis, Reichle, & Southard, 2000; Ratcliff, 2001), using strategies that teach specific skills (Halle, Bambara, & Reichle, 2005; Ness & Middleton, 2012; Tiger, Hanley, & Bruzek, 2008), and strategies that provide consequences for appropriate or challenging behaviors. These strategies also can be groups based on the "operant function", or purpose, of the behavior. It is important to first determine the function of the student's behavior (escape, attention, and sensory-based) when choosing these strategies.

Behavior monitoring can involve varying levels of complexity depending on the skill(s) being monitored, the degree of student involvement in data collection and goal setting, as well as the alignment of data with motivational systems. This flexible intervention can involve students in monitoring their own progress data or in conjunction with an adult (Moss, O'Conner, &

Peterson, 2013). Behavior monitoring can focus on increasing positive behavior or decreasing negative behavior (Sprick & Garrison, 2008).

An example of an effective behavior monitoring intervention is the use of a daily behavior report card. (What Works Clearinghouse, 2012). A daily report card is a list of targeted behaviors and overall behavioral goals that are individualized for that student. Teachers use the daily behavior report cards to provide ongoing feedback to the students during class. Variations on the use of daily report cards involves home or school-based incentives for daily performance. Students often meet with a designated staff member at the beginning and end of the day or at scheduled times to review the expected academic targets and/or behavioral expectations and review goals for improvement. (Cheney, et al., 2010). Self-evaluation is a self-management strategy that teaches a student to compare their own performance on a specific target behavior with a standard or goal set of criteria. For example, a student may have a checklist of steps for a routine of "getting ready for recess". The student places a sticker next to each step she completes and the stickers serve as a way to determine if she completes the task successfully.

Another behavior monitoring intervention, self-regulation, involves teaching students to systematically self-assess and self-evaluate their behavior. (Reid, Trout, & Schartz, 2005). Selfregulation encompasses self-monitoring, self-monitoring plus reinforcement, self-management and self-reinforcement (Peterson, Young, Salzberg, West, & Hill, 2006; Reid, et al., 2005). Selfmonitoring helps build skills by teaching students to recognize and record their own behavior. There are several steps, including identifying a target behavior, creating a recording system, and teaching the student to recognize and record. Self-monitoring can be useful for transferring responsibility from a teacher to a student. These systems can use technology devices, or simple tools such as pencil and paper or stickers. Research supports the use of self-management and self-monitoring skills for the successful transfer of newly acquired skills to non-training settings (Peterson, et. al, 2006). Self-regulation can be an effective strategy when a student's behavior results from a performance deficit rather than a skill deficit (McIntosh, Flannery, Sugai, Braun, & Cochrane, 2009; Reid, et al., 2005). Given the variety of target behaviors that can be addressed by this intervention, as well as the ability to vary the task complexity when students are involved in self-monitoring, evidence indicates self-regulation is a successful strategy across the K–12 grade span. (Cheney, et al., 2010; Moss, et al., 2013; Peterson, et al., 2006).

No matter which behavior monitoring strategy is utilized, it is of upmost importance to clearly define the behavior being monitored using specific and measurable terms. Once the target behavior is measured, the next critical step will be to identify a data collection system. The data system selected needs to be one that is easily used by the adult and/or student and is not embarrassing for the student. (Sprick & Garrison, 2008).

Antecedent strategies are used before a challenging behavior occurs as a way to prevent problem behavior. It is important to remember that because these strategies do not teach a student a new or more appropriate skill, the effect of antecedent strategies may be temporary and often need to be combined with strategies that teach specific skills to students. This is especially true when a student's behavior is particularly challenging or if the student has limited ways to communicate.

- <u>Choice making</u> is a strategy involves providing a student with several options before
 starting an activity where a student typically engages in challenging behavior. For
 example, a student might be offered a choice of materials that are needed for the task, a
 choice of components of the activity, or a choice of different activities when given
 directions to the task. For example, "Do you want to do multiplication or subtraction
 first?"
- <u>High probability requests</u> is a way to encourage student build momentum through a series of short, easy requests the help a student engage in a specific behavior that they are not likely to complete.
- <u>Using a pre-specified reinforcer</u> is a strategy that can help facilitate student completion of an activity or task. When using this strategy, a teacher states the reinforcer to be delivered prior to the completion of a task or activity in which a problem behavior occurs (e.g., "When you finish your journal writing, you can watch YouTube videos."). To use this, first assess a student's preferences and reinforcers. Identify a variety of reinforcers to offer the student so he/she does not get tired of a repeated reinforcer. Then, ensure the student knows what he/she has to do to get the reinforcer. Deliver the request by stating the reinforcer to be delivered when the request is completed. The student receives the reinforcer after completing the activity. It is important to remember that even though an item may be preferred, sometimes a student may not be willing to complete a task in order to obtain the item.
- <u>Preferred item as a distractor</u>. This strategy to reduce challenging behavior involves engaging a student in an activity or object to distract him/her from the event or situation where they typically have difficulty and engage in challenging behavior. For example, giving a student picture cards to look at while having to wait at an assembly, or letting a student listen to music (with headphones) while riding the bus.
- Noncontingent reinforcement. This strategy can be considered "enriching the
 environment" in a way that might prevent challenging behavior by reducing the value of
 the maintaining consequence and reducing the likelihood that the problem behavior will
 occur. To use this approach, the function, or reason, for a challenging behavior is

identified, a baseline level of the behavior is determined, and then the teacher provides brief reinforcement (e.g., specific praise to the student, "nice job working on your assignment!") on a planned schedule regardless of what the student is doing.

• <u>Collaborative activities</u>. This strategy involves sharing the responsibilities of a task or activity in which a student typically exhibits challenging behaviors. For example, a teacher might state, "If you will write three sentences, I will write three sentences." to implement the collaborative activities approach, first identify activity, then split the responsibilities of the task. Then, before the student engages in challenging behavior, present the task demand in a collaborative fashion. This intervention tends to be effective for students with challenging behavior that functions as a way to avoid an activity or to obtain attention.

In addition to choosing strategies that may prevent challenging behavior from occurring, teachers should be able to teach students specific skills that teach students alternative skills that either function as a "replacement" for the problem behavior or as a way to cope with, or tolerate, an unpleasant situation (Halle, Bambara, & Reichle, 2005).

Replacement skills are behaviors that help a student get their needs met by identifying the reasons (function) for the behavior and finding an alternative behavior that serves the same function as the challenging behavior but in a more socially acceptable way. Depending on the function of the challenging behavior, a replacement skill might result in the student accessing teacher or peer attention, delaying or stopping a task request, accessing a toy or tangible item, or receiving/avoiding sensory input. Because the skill is taught by also ensuring that challenging behavior is not inadvertently responded to, this strategy is sometimes called differential reinforcement.

The replacement skill should provide the student with the same outcome provided by the challenging behavior. For example, if a student puts their head down when asked to complete a difficult academic assignment and as a result avoids, delays, or escapes the task, then the new replacement skill should provide this same outcome, or function but by using more acceptable ways to communicate. Replacement skills are particularly helpful for students who are learning to communicate effectively and may have a limited communicative repertoire.

Examples of replacement skills include:

- Requesting or recruiting attention (the function is accessing attention)
- Requesting help or assistance (the function is escaping a request or instruction)
- Requesting a break (the function is escaping a request or instruction)

- Rejecting a request (e.g., "No thank you") (the function is escaping a request or instruction)
- Requesting an item or activity (the function is accessing a "tangible")
- Requesting help to obtain an item or activity (the function is accessing a "tangible")

Coping and tolerance skills are useful when a student needs to participate in an activity that cannot be avoided, such as medical procedures or certain life skills or self-care skills. In addition, these skills can be used to help a student become more tolerant of using a replacement skill in ways that help ensure they are engaged in classroom and academic activities. Tolerance for delayed reinforcement is a strategy that can be useful for increasing the amount of work a student completes or extending the time that elapses before a student earns a reward. When using the strategy, a teacher provides a signal that indicates reinforcement is about to be delivered, based on the student showing an appropriate behavior. For example, a teacher might say "just one more minute" or "you're almost done" to indicate that student will be able to leave a task or be provided a reinforcer. As the student is successful, the time is gradually increased.

There are several important considerations to keep in mind when teaching replacement skills:

- 1. Determine the function of (reason for) the behavior of concern first
- 2. Choose a skill that requires less effort (for the student) than the problem behavior
- 3. Create a clear list of teaching procedures for all adults to use when teaching the new skill
- 4. Identify powerful reinforcers to provide when the student engages in the new skill
- 5. Provide the reinforcer immediately after the student uses the new skill
- 6. Be consistent, and initially follow through with each student request every time
- 7. Be sure you no longer provide reinforcement for the problem behavior

Replacement skills strategies should be considered a first step in helping the student. For example, requesting a break may be more socially acceptable than screaming, defiance, or aggression, but soon the student will need to learn how to engage in the tasks appropriately and for longer periods.

References

Bruhn, A. L., Lane, K. L, & Hirsch, S. E. (2014). A review of Tier 2 interventions conducted within multitiered models of behavioral prevention. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, 22, 171-189.

- Chambers, C. R. (2006). High-probability request strategies: Practical guidelines. *Young Exceptional Children*, *9*, 20-28.
- Cheney, D., Lynass, L., Flower, A., Waugh, M., Iwaszuk, W., Mielenz, C., & Hawken, L. (2010). The check, connect, and expect program: A targeted tier two intervention in the school-wide positive behavior support model. *Preventing School Failure, 54*, 152–158. doi:10.1080/10459880903492742
- Chow, J. C., & Gilmour, A. F. (2016). Designing and implementing group contingencies in the classroom: A teacher's guide. *TEACHING Exceptional Children*, *48*, 137-143.
- Cosden, M., Gannon, C., & Haring, T. G. (1995). Teacher-control versus student-control over choice of task and reinforcement for students with severe behavior problems. *Journal of Behavioral Education*, *5*, 11-27.
- Colvin, G., Sugai, G., Good, R. H., & Lee, Y. (1997). Using active supervision and precorrection to improve transition behaviors in an elementary school. *School Psychology Quarterly, 12*, 344-363.
- Conroy, M.A., Sutherland, K.S., Snyder, A.L., & Marsh, S. (2008). Classwide interventions: Effective instruction makes a difference. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, 40, 24-30.
- Coy, J. N., & Kostewicz, D. E. (2018). Noncontingent Reinforcement: Enriching the Classroom Environment to Reduce Problem Behaviors. *TEACHING Exceptional Children, 50*, 301-309.
- Davis, C. A., Reichle, J. E., & Southard, K. L. (2000). High-Probability requests and a preferred item as a distractor: Increasing successful transitions in children with behavior problems. *Education and Treatment of Children, 23*, 423-440.
- Emmer, E. T., & Evertson, C. M. (2013). *Classroom management for middle and high school teachers (9th edition)*. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson.
- Epstein, M., Atkins, M., Cullinan, D., Kutash, K., and Weaver, R. (2008). Reducing Behavior Problems in the Elementary School Classroom: A Practice Guide (NCEE #2008-012). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. Retrieved from https://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/PracticeGuide/4.
- Halle, J., Bambara, L. M., & Reichle, J. (2005). Teaching alternative skills. In L. M. Bambara & L. Kern (Eds.), *Individualized supports for students with problem behaviors: Designing positive behavior plans* (pp. 237-274). New York: Guildford.

- Hirsch, S. E., MacSuga-Gage, A., Park, K., & Dillon, S. (2016). A road map to systematically setting up a group contingency. *Beyond Behavior*, *25*, 21-29.
- Horner, R. H., Sugai, G., & Anderson, C. M. (2010). Examining the evidence base for school-wide positive behavior support. *Focus on Exceptional Children, 42*, 1-14.
- Kern L., & Clemens N. H. (2007). Antecedent strategies to promote appropriate classroom behavior. *Psychology in the Schools, 44*, 65-75.
- McIntosh, K., Flannery, K. B., Sugai, G., Braun, D. H., & Cochrane, K. L. (2008). Relationships between academics and problem behavior in the transition from middle school to high school. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, 10(4), 243–255.
- McKenna, J. W., & Flower, A. (2014). Get them back on track: Use of the good behavior game to improve student behavior. *Beyond Behavior*, *23*, 20-26.
- Mitchell, B. S., Stormont, M., & Gage, N. (2011). Tier two interventions implemented within the context of a tiered prevention framework. *Behavioral Disorders*, *36*, 241-261.
- Moss, E., O'Conner, A., & Peterson, R. L. (2013). *Behavior monitoring: Strategy brief.* (December, 2013). Lincoln, NE: Student Engagement Project, University of Nebraska-Lincoln and the Nebraska Department of Education.
- Ness, B. M. & Middleton, M. J. (2012). A framework for implementing individualized self-regulated learning strategies in the classroom. *Intervention in School and Clinic, 47*, 267-275.
- Peterson, L. D., Young, R. K., Salzberg, C. L., West, R. P., & Hill, M. (2006). Using self-management procedures to improve classroom social skills in multiple general education settings. *Education and Treatment of Children, 29*, 1–21.
- Rafferty, L. A. (2010). Step-by-step: Teaching students to self-monitor. *TEACHING Exceptional Children*, *43*, 50-58.
- Ratcliff, N. (2001). Use the environment to prevent discipline problems and support learning. *Young Children*, 56, 84-88.
- Reichle, J., Johnson, L., Monn, E., & Harris, M. (2010). Task engagement and escape maintained challenging behavior: Differential effects of general and explicit cues when implementing a signaled delay in the delivery of reinforcement. *Journal of Autism and Developmental Disorders*, 40, 709-720.

- Reid, R., Trout, A. L., & Schartz, M. (2005). Self-regulation interventions for children with attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder. *Exceptional Children, 71*, 361–377.
- Schulze, M. A. (2016). Self-management strategies to support students with ASD. *TEACHING Exceptional Children*, 48, 225-231.
- Sprick, R., & Garrison, M. (2008). *Interventions: Evidence-based behavioral strategies for individual students.* (2nd ed.). Eugene, OR: Northwest Publishing.
- Stormont, M. A., Rodriguez, B. J. & Reinke, W. M. (2016). Teaching students with behavior problems to take a break. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, *51*, 301-306.
- Sutherland, K. S., Copeland, S., & Wehby, J. H. (2001). Catch them while you can: Monitoring and increasing the use of effective praise. *Beyond Behavior*, *11*, 46-49.
- Tiger, J. H., Hanley, G. P., & Bruzek, J. (2008). Functional communication training: A review and practical quide. *Behavior Analysis in Practice*, *1*, 16-23.
- What Works Clearinghouse. (2012). WWC review of the report "Enhancing the effectiveness of special education programming for children with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder using a daily report card." What Works Clearinghouse.

Mentoring

Mentoring is defined as a relationship in which an experienced person (mentor) assists another, less-experienced person (mentee) in developing specific skills and knowledge that will enhance the mentee's growth.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Partner with local service organizations to establish adult-youth mentoring relationships that include service learning. For example, firefighters could mentor students while also teaching fire safety.
- Empower a group of students to identify potential mentors and develop a mentoring program.
- Develop mentoring in combination with school activities and student clubs.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

- Students who have limited adult contact or support outside of school could benefit from an adult mentor relationship.
- Students without a parent of their gender may benefit from a gender-matched mentoring program.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Ensure mentoring relationships are clearly defined.
- Evaluate mentors' interpersonal sensitivity and capacity to build rapport with youth as well as families.
- Make mentoring programs available to students in grade levels throughout the district so students can benefit from a mentoring relationship during each stage of their development.
- Streamline processes for clearing volunteer mentors within school buildings.
- Identify potential mentoring resources for metropolitan as well as rural areas and, when necessary, develop a plan to deliver mentoring services in various locations.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- Mentor Washington
- MENTOR: The National Mentoring Partnership
- National Mentoring Resource Center
- The Rhodes Lab: Center for Evidence-based Mentoring

- <u>University of Minnesota, Institute on Community Integration: Check & Connect Student Engagement Intervention</u>
- Education Northwest: <u>Institute for Youth Success</u>, <u>Mentor/Mentee Training and Relationship Support Resources</u>, and <u>Youth Mentoring Program Planning and Design Resources</u>

Supporting Research

Mentoring often occurs naturally during adolescent development and usually involves an older person with more life experience providing care and assistance to a younger person in the context of a lengthy relationship (CSAP, 2000). Mentoring programs can provide a structured and trusting relationship that bring young people together with caring individuals who offer guidance, support, and encouragement (Hartley, 2004). Mentoring programs can occur in group settings but usually facilitate one-on-one mentoring relationships (DuBois, Portillo, Rhodes, Silverthorn, & Valentine, 2011). Mentoring programs can range from informal to formal, but school-based or community-based mentoring programs are often very intentional efforts that recruit mentors who are both experienced and trained (CSAP, 2000).

Mentoring programs can have a positive impact on academic and non-academic student outcomes. One study that partnered at-risk students with positive adult role models in one-on-one mentoring relationships saw improved attendance and grades, as well as decreased discipline referrals over a two year period (Johnson & Lampley, 2010). A recent meta-analysis of mentoring programs concluded that "mentoring is, by and large, an effective mode of intervention for young people" but added that "effects may hinge to a noteworthy extent on decisions regarding which youth and mentors are targeted and selected for the intervention as well as on the care with which mentoring relationships are then established and guided toward activities that are consistent with the goals of a program" (DuBois, et al., 2011, p. 80).

Mentoring programs for students can focus on particular areas such as:

- Social and emotional wellbeing. Mentoring to assist young people to increase their self-esteem, self-efficacy and resilience by actively supporting their social and emotional wellbeing. The focus includes improving both the young person's life skills and the positive connections they have with their community.
- Individual talents and leadership. Mentoring to assist young people to further develop their individual talents and/or leadership skills in a specific area (e.g. sports, photography, and drama) in order for them to reach their full potential.
- Identity and culture. Mentoring to assist young people to grow in their understanding
 of their faith and/or culture and cultural identity. The program actively supports young

- people to be proud and confident of their identity and culture, and to be able to exercise this in their community.
- Youth justice and crime prevention. Mentoring to assist young people to avoid antisocial and offending behaviors by encouraging connectedness with positive elements in their community and increasing protective factors.
- Education, training and employment. Mentoring to assist young people to positively engage in and maintain their participation in education, training, and employment. These programs assist young people to develop a vision for their future and provide support to achieve their education, training and career goals.

Cultural competence is a factor that may impact a mentoring relationship. Cultural competence refers to the extent to which individuals have the capacity to effectively work with individuals of a cultural group (Sue, 2006). In regards to youth mentoring, cultural competence requires mentors to acknowledge and reflect on how their values and biases play a role in the perceptions of mentees, and how they experience their relationships with mentees. It is important to consider the mentor's interpersonal sensitivity and capacity to build rapport with youth and their families. When mentees perceive their mentors to be more culturally competent, better quality relationships are likely to result (Sanchez, Feuer, & 2012). Ultimately, mentoring is dependent upon how effective mentors are in establishing relationships with mentees, and cultural competency is an important component of building these relationships.

Mentoring is relational and requires time in which both partners can learn about one another and establish mutual trust. Though a mentor may be a student's peer, most often a mentor is a person at least one or two grade levels higher. Mentor pairings may include middle school students with elementary age students, high school with middle school, or adults with students. If implemented well, mentoring programs hold potential for promoting social-emotional learning and addressing social-behavioral needs in a preventative way (DuBois, et al., 2011).

References

- Center for Substance Abuse Prevention. (2000). *Mentoring Initiatives: An Overview of Mentoring*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.
- DuBois, D. L., Portillo, N., Rhodes, J. E., Silverthorn, N., & Valentine, J. C. (2011). How effective are mentoring programs for youth? A systematic assessment of the evidence. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest* 12(2):57–91.
- Hartley, R. (2004). Young people and mentoring: Time for a national strategy. *Family Matters,* 68, 22–27.

- Johnson, K. C., & Lampley, J. H. (2010). Mentoring at-risk middle school students. *SRATE Journal*, *19*(2), 64–69.
- Sanchez, B., Feuer, R., & Davis, K. (2012). *Cultural mistrust and cultural sensitivity in high school seniors' mentoring relationships.* Manuscript in preparation.
- Sue, S. (2006). Cultural competency: From philosophy to research and practice. *Journal of Community Psychology, 34*(2), 231.

Peer Mediation

Peer mediation is a promising practice for resolving interpersonal conflicts among students and teaching practical social skills development. However, successful implementation may depend upon whether the program is designed well enough to avoid peer mediator selection bias and inequitable student learning opportunities. As a practice, peer mediation may be developed as a small component of a larger strategy for teaching conflict resolution skills, improving school climate, and responding to disciplinary referrals.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Develop training for students and staff in peer mediation techniques.
- Implement peer mediation programs at different levels: as a school-wide program, in a classroom, or as a school club.
- Partner with local organizations to train students in conflict resolution and mediation techniques. A university-based partnership could support capacity building efforts.
- Integrate peer mediation into a larger school climate improvement plan or develop a peer mediation program as a component of a school-wide restorative justice initiative.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

 Secondary-level students in particular can benefit developmentally from peer mediation programs because they rely heavily on their peers for social-emotional support and capacity for advanced communication and empathy skills.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Involve students in all aspects of the program development, implementation, and evaluation.
- Ensure program participation is an option for all students.
- Peer mediators should be neutral and void of a conflict of interest.
- Peer mediators should be supervised by school professionals who have training and expertise in the model.
- The composition of peer mediators should reflect the cultural demographics of the school.
- Participation in peer mediation should be voluntary and amenable to both parties.
- Confidentiality must be considered when developing policy and practice guidance.
- Ensure peer mediation is not used for situations where bullying or harassing behaviors, including repeated and unwanted acts by a person with actual or perceived power over

- another, are suspected or occurring. See <u>RCW 28A.300.285</u> for the Washington state definition of bullying.
- Peer mediators and adult supervisors need specific training and skills to identify and
 effectively address overt and covert acts of bigotry, bias, prejudice, and institutional and
 structural oppression in their own practice as well as in the peer conflict.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- Association for Conflict Resolution
- Mediator Mentors Project

Supporting Research

Peer conflict, both in and out of the classroom, can have a detrimental impact on the school, and classroom climate. Traditional punitive methods of addressing conflict in school, such as suspending and expelling students, have also been shown to be detrimental for the students in conflict as well as for the climate of the school. Peer mediation can be an effective intervention by which two students experiencing conflict are guided by a trained and impartial peer mediator to come to a deeper understanding of the others' perspective for the purpose of coming to a mutually agreed upon resolution. It is based on the assumption that conflict is normal and can be resolved in a mutually agreeable manner.

Peer mediation programs can be delivered school wide, in a manner that is class specific, or via a "pull out"/club model. Outcomes of peer mediation programs include: reductions in discipline referrals, improvements in school climate (when part of a school-wide conflict resolution program), satisfaction with solutions, and increased mediator skills in problem solving, decision making, tolerance for alternate points of view, and respect for others (Burrel, Zirbel, & Allen, 2003; Chittooran & Hoeing, 2004). One study showed that peer mediation, combined with mentoring in social-emotional learning, had a significant effect on academic achievement in the language arts (DeVoogd, Lane-Garon, & Kralowec, 2016). A two-year study at a high school in Turkey found that most conflicts referred for peer mediation resulted in resolutions and the overall process was effective for developing social skills and peacefully resolving conflicts (Turnuklu, Kacmaz, Sunbul, & Ergul, 2009).

Peer mediation programs can be implemented within individual schools or as a component of a larger school district initiative (ACR, 2007). Oakland Unified School District expanded their peer conflict resolution program to integrate it with the district's school-wide restorative justice program. While peer mediation was less common than school-wide restorative justice approaches, some schools within the district implemented peer mediation programs apart from a school-wide initiative. In practice, OUSD's peer restorative justice program primarily involved

targeted group-level interventions. However, the district did not conduct a systematic program evaluation to detail program components or outcomes (Jain, Bassey, Brown, & Kalra, 2014).

Meta-analysis research shows that peer mediation studies focus mainly on satisfaction with the process, impact on overall school climate, and skill acquisition by mediator as compared to skill acquisition of participants (Burrell et al., 2003). In particular, the benefits of a student going through peer-mediation training and being given the opportunity to practically apply the skills, far outweigh the benefits students who haven't been trained in conflict resolution techniques may derive from participation in peer mediation (Burrell, et al., 2003; DeVoogd, et al., 2016). Schools might want to offer conflict resolution training for all students to promote equity in social-emotional learning. One study highlights the benefits of combining an inclusive training program with a student-led peer-mediator nomination and selection process (Turnuklu, et al., 2009). Programs should be designed to avoid peer mediator selection bias or any favoritism that would result in inequitable student learning opportunities.

References

- Association for Conflict Resolution (ACR). (2007). <u>Recommended standards for school-based peer mediation programs</u>.
- Burrell, N., Zirbel, C., & Allen, M. (2003). Evaluating peer mediation outcomes in educational settings: A meta-analytic review. *Conflict Resolution Quarterly, 21*(1), 7–26.
- Chittooran, M., & Hoenig, G. (2004). Peer mediation: A guide for educators. National Association of School Psychologists, *Helping Children at Home & School II: Handouts for Families and Educators*, S4-S69.
- Chittooran, M., & Hoenig, G. (2005). Mediating a better solution. Counseling 101, 11–15.
- DeVoogd, K., Lane-Garon, P., & Kralowec, C. (2016). Direct instruction and guided practice matter in conflict resolution and social-emotional learning. *Conflict Resolution Quarterly*.
- Jain, S., Bassey, H., Brown, M. A., & Kalra, P. (2014). <u>Restorative Justice in Oakland Schools:</u>
 <u>Implementation and Impacts An effective strategy to reduce racially disproportionate</u>
 discipline, suspensions and improve academic outcomes.
- Turnuklu, A., Kacmaz, T., Sunbul, D., & Ergul, H. (2009). Does peer-mediation really work? Effects of conflict resolution and peer-mediation training on high school students' conflicts. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 1(1), 630–638.

Restorative Justice

In the context of the school system, restorative justice is a set of promising practices that includes preventative as well as responsive strategies to create opportunities for social-emotional learning, foster a school-wide culture of relationship-based accountability, and provide alternatives to exclusionary discipline practices. *Restorative justice* is a broad term that refers to a philosophy or theory of justice and a variety of related practices such as circles, mediation, and conferencing. The focus of restorative justice is relational, rather than legal.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Institute talking circles into regular classroom scheduling to check in with students and build positive relationships.
- Identify specific behaviors represented in exclusionary discipline data that can alternatively be referred to restorative justice practices and implement a plan accordingly. Consider what restorative strategies may address discipline disparities affecting specific populations.
- Integrate restorative justice language into district discipline policies, office referral processes, and classroom pedagogy to encourage the systemic adoption of restorative practices.
- Develop a district-wide restorative justice training program that can support consistent and frequent ongoing training for staff. A community partnership, such as with a local Dispute Resolution Center or Educational Service District, can support internal capacitybuilding and service delivery.
- Create restorative justice coordinator positions within school buildings to facilitate circles and conferences, manage data collection and evaluation processes, and collaborate with restorative justice partnerships.
- Establish alternative spaces within the school building that can be used for intentional reflection, restorative interventions, and social-emotional learning or integrate such practices into already existent in-school suspension rooms.
- Train a group of students to conduct peer mediations and promote restorative justice.
- Partner with local law enforcement and juvenile courts to integrate restorative justice into diversion processes. One strategy could be to encourage the use of restitution-based alternatives in lieu of legal penalties or fines.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

• Students with disabilities, depending on the severity and type of disability, could benefit from the participation of a special education teacher or guardian in formal circles or conferences.

- Students of color and their families, as populations most affected by the disproportionate consequences of exclusionary discipline practices, should be actively consulted and directly involved in restorative justice processes.
- Students from indigenous communities with longstanding traditions of using restorative
 practices may wish to share examples from their culture, but may also be protective of
 specific knowledge and protocols. Respectfully acknowledge the rich history of
 restorative justice as practiced in indigenous cultures throughout the world, but avoid
 appropriating or decontextualizing specific indigenous practices. Building meaningful
 relations with local Tribes could benefit the restorative justice process.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Consider implementing a restorative justice pilot program before expanding policies and practices district wide.
- Focus on creating buy-in by involving staff, families, and the community in restorative
 justice policy and implementation processes. Dictating any change of policy without the
 input of those immediately affected is not only bad practice, but is also fundamentally
 contradictory to a restorative justice framework.
- Eliminate any unnecessary zero-tolerance or punitive language from written documents and oral communication channels, as such messaging can impede restorative justice initiatives.
- Guard against efforts to make restorative practices part of a punitive discipline process.
 Willing participation is a core component of restorative philosophies and practice.
 Incentivizing participation may be beneficial to the process but using coercive actions to elicit participation can be counterproductive.
- Avoid using overly prescriptive definitions of restorative justice so that creative strategies
 can emerge and schools can adapt to changing student needs. Consider how your
 theory of action for restorative justice already aligns with existing practices and may
 integrate other established programs or frameworks (such as PBIS, SEL, and MTSS) into a
 comprehensive school-wide approach.
- For situations involving a clear victim and offender, take measures to prevent any further victimization or trauma and to ensure the victim's voice is heard in the process.
- Adapt restorative programs to align with local cultural practices and student backgrounds.
- Ensure school security personnel and any contracted school building personnel, especially school resource officers (SRO), participate in restorative justice trainings and are confident in using restorative questioning as de-escalation techniques.

• Encourage students to engage not only as participants in restorative processes, but as agents of change for creating a positive school culture and improving school climate.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- Oakland Unified School District: <u>Restorative Justice</u>
- Restorative Justice for Oakland Youth
- San Francisco Unified School District: Restorative Practices
- Resolution Washington
- National Association of Community and Restorative Justice
- Northwest Justice Forum
- International Institute for Restorative Practices: Safer-Saner-Schools

Supporting Research

The term *restorative justice* can refer to a variety of philosophical, cultural, and social frameworks, movements, or practices (Van Ness & Strong, 2014). Similar terms, such as *restorative practices, transformative justice*, or *relational justice*, are often used when referring to the same idea or practice (Van Ness & Strong, 2014). Other times, associated terms are intentionally separated in attempts to make subtle theoretical distinctions (Wachtel, 2013).

Researchers generally recognize contemporary restorative justice theories and practices are rooted in many longstanding traditions, particularly within indigenous communities (Galaway & Hudson, 1996; Van Ness & Strong, 2014; Zehr, 2002). However, *restorative justice* is often narrowly defined as a new approach to conflict within the field of criminology (McCold & Wachtel, 2003; Wachtel, 2013). Dorothy Vaandering defends using the term *restorative justice* and argues for a broader understanding of the concept of justice across fields of practice (Vaandering, 2011). Researchers and practitioners who apply the term *restorative justice* broadly do so in order to include a variety of similar practices or theories within their scope of interest and also to avoid overly prescriptive efforts that may inhibit innovation in the ever emerging field (Braithwaite, 2002; Fronius, Persson, Guckenburg, Hurley, & Petrosino, 2016).

Restorative Justice Movement

Social organizations advocating for restorative justice have steadily moved institutions toward addressing wrongdoing in a non-punitive way. In the U.S., the institutional expansion of restorative justice was a somewhat progressive development that started in the criminal justice system, expanded within the juvenile justice system, and recently emerged in the school system (Bazemore & Umbreit, 1997; Fronius, et al., 2016; Gonzalez, 2012; Van Ness & Strong, 2014).

Community-based restorative justice efforts largely mobilized around the goal of providing alternative approaches to practices that perpetuated injustices within existing power structures. Researchers and advocates utilize the term school-to-prison pipeline to express a system for which they share concerns regarding the coinciding phenomena of increasing incarceration rates and exclusionary discipline rates (Advancement Project, 2010; NAACP, 2005; Schiff & Bazemore, 2012). The correlation between zero-tolerance discipline policies and increased exclusionary practices is well documented and includes authoritative denunciations of such practices as being morally and pragmatically deficient (American Psychological Association, 2008; Biehl, 2011; Losen & Martinez, 2013; Skiba, 2004; Skiba & Knesting, 2001). Researchers and advocates emphasize the disproportionate impact such practices have on students of color (Advancement Project, 2010; Gonzalez, 2011; NAACP, 2005; Schiff & Bazemore, 2012). Based on case studies in several cities where communities mobilized to enact reforms, one researcher noted that such examples were "not isolated instances of community organizing creating change, but rather a movement for restoring justice in public schools" (Gonzalez, 2011, p. 36). National trends correspond with developments in Washington state, where advocacy for alternatives to exclusionary discipline practices coincided with grassroots initiatives that preceded and influenced substantive state action (Mosehauer, McGrath, Nist, & Pilar, 2012).

Restorative Justice Framework

Throughout recent social movements to change criminal justice and school systems, restorative justice is commonly defined by what it is not or by what it opposes. Prominent restorative justice leaders, Desmond Tutu and Howard Zehr, both contrast retributive justice with restorative justice (Tutu, 1999; Zehr, 2002). Comparisons between restorative justice and retributive or exclusionary practices are commonly made for reframing questions related to the criminal justice system and school discipline (Ashley & Burke, 2009; Bazemore & Umbreit, 1997; Hopkins, 2002;).

In general, a retributive approach focuses on what rule or law was broken, who the violator is, and how the violator should be punished; a restorative approach identifies who was harmed, what interests must be addressed to repair the harm, and who is responsible for repairing the harm – the focus is relational, rather than legal (Zehr, 2002). Restorative justice initiatives are typically guided by general maxims rather than a prescriptive set of rules (Braithwaite, 2002). A foundational principle of restorative justice in schools is the idea that conflict and wrongdoing are opportunities for learning (Ashley & Burke, 2009). While a lot of literature focuses on restorative practices for addressing harm, the scope of restorative justice includes preventative, relationship-building practices and strategies. One widely used model for explaining how restorative practices differ from other types of pedagogical and disciplinary practices contrasts restorative with punitive, permissive, and neglectful approaches. The model portrays how a restorative approach involves "doing things with people, rather than to them or for them," or

doing nothing at all, and is collaborative process that provides high levels of support and accountability (Wachtel, 2013, p. 3). Dorothy Vaandering conceptualized a relationship-oriented variation of the model that is applicable to professional development and relational restorative justice in education (Vaandering, 2014b). What follows is an example of how restorative justice principles can be embedded in the goals of a restorative approach in schools (Ashley & Burke, 2009, p. 6):

- Accountability. Restorative justice strategies provide opportunities for wrongdoers to be accountable to those they have harmed, and enable them to repair the harm they caused to the extent possible.
- Community safety. Restorative justice recognizes the need to keep the community safe through strategies that build relationships and empower the community to take responsibility for the well-being of its members.
- Competency development. Restorative justice seeks to increase the pro-social skills of those who have harmed others, address underlying factors that lead youth to engage in delinquent behavior, and build on strengths in each young person.

Restorative Justice in Practice

In practice, restorative approaches range from very informal communication to highly structured conferences (Wachtel, 2013). As in the criminal justice system, schools can successfully address serious misbehavior and incidents of violence using restorative interventions (Varnham, 2005). However, in U.S. schools, the types of behaviors referred for restorative interventions tend to focus on minor infractions (Guckenburg, Hurley, Persson, Fronius, & Petrosino, 2016). The type of behavior most often addressed in schools using restorative practices is interpersonal verbal conflicts, but restorative interventions are also associated with physical fights, damage to property or theft, and other serious behaviors (Baker, 2009; Guckenburg, et al., 2016). Restorative agreements can include restitution, formal apologies, or some other type of written agreement (Baker, 2009; Jain, Bassey, Brown & Kalra, 2014). Schools commonly incorporate restorative justice into a tiered system of supports, an example of which is displayed below in Figure 3.

Restorative justice practices, whether preventative or responsive, utilize restorative questioning as part of the restorative process. Practitioners rely on a variety of open-ended questions to encourage reflective processing and to engage participants in restorative dialogue

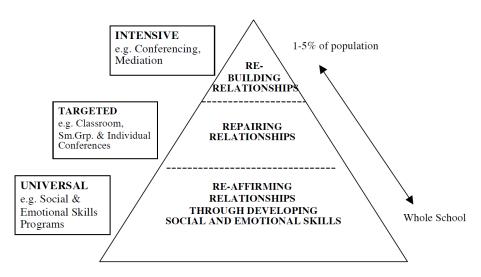


Figure 6. Hierarchy of Restorative Responses, Blood & Thorsborne, 2005, p. 12.

(Ashley & Burke, 2009; Wachtel, 2013). Restorative questioning involves asking open-ended questions with language that doesn't make assumptions or stigmatize, and in a calm tone that invites participation. Restorative questioning is commonly used as a de-escalation technique (Guckenburg, et al., 2016). Participants can practice active listening by paraphrasing what they've heard other participants saying and practitioners play a crucial role modeling restorative justice techniques. Restorative processes include circles, conferences, mediations, and other facilitated discussions that vary in structure and intensity (Ashley & Burke, 2009; Guckenburg, et al., 2016; Jain, et al., 2014).

The range of behaviors that are addressed through restorative practices varies, as some schools determine whether types of behavior are appropriate for restorative processes on a case-by-case basis while others identify specific offenses that are deemed inappropriate (Guckenburg, et al., 2016). Whether the decision to use restorative practices for specific behaviors is situational or made according to a pre-determined formula will likely depend on the needs of the school as well as where the school is at in the restorative justice implementation process (Blood & Thorsborne, 2005).

Restorative justice can be introduced into schools in a variety of ways, including through visionary school leadership or grassroots efforts initiated by teachers (Guckenburg, et al., 2016; McCluskey, Lloyd, Kane, Riddell, Stead, & Weedon, 2008). Research indicates that restorative justice practices are most effective when embedded within a school-wide philosophy and approach (Ashley & Burke, 2009; Blood & Thorsborne, 2005). School districts in Oakland and Denver initially piloted restorative justice programs at select sites before expanding efforts and making substantive changes to district policy (Baker, 2009; Jain, et al., 2014). By starting small, these school districts were able to use positive preliminary outcomes as evidence to justify and

secure funding for further implementation. In addition to convincing funding sources, pilot programs and small initial projects that result in positive outcomes can help create buy-in from personnel who may be hesitant or skeptical about restorative justice (Anyon, 2016). In any school, individuals may promote restorative justice within their spheres of influence to gain support (Advancement Project, 2014).

Practitioners identify lack of staff buy-in, insufficient funding, and staff training needs as significant challenges to successful restorative justice implementation (Guckenburg, et al., 2016; Jain, et al., 2014). Variations between restorative justice initiatives may be indicative of innovation and local particularities, but inconsistencies internal to an initiative can be detrimental to implementation efforts (Braithwaite, 2002; Jain, et al., 2014). Recommendations to avoid internal inconstancies include making discipline policies clear regarding what types of behavior correspond with different interventions, educating all staff on referral processes, assuring consistent application of restorative practices with equally consistent follow-up, and regular opportunities for staff training as well as family communication and participation (Jain, et al., 2014).

Restorative Justice Outcomes

Research on the cumulative effects of restorative justice initiatives in U.S. schools is largely descriptive rather than evaluative. However, preliminary evidence yielded promising results and helped justify the expenditure of funding for additional research (Fronius, et al., 2016; Schiff & Bazemore, 2012). Common outcomes associated with restorative justice initiatives primarily include reductions in suspensions, expulsions, and discipline referrals (Schiff & Bazemore, 2012). Additional outcomes include reductions in law enforcement involvement, improved social skills and school engagement, and many perceived benefits that are often difficult to quantify (Baker, 2009; Gonzalez, 2011; Jain, et al., 2014). In Oakland Unified School District, participant perceptions on restorative justice were overwhelmingly positive across a range of potential benefits (Jain, et al., 2014; Sumner, Silverman, & Frampton, 2010).

Recent evaluative research on restorative approaches in schools suggests that well-implemented restorative practices hold potential for improving student-teacher relationships and reducing racial disparities in school discipline practices (Gregory, Clawson, Davis, & Gerewitz, 2016). Findings from an analysis of discipline records in Denver Public Schools showed significant reductions in office discipline referrals, across racial categories, following student participation in restorative interventions. However, although black students had a higher participation rate in restorative interventions than white students, black students continued to be more at risk for suspension (Anyon, et al., 2016). Despite limitations in the available data and research methodologies, researchers are optimistic that restorative justice practices seem to be culturally responsive and, to the extent that implementation is done with fidelity, associated with

equitable discipline practices (Gregory, et al., 2016). Future research on restorative justice practices should continue to attempt measuring implementation fidelity and disaggregated student outcomes, while also corroborating evidence from similar practices that educators may not programmatically brand or label as *restorative*.

Restorative justice designed partnerships between juvenile justice personnel and educators also hold promise for reducing risk of involvement in the criminal justice system while also increasing student engagement in schools (Schiff & Bazemore, 2012). Research suggests that the transformational effects of a school-wide restorative justice initiative will typically take three to five years to materialize (Gonzalez, 2011; Jain, et al., 2014). As restorative justice initiatives continue to expand and attract funding for further research, an emerging body of evidence will serve to guide future innovative strategies.

Restorative Justice Perspectives

Researchers are aware of two distinct, yet overlapping, perspectives of what restorative justice is and, based on one definition or the other, how to precede with school-based implementation efforts (Hurley, Guckenburg, Persson, Fronius, & Petrosino, 2015). The first perspective is comprehensive, with restorative justice being defined as a philosophy or an attitudinal approach to human relations. The second perspective is selective, with a focus on applied skillsets or restorative justice as a programmatic strategy for addressing human misbehavior. The latter perspective accepts the idea that restorative-based programs can operate in schools to address individual student misbehavior without necessarily initiating system-wide changes. The former perspective emphasizes that restorative justice must be an all-inclusive theory of practice that effectively addresses wrongdoing while acting to bring about fundamental cultural changes. Each distinct perspective may be independently observed in contrasting school practices, but variations of theory and praxis are likely within any given restorative justice initiative (Fronius, et al., 2016; Guckenburg, et al., 2016; Vaandering, 2014a).

Research suggests that while restorative justice efforts have the potential to foster a positive relational school culture, when such efforts focus on managing classroom behavior rather than promoting conscientious learning, a culture of compliance and managerial control can inadvertently be reinforced (Vaandering, 2014a). Even practitioners who aim to establish a positive school-wide culture of behavior management recognize that if restorative efforts are narrowly focused on responsive interventions to wrongdoing, any subsequent impact on school culture is quite limited (Blood & Thorsborne, 2005). These practitioners conclude that, "while the implementation of carefully thought out strategy is vital, one of the critical issues for successful implementation and sustainability of a restorative philosophy is the realization that this means organisational and cultural change" (Blood & Thorsborne, 2005, pp. 2-3). Recent research suggests that high-quality implementation should involve the integration of student voice in

school-wide implementation planning processes, a restorative practice that is broadly related to improving student-teacher relationships and school climates (Gregory, et al., 2016).

Institutional Challenges

When implementing restorative justice practices in schools, transitional tensions will inevitably occur as reform-oriented efforts conflict with punitive-oriented mechanisms of social control. Because restorative justice encourages a deeper commitment to equality and equity, both in theory and practice, practitioners often describe the restorative justice implementation process as a paradigm shift or a culture shift (Hopkins, 2002; Jain, et al., 2014). Based on an analysis of restorative justice initiatives in schools, one researcher concludes that practitioners should be consciously aware of the institutional constraints affecting restorative justice efforts in schools and actively strain against such limitations by situating restorative justice within engaged pedagogies (Vaandering, 2014a). Increased student voice and responsibility in decision-making processes can result in staff feeling uncomfortable, especially if they perceive student participation as a questioning of adult authority (Sumner, et al., 2010). Planning to manage difficulties that occur as a result of the impact of such cultural shifts should coincide with changes in organization, policy, and practice throughout the implementation phase (Anyon, 2016; Blood & Thorsborne, 2005). Research suggests that restorative justice practices are less likely to be used in schools with proportionally higher populations of black students (Payne & Welch, 2013). Therefore, schools that choose to implement restorative justice in order to address discipline disparities and overreliance on exclusionary practices should develop a strategic plan that specifically accounts for the needs of those students most likely to be affected.

In practice, restorative justice standards can serve to empower restorative processes or disempower—the impact depends on what the standards represent and the implementation process (Braithwaite, 2002). As agencies of the state, schools operate within a larger power structure that historically marginalized or even subjugated specific populations of peoples and contemporarily continues to do so, even if unintentionally (Vaandering, 2014a). Advocates for restorative justice acknowledge such tensions as they strategize how to empower students and families within a system that is often perceived as disempowering (Ashley & Burke, 2009). Restorative justice, as a theory of action used against and within existing systems, can potentially initiate systemic changes in specific schools or larger state institutions. This hope is expressed in a recent research article that concludes: "a switch from a punitive model of discipline to a restorative justice philosophy seems crucial both for overall student success and a more inclusive, less stratified educational system" (Panye & Welch, 2013, p. 19). State-level or broad cross-organizational efforts to develop restorative justice standards are contested by and made meaningful in local communities, where the generation of contextual standards continuously influences larger standardization efforts (Braithwaite, 2002). Researchers recommend ensuring that restorative justice principles are continuously informed by practice as

the overall restorative justice initiative is customized within the context of each school community (Jain, et al., 2014; Sumner, et al., 2010).

References

- The Advancement Project. (2010). <u>Test, Punish, and Pushout: How "Zero Tolerance" and High-Stakes Testing Funnel Youth Into the School-To-Prison Pipeline</u>.
- The Advancement Project. (2014). <u>Restorative practices: Fostering healthy relationships and promoting positive discipline in schools: A guide for educators</u>. Cambridge, MA: Schott Foundation.
- American Psychological Association Zero Tolerance Task Force. (2008). <u>Are zero tolerance policies effective in the schools?</u>: <u>An evidentiary review and recommendations</u>. *The American Psychologist*, 63(9), 852.
- Anyon, Y. (2016). <u>Taking restorative practices school-wide: Insights from three schools in Denver.</u>

 Denver, CO: Denver School-Based Restorative Practices Partnership.
- Anyon, Y., Gregory, A., Stone, S., Farrar, J., Jenson, J. M., McQueen, J., Downing, B., Greer, E., & Simmons, J. (2016). Restorative Interventions and School Discipline Sanctions in a Large Urban School District. *American Educational Research Journal*, *53*(6), 1663–1697.
- Ashley, J., & Burke, K. (2009). *Implementing restorative justice: A guide for schools*. Chicago, IL: Illinois Criminal Justice Information Authority.
- Baker, M. (2009). DPS Restorative Justice Project: Year Three. Denver, CO: Denver Public Schools.
- Bazemore, G., & Umbreit, M. (1997). *Balanced and Restorative Justice for Juveniles: A Framework for Juvenile Justice in the 21st Century*. Washington, DC: Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.
- Biehl, S. (2011). School expulsion: A life sentence. American Bar Association.
- Blood, P., & Thorsborne, M. (2005). <u>The challenge of culture change: Embedding restorative practice in schools.</u> Paper presented at the Sixth International Conference on Conferencing, Circles and other Restorative Practices: "Building a Global Alliance for Restorative Practices and Family Empowerment". Sydney, Australia, March 3-5, 2005.
- Braithwaite, J. (2002). Setting standards for restorative justice. *British Journal of Criminology*, 42(3), 563–577.
- Fronius, T., Persson, H., Guckenburg, S., Hurley, N., & Petrosino, A. (2016). *Restorative justice in U.S. schools: A research review.* San Francisco: WestEd.

- Galaway, B., & Hudson, J. (Eds.). (1996). *Restorative Justice: International Perspectives*. Monsey, NY: Criminal Justice Press.
- Gonzalez, T. (2011). Restoring justice: Community organizing to transform school discipline policies. *UC Davis J. Juv. L. & Pol'y, 15,* 1.
- González, T. (2012). Keeping kids in schools: Restorative justice, punitive discipline, and the school to prison pipeline. *Journal of Law and Education*, *41*(2), 281–335.
- Guckenburg, S., Hurley, N., Persson, H., Fronius, T., & Petrosino, A. (2016). *Restorative justice in U.S. schools: Practitioners' perspectives.* San Francisco: WestEd.
- Hopkins, B. (2002). Restorative justice in schools. Support for Learning, 17 (3): 144–149.
- Hurley, N., Guckenburg, S., Persson, H., Fronius, T., & Petrosino, A. (2015). What further research is needed on restorative justice in schools? San Francisco: WestEd.
- Jain, S., Bassey, H., Brown, M. A., & Kalra, P. (2014). <u>Restorative Justice in Oakland Schools:</u>

 <u>Implementation and Impacts An effective strategy to reduce racially disproportionate discipline, suspensions and improve academic outcomes.</u>
- Losen, D. J., & Martinez, T. E. (2013). Out of school and off track: The overuse of suspensions in American middle and high schools. *K-12 Racial Disparities in School Discipline*.
- McCluskey, G., Lloyd, G., Kane, J., Riddell, S., Stead, J., & Weedon, E. (2008). Can restorative practices in schools make a difference?. *Educational Review*, 60(4), 405–417.
- McCold, P., & Wachtel, T. (2003). In pursuit of paradigm: A theory of restorative justice. In *13th World Congress of Criminology, International Institute for Restorative Practices, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil* (Vol. 10, p. 15).
- Mosehauer, K., McGrath, N., Nist, J., & Pilar, K. (2012). <u>Reclaiming Students: The Educational and Economic Costs of Exclusionary Discipline in Washington State</u>. Washington Appleseed and Team Child.
- NAACP Legal Defense and Educational Fund, Inc. (2005) <u>Dismantling the School-to-Prison</u> <u>Pipeline</u>.
- Jain, S., Bassey, H., Brown, M. A., & Kalra, P. (2014). <u>Restorative Justice in Oakland Schools:</u>

 <u>Implementation and Impacts An effective strategy to reduce racially disproportionate discipline, suspensions and improve academic outcomes.</u>
- Payne, A., & Welch, K. (2013). Restorative justice in schools: The influence of race on restorative discipline. *Youth & Society*, XX(X) 1–26.

- Schiff, M., & Bazemore, G. (2012). Whose kids are these? Juvenile justice and education partnerships using restorative justice to end the school-to-prison pipeline. In *National Leadership Summit on School-Justice Partnerships: Keeping Kids in School and Out of Courts* (pp. 68–82). New York: New York State Permanent Commission on Justice for Children.
- Skiba, R., & Knesting, K. (2001). Zero tolerance, zero evidence: An analysis of school disciplinary practice. In R.J. Skiba & G.G. Noam (Eds.), *New Directions for Youth Development (no. 92: Zero tolerance: Can suspension and expulsion keep schools safe?)* (pp. 17–43). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Skiba, R. (2004). <u>Zero Tolerance: The Assumptions and the Facts. Education Policy Briefs</u>. Volume 2, Number 1, Summer 2004. *Center for Evaluation and Education Policy, Indiana University*.
- Sumner, M., Silverman, C., & Frampton, M. (2010). School-based restorative justice as an alternative to zero-tolerance policies: Lessons from West Oakland. *Thelton E. Henderson Center for Social Justice*.
- Tutu, D. (1999). No Future Without Forgiveness. Doubleday.
- Wachtel, T. (2013). <u>Defining Restorative</u>. *International Institute for Restorative Practices Graduate School (IIRP)*.
- Vaandering, D. (2011). A faithful compass: Rethinking the term restorative justice to find clarity. *Contemporary Justice Review, 14*(3), 307–328.
- Vaandering, D. (2014a). Implementing restorative justice practice in schools: what pedagogy reveals. *Journal of Peace Education*, 11:1, 64–80.
- Vaandering, D. (2014b). Relational restorative justice pedagogy in educator professional development. *Curriculum Inquiry*, *44*(4), 508–530.
- Van Ness, D., & Strong, K. (2014). *Restoring Justice: An Introduction to Restorative Justice*. Routledge.
- Varnham, S. (2005). Seeing things differently: Restorative justice and school discipline. *Education and the Law*, 17(3), 87–104.
- Zehr, H. (2002). The Little Book of Restorative Justice. Goodbooks.

Social Skills Instruction

The purpose of providing social skills instruction is to increase student's social and emotional competencies. Social and emotional competencies are skills necessary for students to initiate and maintain appropriate social networks and friendships, meet the demands of both adults and peers, and readily adapt to changes in social environments. Washington's social-emotional learning (SEL) standards are self-awareness, self-management, self-efficacy, social awareness, social management, and social engagement.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Teach students to recognize, understand, label, express, and regulate emotions. Provide explicit small group instruction on targeted social skills and integrate prosocial skill building into lessons across all content areas.
- Provide opportunities for staff to learn strategies for delivering social skills instruction
 when natural opportunities (teachable moments) arise to teach appropriate social
 behavior.
- Reinforce social skills through skits, role-playing, and drama performances to model social skills in classroom settings or school assemblies. Teach students to actively counteract bullying, discrimination, and inequalities.
- Develop a peer mentoring program that focuses on older students modeling, practicing, and reinforcing social skills with younger students.
- Implement low-cost strategies that are designed to intentionally establish, maintain, and restore relationships with students and model positive relationship-building.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

- Students who participate in extra-curricular activities or clubs could benefit from social skills instruction that corresponds with the social interactions that naturally occur while participating in those activities.
- Elementary school students may derive more benefit from learning age-appropriate behaviors in group activities with their peers than through individual adult instruction.
- Students from diverse cultural contexts and backgrounds could be supported better
 when social skills instruction is implemented along with professional learning for staff on
 implicit bias training. Staff should be trained in cultural competency so as not to
 interpret cultural differences as social skills deficits.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

 Social skills instruction should be planned, focused, and integrated within teaching and learning activities whenever possible. Ensure social-emotional skills are generally promoted school-wide.

- Explicitly teach social skills without assuming students already know the skills. Even if they do, explicit instruction can reinforce appropriate social skills. Provide positive reinforcement when students demonstrate social-emotional competencies.
- Foster a school climate that embraces differences by modeling acceptance, empathy, and inclusive social interactions. Ensure appropriate levels of instruction and practice opportunities are provided for students to develop prosocial behaviors.
- Intentionally teach skills in natural settings where practical usage of social skills are most applicable.
- Ensure social skills instruction is culturally responsive. Provide professional learning to support educator's understanding of how cultural factors influence social behavior and the social environment.
- Include students in identifying social skills to promote prosocial behaviors that can be integrated within the building's school-wide positive-behavioral interventions and supports (SWPBIS) framework and school culture.
- Provide professional learning opportunities and ongoing support (e.g., coaching, consultation, booster sessions, professional learning communities) for all staff to recognize and understand emotion, teach social skills, interpret screening assessments, and select instructional practices. Create structures and protocols for collaboration between departments and content areas for holistically supporting student's and staff's social-emotional learning.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL)
- Committee for Children: Second Step Social-Emotional Learning
- The PBIS Compendium: Social Skills
- A Nation at Hope: Recommendations from the National Commission on Social, Emotional, & Academic Development
- Creating Opportunities through Relationships (COR) Learning Modules
- Yale Center for Emotional Intelligence: <u>RULER</u>
- National University: <u>Sanford Harmony Program</u>

Supporting Research

Social-emotional skills instruction increases social competence. Social competence can include the acquisition of positive peer relational skills, self-management, academic skills, compliance

skills, and assertion skills (CASEL, 2019; Gresham, Sugai, & Horner, 2001). Emotional competencies include emotion knowledge (ability to define and label emotions in oneself and others) and emotion regulation (managing emotions and associated actions that are appropriate for the current situation) (Izard, 2009; Trentacosta & Izard, 2007). Social skills instruction in these specific abilities supports the development of students' social and emotional competence in both direct and indirect ways, which significantly improves academic performance (Gresham, Elliott, Cook, Vance, & Kettler, 2010; Trentacosta & Izard, 2007; Weisz, Sandler, Durlak, & Anton, 2005; Zins & Elias, 2007).

Social and emotional competencies are necessary for students to initiate and maintain social networks and friendships, meet the demands of adults and peers, and adapt to changes in social environments (Durlak, Weissberg, & Pachan, 2010, Gresham & MacMillan 1997; Lane, Menzies, Barton-Atwood, Doukas, & Munton, 2005; Walker, Colvin, & Ramsey, 1995). Students who demonstrate a fluent use of social skills are viewed by others as being socially competent and experience many positive school outcomes including teacher acceptance, peer acceptance, positive peer relationships, academic achievement, and friendships (Lane et. al, 2005; Lane, Wheby, & Cooley, 2006). Like any academic content area, social skills can be taught (Algozzine et al., 2010). Maag (2006) highlights the importance of implementing social skills training as universal curriculum for all students to create a supportive and inclusive school culture.

Social and emotional competencies can be enhanced with positive student-teacher relationships (Pianta, Hamre, & Stuhlman, 2003; Sabol & Pianta, 2012). Students who perceive that their relationships with their teachers are characterized by warmth, trust, and connection feel more school belonging and are more engaged in school (Birch & Ladd, 1997; Birch & Ladd, 1998). Positive-student teacher relationships foster increased social and emotional skills, including prosocial behavior, cooperation, assertion, task orientation, and emotional adjustment, both for students with and without disabilities (Pianta et al., 2003; Murray & Greenberg, 2001). They also serve as models for how children and adolescents can build strong personal and professional relationships in the future (Davis, 2003). Evidence-based strategies to foster relationships include spending one-on-one time with students and engaging in collaborative problem-solving and restorative practices (Evans & Lester, 2013; Driscoll & Pianta, 2010; Gregory, Clawson, Davis, & Gerewitz, 2015). It is important for educators to build their capacity to initially establish positive relationships with students, maintain these relationships over time, and restore relationships after a negative interaction has occurred (Cook et al., 2018; Duong et al., 2018). It is also important for educators to recognize how implicit biases and cultural differences may hinder relationship building with diverse students, and identify strategies to overcome these barriers (Thijs, Westhof, Koomen, 2012). Student-teacher relationships may be particularly important for social and emotional adjustment during school transitions (Hughes, 2012).

Social skills instruction can be successfully implemented in both adult tutoring and peer tutoring arrangements (Cook, et al., 2008; Ginsburg-Block, Rohrbeck, & Fantuzzo, 2006; Greenwood, 1997; T. Heron, Villareal, Yao, Christianson, & K. Heron, 2006; Pelco & Reed-Victor, 2007). Peer tutoring interventions focused on academic learning can positively influence a student's social skills, self-concept, and behavior (D. Fuchs, L. Fuchs, Mathes, & Simmons, 1996; Nath & Ross, 2001).

Social skills instruction is an effective intervention for students, preschool through age 21 (Cook et al., 2008). Peer tutoring interventions focused on academic learning can have positive results on both academic and social-emotional growth for elementary-aged students (Evans, Axelrod, & Sapia, 2000). Students may benefit from social skills instruction if they suffer fetal alcohol syndrome disorders, have learning disabilities, or are diagnosed with attention deficit disorders (NCTICITE, 2015). Social skills instruction is only minimally effective when used with students diagnosed with emotional and behavioral disorders, which may be due to challenges associated with implementation and measurement of intervention effectiveness in school settings (Evans et al., 2000; Maag, 2006).

Throughout the process of assessing and providing social skills instruction, it is imperative for staff to recognize that cultural differences are not the same as social skills deficits. Staff need to be aware that within school and classroom settings, judgments of social competence are frequently made based upon the dominant white, middle-class American culture, which may be a mismatch for the culture of the students, thus causing misunderstandings and frustration. (Cartledge & Loe, 2001).

To increase social skills competencies, students need to be provided skills instruction, and they need sufficient opportunities to master the skills they learn, become fluent in their use, and adapt the use of these skills to a wide variety of social settings (Lane et al., 2005; Walker et. al, 1995). Skills taught in tutoring situations, such as friendship groups or social skills *buddy* groups, generalize better when those skills are taught in a tutoring model (e.g. 1:1 or direct, small group) and then transferred to a group or classroom experience (Bierman & Furhman, 1984). Cooperative learning, whereby students work together in small, heterogeneous groups to achieve a common goal, is particularly effective in facilitating social skills (Dotson, 2001). In heterogeneous groups, students support each other and assume responsibility for their own and each other's learning and success (Hanish, Martin, Miller, & Fabes, 2016). In other words, prescriptive tutoring in social skills (whether 1:1 or small group) is more powerful and generalizes more effectively when transferred to a class-wide focus.

Students are more likely to generalize the social skills they are taught if the social skills instruction focuses on targeted social behaviors that are valued and likely to be reinforced in the students' natural settings. Generalization is also enhanced when the social skills instruction is

provided across persons and settings that the student is likely to encounter daily. Additional strategies for ensuring the generalization of social skills instruction include the planned fading of training supports (such as prompting) to approximate the natural setting and contingencies, purposely teaching and reinforcing applications of the skills to new and applicable situations, as well as the inclusion of peers in the social skills instruction (Elliot & Busse, 1991; Evans et al., 2000; Heron et al., 2006).

Social skills instruction is found to be the most effective when the skills taught have social validity for the student and their social contexts, utilize precise assessment, systematic programming for generalization across settings and time, and additional support services for those students with chronic problems (Evans et al., 2000). Prior to providing social skills instruction, it is imperative to accurately identify the students who could benefit from additional instruction in a targeted social skill, based on the presence of a social skills deficit (Lane et. al, 2005; Walker et. al, 1991). The use of a formalized and consistent assessment system, including a combination of teacher ratings and teacher nominations for those students receiving targeted social skills instruction, will help increase the effectiveness and efficiency of the social skill instruction being provided (Evans et al., 2000; Lane et al., 2005; Walker et. al, 1991). The implementation of social skill instruction is most effective when the deficit skills are clearly identified, teaching of the skills is provided, and gradual programming for generalization is included (Evans, et al., 2000).

In many cases, social skills instruction alone may not be an effective intervention to address the comprehensive needs of students at risk for challenging behaviors or those already displaying complex behaviors. In these cases, social skills instruction should be combined with other behavioral interventions within an RTI/MTSS framework and tied to the identified function of the student's targeted behaviors. (Fox & Lentini, 2006; Ginsburg-Block et al., 2006). In the case of students with significant behavioral difficulties, social skills instruction should be part of an evidenced-based system of care (Evans et al., 2000).

Given the social nature of school, home, and community environments, almost any moment can be utilized as a learning opportunity to build social skills and emotional competence. Several teaching practices have been shown to effectively promote social skills and social interactions for learners. Incidental or Milieu Teaching strategies that use natural adult student interactions and prompting procedures to teach social or communication skills have been successfully implemented by parents, therapists, and teachers (L. Elksnin & N. Elksnin, 2000; Ingersoll, Meyer, Bonter, & Jelinek, 2012; Peterson, Carta, & Greenwood, 2005). Children's literature and videos can be used to support social skills and emotional intelligence through bibliotherapy (Sullivan & Strang, 2002), and through discussions around stories that focus on social skills topics such as making friends, or bullying, etc. (Cartledge & Kiarie, 2001; DeGeorge, 1998). Social autopsy or

social narratives have been shown to be particularly effective for children with autism spectrum disorders or similar social challenges. Social autopsies can assist individuals that struggle to understand social situations by examining common or problematic social errors that come up within school or classroom environments (Lavoie, 2005; Myles & Simpson, 2001). Social stories or social narratives are written to specific individuals and contexts to provide guidance and direction around social behavior (Delano & Snell, 2006; Soenksen & Alper, 2006)

References

- Algozzine, B., Horner, R., Sugai, G., Barrett, S., Dickey, S., Eber, L., Tobin, T. (2010). *Evaluation blueprint for school-wide positive behavior support*. Eugene, OR: National Technical Assistance Center on Positive Behavior.
- Bierman, K., & Fuhrman, W. (1984). The effects of social skills training and peer involvement on the social adjustment of pre-adolescents. *Child Development*, *55*, 151–162.
- Birch, S. H., & Ladd, G. W. (1998). Children's interpersonal behaviors and the teacher-child relationship. *Developmental Psychology*, *34*, 934–946.
- Birch, S. H., & Ladd, G. W. (1997). The teacher-child relationship and children's early school adjustment. *Journal of School Psychology*, *35*, 61-79.
- Cartledge, G., & Loe, S. (2001). Cultural diversity, and social skill instruction. *Exceptionality*, 9, 33–46.
- Cartledge, G. & Kiarie, M. W. (2001). Learning social skills through literature for children and adolescents. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, *34*, 40-47.
- Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (2019). *What is SEL?* Retrieved January 29, 2019 from https://casel.org/what-is-sel/
- Cook, C. R., Coco, S., Zhang, Y., Fiat, A. E., Duong, M. T, Reshaw, T. L...Frank, S. (2018). Cultivating positive teacher–student relationships: Preliminary evaluation of the Establish–Maintain–Restore (EMR) method. *School Psychology Review*, 47, 226-243.
- Cook, C., Gresham, F., Kern, L., Barreras, R., Thornton, S., & Crews, D. (2008). Social skills training with secondary EBD students: A review and analysis of the meta-analytic literature. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, 16, 131–144.
- Davis, H. A. (2003). Conceptualizing the role and influence of student-teacher relationships on children's social and cognitive development. *Educational Psychology*, *38*, 207-234.
- DeGeorge, K. L. (1998). Friendship and stories: Using children's literature to teach friendship skills to children with learning disabilities. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, *33*, 157-162.

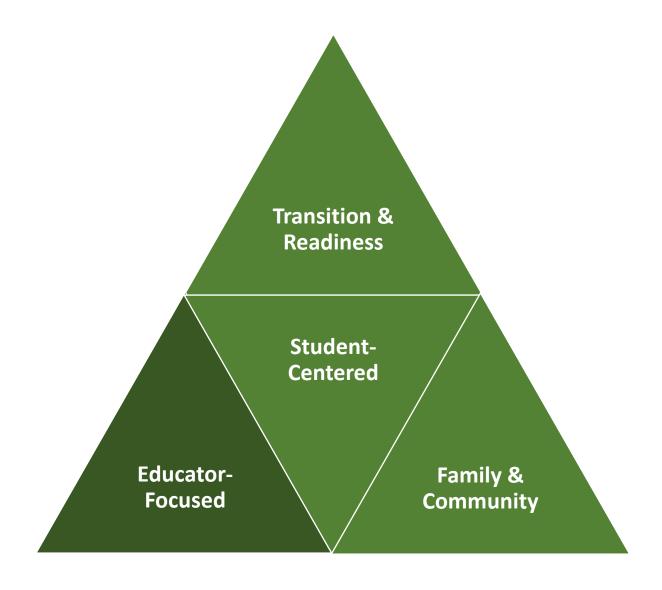
- Delano, M. & Snell, M. E. (2006). The effects of social stories on the social engagement of children with autism. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, 8, 29-42.
- Dotson, J. (2001). <u>Cooperative Learning Structures Can Increase Student Achievement</u>. San Clemente, CA: Kagan Publishing.
- Driscoll, K. C. & Pianta, R. C. (2010). Banking time in Head Start: Early efficacy of an intervention designed to promote teacher-child relationships. *Early Education and Development, 21*, 38-64.
- Duong, M. T., Pullmann, M. D., Buntain-Ricklefs, J., Lee, K., Benjamin, K. S., Nguyen, L., & Cook, C. (2018). Brief teacher training improves student behavior and student-teacher relationships in middle school. *School Psychology Quarterly*, Advance online publication. doi: https://psycnet.apa.org/record/2018-58862-001
- Durlak, J., Weissberg, R., & Pachan, M. (2010). A meta-analysis of after-school programs that seek to promote personal and social skills in children and adolescents. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 45, 294–309.
- Elksnin, L. K. & Elksnin, N. (2000). Teaching parents to teach their children to be prosocial. Intervention in School and Clinic, 36, 27-35.
- Elliott, S. N., & Busse, R. T. (1991). Social skills assessment with children and adolescents. *School Psychology International*, *12*, 63–83. doi:10.1177/0143034391121006
- Evans, K. R. & Lester, J. N. (2013). Restorative justice in education: What we know so far. *Middle School Journal*, *44*, 57-63.
- Evans, S., Axelrod, J., & Sapia, J. (2000). Effective school-based mental health interventions: Advancing the social skills training paradigm. *Journal of School Health*, 70, 191–194.
- Fox, L., & Lentini, R. (2006). "You got it!": Teaching social and emotional skills. *Young Children*, 61, 36–42.
- Fuchs, D., Fuchs, L., Mathes, P., & Simmons, D. (1996). Peer-assisted learning strategies: Making classrooms more responsive to diversity. *American Educational Research Journal*, 34, 174-206.
- Ginsburg-Block, M., Rohrbeck, C., & Fantuzzo, J. (2006). A meta-analytic review of social, self-concepts, and behavioral outcomes of peer- assisted learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *18*, 732–749.
- Greenwood, C. (1997). Classwide peer tutoring. Behavior and Social Issues, 7, 53–57.

- Gregory, A., Clawson, K., Davis, A., & Gerewitz, J. (2015). The promise of restorative practices to transform teacher-student relationships and achieve equity in school discipline. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation*, 25, 1-29.
- Gresham, F., Elliott, S., Cook, C., Vance, M., & Kettler, R. (2010). Cross-informant agreement for ratings for social skill and problem behavior ratings: An investigation of the social skills improvement system--rating scales. *Psychological Assessment*, *22*, 157.
- Gresham, F., & MacMillan, D. (1997). Social competence and affective characteristics of students with mild disabilities. *Review of Educational Research*, 67, 377–415.
- Gresham, F., Sugai, G., & Horner, R. (2001). Social competence of students with high-incidence disabilities: Conceptual and methodological issues in interpreting outcomes of social skills training. *Exceptional Children*, 67, 331–334.
- Hanish, L. D., Martin, C. L., Miller, C.F., Fabes, R. (2016). Social harmony in schools: A framework for understanding peer experiences and their effects. In K. R. Wentzel & G. B. Ramani (Eds.), *Handbook of social influences in school contexts: Social-emotional, motivation, and cognitive outcomes*, pp. 48-62, New York: Taylor & Francis
- Heron, T., Villareal, D., Yao, M., Christianson, R., & Heron, K. (2006). Peer tutoring systems: Applications in classroom and specialized environments. *Reading and Writing Quarterly*, 22, 27–45.
- Hughes, J. N. (2012) Teacher-student relationships and school adjustment: Progress and remaining challenges. *Attachment and Human Development, 14*, 319-327.
- Ingersoll, B., Meyer, K., Bonter, N., & Jelinek, S. (2012). A comparison of developmental social—pragmatic and naturalistic behavioral interventions on language use and social engagement in children with autism. *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research*. 55, 1301–1313.
- Izard, C. E. (2009). <u>Emotion theory and research: Highlights, unanswered questions, and emerging issues</u>. *Annual Review of Psychology, 60,* 1-25.
- Lane, K., Menzies, H., Barton-Atwood, S., Doukas, G., & Munton, S. (2005). Designing, implementing, and evaluating social skills interventions. *Preventing School Failure*, 49, 18–26.
- Lane, K., Wheby, J., & Cooley, C. (2006). Teacher expectations of students' classroom behaviors across the grade span: Which social skills are necessary for success? *Exceptional Children*, 72, 153–167.

- Lavoie, R. (2005). <u>Social skill autopsies: A strategy to promote and develop social competencies</u>. *LD OnLine*.
- Maag, J.W. (2006). Social skills training for students with emotional and behavioral disorders: A review of reviews. *Behavioral Disorders*, *32*, 4-17.
- Murray, C. & Greenberg, M. T. (2001). Relationships with teachers and bonds with school: Social emotional adjustment correlates for children with and without disabilities. *Psychology in the Schools, 38,* 25-41.
- Myles, B. S. & Simpson, R. L. (2001). Understanding the hidden curriculum: An essential social skill for children and youth with Asperger syndrome. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, *36*, 279-286.
- Nath, L., & Ross, S. (2001). The influence of a peer-tutoring training model for implementing cooperative groupings with elementary students. *Educational Technology, Research and Development*, 49, 41.
- National Center for Technology Innovation and Center for Implementing Technology in Education. (2015). *Practicing social skills: How to teach your student social interactions*.
- Pelco, L., & Reed-Victor, E. (2007). Self-regulation and learning-related social skills: Intervention ideas for elementary school students. *Preventing School Failure*, *51*, 36–42.
- Peterson, P., Carta, J. J., & Greenwood, C. (2005). Teaching enhanced milieu language teaching skills to parents in multiple risk families. *Journal of Early Intervention*, *27*, 94-109.
- Pianta, R. C., Hamre, B., & Stuhlman, M. (2003). Relationships between teachers and children. In W. M. Reynolds & G. E. Miller (eds). *Handbook of Psychology, vol. 7 Educational Psychology.* Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Sabol, T. J. & Pianta, R. C. (2012). Recent trends in research on teacher-child relationships. *Attachment & Human Development, 14,* 213-231.
- Soenksen, D. & Alper, S. (2006). Teaching a young child to appropriately gain attention of peers using a social story intervention. *Focus on Autism and Other Developmental Disabilities*, 21, 36-44.
- Sullivan, A. K., & Strang, H. R. (2002). Bibliotherapy in the classroom using literature to promote the development of emotional intelligence. *Childhood Education*, *79*, 74-80.
- Thijs, J., Westhof, S., Koomen, H. (2012). Ethnic incongruence and the student-teacher relationship: The perspective of ethnic majority teachers. *Journal of School Psychology*, 50, 257-273.

- Trentacosta, C. J. & Izard, C. E. (2007). Kindergarten children's emotion competence as a predictor of their academic competence in first grade. *Emotion*, 7, 77-88.
- Walker, H., Colvin, G., & Ramsey, E. (1995). *Antisocial Behavior in Schools: Strategies and Best Practices*. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.
- Weisz, J., Sandler, I., Durlak, J., & Anton, B. (2005). Promoting and protecting youth mental health through evidence-based prevention and treatment. *American Psychologist*, *60*, 628–648.
- Zins, J., & Elias, M. (2007). Social and emotional learning: Promoting the development of all students. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation*, 17, 233–255.

EDUCATOR-FOCUSED PRACTICES AND STRATEGIES



Behavior Consultant Teacher/Instructional Coach

Behavior consultant teachers/instructional coaches analyze behavioral data and implement evidence-based strategies in partnership with teachers to support student academic and behavioral achievement. Coaches work 1:1 with a classroom teacher or with a team of teachers to target specific professional learning to meet the needs of LAP students.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Provide training to teachers on a variety of evidence-based practices that address behaviors of concern. Educators will be able to identify behaviors of concern, and the behavioral consultant teacher/instructional coach will develop training based on observations and areas of identified need.
- Partner with educators to identify common behavioral classroom expectations that they
 want their students to know. The behavior consultant teacher/instructional coach can
 help to identify evidence-based practices for teaching agreed upon classroom
 expectations and supply teachers with information on positive school climate and
 culture.
- Develop and model how to use progress monitoring tools for individual student's behavior, as well as monitoring of classroom behavioral expectations.
- Facilitate discussions with educators on identifying socially/developmentally appropriate behavior and how to teach the skills to promote social growth. Assess identified behaviors (both from a broader perspective and an individual student perspective) and create behavior plans based on data gathered.
- Participate in classroom activities and lesson plans as a way to gather data in the form of informal and formal observations.
- Schedule daily/weekly/bi-weekly consulting meetings with the educator to review data, analyze outcomes, and discuss the necessity for updating behavior plans.
- Provide guided questions/format/plans for teacher self-assessment and self-efficacy to identify areas for teacher growth.
- Convene and lead a behavior team of educators to focus on providing consistent supports to high level need students.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

 Students with disabilities could benefit from having a behavioral consultant teacher/instructional coach with special education expertise model responsive strategies to classroom educators. • Students of color could benefit from having an instructional coach with a shared background, ethnicity, or culture coach educators on culturally responsive strategies.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Establish collaborative relationships between behavior consultant teachers/instructional coaches and classroom educators.
- Focus work on behaviors within the classroom environment.
- Allow flexibility in a behavior consultant teacher/instructional coach's schedule for meetings and student observations that are convenient for educators.
- Identify behavioral practices that can be incorporated into the existing work and daily routine of the classroom.
- Demonstrate and support evidence-based practices in real time.
- Create practical data collection tools that educators can use throughout the day.
- Work to understand the conditions that prompt and reinforce behaviors.
- Foster a problem-solving and supportive environment for students and educators.
- Encourage accountability and fidelity through partnerships with educational staff.
- Adjust services to accommodate and value cultural differences.
- Prepare an array of best practices including programs and interventions that allow educators to have choices.
- Provide support and guidance for classroom teachers to learn and explore what works in their specific learning environment.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- Comprehensive, Integrated, Three-Tiered (Ci3T) Model of Prevention: <u>Functional</u>
 Assessment-Based Interventions
- Technical Assistance Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports:
 Supporting and Responding to Behavior: Evidence-Based Classroom Strategies for Teachers
- Autism Speaks: <u>Family Services School Community Tool Kit</u>
- National Center on Intensive Interventions: <u>How can behavioral support staff support</u> and collaborate with general education teachers to address the needs of students with intensive behavioral needs?

Supporting Research

Behavior consultant teachers/instructional coaches are defined as staff members within school districts whose role it is to support core classrooms teachers' instructional practices and student academic and behavioral achievement. Serving in a variety of roles within school districts, behavior consultant teachers/instructional coaches are mentors, coaches, and trainers. When the focus is around student behavior, often behavior consultant teachers are known by a variety of job titles including Behavior Facilitators, Instructional Coaches, Behavior Specialists, Intervention Specialists, Behavior Technicians, Teacher Leaders, Teachers on Special Assignments (TOSAs), Behavior Coaches, but the role and responsibilities tend to be the same.

The behavior consultant teacher/instructional coach's job is to promote the implementation of evidenced-based behavioral supports and to ensure educators implement behavioral interventions consistently. When a collaborative model is embedded within the daily practice of teachers, it becomes part of the work, rather than something outside of the daily routine. When working collaboratively with a behavior consultant teacher/instructional coach, the classroom teacher is more likely to use the new learning, feel a sense of shared responsibility, and invest in the collaborative model to improve behavioral supports (Barr, Simmons, & Zarrow, 2003; Coggins, Stoddard, & Cutler, 2003; WestEd, 2000). Studies have documented that the teacher consultant/instructional coach model improves teachers' classroom management, instructional practice and behavioral interventions (Gutkin & Curtis, 1990; Medway, 1979; Neufeld & Roper, 2003; Poglinco, Bach, Hovde, Rosenblum, Saunders, & Supovitz, 2003).

Through their direct work with teachers, the behavior consultant teacher/instructional coach fosters a collegial and problem-solving consultant-consultee relationship with the intent of improving the student's behavioral and academic success in school (Epstein, Atkins, Cullinan, & Weaver, 2008; Reynolds & Fletcher-Janzen, 2007; Wilkinson, 2003). In this role, the behavior consultant teacher/instructional coach should have no direct authority over the teachers and should be viewed as a support to the teachers' ongoing behavioral professional learning (Reynolds & Fletcher-Janzen, 2007).

Along with increasing effective teaching practices, behavior consultant teachers/instructional coaches promote reciprocal accountability as well as support improvements in instructional capacity of teachers through collaboration and reflection about their work (Poglinco et al. 2003; Neufeld & Roper 2003;). Using new skills and tools that are guided by the behavior consultant teacher/instructional coach, educators work collaboratively and hold each other accountable for improved teaching and learning in real situations (Barr, et al., 2003; Coggins, et al., 2003; Neufeld & Roper 2003; WestEd 2000).

While behavior consultant teacher/instructional coaches are supporting classroom teachers to implement strategies focused on behavior change in the target student(s), they are also

supporting the teachers themselves to make behavioral changes. Successfully managing behavior change on these multiple levels necessitates that the consultant is responsive to the needs of the adult learner, understanding the principals of behavior change, and translating evidence based practice into practical application (Epstein, et. al, 2008; Kratcohwill & Bergan, 1990; Reynolds & Fletcher-Jantzen, 2007; Wilkinson, 2003).

The behavior consultant teacher/instructional coach shifts the learning method from professional learning outside the classroom to more varied and specific learning opportunities within the classroom. This collaborative process is done with the teacher, rather than to the teacher (Epstein, et al., 2008; Reynolds & Fletcher-Jantzen, 2007; Wilkinson, 2003). To enhance success, behavior consultant teachers/instructional coaches provide services within the framework of a behavioral consultation/instructional coaching model, which involves:

- The identification of the student's targeted behavior.
- Selecting and planning for the use of evidence based practice(s) to address the targeted behavior.
- Training, coaching and support for staff to implement the intervention.
- Ongoing progress monitoring of the targeted behavior.
- Ongoing monitoring regarding the fidelity with which the intervention is implemented.
- Adjustment and adaptation of the intervention based on student and fidelity assessment (National Center on Intensive Intervention, 2013).

The behavior consultant teacher/instructional coach needs to have a strong foundational knowledge of specific to applied behavioral analysis techniques that include: behavioral principles, functional behavior assessment, evidence-based classroom management strategies, and behavior change approaches (Epstein, et. al, 2008; Kratcohwill & Bergan, 1990; Reynolds & Fletcher-Jantzen, 2007; Wilkinson, 2003). Additionally, they need to demonstrate the ability to translate this information for the teacher(s) in a manner that is accessible and practical for the classroom and school setting (Epstein, et. al, 2008). The behavior consultant teacher/instructional coach must have an understanding of the consultation skills that lead the teachers to insight of and change in practice (Epstein, et. al, 2008; Kratcohwill & Bergan, 1990; Reynolds & Fletcher-Jantzen, 2007; Wilkinson, 2003).

Behavior consultant teachers/instructional coaches must incorporate preventative practices into their work by supporting staff as they set, encourage, and reinforce positive behavioral expectations for all students (Epstein, et. al, 2008). To be most effective, preventative strategies should be embedded within larger school-wide and district-wide multi-tiered system of supports and proactively coached through the behavior consultant teacher/instructional coach.

References

- Barr, K., Simmons, B., & Zarrow, J. (2003). School coaching in context: A case study in capacity building. *American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting*, Chicago, IL.
- Coggins, C., Stoddard, P., & Cutler, E. (2003). Improving instructional capacity through field-based reform coaches. *American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting*, Chicago, IL.
- Epstein, M., Atkins, M., Cullinan, D., & Weaver, R. (2008). <u>Reducing Behavior Problems in the Elementary School Classroom: IES Practice Guide</u>. (No. NCEE #2008-012). Washington, D.C.: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education.
- Gutkin, T. B., & Curtis, M. J. (1990). School-based curriculum: Theory, techniques, and research. In T. B. Gutkin, & C. R. Reynolds (Eds.), *The Handbook of School Psychology*. (2nd ed., pp. 577–611). New York, NY: Wiley.
- Kratchowill, T. R., & Bergan, J. R. (1990). *Behavioral Consultation in Applied Settings: An Individual Guide*. Plenum Press.
- Medway, F. J. (1979). How effective is school consultation? A review of recent research. *Journal of School Psychology*, *17*(3), 275–280.
- National Center on Intensive Intervention. (2013). <u>Data-Based Individualization: A Framework for Intensive Intervention</u>. Washington, D.C.: Office of Special Education, U.S. Department of Education.
- Neufeld, B., & Roper, D. (2003). *Coaching: A Strategy for Developing Instructional Capacity, Promises, and Practicalities.* Aspen Institute Program on Education.
- Poglinco, S., Bach, A., Hovde, K., Rosenblum, S., Saunders, M., & Supovitz, J. (2003). <u>The heart of the matter: The coaching model in America's choice schools</u>. *Consortium for Policy Research in Education*.
- Reynolds, C. R., & Fletcher-Janzen, E. (2007). *Encyclopedia of Special Education, Volume 1*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Western Regional Educational Library (WestEd). (2000). *Teachers who learn, kids who achieve: A look at schools with model professional development.* WestEd.
- Wilkinson, L. A. (2003). Using behavioral consultation to reduce challenging behavior in the classroom. *Preventing School Failure*, *47*(3), 100–105.

De-Escalation

De-escalation is a technique employed by individuals to provide communicative support to persons experiencing an escalated state. De-escalation communication techniques are verbal and non-verbal. This practice includes identifying escalated situations, using communicative methods to calm individuals, and modeling behavior or providing instruction in self-regulation. As a method of intervention, de-escalation should ultimately lead to the teaching of new skills that can be used in a variety of situations independently.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Implement ongoing de-escalation training for all staff that addresses common behaviors
 while being respectful of cultural differences. Consider including bus drivers, custodians,
 and other personnel that interact with students who may benefit from de-escalation
 training.
- Teach staff and students the signs/symptoms of someone experiencing an escalated state and what type of language to use during conflicts. Students and staff could learn how to respond to someone in an escalated state by participating in role-playing activities.
- Provide safe locations and environments in which de-escalation opportunities and silent reflection can occur. Make space available for students to move and exert extra energy.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

- Younger children may need more support to identify emotions and to engage in selfcalming behaviors. Teaching younger children may also include different techniques based upon their developmental level and readiness. Older children and young adults can rely on increasing knowledge of emotions, and coping mechanisms and may benefit from adult support to pair/match coping with emotions and behaviors.
- Students with physical or cognitive disabilities may have pre-identified triggers that educators should take preemptive actions to address. Monitoring symptoms and documenting the frequency and timing could help guide staff to be aware of events or time(s) of day that the student may be more likely to escalate. Careful monitoring can help determine what type of interventions to employ, whether a referral is appropriate, and/or if an amendment of a student's Individual Education Plan (IEP) is needed.
- Students who come to school with exposure to various types of trauma may disclose
 information during a de-escalation process that requires follow-up services. When
 responding to a student in an escalated state, be cognizant/aware of issues of abuse,
 family situations (i.e. divorce, separations, domestic violence, foster care, adoption,
 death), and living situations (i.e. homelessness, eviction, living with family, foster care,
 shelters, etc.).

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Ensure adequate consideration is given to cultural practices and their relationship to behavioral expectations at all times. Staff should be aware of cultural considerations and assess how the influencing effect of dominant cultural norms may exacerbate escalated behavior and/or delay calming and de-escalation.
- Identify factors outside of the school's control that may trigger an escalation. Intervention at this cycle should be carefully organized, planned, and practiced.
- Train all staff in de-escalation techniques, including school building personnel that aren't employed by the district.
- Ensure training is ongoing and frequent enough to support school-wide application. Integrate de-escalation training into induction programs for new educators.
- Utilize assessment tools to identify potential triggers.
- Include students in de-escalation role-playing activities to teach and reinforce selfregulation skills.
- Develop similar language, strategies, and approaches in order to promote generalization of skills and consistency in addressing escalated situations.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- Crisis Prevention Institute: De-escalation Tips
- Kansas Technical Assistance System Network (TASN): De-Escalation Materials
- Comprehensive, Integrated, Three-Tiered (Ci3T) Model of Prevention: <u>Individualized Deescalation Support Plan for Managing the Acting Out Cycle</u>
- Intervention Central: <u>How To: Calm the Agitated Student: Tools for Effective Behavior</u>
 Management
- University of Nebraska-Lincoln Student Engagement Project: Conflict De-escalation
- The IRIS Center: <u>Behavior and Classroom Management</u>

Supporting Research

De-escalation, as a technique, involves the practical use of communication methods to support students experiencing an escalated state (Bath, 2008). This includes assistance to identify escalated situations, provide methods for calming, and model techniques students can use to self-regulate. As a method of intervention, de-escalation should ultimately lead to the teaching of new skills that can be used in a variety of situations independently.

When a student is considered to be in an escalated state, behavior may range from silent frustration to vocal or physical outburst that present a danger to the student and/or others. Escalated situations can and do occur in the school setting and are best approached systematically, using prevention and intervention strategies. Escalation can happen for a wide variety of reasons. During escalation, there are usually multiple points along a continuum in what could be termed a behavioral *crisis cycle* (Long, 2007). A student may begin the cycle with mild agitation, where they are somewhat in control, and progress to a point at which they have little to no control over their choices, behavior, or thought process. Educators can use deescalation techniques at any point during the escalation stage. The de-escalation process should include a recovery phase that may involve the student engaging in reflection, debriefing, and problem solving (Colvin & Scott, 2014).

Marston (2001) recommends linking functional behavior assessments to the de-escalation process. Repeated interventions and multiple opportunities for teaching may be needed by some students for maximum generalization (Bath, 2008). Identifying triggers can help educators align and implement similar strategies, thereby increasing opportunities for generalization.

References

- Bath, H. I. (2008). Calming together: The pathway to self-control. *Reclaiming Children and Youth*, 16(4), 44–46.
- Colvin, G., & Scott, T. M. (2014). *Managing the Cycle of Acting-Out Behavior in the Classroom*. Corwin Press.
- Long, N. (2007). The conflict cycle paradigm. In N. Long, W. C. Morse, F. Fecser & R. Newman (Eds.), *Conflict in the Classroom* (6th ed.) Pro-Ed.
- Marston, J. R. (2001). LSCI in functional behavior assessment and positive behavioral intervention. *Reclaiming Children and Youth*, 10(1), 57–61.

Professional Learning Communities

Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) are promising. PLCs capitalize on the positive effects of collaborative learning. PLCs can be defined as a group of teachers, administrators, coaches, or school staff that meet on a regular, planned basis to collaboratively improve behavioral and academic practices, with the goal of supporting student outcomes. For a PLC to be funded through LAP, the goal must be to support LAP-served students. Activities may focus on determining behavioral supports, differentiating instructional practices, implementing an early warning system, and developing formative assessment processes to support student growth.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Establish PLCs with a shared vision and goals focused on student learning and educator professional learning. Invite paraeducators, special education staff, educators who support English learners, behavior specialists, and interventionists to participate.
 Educators will identify behavioral skills students need to improve to effectively support student academic outcomes and identify which skills are needed for continued professional learning for staff. PLCs will develop a learning plan for educators to acquire these skills to support students who have not yet met grade-level standards in math or ELA.
- Use PLC time to focus on best practices and strategy implementation for students served by LAP. Develop a learning plan, establish observable success criteria, and schedule walkthroughs for PLC members to observe colleagues implementing best practices. Use PLC time to share self-reflections, discuss observations, and provide feedback to improve implementation effectiveness.
- Implement processes for changing the academic and social culture of the school and community through ongoing focused learning. Content teachers could come together to review formative and summative assessment data, as well as non-academic indicators such as absences, office discipline referrals, and check-in/check-out data, to develop targeted intervention plans for students who have not yet met grade-level standards.
- Host parents and family members at regularly scheduled professional learning community discussions to involve them in the conversation and decision-making processes.
- Include behavior specialists in grade-level or school-wide PLCs to help identify new learning and develop a plan for educators to acquire practical skills related to socialemotional learning.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

- English language learners and culturally and linguistically diverse students could benefit from culturally responsive classroom strategies that are integrated into pedagogical approaches as a result of focused learning on cultural competency in a PLC.
- Adult instructional practices improve when educators intentionally identify and implement practices, strategies, content, and assessments that engage and represent the needs of all learners, including historically underserved or underrepresented students.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Create a collaborative culture: classroom, building, district, and region.
- Address specific cultural differences through PLCs to promote a collegial understanding
 of the demographics of the school, district, and community.
- Develop collaborative teams who work interdependently and hold each other mutually accountable to achieve a clear and shared: mission, vision, values, and goals.
- Invite support staff to PLCs to increase awareness of the needs of the population(s) identified and discuss how to support students through targeted academic and nonacademic strategies.
- Implement a continuous improvement model that focuses on outcome data. Ensure educators review formative and summative data regularly to monitor student progress. Review and adjust educator practice when students are not demonstrating growth..
- Focus on a single theme or idea frequently over an extended period of time, rather than expending energy on ad hoc individual student work.
- Align PLCs with current frameworks or initiatives such as Teacher/Principal Evaluation Project (TPEP), school improvement plans, and National Board certification to improve educator effectiveness.
- Focus on reviewing student work, anticipating student misconceptions, and identifying instructional strategies educators will use to support student learning.
- Establish a regular schedule for collaboration time with clear objectives for each session to support students who have not yet met grade-level standards.
- Provide initial and ongoing professional learning for all PLC participants.
- Establish clear agendas and protocols maximize the effectiveness of the PLC.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- PLC Washington
- All Things PLC

- Marzano Research: <u>Tips from Dr. Marzano—Collaborative Teams That Transform Schools</u>
- Rutgers University Center for Effective School Practices: <u>Measurement instruments for assessing the performance of professional learning communities</u>
- Learning Forward: The Professional Learning Association
- <u>K</u>–12 Blueprint: <u>Professional Learning</u>
- Smarter Balanced Digital Library: Formative Assessment Process Modules

Supporting Research

A professional learning community, or PLC, can be defined as a group of teachers, administrators, coaches, or school staff (or a combination of people in these roles) that meets on a regular, planned basis with the explicit goal of collaboratively improving practices in the classroom, school, and/or district in order to improve student learning outcomes. PLCs must be based on clearly articulated, shared goals for student achievement and school improvement (DuFour & DuFour, 2012). An effective professional learning community is more than just a given group of educators learning together—rather, it is a process of continuous improvement that requires engaged inquiry, reflection, planning, analysis, and action (DuFour & DuFour, 2012; Killion & Crow, 2011). The goal of PLCs is to improve the effectiveness of educators in order to directly impact student learning.

Educators working as part of a professional learning community should work collaboratively in alignment with the school's comprehensive improvement plan. To establish an effective PLC, educators must develop an agreed upon set of norms. Developing norms together, sets the stage for the collaborative culture needed for PLC success. Collaborative PLCs encourage sharing, reflecting and risk taking. Teams who are not trained to have collegial conversations may become frustrated, resulting in less productive PLCs. Educators need skills for facilitation, having collegial conversations, building shared norms, and discussing teaching practices (Wood, 2007). Examples of how educators can deprivatize practice include, but are not limited to: lesson sharing, establishing and using protocols, peer observation and reflective dialogue, as well as examining research around best practices. Blankstein (2010) suggests six essential principles for schools with PLCs:

- Common mission, vision, values and goals;
- Ensure achievement for all students;
- Collaborative teaming focused on teaching and learning;
- Using data to guide decision making and continuous improvement;
- Gaining active engagement from family and community; and
- Building sustainable leadership capacity.

Once the foundation of trust is in place, the PLC team can support the evaluation of student learning data and focus on a clear set of goals to improve student achievement.

In order for professional learning communities focused on improving outcomes for students to be successful, they must have strong administrative support (Akopoff, 2010). According to Barton and Stepanek, "Principals exert considerable influence over the successful implementation and continued functioning of PLCs." School leaders can support PLCs by building a climate of trust and mutual respect, supporting de-privatization of practice and professional growth (Little, 1993, Kruse, Louis, and Bryk, 1995, and McLaughlin and Talbert, 2001). Key success factors include creating time for teams to focus on student data, observe and reflect on instructional practices, and plan interventions for students who have not yet met standard (Reynolds, 2008). Jones et al., (2013) emphasize the role of the school principal in facilitating PLCs, being an instructional leader who models what they want educators to do, and facilitating a positive school learning culture. For teacher collaboration to be meaningful, DuFour (2008) highlights that leaders ensure:

- Teachers have time to meet built into the schedule,
- Clear priorities are given for collaboration,
- PLC participants develop an appropriate knowledge base for decision making,
- Professional learning is provided and differentiated for teacher participants, and
- Clear expectations for assessing instructional impact on student achievement are made.

Providing a clear framework for how a school's professional learning communities fit into the larger districtwide goal of improving student achievement can help build leadership capacity. PLCs can also reach beyond the building level to provide collaboration and support districtwide. Forming collaborative teams across the district develops a collective responsibility for student learning and it leverages educator expertise from across the district (Barton & Stepanek, 2012; DuFour & Reeves, 2016).

The fundamental purpose of PLCs is to transform traditional school systems by establishing collaborative cultures focused on building capacity for continuous improvement. These collaborative cultures welcome new ways of thinking and learning (Fullan, 2006). Therefore, collaboration must be embedded into the school culture as an essential component. According to Darling-Hammond et al. (2009), collaboration is one of four characteristics of professional learning that positively impacts student achievement. DuFour and Reeves (2016) draw attention to four essential questions that drive the work of collaborative PLCs:

- 1. What do we want students to learn?
- 2. How will we know if they have learned it?
- 3. What will we do if they have not learned it?

4. How will we provide extended learning opportunities for students who have mastered the content?

Educators working in an effective PLC, driven by the guiding questions above, must continually reflect on the ways they are working together to explore which practices are leading to effective results and to ensure that each practitioner has the skills and support to get there (DuFour & Reeves, 2016).

PLCs are action oriented and have a strong focus on bridging the knowing-doing gap (DuFour & DuFour, 2012). Using a continuous improvement model, educators participating in a PLC review each action and evaluate it for effectiveness. In other words, effective PLC teams focus on evaluating student learning data, a shared vision, and a clear set of goals to monitor progress impacting student achievement (Nelson, et al. 2010, Jacobson, 2010). A shared focus on learning, collaboration, and reflective dialogue put into practice through a cycle of continuous improvement expands educator knowledge and practice which can result in enhanced student learning (Dimino, Taylor & Morris, 2015, Fullan, 2006). Hord and Sommers (2008) note that PLC success depends on the application of what is learned about practice.

PLCs should pursue measurable goals and evaluate the success of these goals by looking at evidence of student achievement (DuFour, 2004). When professionals form a collaborative learning community with an explicit shared focus on student achievement and school improvement goals, they purposefully engage in professional learning that has tremendous potential.

References

- Akopoff, T. M. (2010). A Case Study Examination of Best Practices of Professional Learning Communities. ProQuest LLC. Ann Arbor, MI.
- Barton, R., & Stepanek, J. (2012). The impact of professional learning communities. *Principal's Research Review, 7*(4), pp. 1–7.
- Blankstein, A. M. (2010). Failure is not an option. California: Corwin Press.
- Darling-Hammond, L., Wei, R. C., Andree, A., Richardson, N., & Orphanos, S. (2009). *Professional learning in the learning profession: A status report on teacher development in the United States and abroad.* Stanford University, Palo Alto, CA: National Staff Development Council and the School Redesign Network.
- DuFour, R. (2004). What is a professional learning community? *Educational Leadership, 61*(8), 6–11.

- DuFour, R. (2008). *Revisiting professional learning communities at work*. Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree Press.
- DuFour, R., & DuFour, R. (2012). Revisiting Professional Learning Communities at Work: New Insights for Improving Schools. Solution Tree Press.
- DuFour, R., & Reeves, D. (2016). The futility of PLC lite. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 97(6), pp. 69–71.
- Fullan, M. (2006, November). Leading professional learning. *The School Administrator*, Retrieved March 14, 2018, from http://www.aasa.org/SchoolAdministratorArticle.aspx?id=7620
- Hord, S. M., & Sommers, W. A. (2008). *Leading professional learning communitites; Voices from research and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Jacobson, D. (2010). Coherent instructional improvement and PLCs: Is it possible to do both? *Phi Delta Kappan*, *91*(6), pp. 38–45.
- Jones, L., Stall, G. & Yarbrough, D. (2013). The importance of professional learning communities for school improvement. *Creative Education 4*(5), 357–361.
- Killion, J., & Crow, T. L. (2011). Standards for professional learning. Oxford, OH: Learning Forward.
- Kruse, S. D., Louis, K. S., & Bryk, A. S. (1995). An emerging framework for analyzing school-based professional community. *Professionalism and community: Perspectives on reforming urban schools.* Long Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Little, J. W. (1993). Teachers' professional development in a climate of educational reform. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 15*, 129–151.
- McLaughlin, M. W., & Talbert, J. E. (2001). *Professional communities and the work of high school teaching*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Nelson, T. H., Deuel, A., Slavit, D. & Kennedy, A. (2010). Leading deep conversations in collaborative inquiry groups. *The Clearing House: A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues and Ideas*, 83(5), pp. 175–179.
- Reynolds, D. (2008). *How professional learning communities use student data for improving achievement* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Southern California).
- Wood, D. (2007). Teachers learning communities: Catalyst for change or a new infrastructure for the status quo. *Teachers College Record*, *109*(3), pp. 699–739.

Targeted Professional Learning

Targeted professional learning refers to an evidence-based practice that focuses on improving teaching practices in a particular content area and/or a particular grade level in order to meet student needs. Targeted professional learning should be explicitly aligned to student learning goals, student achievement, and school improvement. The focus of targeted professional learning, when funded by LAP, should include behavioral strategies, pedagogies, and skills that will support students who have not yet met grade-level standards.

It is important to note there are many professional learning opportunities that can benefit all students, not just students identified for LAP services. If the intent is to support LAP students, other forms of targeted professional learning that may benefit all students can be used. For example, LAP funds can support targeted professional development for kindergarten educators, early learning providers, and caregivers of students in areas where WaKIDS data identify student needs.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Implement a collaborative collegial process that uses data to develop ongoing strategies for addressing academic and social development of students.
- Teach an aligned P–12 social skills program (second step, bucket filling, character education, Capturing Kids Hearts, etc.) to staff so they can implement it with fidelity.
- Focus on professional learning opportunities that align teacher processes for addressing behavior with tiered levels of support.
- Foster an understanding of social-emotional student backgrounds through ACE, cultural competency, and SEL training.
- Teach staff how to use differentiated instruction practices to address learning entry points across grade levels for all students.
- Deliver targeted professional learning for grade-level or content-based teams, and then have teams cross-collaborate to identify common goals and strategies.
- Create online modules to offer educators short learning opportunities of common interest.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

• Students who are recent immigrants or ethnically diverse students may respond well to staff who receive ongoing professional learning in multicultural education strategies that can be applied to improve social interactions in the classroom.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

• Establish clear shared mission, vision, values, and goals.

- Include classified staff and other school personnel in professional learning trainings.
- Focus on the modeling of instructional strategies for teachers and opportunities for applied practice that builds knowledge of content.
- Skilled facilitators should lead professional learning opportunities.
- Professional learning should be research based, practical, and relevant to the teacher's assigned role as well as the goals of the school/district in supporting students.
- Professional learning must be sustained and ongoing to support growth in best practices
 with instruction and to deepen teachers' content knowledge. It must include theory,
 demonstration, practice and feedback, and classroom support.
- Be sure to provide feedback to participants when implementation of professional learning is observed.
- Align professional learning with school improvement goals and engage in a cycle of inquiry to evaluate progress. Periodically review disaggregated data showing student outcomes and make data-informed decisions to improve teacher practices.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- Learning Forward: The Professional Learning Association
- Washington Education Association
- Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD)

Supporting Research

Research suggests that targeted professional learning can positively impact student outcomes. A recent review of the most current research on best practices in professional learning, "Professional Learning in the Learning Profession" (Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson, & Orphanos, 2009), notes that professional learning is most effective when it is targeted to address specific content that has been explicitly tied to goals for student achievement and school improvement. Professional learning shown to improve student achievement is focused on "the concrete, everyday challenges involved in teaching and learning specific academic subject matter, rather than focusing on abstract educational principles or teaching methods taken out of context" (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009, p. 10). Further, effective professional learning should be aligned to learning standards and/or instructional strategies, and must be aligned to the needs of learners.

Evidence suggests that in order to positively impact student achievement, professional learning must be contextualized and sustained; that is, effective professional learning must be provided as an ongoing, systematic process informed by evaluation of student, teacher and school needs,

and embedded within a comprehensive plan for school improvement (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009). As noted by McREL's *Professional Development Analysis* report, professional learning that is long-lasting, content-focused, and based on student and teacher performance data, takes more time and effort to implement when compared to less effective types of professional learning. One study found that "impacts on teachers and their teaching were typically evident after approximately 30 hours of PD, with further impacts detected through 80 hours of PD" (Weiss & Pasley, 2006, p. 14). However, as other researchers note, "[a] professional development activity is more likely to be effective in improving teachers' knowledge and skills if it forms a coherent part of a wider set of opportunities for teacher learning and development" (Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, & Yoon, 2001 p. 927).

As Knowles (1983) notes, "professional development should engage an educator in an ongoing cycle of reflection and ultimately, support the transfer of new knowledge into the classroom and daily practice." Effective professional learning for educational professionals supports motivation and commitment to the learning process. It combines the needs of individuals with school or district goals. According to Joyce & Showers (2002), professional learning should consist of a continuum in which participants receive a presentation of the theory, see demonstrations, practice and receive feedback around an applied practice, and are ultimately provided with coaching or other classroom supports to self-evaluate with the goal of positive growth. Ultimately, best practices in professional learning must be focused on improving student achievement.

Morris, Millenky, Raver, & Jones (2013) found that providing teachers with PD opportunities to improve their capacity to manage students' disruptive behaviors increased their ability to identify these behaviors, while also increasing their use of effective student interventions. Additionally, participating in professional learning to develop skills for working with students with antisocial behaviors also increases cognizance regarding the importance of student-teacher relationships, which can encourage positive interactions (Coggshall, Osher, & Colombi, 2013; Spilt, Koomen, Thijs, & Leij, 2012). It is also important for teachers and school staff to have training and professional learning on students' concerns (mental health needs, impact of psychotropic medication on behavior and learning, trauma, addiction, and family issues) that directly impact student behavior (Whitson, Bernard, & Kaufman, 2015).

Stand-alone professional learning opportunities, such as workshops, do not necessarily connect to the daily reality of an educator's role, nor do they provide for collegial networking (Goldring, Preston, & Huff, 2012). Collaborative professional learning, on the other hand, allows members of the group to benefit from the shared and collective knowledge of the group as a whole, which builds individual's skills in managing disruptive behaviors (Carmeli, Gelbard, & Reiter-Palmon, 2013). Washington districts have all been required to adopt both an instructional and a

leadership framework. Criterion 5 (Fostering and managing a safe, positive learning environment) of the teacher evaluation system and Criterion 2 (Providing for school safety) in the administrator system specifically address social emotional learning and climate. Within collaborative professional learning opportunities, members of the group should consider initiatives, problems, or practices and discuss methods to address and improve practices or routines (Barnes, Camburn, Sanders, & Sebastian, 2010). Enomoto (2012) postulated that collaborative professional learning encourages the establishment of relationships among group members, which serves to allow individuals to get to know each other on both a personal and professional basis, suggesting such relationships may further encourage networking among the group members.

Planning for professional learning should be systematic, explicit, and based upon rigorous data analysis. Effective professional learning should be job embedded, which provides context and focus for the learning (Knowles, 1983). Collaborative teaming structures, such as professional learning communities, may support teachers' professional learning goals. Effective professional learning should be of considerable duration—time spent in theory, demonstration, practice and feedback, and classroom support (Darling- Hammond, et al., 2009; Garet, et al., 2001). It should also be focused on specific content and/or instructional strategies rather than a general approach (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009).

References

- Barnes, C. A., Camburn, E., Sanders, B. R., & Sebastian, J. (2010). Developing instructional leaders: Using mixed methods to explore the black box of planned change in principals' professional practice. *Educational Administrative Quarterly*, 46(2), 241–279. doi:10.1177/1094670510361748
- Carmeli, A., Gelbard, R., & Reiter-Palmon, R. (2013). Leadership, creative problem-solving capacity, and creative performance: The importance of knowledge sharing. *Human Resource Management*, 52(1), 95–121. doi:10.1002/hrm.21514 60
- Coggshall, J. G., Osher, D., & Colombi, G. (2013). Enhancing educators' capacity to stop the school-to-prison pipeline. *Family Court Review*, 51(3), 435–444. doi:10.1111/fcre.12040
- Darling-Hammond, L., Wei, R. C., Andree, A., Richardson, N., & Orphanos, S. (2009). <u>Professional learning in the learning profession: A status report on teacher development in the United States and abroad. *National Staff Development Council*.</u>
- Enomoto, E. K. (2012). Professional development for rural school assistant principals. *Planning & Changing*, 43(3), 260–279.

- Garet, M., Porter, A., Desimone, L., Birman, B., & Yoon, K. (2001). What makes professional development effective? Analysis of a national sample of teachers. *American Educational Research Journal*, 38(4), 915–945.
- Goldring, E. B., Preston, C., & Huff, J. (2012). Conceptualizing and evaluating professional development for school leaders. *Planning & Changing*, 43(3), 223–242.
- Joyce, B. R., & Showers, B. (2002). *Designing Training and Peer Coaching: Our needs for learning*. ASCD.
- Knowles, M. (1983). Adults are not grown up children as learners. *Community Services Catalyst*, 13(4), 4–8.
- Morris, P., Millenky, M., Raver, C. C., & Jones, S. M. (2013). Does a preschool social and emotional learning intervention pay off for classroom instruction and children's behavior and academic skills? *Early Education and Development*, 24(7), 1020–1042. doi:10.1080/10409289.2013.825187
- Snow-Renner, R., & Laurer, P. (2005). Professional Development Analysis. McREL.
- Spilt, J. L., Koomen, H. M. Y., Thijs, J. T., & Leij, A., van der. (2012). Supporting teachers' relationships with disruptive children: The potential of relationship-focused reflection.

 Attachment & Human Development, 14(3), 305–318. doi:10.1080/14616734.2012.672286
- Weiss, I. R., & Pasley, J. D. (2006). <u>Scaling up instructional improvement through teacher professional development: Insights from the local systematic change initiative</u>. *CPRE Policy Briefs*.
- Whitson, M., Bernard, S., & Kaufman, J. (2015). The mediating role of parenting stress for children exposed to trauma: Results from a school-based system of care. *Journal of Child & Family Studies*, 24(4), 1141–1151.

Trauma-Informed Approaches

Trauma-informed approaches refers to emerging promising practices designed to provide educators with relational skills and strategies that keep students impacted from trauma engaged in learning. The purpose of trauma-informed training is to support educators in recognizing trauma, responding to student's individual needs, and cultivating a healthy school climate through improved student-educator relationships. Educators can foster resilience in impacted students by employing compassionate approaches and responses that support student engagement, social-emotional learning, and healthy adolescent development.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Deliver professional learning on trauma-informed approaches for all staff. Train school counselors to identify students who may be negatively impacted by trauma in terms of academic and social skill development.
- Access curricula to support a resiliency focused support services staff position, teachers, or classroom to enhance student school engagement and achievement.
- Provide instructional training that impacts both school and classroom with activities and strategies staff can utilize to help students develop skills identified in the Common Core that assist them in addressing trauma, i.e., critical thinking, problem solving, and analytical skills.
- Raise student sense of belonging and achievement by accessing leadership youth development programs and activities.
- Establish teams of four to six individuals who hold the vision for the school climate and culture, as well as providing focused and coordinated services and supports to high-risk students impacted by trauma.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

- Students experiencing homelessness, neglect, or delinquency, or living in families receiving temporary assistance may require increased team-identified social and material supports.
- Students and families who are adding English as another language can benefit from increased connections and communication in their primary language.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Focus on culture and climate in the school and community. A PLC focusing on this topic could strengthen school improvement plans.
- Train and support all staff regarding how trauma impacts learning.
- Encourage and sustain open and regular communication for all staff and partners.

- Develop a strengths-based approach in working with students, peers, and partners.
- Ensure discipline policies and practices that address behavior are compassionate, consistent, and equitable.
- Provide tiered support for all students based on what they need through a structured and studied assessment lens. Teach staff and students that a tiered support for all students and staff is needed.
- Create flexible accommodations for diverse learners including both language and culture. Create a care plan for students and staff needing supports.
- Use data to identify vulnerable students and determine outcomes and strategies for continuous quality improvement.
- Recognize that some students' religious beliefs could facilitate feelings of anger, guilt, shame, or punishment that are attributed to a higher power. Make community connections and referrals to appropriate supports.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- Trauma and Learning Policy Initiative
- Collaborative Learning for Educational Achievement and Resilience (CLEAR)
- OSPI: Compassionate Schools and Mental Health and Schools
- Rethinking School Discipline: Trauma-Informed Approaches to Supporting Girls of Color (Morning Session)
- Treatment and Services Adaptation Center
- National Center on Safe Supportive Learning Environments: <u>Trauma-Sensitive Schools</u> <u>Training Package</u>
- Adolescent Health Working Group: <u>AHWG Provider Toolkit: Trauma and Resilience</u>
- Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction: <u>Trauma-Sensitive Schools Learning Modules</u>

Supporting Research

In recent years, education researchers have synthesized scientific evidence regarding brain development, social-emotional learning, and adverse childhood experiences (ACEs) into a growing body of research regarding trauma-informed approaches in schools (Blodgett, 2016).

According to the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMSHA), trauma "results from an event, series of events, or set of circumstances that is experienced by an individual as physically or emotionally harmful or life threatening and that has lasting adverse

effects on the individual's functioning and mental, physical, social, emotional, or spiritual well-being" (SAMHSA, 2014, p. 6). The National Child Traumatic Stress Network (NCTSN) reports that one out of four students have been exposed to a traumatic event that can impact school performance (including academics, attendance, and discipline), impair learning (including memory, information processing, and problem-solving), and result in physical and/or emotional distress (NCTSN, 2008). Studies show associations between trauma and violence exposure and decreased reading ability, lower grade point average, more days of school absence, and decreased rates of high school graduation (Jaycox, Kataoka, Stein, Langley, & Wong, 2012).

SAMSHA's working definition of a trauma-informed approach is one that *realizes* the impact of trauma, *recognizes* the symptoms of trauma, *responds* by systemically integrating knowledge about trauma, and *resists* re-traumatization. SAMSHA outlines six key principles of a trauma-informed approach to guide organizations when implementing a trauma-informed approach: (1) Safety; (2) Trustworthiness and transparency; (3) Peer support; (4) Collaboration and mutuality; (5) Empowerment, voice and choice; and (6) Cultural, historical, and gender issues (SAMSHA, 2014).

Educational staff are in a unique position as first responders to recognize and connect students impacted by trauma with support systems. Trauma-informed approaches and compassionate practices can benefit students by fostering compassionate attitudes among educators (Wolpow, Johnson, Hertel, & Kincaid, 2009). A compassionate school staff can work effectively to keep students engaged in learning while supporting a healthy climate and culture within the school (Hertel, Frausto, & Harrington, 2009; Wolpow, et al., 2009).

The range of experiences that may be classified as stressors can vary according to the socio-economic or cultural contexts in which individual students live so additional ACEs indicators might be useful for understanding the impact of childhood stressors on long-term health outcomes in such contexts. Economic hardship and family dynamics that do not include the experience of parental separation or divorce, such as growing up in a single-parent home, may contribute to childhood adversity (Wade, Shea, Rubin, & Wood, 2014). Although a lot of research focuses on the early childhood effects of trauma on adolescents later in life, students may accumulate adverse experiences during their time in the K–12 system. Trauma may occur along a spectrum and may be attributed to transitions a student goes through.

When designing trauma-informed programs and interventions educators should consider the personal resiliency of individual students and school-level environmental factors that cultivate resilience. Educators might consider integrating trauma-informed approaches with other interventions that serve to buffer the effects of adversities on student achievement (Claro, Paunesku, & Dweck, 2015). However, educators must take care to ensure that any assessments related to personal resiliency are strength-based and not stigmatizing, culturally and

developmentally appropriate, and demonstrate overall reliability and validity (Prince-Embury, 2015). Teachers can assist intervention efforts by identifying students displaying symptoms of trauma early on and making in-school referrals, participating in trauma-informed treatment teams at the school level, and supporting students impacted by trauma through any therapeutic processes (Bell & Limberg, 2013). Referrals to external clinicians might be necessary to deliver trauma-focused interventions for students affected by complex trauma (Arvidson, et al., 2011).

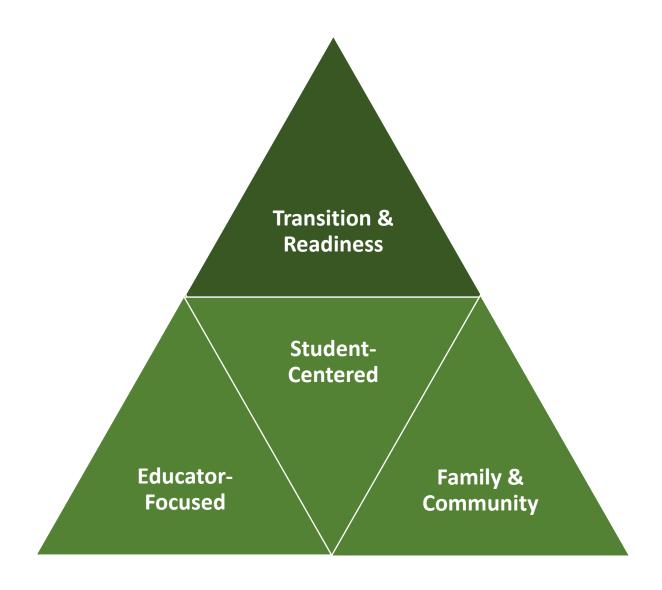
Schools can integrate trauma-informed approaches into already existing multi-tiered frameworks with careful planning and educator preparation (Chafouleas, Johnson, Overstreet, & Santos, 2016). Even without the extensive use of specific screeners or direct assessments, schools can implement trauma-informed approaches when the systems and processes designed by the school are based on statistically probable assumptions about ACEs exposure among student populations (Soures & Hall, 2016). Schools may decide to prioritize trauma-informed staff training and school climate efforts in order to minimize risks associated with the collection of more detailed and sensitive student-level information. To the extent that information about childhood trauma or ACEs exposure is gathered, such knowledge should inform educator practices and guide organizational change (Blodgett, 2012).

References

- Arvidson, J., Kinniburgh, K., Howard, K., Spinazzola, J., Strothers, H., Evans, M., & Blaustein, M.E. (2011). Treatment of complex trauma in young children: Developmental and cultural considerations in application of the ARC intervention model. *Journal of Child & Adolescent Trauma*, 4:34–51.
- Bell, H., Limberg, D., & Robinson III, E. M. (2013). Recognizing trauma in the classroom: A practical guide for educators. *Childhood Education*, 89(3), 139–145.
- Blodgett, C. (2012). <u>Adopting ACEs screening and assessment in child serving systems</u>. *Child and Family Research Unit, Washington State University*.
- Blodgett, C. (2015). No school alone: How community risks and assets contribute to school and youth success. Child and Family Research Unit, Washington State University.
- Blodgett, C. (2016). <u>A selected review of trauma-informed school practice and alignment with educational practice</u>. *Child and Family Research Unit, Washington State University*.
- Chafouleas, S.M., Johnson, J.H., Overstreet, S., & Santos, N.M. (2016). Toward a blueprint for trauma-informed service delivery in schools. *School Mental Health*, 8:144–162.

- Claro, S., Paunesku, D., & Dweck, C. S. (2016). Growth mindset tempers the effects of poverty on academic achievement. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, *113*(31), 8664–8668.
- Hertel, R., Frausto, L., & Harrington, R. (2009). *The Compassionate Schools Pilot Project Report*. Olympia, WA: Washington State Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction.
- Jaycox, L. H., Kataoka, S. H., Stein, B. D., Langley, A. K., & Wong, M. (2012). Cognitive behavioral intervention for trauma in schools. *Journal of Applied School Psychology*, *28*(3), 239–255.
- National Child Traumatic Stress Network (NCTSN). (2008). <u>Child Trauma Toolkit for Educators</u>. Los Angeles, CA & Durham, NC: National Center for Child Traumatic Stress.
- Prince-Embury, S. (2015). Assessing personal resiliency in school settings: The resiliency scales for children and adolescents. *Journal of Psychologists and Counsellors in Schools*, *25*(01), 55–65.
- Souers, K., & Hall, P. (2016). Fostering Resilient Learners: Strategies for Creating a Trauma-Sensitive Classroom. ASCD.
- Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMSHA). (2014). <u>SAMHSA's Concept of Trauma and Guidance for a Trauma—Informed Approach</u>. HHS Publication No. (SMA) 14-4884. Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration.
- Wade, R., Shea, J. A., Rubin, D., & Wood, J. (2014). Adverse childhood experiences of low-income urban youth. *Pediatrics*, *134*(1), e13–e20.
- Wolpow, Ray, Johnson, Mona M., Hertel, Ron, & Kincaid, Susan O. (2009). <u>The Heart of Learning and Teaching: Compassion, Resiliency, and Academic Success</u>. Olympia, WA: Washington State Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction.

TRANSITION AND READINESS PRACTICES AND STRATEGIES



Credit Retrieval and Mastery of High School Standards

Credit retrieval for students who have not yet met graduation requirements is a promising practice. Students may be at-risk of not graduating because of not earning credit in courses due to unsatisfactory grades and/or insufficient attendance. Other students graduate, but then need to immediately enroll in remedial community college courses before starting regular freshman level work.

LAP funding can be allocated for these programs targeting 11th- and 12th- grade students atrisk of not graduating or meeting state standards on the high school assessments. It is important that these specialized programs provide innovative structures that are rigorous (targeting ELA speaking, conceptual understanding, self-management and other SEL benchmarks, listening, reading, and/or writing), develop a growth mindset, and focus on college and career readiness.

Credit retrieval, or credit recovery, allows students to retake academic courses, stay in school, and graduate on time. Credit retrieval programs may be offered in a variety of formats and times such as online, face-to-face, and through a blended-learning approach. Credit retrieval programs allow students to retake coursework for which credit was not earned.

Note: OSPI does not establish the criteria for 11th- and 12th- grade students in Washington state. Districts set this policy (e.g. by age of student or by student credit accumulation). The OSPI CEDARS manual for data reporting lists age as a suggestion for determining grade-level, with age 16 as of August 31 for 11th grade and age 17 as of August 31 for 12th grade. It is recommended that eligibility for LAP credit retrieval be based on age.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Implement a diagnostic assessment protocol that integrates functional analyses for behavior and academics to identify appropriate supports for students at risk of dropping out of school.
- Use LAP funds to support during, after, and/or summer school programs for credit retrieval. Funds can be used to cover teacher salaries, teacher prep time, paraeducator support, reading, and other instructional materials, and applicable professional learning opportunities.
- Offer a 4th-year transition course to support 12th grade students who have not yet met standard on the assessments, but do intend to enroll in post-secondary coursework after high school. Transition courses should provide an opportunity for students to focus on the academic and non-academic skills they will need to be successful in credit bearing courses in college. For successful post-high school transitions, courses may include Bridge to College or Advancement Via Individual Determination (AVID).

- Collaborate with the local library to offer online credit retrieval access and enrichment opportunities.
- Create an alternative program for whole class instruction and activities that incorporates social-emotional learning. Assess and think about what barriers caused students not to receive credit. Design and deliver instruction that meets similar learning course objectives while accounting for previous learning barriers.
- Provide project-based courses or Career and Technical Education-equivalent courses for students in order to engage them in an application-based learning environment.
- Create a project-based, computer assisted credit retrieval program for 11th and 12th-grade students. Out-of-School Time (OST) credit retrieval can be available for students before/after school and/or during the summer.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

- Services are for 11th- and 12th- grade students.
- Students in the process of adjudication could benefit from additional education opportunities, such as skill centers, while they transition into their regular high school setting.
- Students already experiencing transition as a result of homelessness, military relocation, medical treatment, or foster care placement may require a variety of additional support services as they transition into or out of high school.
- High school migrant students may benefit from opportunities to access credit retrieval, tutorial support, and additional time to submit assignments.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Online courses or hybrid courses that are designed to be individualized and self-paced should be designed to provide students' support from an instructor who is well versed in the content and can effectively coach and motivate students.
- Be explicit with students about developing effective study skills and self-management strategies when engaging in online courses.
- Create a systematic structure for online and blended programs.
- Identify students in 9th- and 10th- grade at-risk of not graduating on time. While LAP funding for credit retrieval is restricted to 11th- and 12th-grade students, early identification and intervention is more successful.
- Target individualized instruction only to needed areas of remediation to avoid repeating mastered elements. Use formative and diagnostic assessments to customize coursework.

- Allow for flexible enrollment in credit retrieval programs, thinking beyond the traditional schedule.
- Include counseling and student support teams to provide communication and monitoring to help regulate student progress.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- Advancement Via Individual Determination (AVID)
- OSPI: <u>Career Guidance Washington</u>, <u>Digital Learning Department</u>, <u>CTE Statewide Course Equivalencies</u>, <u>Open Educational Resources</u>, <u>and Bridge to College Courses</u>
- Center for Change in Transition Services
- <u>theWashBoard.org</u>
- College Spark Washington
- Washington Student Oral Histories Project: Listening to and Learning from Disconnected Youth
- Buck Institute for Education (BIE): Project Based Learning
- Institute of Education Sciences (IES): <u>Helping Students Navigate the Path to College:</u> <u>What High Schools Can Do</u>
- National Education Association: Research Spotlight on Project-Based Learning

Supporting Research

Credit retrieval, or credit recovery, is a LAP-allowable service under RCW 28A.320.190. Credit retrieval refers to alternative ways for 11th- and 12th- grade students to earn high school credit toward graduation after a student has completed a course and not earned credit on the initial attempt. Credit retrieval is a promising practice because it provides a time during and outside school for additional learning opportunities (D'Agustino, 2013). These opportunities may better suit students who struggle with regular attendance, essential literacy skill deficits, are learning English as an additional language, need additional time and support to complete ELA coursework, have specific learning disabilities (such as dyslexia, dysgraphia, and ADD/ADHD–sometimes undiagnosed), or are disconnected from school. Credit retrieval programs are often used to keep students in school and on track for graduation (Watson and Gemin, 2008).

Credit retrieval programs may be designed in a variety of formats.

• One possible credit retrieval format is to implement an online program. Online credit retrieval programs may allow for greater rates of credit retrieval (Hughes, Zhou, & Petscher, 2015), but also pose challenges for some learners. Franco and Patel (2011) note

that self-regulative strategies are key traits for learner success in these programs. Online components of credit retrieval programs can offer benefits to students who have not yet met standard by providing extra student support and contact time while developing 21st century skills (Watson & Gemin, 2009).

- Another possible credit retrieval format is to present material via alternative whole-class instruction. Here the design often differs from the classroom design where the student previously did not earn credit. Some design challenges which have been implemented with an attention to increasing student credit retrieval success are providing smaller class sizes, different curriculum (than what was previously taught), and essential skills development. The use of different instructional material that is more appropriate for the target population provides students a second chance to engage with the content and improve their chances for achieving success. By using pre- and post-assessments to measure growth and attainment of the relevant standards, both students and teachers can feel more confident that essential skills are being developed. Students who have not yet met standard benefit from smaller class sizes as they receive more individualized attention from the teacher and support in areas of skill deficit (Malloy et al, 2010).
- Not surprisingly, some educators have blended online and traditional classroom instruction with some success. It stands to reason that if some credit retrieval students have not yet met standard because they lack regulatory controls, then having a highly qualified educator available to develop and implement instruction (as well as offer individual tutoring) would increase student success. As Watson and Gemin (2008) have explained, "The blended approach is important because it provides expanded student support and face-to-face contact. The online component—whether fully online or blended—provides 21st century skills to a group of students who often have less than average exposure to computers and technology" (p. 15).
- A fourth possible credit retrieval format is to implement a project-based learning approach.

Across grade levels, behavioral needs of students are frequently linked with deficits in academic performance which, at the high school level, can become a barrier to graduation (Bruce, Bridgeland, Fox, & Balfanz, 2011). Students exhibiting behavioral challenges in the school setting are at increased risk for dropout, especially when they experience exclusionary discipline as a consequence for behavioral infractions (McIntosh, Flannery, Sugai, Braun, & Cochane, 2008). Because students' academic and behavior needs are interrelated, schools must address a variety of behavioral variables that affect student learning (McIntosh, et al., 2008).

According to 2016 data published by the <u>Education Research & Data Center</u> (ERDC) in the <u>High School Feedback Report</u>, 47 percent of Washington state high school graduates enrolling in 2-

year and 11 percent enrolling in 4-year post-secondary institutions had to take some level of pre-college remedial coursework. Students assigned to remedial courses are less likely to earn their post-secondary degree or credential (Vandal, 2010). High school transition courses may provide opportunities for high school students to shore up their academic readiness skills prior to graduation and bypass remediation. These courses are most effective when targeted towards students who intend to pursue college and are close to, but have not, quite demonstrated mastery of high school proficiency on academic assessments. Professional learning for participating high school faculty on the specific transition curriculum is another key factor for success (Barnett, 2016).

References

- Balfanz, R. I., Herzog, L., & Iver, D. J. M. (2007). Preventing student disengagement and keeping students on the graduation path in urban middle-grades schools: Early identification and effective interventions. *Educational Psychology*, *43*(4), 223–235.
- Barnett, E., Fay, M., Pheat, L., & Trimble, M. (2016). What we know about transition courses. Community College Research Center.
- Bruce, M., Bridgeland, J. M., Fox, J. H., & Balfanz, R. (2011). On track for success: The use of early warning indicator and intervention systems to build a grad nation. *Civic Enterprises*.
- D'Agustino, S. (2013). Providing innovating opportunities and options for credit recovery through afterschool and summer learning programs. In T. K. Peterson (Ed.), *Expanding minds and opportunities: Leveraging the power of afterschool and summer learning for student success.* New York, NY: Children's Aid Society.
- Franco, M. S., & Patel, N. H. (2011). An interim report on a pilot credit recovery program in a large, suburban midwestern high school. *Education*, *132*(1), 15–27.
- Hughes, J., Zhou, C., & Petscher, Y. (2015). Comparing Success Rates for General and Credit Recovery Courses Online and Face to Face: Results for Florida High School Courses. REL 2015–095. *Regional Educational Laboratory Southeast*.
- Malloy, C., Ph.D., & Vital Research, LLC. (2010). Lessons from the Classroom: Initial Success for At-Risk Students. California Teachers Association.
- McIntosh, K., Flannery, K. B., Sugai, G., Braun, D., & Cochrane, K. (2008). Relationships between academics and problem behavior in the transition from middle school to high school. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, 10(4), 243–255.
- Vandal, B. (2010). *Getting past go: Rebuilding the remedial education bridge to college success.*Education Commission for the States.

Watson, J., & Gemin, B. (2009). Using Online Learning for At-risk Students and Credit Recovery. Washington, DC: International Association for K12 Online Learning.

Grade 8 to High School Transitions

Grade 8 transition readiness is a promising practice. Transition readiness opportunities refer to programs intended to support successful transitions from 8th grade to high school. Students identified for support might benefit from instruction in one or more of the following areas: self-management, self-efficacy, reading, writing, mathematical reasoning, and/or communication skills. For the purpose of LAP, high school transition programs begin in 8th grade and may continue in the summer and through 9th grade. In some cases, when over one-third of the incoming freshman students experience one or more early warning indicators (excessive absenteeism, failing a course in the first quarter, or receiving a suspension), LAP funds may be used for school-wide transition programs.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Create an 8th grade student mentor system where each student is assigned a high school peer mentor. Mentor/mentee activities could be scheduled monthly, over the course of the school year, or during the summer, and into 9th grade.
- Design an 8th grade course that focuses on the skills and habits of mind needed to be successful in a high school environment. For example, a program like <u>Advancement Via</u> <u>Individual Determination (AVID)</u> may be particularly effective for transition readiness. AVID's professional learning for educators focuses on cultivating a positive learning environment and instructional strategies in mathematics, literacy, writing, and speaking.
- Partner with local service groups (Kiwanis, Rotary, Lions, etc.) to establish mentoring and service learning projects.
- Design and implement a summer academy for incoming freshman. This program should introduce students to the expectations regarding academics, activities, school culture, and the habits of success needed for high school.
- Design a 9th grade transition readiness academy to support LAP students identified in grade 8. For example, provide intentional academic and social-emotional learning supports including team teaching, student advisories, and diagnostic assessments to monitor student progress through grade 9.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

- Students and families who are recent immigrants may benefit from additional
 encouragement and support that is responsive to their academic, cultural, and socialemotional strengths and needs as they transition into the U.S. education system.
- Students already experiencing transition as a result of homelessness, military relocation, medical treatment, or foster care placement may require a variety of additional support services as they transition into high school.

- Students and families from American Indian/Alaska Native communities may benefit from a teaching environment that focuses on cooperation instead of competition, has Tribal cultures represented in the classroom, and utilizes culturally responsive teaching methods. In accordance with state requirements under RCW 28A.320.170, school districts should support effective implementation of the Since Time Immemorial: Tribal Sovereignty in Washington State curriculum (STI)—which focuses on teaching about Tribal history, culture, and the government of Tribes whose boundaries lay within Washington state. Consistent with the legislative intent of RCW 28A.320.170, high school transitions services can be designed to "improve the experiences" American Indian/Alaska Native students have in WA schools and to ensure all students in WA are informed "about the experiences, contributions, and perspectives of their tribal neighbors, fellow citizens, and classmates" (SSB 5433, Section 1). For example, in collaboration with local Tribes, school districts may integrate expanded and improved STI curricular materials and related activities into core instruction, summer programs, and supplemental services.
- Students learning English as an additional language and their families may benefit from early support towards understanding high school graduation requirements pertaining to language acquisition and credit accrual.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Design transition interventions with models that accelerate learning.
- Provide both content and non-content supports for students. Attention to growth mindset, motivation, and counseling can help enable learning.
- Embed specific practices like goal setting, progress monitoring, and authentic learning involving real-world, complex problems and their solutions into designed supports.
- Ensure counseling services are available for students who are struggling with the transition into high school.
- Improve communication channels between middle schools and high schools, both within the district and between neighboring school districts.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- Advancement Via Individual Determination (AVID)
- Gear Up Washington State
- Education Northwest: A Practitioner's Guide to Implementing Early Warning Systems
- Great Schools Partnership: <u>Ninth Grade Counts: A Three-Part Guide to Strengthening the Transition into High School</u>

- Washington Student Oral Histories Project: Listening to and Learning from Disconnected Youth
- The University of Texas at Austin, Charles A. Dana Center: Academic Youth Development (AYD) and AYD Factsheet
- U.S. Department of Education: <u>Newcomer Tool Kit</u>

Supporting Research

Across grade levels, behavioral needs of students are frequently linked with deficits in academic performance which, at the high school level, can become a barrier to graduation (Bruce, Bridgeland, Fox, & Balfanz, 2011). Because students' academic and behavior needs are interrelated, schools must address a variety of behavioral situations that affect student learning (McIntosh, Flannery, Sugai, Braun, & Cochane, 2008). Researchers emphasize that 9th grade is a critical year for students because academic performance is a strong predictor of future academic achievement and the failure rate for students in grade 9 is higher than other grade levels (Bottoms, 2008; Easton, Johnson, & Sartain, 2017). Therefore, to address 9th grade failure in a proactive manner, districts and schools should consider having a robust grade 8 transition readiness plan in place.

Students exhibiting behavioral challenges in the school setting are at increased risk for dropout, especially when they experience exclusionary discipline as a consequence for behavioral infractions (McIntosh, et al., 2008). Recent national and state reports have documented the extensive use of exclusionary discipline, which disproportionately affects students of color and has multiple negative impacts on students and their communities (Morgan, Salomon, Plotkin, & Cohen, 2014). Dropping out of high school is a process that begins well before students enter high school, and there are identifiable warning signs at least one-to-three years before students actually drop out. Research shows that identifiable early warning signs are evident up to three years prior to when a student actually drops out (McIntosh, et. al, 2008; Burrus & Roberts, 2012).

Feldman, Smith, & Waxman (2013) interviewed students who dropped out and found the majority of students follow a four-phase process including: initial disengagement, early skipping, more serious truancy, followed by actual dropping out. Early warning indicators (course failure, truancy, and discipline referrals) continue to be the best predictors of dropping out for all ages. Specific behavioral risk factors for dropout include, truancy, not completing schoolwork, suspension/expulsion, involvement with juvenile justice, substance abuse, mental health, and being victims of bullying (Dalton, Glennie, & Ingels, 2009; Smink & Reimer, 2009).

The reasons for students falling off the graduation track during their first year of high school can be attributed to social and developmental adjustments, structural and organizational changes, and increased academic rigor experienced as a result of the transition (Erickson, Peterson, &

Lembeck, 2013). Dr. Robert Balfanz, a researcher at Johns Hopkins University, is one of the nation's leading experts on high school dropouts. His work suggests that behavior should be considered in addition to attendance and course performance. Districts and middle schools systematically reviewing the ABCs (Attendance, Behavior, and Course performance) can identify those at-risk of dropping out and help put them on the path to graduation. An intentional focus on the middle grades' transition program is essential due to the difficulties that students' experience with social, emotional, cognitive, and physical changes, which often exacerbate the transitional concerns (Andrews & Bishop, 2012; Balfanz, Herzog, & Iver, 2007; McIntosh, et. al 2008; Somers, Owens, & Piliowksy, 2009). Students need to be explicitly taught the skills and behaviors needed for high school success. 9th-grade specific courses are a great place to house the teaching of problem-solving skills, behavior expectations, time management and organizational skills, and self-advocacy (Bottoms, 2008).

In most cases, a well-designed transition program for LAP-eligible students can be a successful intervention strategy. In instances where a school has over one-third of their 9th grade students at-risk for failure, LAP funds can be used for a school-wide transition program. School-wide transition programs have also been successful at improving student performance and decreasing drop-out rates for all students. One model, freshman academies, provides focused support for 9th-graders. The academies group students and intentionally provide academic and social supports including team teaching, student advisories, and diagnostic assessment to monitor student progress (Kennelly & Monrad, 2007).

According to a recent study, "teacher teams [core content teachers who share the same students throughout the day] are the most effective model for easing the transition to high school and preparing freshmen for success" (Habeeb, 2013 p. 20). While many schools can employ this type of model, it is important to note that others may struggle to meet the demands of incoming freshmen; therefore, whatever model used must include support that is flexible, positive, goal-oriented, efficacious, and empowering (Habeeb, 2013). Traditional remedial classes are not effective in supporting successful transitions; instead, transition interventions that effectively prepare students for high school operate on a model of accelerated learning (Herlihy, 2007). Transition interventions should address not only academic content but also increase student engagement, advance social-emotional learning, develop a growth mindset, and reward academic risk-taking.

Whatever strategies schools choose to support incoming 9th grade students should be rooted in results—reduced failure rates, improved achievement, and increased graduation rates. If schools are dedicated to designing and implementing successful transition programs, the outcomes will be visible in the statistics, and more importantly, in the attitudes, motivations, and accomplishments of the students.

References

- Andrews, C., & Bishop, P. (2012). Middle grades transition programs around the world. *Middle School Journal*, *44*(1), 8–14.
- Balfanz, R. I., Herzog, L., & Iver, D. J. M. (2007). Preventing student disengagement and keeping students on the graduation path in urban middle-grades schools: Early identification and effective interventions. *Educational Psychology*, *43*(4), 223–235.
- Bottoms, Gene. (2008). <u>Redesigning the ninth-grade experience: Reduce failure, improve achievement and increase high school graduation rates</u>. *The Southern Regional Education Board*.
- Bruce, M., Bridgeland, J. M., Fox, J. H., & Balfanz, R. (2011). On track for success: The use of early warning indicator and intervention systems to build a grad nation. *Civic Enterprises*.
- Burrus, J., & Roberts, R. D. (2012). Dropping out of high school: Prevalence, risk factors and remediation strategies. *R & D Connections*, 18, 1–9.
- Dalton, B., Glennie, E., & Ingels, S. J. (2009). <u>Late high school dropouts: Characteristics</u>
 <u>experiences, and changes across cohorts</u>. NCES 2009-307. *National Center for Education Statistics*.
- Easton, J.Q., Johnson, E., & Sartain, L. (2017). *The predictive power of ninth-grade GPA*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Consortium on School Research
- Erickson, J., Peterson, R. L. & Lembeck, P. (2013, May). <u>Middle to high school transition. Strategy</u> <u>brief.</u> Lincoln, NE: Student Engagement Project, University of Nebraska.
- Feldman, D., Smith, A., & Waxman, B. (2013). <u>Pathways to dropping out part 1: Common patterns.</u> Washington Student Oral Histories Project.
- Habeeb, S. (2013). The ninth grade challenge. Principal Leadership, 13(6),18–22.
- Herlihy, C. (2007). <u>State and district level support for successful transitions into high school.</u>

 <u>Policy brief.</u> *National High School Center.*
- Kennelly, L., & Monrad, M. (2007). Easing the Transition to High School: Research and Best Practices Designed to Support High School Learning. *National High School Center*.
- McIntosh, K., Flannery, K. B., Sugai, G., Braun, D., & Cochrane, K. (2008). Relationships between academics and problem behavior in the transition from middle school to high school. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, 10(4), 243–255.

- Morgan, E., Salomon, N., Plotkin, M., & Cohen, R. (2014). <u>The school discipline consensus report:</u>

 <u>Strategies from the field to keep students engaged in school and out of the juvenile justice system</u>. *The Council of State Governments Justice Center*.
- Smink, J., & Reimer, M. (2009). *Rural School Dropout Issues: Implications for Dropout Prevention Strategies and Programs*. (June 2009). Clemson, SC: National Dropout Prevention Center/Network.
- Somers, C. L., Owens, D., & Piliawsky, M. (2009). A study of high school dropout prevention and at risk ninth graders' role models and motivation for high school completion. *Education*, 130(2), 348–356.

Kindergarten Transitions

Supporting kindergarten transitions is a promising practice. Transitioning through kindergarten is a time when behavioral, emotional, and social changes impact all students and their families. Communities, schools, families, and educators can increase the likelihood of a successful student transition by providing academic and non-academic support services. Kindergarten transition opportunities provide support to students and their families for successful transitions from inhome care, daycare, relative care, pre-school, ECEAP, or Head Start.

LAP funds may support transition to kindergarten through a number of different strategies. Districts are encouraged to set up data-sharing opportunities with early learning providers and families to be able to identify the children who may need additional transition support prior to the start of the kindergarten year.

Note: Washington state statute starts LAP eligibility at kindergartners. As such, kindergarten transition strategies funded with LAP should start after a child has enrolled in kindergarten. As such, kindergarten transition strategies funded with LAP should start after a child has enrolled in kindergarten. They may start prior to the first day of school. LAP allowable funding options for children enrolled in kindergarten, and identified as needing extra support, may include:

- In late spring/summer, educators can conduct family engagement and home visits.
- During the summer, before kindergarten starts, educators can provide transitions programs.

LAP funds could be used throughout the year for professional learning time between early learning providers (preschool and childcare) and kindergarten teachers to focus on strategies to improve the academic readiness of students arriving at kindergarten. LAP funds for this professional development should be focused on foundational early skills alignment (social-emotional, numeracy, and literacy) and on the providers serving students most in need of kindergarten transition support. WaKIDS data is a great resource for districts to use to identify students for services and content for instruction and professional learning.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Establish a program that allows pre-kindergarten and kindergarten educators to create a transition plan with a focus on sharing student data, aligning curriculum, and supporting strategies for transitioning students.
- Create an outreach program that promotes early kindergarten registration, conducts needs assessments with families, finds and connects families with resources, and provides a safety net of support for the first several months a child attends kindergarten.

- Provide opportunities for families to visit elementary schools before children begin kindergarten by inviting students and families to participate in school events, school tours, school lunch, library time, and recess.
- Develop summer transition programs, or kindergarten camps, that focus on incoming kindergarteners who may not have attended a pre-school program. Allow time for kindergarten students to become familiar with teachers, buildings, classrooms, and routines.
- Cultivate a peer connection program that arranges for pre-school children and kindergarten children to meet, play, and connect within a classroom or outside the classroom at a community event.
- Provide opportunities for teachers to share WaKIDS results with parents and provide activities parents can engage in with their children to support areas of need as identified on the WaKIDS assessment.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

- Students and families who are new to the school system benefit from a friendly environment where families are valued as decision-makers regarding their own child's education and school programs.
- Migratory families may benefit from programs that help students learn about school routines and ease the separation from home to school; families benefit from learning about activities and strategies families can do in the home to strengthen their child's education in the classroom.
- Students and families who are learning English as an additional language benefit from a
 welcoming environment where responsive two-way communication, in the language
 spoken by the family, is facilitated.
- Students and families who qualify for free- and reduced-priced lunch benefit when they are connected to resources and information related to family services.
- Students and families who participate in Head Start or ECEAP programs benefit when standards, curriculum, support services, and assessments from pre-kindergarten to kindergarten are carefully aligned.
- Students who struggle with emotional and/or social issues that may hinder a successful transition benefit from peer connections that continue from pre-school into kindergarten.
- Students and families from American Indian/Alaska Native communities may benefit from a teaching environment that focuses on cooperation instead of competition, has

Tribal cultures represented in the classroom, and utilizes culturally responsive teaching methods.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Establish protocols for collecting data from pre-kindergarten programs to support early intervention.
- Promote academic readiness and emerging literacy, language, numeracy, and social emotional skills families can practice at home. WaKIDS data can help inform these practices.
- Provide families tools and support to be advocates for their children.
- Provide funds to purchase support materials for age-level readiness practices.
- Provide time and funding for collaboration between pre-kindergarten and kindergarten staff, families, and community members to establish a district-wide transition plan for students entering kindergarten.
- Provide time and resources to promote ongoing connections among children, families, in-home, daycare, and pre-kindergarten providers with elementary schools.
- Identify a coordinator to oversee kindergarten transition programs, connect with families/early childhood centers, and monitor progress.
- Provide training for kindergarten educators to further develop an understanding of the norms, practices, and procedures of pre-school education.
- Provide training for educators on culturally sensitive and anti-bias pedagogy, curriculum, early childhood development and evidence-based practices.
- Provide services tailored to the cultural, linguistic, and learning needs of students and their families.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- Institute for Educational Leadership: <u>Case Studies of Early Childhood Education & Family Engagement in Community Schools</u>
- ChildCare Aware of Washington: Collaboration with Principals and Child Care Providers
- Washington State Early Learning and Development Guidelines Birth Through Third Grade and WaKIDS
- Kindergarten Questionnaires and Checklists: Bellingham Public Schools- <u>Kindergarten</u>
 <u>Parent Questionnaire</u> and <u>Teacher Questionnaire</u>; Washington State Department of Early Learning <u>Kindergarten Checklist</u>
- The Early Childhood Community School Linkages Project

- OSPI: <u>Washington State Full-Day Kindergarten Guide</u>, <u>Early Literacy Pathways</u>, <u>Early Numeracy Pathways</u>, and <u>Early Learning and Development Guidelines</u>
- Patterns of Practice: <u>Case Studies of Early Childhood Education & Family Engagement in Community Schools</u>
- University of Washington's Institute for Learning & Brain Sciences: Love, Talk, Play
- Enhancing the Transition to Kindergarten: Linking Children, Families, and Schools
- Center on the Social and Emotional Foundations for Early Learning
- Technical Assistance Center on Social Emotional Intervention for Young Children
- Erikson Institute: <u>Programs and Services</u>

Supporting Research

Kindergarten transition is a crucial time for young students and families. Transition programs can set the stage for how families will handle their children's future educational experiences by engaging them in the transition to kindergarten. Kindergarten students in particular need of additional support and care when transitioning as changing learning environments present new challenges: new academic expectations, different school structures, and new social interactions with peers and adults. Families, educators, and community partners can use effective transition activities to create supports and connections across pre-kindergarten and kindergarten settings. (LoCasale-Crouch, Mashburn, Downer, & Pianta, 2008). These practices should begin prior to kindergarten and take into account the cultural, linguistic, and learning needs of individual students and their families (National Center on Parent, Family, and Community Engagement, 2013).

Key guiding principles should be in place as a framework for kindergarten transition success (Kraft-Sayre & Pianta, 2000, p. 2):

- Foster collaborative relationship building among educators, families, and students;
- Promote continuity between pre-school and kindergarten systems;
- Focus on family strengths to develop school support; and
- Focus on the individual needs of the student.

Building capacity for students, families, and schools is essential. Children's successful transition to kindergarten relies upon building relationships with a variety of people, including families, day care providers, pre-school educators, and elementary educators (La Paro, Kraft-Sayre, & Pianta, 2003). Family connections, whole child assessment, and early learning collaboration are key components of the Washington Kindergarten Inventory of Developing Skills (<u>WaKIDS</u>). Research supports using these three components as the foundation for best practices in successful kindergarten transitions.

Transition to kindergarten activities need to establish effective communication between pre-school/pre-kindergarten settings and elementary schools (La Paro, Kraft-Sayre, & Pianta, 2003; Sullivan-Dudzic, Gearns, & Leavell, 2010). Fostering collaborative relationships, and two-way communication, among stakeholders supports successful and seamless transitions for students. The culture in an elementary school may be more formal than the typical culture of a pre-school (Connors & Epstein, 1995; Pianta & Kraft-Sayre, 1999), which makes communication between the two settings more crucial to help students and families navigate the new environment. "These environments should also work together to ensure that standards, curriculum, support services, and assessments from pre-kindergarten settings to kindergarten are carefully aligned" (Bohan-Baker & Little, 2004; Kagan & Neuman, 1998; Pianta & Kraft-Sayre, 2003; Sullivan-Dudzic, Gearns, & Leavell, 2010).

Communication with Families

Kindergarten transition plans that promote family participation prior to the start of the school year have been associated with students having increased self-confidence, school enjoyment, and overall happiness with the kindergarten experience (Hubbell, Plantz, Condelli, & Barrett, 1987). Transition to kindergarten should include opportunities for students and families to learn about the new setting, build relationships, and experience continuity in curriculum and assessments within their new setting. Children show greater school readiness (Hubbell et. al., 1987; LoCasale-Crouch et. al., 2008), reduced stress at the beginning of school (Hubbell et. al., 1987), and stronger academic growth over their kindergarten year (Ahtola, Poikonen, Kontoniemi, Niemi, & Nurmi, 2011; Schulting, Malone, & Dodge, 2005) when such opportunities are offered.

Outreach to families should be done in a personal way before students enter kindergarten (Pianta, Cox, Taylor, & Early, 1999; Sullivan-Dudzic, Gearns, & Leavell, 2010). Families are more likely to be involved in their student's kindergarten year when schools actively engage families in the transition process and recognize the families' efforts to participate (Schulting et. al., 2005). Outreach with families that is established in pre-kindergarten programs promotes positive relationships and emphasizes early on that families are valued partners in their child(ren)'s education (La Paro, Kraft-Sayre, & Pianta, 2003). Schools and educators can smooth the transition to kindergarten by engaging families in meaningful ways. Families gain confidence from helping their children adjust to new schools. (Van Voorhis, Maier, Epstein, Lloyd, & Leuong, 2013, p. 117). One way to support early family engagement is to establish family visits between kindergarten educators and school staff prior to the beginning of the school.

Research by La Paro, Kraft-Sayre, & Pianta (2003) showed that despite barriers families may face, when offered opportunities to interact with the transition process, such as meeting with educators prior to the beginning of the school year and visiting kindergarten classrooms, families almost always participated and believed that these opportunities were helpful. When

asked, families can offer educators knowledge about their children to support classroom routines and can help reinforce essential academic and non-academic skills at home (Ferretti & Bub, 2017; Sullivan-Dudzic, Gearns, & Leavell, 2010). Students who experience more stability in their early school settings, and in the relationships with the adults in these settings, perform better socially and academically (Curby, Rimm-Kaufman, & Ponitz, 2009; Tran & Winsler, 2011) during their kindergarten year and beyond.

Regardless of a student's skill level, positive relationships between schools and families support children's academic progress (Kraft-Sayre & Pianta, 2000). Establishing relationships with community partners, pre-kindergarten learning partners, and kindergarten educators may help provide resources to and support for students and families during the kindergarten transition. "Peer connections that continue from children's pre-school years into kindergarten also can help ease children's transition to school by being a source of familiarity and an avenue for building social competencies" (Kraft-Sayre & Pianta, 2000). These types of adult and peer relationships support social and emotional competencies in young students that aid in their school success (Kraft-Sayre & Pianta, 2000).

Community Partnerships

Pre-school and kindergarten programs can make the transition for families smoother by aligning pre-school and kindergarten policies and practices (National Center for Early Development and Learning (NCEDL), 2002; Sullivan-Dudzic, Gearns, & Leavell, 2010). "Connecting early childhood programs with the K–12 educational system is a proactive strategic plan to increase student achievement" (Sullivan-Dudzic, Gearns, & Leavell, 2010, p. 1). Consider including the following stakeholders as part of the district kindergarten transition team (Sullivan-Dudzic, Gearns, & Leavell, 2010):

- Elementary school principals,
- Kindergarten and local pre-school educators,
- Families (include multiple demographics and include pre-school and private school families),
- School board members,
- Child care providers,
- Higher-education professionals,
- District leadership (e.g. Title I director, special programs coordinator, etc.),
- School district PTA/PTO president, and
- Other community organization representatives (e.g. Tribal leaders, Head Start supervisor, healthcare providers, etc.).

By inviting multiple partners to be part of the planning and implementation of kindergarten transition practices, districts can focus on "increasing achievement, by using a unified approach that honors existing efforts and builds on the strengths and resources in your community" (Sullivan-Dudzic, Gearns, & Leavell, 2010, p. 27).

It is also important for pre-kindergarten and kindergarten educators to participate in ongoing professional learning opportunities together to support social emotional and academic competencies necessary for school success and achievement (NCEDL, 2002). Promoting professional learning on culturally sensitive and anti-bias pedagogy, curriculum, early child development, and evidence-based practices ensures that educators receive the supports needed to fully engage students and families both academically and non-academically (Henderson and Berla, 1994; Epstein 2001; Weiss, Caspe, & Lopez, 2006; Halgunseth, Peterson, Stark, & Moodie, 2009).

Student Success

"Teachers report that nearly half of typically developing children experience some degree of difficulty during the transition to kindergarten" (Ferretti & Bub, 2017; Rimm-Kaufman & Pianta, 2000; Rimm-Kaufman, Pianta, Cox, 2000). In any classroom, there are students achieving beyond the grade-level standards and students not yet achieving the grade-level standards. The goal is for all students to meet the end-of-year expectations, and when necessary, to recognize that stages of development are based on experiences and not solely defined by age or grade. It is essential to take into consideration the learning progressions necessary for student growth by planning intentional experiences, selecting appropriate materials, and determining the best instructional approaches to meet students' academic and non-academic learning needs. In order for the unique learning needs of students to be met, educators must understand the social-emotional, language, literacy, and numeracy needs of each student.

Educators and researchers recognize that social-emotional competencies and skills related to school preparedness develop early in life. A recent study reports that children who enter kindergarten with underdeveloped social-behavioral skills are more likely to be identified for special education services, suspended or expelled from school, and retained to repeat grade-level standards (Bettencourt, Gross, & Ho, 2016). While focusing on social-emotional development in early childhood is critical, social-emotional learning (SEL) can take place throughout a student's primary and secondary education. Research indicates that SEL programs can positively influence a variety of student educational outcomes across grade levels (Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor, & Schellinger, 2011).

High-quality instruction in language and literacy skills is vital to students' academic and non-academic success. Children start developing language and literacy skills at birth; *emergent* reading skills and early reading skills start around age three (OSPI, 2016). Oral language skill

development helps students as they begin to develop and progress reading and writing skills. As students enter kindergarten, oral language skills are connected to later gaps in both reading and writing (Coll, 2005; Storch & Whitehurst, 2002). English language development for students learning an additional language is also grounded in oral language skill development and needs explicit instruction; by providing instruction in oral language development in a student's native language, educators can build a foundation for literacy and a bridge for the student's English literacy development (Beeman & Urow, 2013). For additional information, research, and best practices on oral language, alphabet knowledge, and phonological awareness refer to ELA Menu: Appendix A.

Mastery of early math concepts (number sense and counting) upon school entry is the strongest predictor of future academic success (Duncan, et al., 2007). Learning to make sense of mathematics early helps build future math proficiency. Students transitioning to kindergarten should have opportunities to make sense of math ideas including number concepts and quantities, number relationships and operations, geometry and spatial sense, patterns, and measurement and comparison. For more information on math progressions for early learners, refer to Learning Pathways in Numeracy. An important success factor, and an important tie-in to early literacy, is to get children to communicate their ideas and explain their thinking about mathematics in their natural language. By providing opportunities for students to share their thinking, educators can assess what concepts students understand, and they can identify gaps in students' mathematical understanding.

Families, pre-kindergarten, and kindergarten programs can provide opportunities to develop social-emotional learning, language, literacy, and numeracy skills through play, songs, books, games, and other daily routines. For more information on social-emotional learning, early literacy, and early numeracy, please refer to the background and philosophy sections in the menus of best practices and strategies.

References

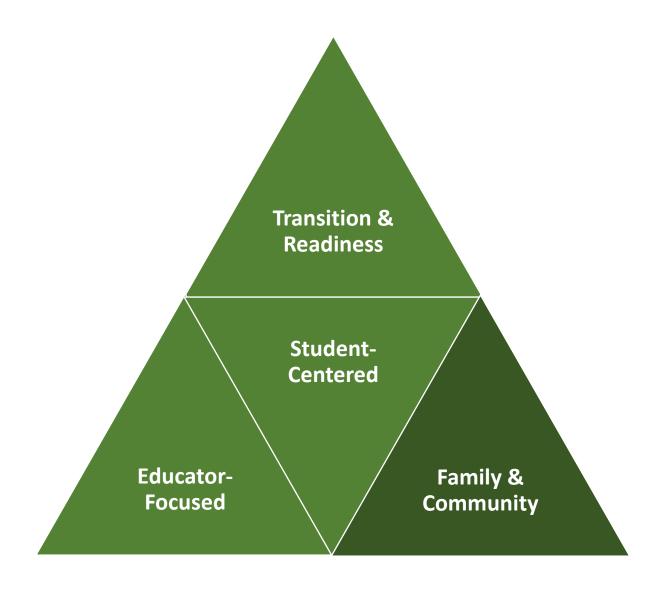
- Adelman, H., & Taylor, L. (2008). <u>Addressing barriers to student learning: Closing gaps in school community practice.</u> Los Angeles: Center for Mental Health in Schools, UCLA.
- Ahtola, A., Poikonen, P. J., Kontoniemi, M., Niemi, P., & Nurmi, J. E. (2011). Successful handling of entrance to formal schooling: Transition practices as a local innovation. *International Journal of Transitions in Childhood, Vol. 5*.
- Beeman, K., & Urow, C. (2013). *Teaching for Biliteracy: Strengthening Bridges between Languages*. Philadelphia, PA: Caslon Publishing.
- Bohan-Baker, M., & Little, P. M. D. (2004). <u>The transition to kindergarten: A review of current research and promising practice to involve families</u>. Harvard Family Research Project.

- Bettencourt, A., Gross, D., & Ho, G. (2016). The Costly Consequences of Not Being Socially and Behaviorally Ready by Kindergarten: Associations with Grade Retention, Receipt of Academic Support Services, and Suspensions/Expulsions. *Baltimore Education Research Consortium*.
- Coll, C. G. (2005). Pathways to reading: the role of oral language in the transition to reading. *Developmental Psychology, 41*(2), 428–442.
- Connors, L. J., & Epstein, J. L. (1995). Parent and school partnerships. In M. Borustein (Ed.), Handbook of Parenting: Vol. 4. Applied and Practical Parenting (pp. 437–458). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Crawford, P. A., & Zygouris-Coe, V. (2006). All in the family: Connecting home and school with family literacy. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, *33*(4), pp. 261–267.
- Curby, T. W., Rimm-Kaufman, S. E., & Ponitz, C. C. (2009). Teacher-child interactions and children's achievement trajectories across kindergarten and first grade. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *101*(4), pp. 912–925.
- Duncan, G. J., Dowsett, C. J., Claessens, A., Magnuson, K., Huston, A. C., Klebanov, P., Pagani, L. S., Feinstein, L., Engel, M., Brooks-Gunn, J., Sexton, H., Duckworth, K., & Japel, C. (2007). School readiness and later achievement. *Developmental Psychology*, *43*(6), pp. 1428–1446.
- Durlak, J., Weissberg, R., Dymnicki, A., Taylor, R., & Schellinger, K. (2011). The impact of enhancing students' social and emotional learning: A meta-analysis of school-based universal interventions. *Child Development*, 82(1), 405–432.
- Epstein, J. (2001). School, Family, and Community Partnerships: Preparing Educators and Improving Schools. Boulder, CO: Westview.
- Ferretti, L. K., & Bub, K.L. (2017). Family routines and school readiness during the transition to kindergarten. *Early Education and Development*, *28*(1), 59–77.
- Geiser, K. F., Horwitz, I. M., & Gerstein, A. (2013). <u>Improving the Quality and Continuity of Practice across Early Childhood Education and Elementary Community School Settings</u>. John W. Gardner Center for Youth and their Communities.
- Halgunseth, L. C., Peterson, A., Stark, D. R., & Moodie, S. (2009). <u>Family engagement, diverse families</u>, and early childhood education programs: An integrated review of the literature. *National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC)*.

- Henderson, A. T., & Berla, N. (1994). *A new generation of evidence: The family is critical to student achievement.* Washington, DC: Center for Law and Education.
- Hubbell, R., Plantz, M., Condelli, L., & Barrett, B. (1987). *The transition of Head Start Children into public school: Final report*, Washington, D.C.: Administration for Children, Youth, and Families.
- Kagan, S. L., & Neuman, M. J. (1998). Lessons from three decades of transition research. *The Elementary School Journal*, *98*(4), 365–381.
- Kraft-Sayre, M. E., & Pianta, R. C. (2000). Enhancing the transition to kindergarten: Linking children, families, and schools. Charlottesville, VA: University of Virginia.
- La Paro, K. M., Kraft-Sayre, M., & Pianta, R. C. (2003) Preschool to Kindergarten Transition Activities: Involvement and Satisfaction of Families and Teachers. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*, 17(2), 147–158.
- LoCasale-Crouch, J., Mashburn, A. J., Downer, J. T., & Pianta, R. C. (2008). Prekindergarten teachers' use of transition practices and children's adjustment to kindergarten. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 23*, 124–139.
- National Center for Early Development & Learning. (2002). <u>Transition to kindergarten</u>. *NCDEL Spotlight*, No. 35.
- National Center on Parent, Family, and Community Engagement. (2013). <u>Family engagement in transitions: Transition to kindergarten.</u> Harvard Family Research Project.
- Olson, C. B., Collins, P., Scarcella, R., Land, R., van Dyk, D., Kim, J., & Gersten, R. (2011). *The pathway project: A cognitive strategies approach to reading and writing instruction for teachers of secondary English Language Learners.* Irvine, CA: Institute of Education Sciences.
- OSPI (2016). Developed by Molly Branson Thayer, Ed.D in coordination with the English Language Arts-Learning and Teaching Department at the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction. <u>Learning Pathways in Literacy: Addressing Early Literacy Skills.</u>
- Pianta, R. C., Cox, M. J., Taylor, L., & Early, D. (1999). Kindergarten teachers' practices related to the transition to school: Results of a national survey. *The Elementary School Journal*, 100(1), 71–86.
- Pianta, R. C., & Kraft-Sayre, M. (1999). Parents' observations about their children's transitions to kindergarten. *Young Children, 54*(3), 47–52.
- Pianta, R. C., & Kraft-Sayre, M. (2003). Successful kindergarten transition. Baltimore, MD: Brookes.

- Rimm-Kaufman, S. E., & Pianta, R. C. (2000). An ecological perspective on the transition to kindergarten: A theoretical framework to guide empirical research. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 21,* 491–511.
- Rimm-Kaufman, S. E., Pianta, R. C., & Cox, M. J. (2000). Teachers' judgments of problems in the transition to kindergarten. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 15*, 147–166.
- Sayre-Kraft, M. E., & Pianta, R. C. (2000). *Enhancing the Transition to Kindergarten Linking Children, Families, and Schools*. Charlottesville: University of Virginia, National Center for Early Development and Learning Kindergarten Transition Studies.
- Schulting, A. B., Malone, P. S., & Dodge, K. A. (2005). The effect of school-based kindergarten transition policies and practices on child academic outcomes. *Developmental Psychology*, 41(6), 860–871.
- Souto-Manning, M., & Swick, K. J. (2006). Teachers' beliefs about parent and family involvement: Rethinking our family involvement paradigm. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, *34*(2), 187-193.
- Storch, S. A., & Whitehurst, G. J. (2002). Oral language and code-related precursors to reading: Evidence from a longitudinal structural model. *Developmental Psychology*, 38, 934–947.
- Tran, H., & Winsler, A. (2011). <u>Teacher and center stability and school readiness among low-income</u>, ethnically diverse children in subsidized, center-based child care. *Children and Youth Services Review 33*, 2241–2252.
- Sullivan-Dudzic, L., Gearns, D. K., & Leavell, K. (2010). Making a Difference: 10 Essential Steps to Building a PreK–3 System. Thousand Oaks: Corwin Press.
- Uvaas, T., & McKevitt, B. (2013). Improving transitions to high school: a review of current research, *Preventing School Failure*, *57*(2), 70–76.
- Van Voorhis, F. L., Maier, M. F., Epstein, J. L., Lloyd, C. M., & Leuong, T. (2013). *The impact of family involvement on the education of children ages 3 to 8: A focus on literacy and math achievement outcomes and social-emotional skills.* New York, NY: Center on School, Family and Community Partnerships, MDRC.
- Weiss, H., Caspe, M., & Lopez, M. E. (2006). <u>Family involvement in early childhood education</u>. *Family Involvement Makes a Difference*, 1 (Spring).

FAMILY AND COMMUNITY PRACTICES AND STRATEGIES



Family Engagement

Family engagement is a research-based practice. Family engagement involves two-way communication in which families and educators come together as equal partners to engage in decision-making processes. Family engagement supports academic and non-academic outcomes of students as they progress through early and adolescent developmental stages. All families engage in social activities to support the development of language, behavior, and communication. Such activities lay the foundation for social-emotional development in school and life.

Family engagement involves collaboration between families and schools towards increasing student success. Family engagement can occur during the regular school day (within the school building or outside of school), within families' homes, or within the community. LAP funding may support family engagement programs to improve the academic outcomes of participating students. The following menu entry provides a robust list of research-based practices and possibilities, including family engagement coordinators and modeling instructional strategies families can provide at home.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Create a culturally responsive family leadership program and invite families to join the school-improvement planning process and committees. To ensure joint decision-making, ask families to make recommendations to support and promote family engagement practices.
- Provide a space within the school where families are welcome to convene before, during, and after school for the purpose of informal gatherings, ceremonial use, social-emotional learning programs, and various community-building activities.
- Build meaningful relations with families in their communities by holding meetings at community-based locations. Participate in and encourage family led conferences.
- Encourage families to volunteer at school events and to participate in new student/family
 welcoming committees. Experienced participants can mentor new participants, families
 can plan social events, and families can lead groups to provide translations around their
 languages and areas of expertise to help all families feel welcome at school.
- Establish a home visit program where educators engage families. Family preference should determine if visitations occur in the home or at another mutually agreeable location. Home visits present educators with opportunities to develop authentic and meaningful relationships with families.
- Provide educators with professional learning opportunities on the effective use of funds
 of knowledge. Funds of knowledge are the knowledge and skills a student learns from

- their family and cultural background. Apply this learning when designing school discipline policies, behavioral interventions, family engagement activities, and volunteer opportunities.
- Use technology to support positive ongoing communication with families. Take a photo
 with each student on the first day of school and share it with the family. Continue to
 send positive visual updates bi-weekly/monthly on students engaging in positive
 behaviors. Older students can share accomplishments electronically with their families.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

- Students without immediate family members in their lives, such as students experiencing
 homelessness or students in transitional situations, should be welcome to participate in
 family engagement activities and be encouraged to invite friends or other persons they
 consider family.
- Families who are learning English as an additional language benefit from personal invitations, translation services, and guided support.
- Families with adverse experiences in schools may require prolonged and intentional positive feedback from school staff before the family will engage in regular, meaningful communication with the school.
- Family engagement in schools starts to decrease as early as grade 3.
- Migratory families benefit from information about the school, community, and services
 their children can receive as they may be new to the area and unsure how to access
 resources.
- Students and families from American Indian/Alaska Native communities may benefit from Title VI—Indian Education funded support services.
- Students and families from American Indian/Alaska Native communities may benefit by participating in extra-curricular Tribally sponsored events like read-arounds, pow wows, culture nights, youth leadership programs, Tribal Journeys/canoe families, etc.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Welcome all families. Create a family friendly school learning community that is inviting and authentic.
- Focus on getting to know students and families during home visits.
- Communicate positively about behavior with a belief that all students are developing at different rates and growing up within different cultural contexts. Promote a learning environment in which mistakes are expected and used as learning opportunities and cultural differences are celebrated and respected.

- Consider ways to provide workshop and family night information to those who could not attend: podcasts, online videos, and other formats aligned with parent resources at home.
- Advertise events through multiple modalities: personal invitations in the family's home language, emails, social media, phone messages, and postcards.
- Establish a positive relationship with families during the first few weeks of school by making phone calls and using authentic outreach efforts.
- Hire a family/community liaison to explicitly connect and communicate with families about the resources available within the community.
- Design support for families around behavioral skills, homework, student progress monitoring, and conversations about academic and non-academic supports.
- Communicate using the family's home language when sharing information about events, expectations, and available resources and materials.
- Identify families where English is not the home language and provide interpreters at events to support these families.
- Design activities and games for students to take home and play with their families.
- Give families timely notice and schedule flexible meeting times to provide families with irregular working schedules more opportunities to participate.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- Harvard: Harvard Family Research Project, <u>A Dual Capacity-Building Framework for Family-School Partnerships</u>, and <u>Harvard edX—Introduction to Family Engagement in Education</u>
- National Network of Partnership Schools: Dr. Joyce Epstein, <u>Six Types of Involvement:</u>
 <u>Keys to Successful Partnerships</u> and <u>PTA National Standards for Family-School</u>
 <u>Partnerships Assessment</u>
- OSPI: <u>Family Engagement Resource List</u>, <u>WA State Title I, Part A website</u>, <u>Funds of Knowledge and Home Visits Toolkit</u>
- REL: Toolkit of Resources for Engaging Families and the Community as Partners in Education Part 1, Part 2, Part 3, Part 4
- National Association for the Education of Young Children: Engaging Diverse Families
 Project
- Washington State Family and Community Engagement Trust.
- High Expectations

Supporting Research

Families can and do make a difference in the academic and social-emotional lives of students. School-based family engagement efforts can have a positive impact on K–12 student academic achievement (Jeynes, 2012). However, effective family engagement practices ultimately support improved student academic and non-academic outcomes (Caspe & Lopez, 2006). "When schools build partnerships with families that respond to their concerns and honor their contributions, they are successful in sustaining connections that are aimed at improving student achievement" (Henderson & Mapp, 2002, p. 8).

Family engagement strategies are built on the foundation that:

- All families have goals and dreams for their children.
- All families have the capacity to support a child's literacy outcomes.
- All families and educators are equal partners.
- Educational leaders are responsible for engaging partnerships (Henderson, Mapp, Johnson, & Davies, 2007).

The Washington State Governor's Office of the Education Ombuds (OEO) recommends developing and sustaining meaningful, culturally responsive school and family partnerships. The OEO Family and Community Engagement Recommendations (2016) highlights the importance of genuine, authentic relationships between diverse groups of families, educators, and community members to support student success in schools.

Family and community *engagement* strategies are more inclusive than *involvement* strategies. Consider the following (Mapp & Kuttner, 2013):

- Involvement means to include as a necessary condition. Involvement strategies tend to coincide with meeting requirements and lack a true partnership. Family and community involvement strategies often result in **one-directional communication**. This looks and feels like educators are passing on information to families.
- Engagement means to pledge or to make an agreement. Engagement strategies work to
 develop relationships and to build trust. Family and community engagement strategies
 ignite two-way communication and bring families and educators together as equal
 partners in the decision-making processes. This looks and feels like teamwork.

Communication with families is vital to promote collaboration between students' home and school settings, and provides the direct benefit of increased student achievement. However, barriers can and do exist that limit effective communication with families. Schools need to consider socio-economic conditions, cultural and linguistic factors, disability-related needs, and other family characteristics when strategizing how to overcome barriers to effective

communication and collaboration with families (Cheatham & Santos, 2011; Drummond & Stipek, 2004; Tucker & Schwartz, 2013). Schools should make a considerable effort to promote collaboration by using multiple means of communication (Cheatham & Santos, 2011; Graham-Clay, 2005). Often families only receive communication from the school when their child has done something wrong. The perspectives of families with a history of negative interactions with the school can inform communications plans if their input is valued (Tucker & Schwartz, 2013). Effective two-way communication with families can be implemented in a variety of ways to strengthen collaboration between school and home.

It is important to have a well-organized family engagement plan around partnership with families (Epstein & Salinas, 2004). Family and community engagement can include a variety of activities and events. When planning family and community activities/events, it is important to include and invite families and community members in all aspects of planning and implementation stages (OEO, 2016). Joint decision-making and responsibility are key components to successful partnerships. When planning events, it is also important to have targeted learning goals and time for participants to practice and receive feedback on the desired outcomes. For example, the learning goal of a literacy event may be to provide families with shared reading strategies to support literacy at home. This event would be designed to provide strategies, examples of the strategy in use, and time for family and community participants to practice and receive feedback on implementing these strategies (Mapp & Kuttner, 2013).

Home visits can be beneficial for all students K-12, especially for newcomers to a district and for those transitioning into a new building (Johnson, 2016). These meetings can occur before the school year begins, and they can take place in the student's home or at an agreed upon location in the community. As families and educators meet for the first time, these conversations should not be an overload of information based on expectations and rules. Instead, these meetings should be conversational and focused solely on the child. One question educators can ask families to start these conversations would be: "What are your hopes and dreams for your child?" It is important for families and educators to build a foundation of trust and respect.

One example of home visits could occur at the beginning of the school year when kindergarten teachers meet with families and early learning providers to talk about each child's strengths and needs. The <u>Washington Kindergarten Inventory of Developing Skills</u>, or <u>WaKIDS</u>, brings families, educators, and early learning providers together to support each child's learning and transition into public schools. These meetings are beneficial to students, families, and educators and can take place in neutral locations. They can also increase student attendance and family participation in additional school activities and events (Mapp & Kuttner, 2013).

Family and community engagement includes all of the various ways families and communities effectively support a child's learning and healthy development. Family members are a child's first

teachers, and literacy development begins at home. Engagement strategies should target multiple stages of a child's literacy progression, and they should be consistent with, and inclusive of, a child's home language and culture (Wessels & Trainin, 2014). A focus on *intergenerational family literacy*, working with the family rather than the child or the adult separately, provides the greatest impact. Effective programs might provide early childhood interventions, early parenting strategies, and increased adult literacy in addition to guidance for parents in the development of their child's literacy skills (Wasik & Fierrmann, 2004). Family engagement strategies involving learning activities at home are more likely to have a positive effect on both student achievement and social-emotional development (Voorhis, Maier, Epstein, & Lloyd, 2013).

Well-designed family engagement programs "should be ongoing, culturally relevant, responsive to the community, and target both families and school staff" (O'Donnell & Kirkner, 2014). Using a student's home language and providing families with strategies to support cognitive development that are explicit and culturally responsive empower families to take an active role in supporting their student's literacy development (Wessels & Trainin, 2014). Family nights can also introduce parents to school and community resources, ways to provide homework help, and other ways to support the school curriculum at home, each of which can greatly benefit student achievement through family support (Blazer, 2011; St. Clair et al., 2012; Waldener, 2004; Wessels & Trainin, 2014).

It is important to establish family supports early to have a long-lasting effect on student achievement. For example, a family literacy program for migrant kindergarten families showed significant academic gains for students at the end of 1st grade, as well as at the end of 5th and 6th grades (St. Clair et al., 2012). This culturally sensitive program provided family workshops with an adult educator to support student literacy development at home. Additionally, families were provided with materials to support literacy learning at home: letter and word identification games, books, and electronic talking books. By teaching migrant families how to support their student's language skills, schools can establish a positive collaborative effort with families that will result in increased language and literacy development at home (St. Clair et al., 2012).

As schools/districts review student outcome data, it is important to include families and community members that represent the diversity of the school. Team members should represent the demographic needs of all students. Data-informed decision-making and goal setting improves when educators and community members work together. One suggestion is to have an action team for partnerships (Epstein & Salinas, 2004). An action team should consist of teachers, administrators, parents, and community partners, and be proactively connected to the school council or school improvement team. The focus of the partnership is to promote student

success, develop the annual plans for family engagement, evaluate family engagement, and develop activities to include all families in the school community.

References

- Blazer, C. (2011). <u>Summer learning loss: why its effect is strongest among low-income students and how it can be combated</u>. Research Services: Miami-Dade County Public Schools.
- Caspe, M., & Lopez, E. M. (2006). <u>Lessons from family-strengthening interventions: Learning from evidence-based practice</u>. *Harvard Family Research Project*.
- Cheatham, G. A., & Santos, R. M. (2011). Collaborating with families from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds: Considering time and communication orientations. *Young Children*, 66(5), 76–82.
- Drummond, K. V., & Stipek, D. (2004). Low-income parents' beliefs about their role in children's academic learning. *The Elementary School Journal*, *104*(3), 197–213.
- Epstein, J. L., & Salinas, K. C. (2004). Partnering with families and communities. *Schools as Learning Communities*, 61(8), 12–18.
- Epstein, J. L. (2005). A case study of the partnership schools comprehensive school reform model. *The Elementary School Journal*, *106*(2), 151–170.
- Graham-Clay, S. (2005). Communicating with parents: Strategies for teachers. *School Community Journal* 16(1), p. 117–129.
- Henderson, A. T., & Mapp, K. L. (2002). <u>A new wave of evidence: The impact of school, family, and community connections on student achievement</u>. Annual Synthesis 2002. *National Center for Family and Community Connections with Schools*.
- Henderson, A. T., Mapp, K. L., Johnson, V. R., & Davies, D. (2007). *Beyond the Bake Sale*. New York: The New Press.
- Jeynes, W. (2012). <u>A meta-analysis of the efficacy of different types of parental involvement programs for urban students</u>. *Urban Education*, *47*(4), 706–742.
- Johnson, E. (2016). Funds of Knowledge and Home Visits Toolkit. June 14, 2016.
- Mapp, K.L. & Kuttner, P.J. (2013). <u>Partners in education: A dual capacity-building framework for family-school partnerships</u>. *SEDL*.
- O'Donnell, J., & Kirkner, S. L. (2014). The impact of a collaborative family involvement program on Latino families and children's educational performance. *School Community Journal*, 24(1), 211–234.

- OEO: The Washington State Governor's Office of the Education Ombuds (Prepared with Input from the Educational Opportunity Gap Oversight and Accountability Committee). (2016). <u>Family and Community Engagement Recommendations</u> (Report to the Legislature, In Response to SSHB 1408).
- St. Clair, L., Jackson, B., & Zweiback, R. (2012). Six years later: Effect of family involvement training on the language skills of children from migrant families. *School Community Journal*, 22(1), p. 9–19.
- Tucker, V., & Schwartz, I. (2013). Parents' perspectives of collaboration with school professionals: Barriers and facilitators to successful partnerships in planning for students with ASD. *School Mental Health*, 5(1), 3–14.
- Van Voorhis, Frances L.; Maier, Michelle F.; Epstein, Joyce L.; Lloyd, Chrishana M. (2013). The impact of family involvement on the education of children ages 3 to 8: A focus on literacy and math achievement outcomes and social-emotional skills. MDRC.
- Waldner, H. M. (2004). Family fun night: When stories come alive! *Odyssey: New Directions in Deaf Education*, 5(2), 32–33.
- Wasik, B. H., & Herrmann, S. (2004). Family literacy: History, concepts, and services. In B. H. Wasik (Ed.), *Handbook of family literacy*, 3-22. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Wessels, S., & Trainin, G. (2014). <u>Bringing literacy home: Latino families supporting children's literacy learning</u>. *Faculty Publications: Department of Teaching, Learning and Teacher Education*. Paper 160.

School-Community Partnerships

School-community partnerships are working relationships between schools and outside organizations that are developed for the purpose of delivering academic or nonacademic supports to identified students. Non-academic supports can include opportunities for social-emotional development or food, housing, clothing, healthcare, and other basic needs that are a prerequisite to student social and academic engagement in schools.

The intent of collaborative school-community partnerships should be to merge school resources with resources available within the larger community or local neighborhoods and provide services that are sustainable over time.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Establish a basic needs collaborative network to identify and match student needs with community providers. Student needs may include backpacks, winter clothing, school supplies, personal hygiene items, weekend meals, etc.
- Implement service-learning goals that focus on social-awareness through caring acts while also promoting empathic behavior. For example, service-learning opportunities could be provided through partnerships with local service groups such as youth centers, churches, the YMCA, Boys and Girls Clubs of America, etc.
- Design project-based learning settings that encourage intercultural dialogue through applied skills development. For example, school districts can build meaningful relations with local Tribes through service learning projects.
- Establish school-based healthcare and mental health or behavioral health services through partnerships with healthcare providers. Consider connections with pediatricians or other school-clinical linkages to assist with mental health or behavioral issues that may be health-related, such as Wraparound with Intensive Services (WISe).
- As alternatives to exclusion, arrest or involvement, develop diversion, mediation, peer court or restorative programs with local dispute-resolution centers, non-governmental organizations, juvenile justice programs or community-based organizations.
- Consider partnering with your local public health department or your Accountable Community of Health to provide resources, technical assistance and service delivery support.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

 Migratory families benefit from information about the school, community, and services their children can receive as they may be new to the area and unsure how to access resources.

- Students who are chronically absent or in frequent contact with the juvenile justice
 system could benefit from restorative justice strategies to support reintegration. These
 students may also be experiencing the impacts of historical and institutionalized
 oppression so it is important to be sensitive to power dynamics and how reintegration is
 implemented.
- American Indian/Alaska Native students may be affiliated (through shared ancestry or current family members) with a local Tribe without being an enrolled member of the Tribe. When partnering with local Tribes, do not make assumptions about a student's cultural ties or political status with a Tribe based on the student's ethnic selfidentification.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Ensure service-learning opportunities align with the developmental stages of participating students.
- It is important for schools and districts to consider the racial, cultural and other identities of the students they serve on a regular basis to best identify the needs of the students enrolled and the capacities within the community to address their specific needs. Schools and districts should conduct an assessment of student needs and community strengths.
- Use the Washington Integrated Student Supports Protocol (WISSP) to guide program implementation.
- Working in small groups for community-based projects will have a greater impact on student learning than individualized or whole class projects.
- Allow community organizations, parents, and community leaders to identify and prioritize community needs as well as define the scope for community partnerships and service-learning opportunities.
- Increased relationships with community partnerships that provide professional case
 management, mentoring, career pathways (science on hope), role modeling, mentoring,
 etc. can benefit student connections to the community and content. In schools where
 staff and teachers do not reflect the diverse identities of the student population, bringing
 in community members can help students relate.
- Establish effective communication and feedback loops, including data-sharing agreements or Memorandum of Understandings (MOU) to ensure compliance with all federal laws (such as FERPA or HIPPA) that may impact public entities.
- Develop meaningful relations between school district staff and Tribal leaders prior to collaborating on mutually agreed upon projects. Design projects to focus on common goals and relational understanding.

- Establish a resource mapping initiative to create and regularly update a map of community resources within the school's local area.
- Design organizational and operational capacity-building mechanisms that can provide oversight, leadership, resource development, and ongoing support throughout all phases of a community partnership.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- Communities In Schools Washington
- Build Initiative
- Coalition for Community Schools: Needs and Capacity Assessments
- John Hopkins University: National Network of Partnership Schools
- The School-Justice Partnership Project
- Population Health Guide

Supporting Research

A community partnership serves as a formal arrangement between a school or schools and entities outside of the school district in order to provide appropriate programs, services, or resources to help facilitate and support student achievement (Ohio Community Collaboration Model for School Improvement (OCCMSI), n.d.). School-community partnerships can enhance the social-emotional learning and intellectual development of students while also improving school climate, mental health, and student behavior (Willems & Gonzalez-DeHass, 2012).

The intent of collaborative school-community partnerships should be to merge school resources with resources available within the larger community or local neighborhoods and provide services that are sustainable over time (Center for Mental Health in Schools at UCLA (CMHS-UCLA), n.d.). Community resources not only include the plethora of community organizations or agencies, but also include individual members of the community, local businesses, colleges or universities, faith-based and civic affiliations, parks and library programs, and other facilities that provide opportunities for students to participate in recreation or learning opportunities, or may receive enrichment or support services (CMHS-UCLA, n.d.). For example, an enrichment partnership with a university could focus on capacity-building efforts to improve the implementation and delivery of evidence-based programs for students (Spoth, Greenberg, Bierman, & Redmond, 2004). Many school-community partnerships are designed to place students into situated or problem-based learning contexts where they can engage in authentic real world activities with the community. The benefits of such activities can include improved

critical thinking skills, greater ability to self-regulate, and increased self-motivation (Willems & Gonzalez-DeHass, 2012).

A service-learning partnership can present opportunities for students to make contributions to their communities based upon the identification of a community need, the generation of a plan to meet that need, implementation of the plan, and a celebration at the project's completion (Kielsmeier, 2011). It is the reciprocal nature of service-learning, whereby all participants benefit from the project by sharing a learning experience and reflecting and constructing meaning from the experience, which sets it apart from community service (Billig, 2011). The social nature of service learning offers benefits to student learning, community engagement, and the creation of a positive learning environment (Nikitina, 2010). For example, by focusing on students' positive assets and their contributions to the project, adult participants can take on a mentorship role and assist students in overcoming adversity (Nelson & Eckstein, 2008). A successful service-learning project should combine both academic and project objectives through a hands-on approach to master both social-emotional and academic skills (Billig, 2011). Project Based Learning (PBL) is a similar practice that allows students to acquire applied knowledge and skills in a relevant setting. In whatever form they take, direct experiential learning settings should facilitate the active engagement of students in the learning process.

Educational leadership should assume responsibility for engaging people in the collaborative process of determining and problem-solving the needs of the greater community (Potter & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2012). School leaders should consider developing an action team to guide the development of partnership programming in a comprehensive way so as to integrate family and community involvement activities within a holistic action plan (Epstein, 2010). Schoolcommunity partnerships can even begin to form through the deliberative process of identifying and selecting action team members. A diverse membership that includes parents, teachers, and students representing different grade levels, community members, and other critical school staff will help ensure the action team adequately addresses the varied needs of all interested parties (Epstein, 2010). As student demographics become increasingly diverse, schools should be increasingly adept at reaching out to people, organizations, and agencies that reflect the varied ethnic and cultural aspects of their school and community. Outreach strategies familiar to the white, dominant culture may not be effective in communities of color, so schools should develop strategies for improving relations with racially and ethnically diverse communities through culturally responsive parent and community engagement (MALDEF & NEA, 2010; Seattle Office for Civil Rights, 2012). Any community partnership initiative should provide comprehensive and integrated services that specifically focus on the unique needs of the student population in each locale.

When schools form partnerships within the community, they adopt a more integral and positive role within the community (CMHS-UCLA, n.d.). The CMHS-UCLA found that these collaborative partnerships positively impact academic achievement, increase staff morale, result in fewer discipline issues, and improve the use of school's resources. In addition, the OCCMSI (n.d.) explained that schools are no longer solely responsible for improving students' academic achievement and their social-emotional health development; all community stakeholders are responsible for assisting student academic and social-emotional growth. Given that students will become contributing members of society, and that the economic health and growth of the community will be reliant on the next generation, it is essential that individual and community groups assume responsibility for students' growth and development and that educators appreciate the potential of these partnerships for facilitating student success (OCCMSI, n.d.).

References

- Billig, S. H. (2011). Making the most of your time: Implementing the K–12 service-learning standards for quality practice. *Prevention Researcher*, *18*, 8–13.
- Center for Mental Health in School at UCLA. (n.d.). School-Community Partnerships: A Guide.
- Epstein, J. L. (2010). School/family/community partnerships: Caring for the children we share. *Phi Delta Kappan*, *92*, 81–96.
- Kielsmeier, J. (2011). Service-learning: The time is now. *Prevention Researcher*, 18, 3–7.
- Mexican American Legal Defense and Education Fund (MALDEF) & National Education Association (NEA). (2010). <u>Minority Parent and Community Engagement: Best Practices and Policy Recommendations for Closing the Gaps in Student Achievement</u>.
- Nelson, J. A., & Eckstein, D. (2008). A service-learning model for at-risk adolescents. *Education and Treatment of Children*, *31*, 223–237.
- Nikitina, L. (2010). Addressing pedagogical dilemmas in a constructivist language learning experience. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, *10*, 90–106.
- Ohio Community Collaboration Model for School Improvement (OCCMSI). (n.d.). <u>Community Partnerships</u>. Ohio Department of Education.
- Potter, S. L., & Rockinson-Szapkiw, A. (2012). Technology integration for instructional improvement: The impact of professional development. *Performance Improvement*, *51*, 22–27.
- Seattle Office for Civil Rights. (2012). <u>Inclusive Outreach and Public Engagement</u>. Race & Social Justice Initiative.

- Spoth, R., Greenberg, M., Bierman, K., & Redmond, C. (2004). PROSPER community–university partnership model for public education systems: Capacity-building for evidence-based, competence-building prevention. *Prevention Science*, *5*, 31–39.
- Willems, P. P., & Gonzalez-DeHass, A. R. (2012). <u>School-community partnerships: Using authentic contexts to academically motivate students</u>. *School Community Journal*, *22*, 9.

Conclusion

The behavior menu will be updated annually, no later than July 1 each calendar year. Interested stakeholders are invited to submit recommendations for intervention practices, along with related research references, for consideration by the expert panel for possible inclusion in subsequent menus. It is important to note that if new research emerges that disproves the effectiveness of a practice that has historically been included in this report, the practice may be removed and no longer allowed under LAP guidelines. Public comment forms are available on the project web page on OSPI's website.

Appendices

APPENDIX A: 2020 EXPERT PANEL

Due to the impact of the COVID 19 pandemic, OSPI did not convene a panel of experts for the 2020 menu updates. Instead, the LAP team worked with WSIPP and internal OSPI staff to make minor content revisions.

Julia Cramer, M.P.A. (2018–20) is a research associate with the Washington State Institute for Public Policy and conducts research for the state legislature with a focus on K-12 education policy. Her work includes developing an inventory of evidence- and research- based programs for use by school districts in the Learning Assistance Program. Along with the LAP inventory, Julia's research has also focused on National Board Certified teachers in Washington, paraeducators, school safety and security funding, and early childhood education programs. In addition, Julia is a member of the K–12 Data Governance group that oversees development and implementation of an education data system in Washington.

APPENDIX B: ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Expert Panel Members

Name	Organization	Title	Year(s)
Alice Murner	Cape Flattery School District	Principal, Neah Bay Elementary	2015
Andrea Dailey-Michaux	Tukwila School District	PBIS Coordinator	2016
Ann Renker	Sequim School District	Assistant Superintendent	2017
Annie Pennucci	WSIPP	Associate Director	2015
Ashley Green	Tacoma Public Schools	Special Education Teacher, Stanley Elementary	2016
Barb Pope	Puyallup School District	Director of Student Services and School Safety	2015
Bess Colpron	Vancouver Public Schools	Safe and Supportive Schools Coach	2017
Bridget Walker	Seattle University	Associate Professor	2015
Candis Coble	North Central ESD 171	Regional Behavior Analyst	2019
Carol Frodge	OSPI	Instructional Coach, Student and School Success	2015
Cathleen Schlotter	Cheney School District	Intervention and Re- engagement Specialist; Assistant Principal, Snowdon Elementary	2017, 2018
Charmaine Krause	Puyallup School District	Director of Student Services and School Safety	2017

Name	Organization	Title	Year(s)
Cyndi Caniglia	Whitworth University	Assistant Professor	2019
Daisye Orr	Washington State Department of Health	Deputy Assistant Secretary for Policy and Strategy, Prevention and Community Health Division	2019
David Tudor	Washougal School District	Curriculum Director	2015
Deb Drandoff	ESD 112	Director of Prevention and Youth Services	2019
Erin Vidler Romanuk	Seattle Public Schools	Program Manager, Attendance and Discipline	2016
Faye Britt	Ferndale School District	Principal, Horizon Middle School	2015, 2016, 2017, 2018
Holly Galbreath	Clover Park School District	Special Education Supervisor	2019
Janice Gaare	Oak Harbor School District	Director of Special Programs	2017
Jean Marczynski	West Valley School District (Spokane)	Assistant Superintendent	2017
Jeremy Erickson	University of Washington	Teaching Associate, College of Education	2019
Jill Patnode	Puget Sound ESD 121	Director, Dropout Intervention and Reengagement	2015
Jonathan Judy	Lake Washington School District	Special Education Teacher, Lake Washington High School	2017

Name	Organization	Title	Year(s)
Julia Cramer	WSIPP	Research Associate	2018, 2019,
			2020
Larissa Gaias	University of	Postdoctoral Fellow,	2019
	Washington	School Mental Health	
		Assessment, Research, &	
		Training (SMART) Center	
Laura Matson	Puget Sound ESD 121	Director, Special Services	2015, 2018
Lisa Hoyt	Renton School District	Principal, Renton Academy	2015
Lori Lynass	Sound Supports	Executive Director	2015
Marion Smith, Jr.	Puget Sound	Regional Director of K-12	2018
	ESD 121	Learning, Leadership &	
		Student Success	
Mary Graham	Seattle	Associate Professor	2015
	University		
Matt Lemon	WSIPP	Research Associate	2015, 2016,
			2017
Michael Croyle	Tukwila School	Behavior Specialist	2019
	District		
Paul Douglas	Ferndale School	Executive Director, Human	2016
	District	Resources	
Sascha Fischel-Freeman	Shelton School	Family and Student	2016
	District	Support Coordinator	
Scott Londino	Raymond School	Teacher and Coach,	2017
	District	Raymond Junior Senior	
		High School	

Name	Organization	Title	Year(s)
Scott Spaulding	University of Washington	Special Education Faculty, College of Education	2019
Todd Johnson	Capital Region ESD 113	Director, Center for Research and Data Analysis	2016, 2017, 2018
Tracy Orr	Granite Falls School District	Teacher, Crossroads Alternative High School	2017, 2018
Tricia Hagerty	Northwest PBIS Network	Washington Director	2015
Valinda Jones	Franklin Pierce Schools	Director, Alternative Education	2015
Vanessa Tucker	Pacific Lutheran University	Assistant Professor	2015
Wendy Bromley	Spokane Public Schools	Assistant Principal, North Central High School	2017

OSPI Staff, National Advisors, and Consultants

Name	Organization	Title	Year(s)
Amy Thierry	OSPI	Program Supervisor, LAP, ELA, and Research	2015, 2016, 2017
Amy Vaughn	OSPI	Program Supervisor, LAP, Math, and Research	2015
Andrea Cobb	OSPI	Executive Director, Center for the Improvement of Student Learning (CISL)	2017, 2018, 2019
Annie Pennell	OSPI	LAP Program Supervisor	2020
Ben King	OSPI	Communications Consultant, Communications	2019, 2020
Calandra Sechrist	OSPI	Director, Equity and Civil Rights	2015, 2016, 2017
Carrie Hert	OSPI	Executive Assistant	2015, 2016, 2018, 2019, 2020
Caryn Sabourin Ward	National Implementation Research Network	Senior Implementation Specialist	2015, 2016
Dean Fixsen	National Implementation Research Network	Co-Director	2015
Dixie Grunenfelder	OSPI	Director, K-12 System Supports	2016, 2017, 2018, 2019
Estela Garcia	OSPI	Administrative Assistant	2017, 2018

Name	Organization	Title	Year(s)
Faith Rackley	OSPI	Secretary Senior, Title I, Part A, Highly Capable & LAP	2020
Gayle Pauley	OSPI	Assistant Superintendent, Special Programs and Federal Accountability	2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020
Gil Mendoza	OSPI	Deputy Superintendent, K– 12 Education	2015, 2016
Haley Lowe	OSPI	Assistant Director, Student Support	2019
Heather Hebard	OSPI	Program Supervisor, LAP ELA and Research	2019
Jami Peterson	OSPI	Executive Assistant	2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020
Jason Miller	OSPI	Assistant Director, Title I, Part A/LAP	2020
Jess Lewis	OSPI	Program Supervisor, Behavior and Discipline	2015
Joan Banker	OSPI	Program Supervisor, Office of Native Education	2016
Jon Mishra	OSPI	Director, Title I, Part A/LAP	2020
Jordyn Green	OSPI	Data Analyst, Student Information	2015, 2016, 2017
Joshua Lynch	OSPI	Program Supervisor, Student Discipline and Behavior	2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020
Julie Chace	OSPI	Administrative Assistant	2016

Name	Organization	Title	Year(s)
Kelcey Schmitz	OSPI	Program Supervisor, Integrated Student Supports	2017, 2018, 2019
Kevan Saunders	OSPI	Administrative Assistant	2015, 2016
Kimberlee Cusick	OSPI	Secretary Senior, LAP	2015, 2016, 2017
Kristi Coe	OSPI	Program Supervisor, LAP Mathematics and Research	2017, 2018, 2019
Larry Fazzari	OSPI	Program Supervisor, Title I, Part A/LAP	2017, 2018, 2019
Lee Collyer	OSPI	Program Supervisor, Special Education	2019
Liisa Moilanen Potts	OSPI	Director, Literacy and Professional Learning Integration	2015
Mark McKechnie	OSPI	Senior Consultant Equity in Student Discipline, Center for the Improvement of Student Learning (CISL)	2019
Michael Vendiola	OSPI	Program Supervisor, Office of Native Education	2016, 2017
Michaela Miller	OSPI	Deputy Superintendent	2017, 2018, 2019, 2020
Mona Johnson	OSPI	Director, Student Support	2016, 2017, 2018, 2019
Paula Moore	OSPI	Director, Title I/LAP and Consolidated Program Reviews	2016, 2017

Name	Organization	Title	Year(s)
Penelope Mena	OSPI	Program Supervisor, Title I, Part A/LAP Consolidated Program Reviews	2017, 2018, 2019
Porsche Everson	Relevant Strategies	President, Project Facilitator	2015, 2016, 2017
Ron Hertel	OSPI	Program Supervisor, Student Mental Health and Wellbeing, Student Support	2016, 2019
Samantha Diamond	OSPI	Research Analyst, LAP	2017, 2018, 2019
Sarah Albertson	OSPI	Program Supervisor, Equity and Civil Rights	2016, 2017, 2018, 2019
Scott Raub	OSPI	Special Education Ombudsman	2016, 2017
Sheila Gerrish	OSPI	LAP Program Supervisor	2020
Tania May	OSPI	Director, Office of Special Education	2018, 2019
Wendy Iwaszuk	OSPI	Program Supervisor and State Transformation Specialist	2015

APPENDIX C: LIST OF ACRONYMS

Acronym	Definition
АВА	Applied Behavior Analysis
ACE	Adverse Childhood Experience
Al	Active Implementation
AVID	Advancement Via Individual Determination
CASEL	Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning
CAST	Center for Applied Special Technology
CEDARS	Comprehensive Educational Data and Research System
CISL	Center for the Improvement of Student Learning
CLD	Culturally and Linguistically Diverse
CRDC	Civil Rights Data Collection
DEL	Department of Early Learning
ED	U.S. Department of Education
ELA	English Language Arts
EOGOAC	Educational Opportunity Gap Oversight and Accountability Committee
ESD	Educational Service District
ESSB	Engrossed Substitute Senate Bill
FERPA	Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act
GPA	Grade Point Average
НІРРА	Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act

Acronym	Definition
IDEA	Individuals with Disabilities Education Act
IEP	Individualized Education Plan
ISS	Integrated Student Supports
LAP	Learning Assistance Program
LEP	Limited English Proficiency
MTSS	Multi-Tiered System of Supports
MOU	Memorandum of Understanding
NIRN	National Implementation Research Network
OSPI	Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction
PBIS	Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports
PBL	Problem Based Learning
PD	Professional Development
PDSA	Plan, Do, Study, Act
PLC	Professional Learning Community
РТА	Parent Teacher Association
RCW	Revised Code of Washington
RTI	Response to intervention
RTL	Readiness to Learn
SAMHSA	Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration
SEL	Social-Emotional Learning
SERC	State Education Resource Center
SRO	School Resource Officer

Acronym	Definition
TPEP	Washington State Teacher/Principal Evaluation Project
WISSP	Washington Integrated Student Supports Protocol
WSIPP	Washington State Institute for Public Policy

LEGAL NOTICE



Except where otherwise noted, this work by the <u>Office of Superintendent of Public</u> Instruction is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution License.

Alternate material licenses with different levels of user permission are clearly indicated next to the specific content in the materials.

This resource may contain links to websites operated by third parties. These links are provided for your convenience only and do not constitute or imply any endorsement or monitoring by OSPI.

If this work is adapted, note the substantive changes and re-title, removing any Washington Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction logos. Provide the following attribution:

"This resource was adapted from original materials provided by the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction. Original materials may be accessed at https://www.k12.wa.us/.

Please make sure that permission has been received to use all elements of this publication (images, charts, text, etc.) that are not created by OSPI staff, grantees, or contractors. This permission should be displayed as an attribution statement in the manner specified by the copyright holder. It should be made clear that the element is one of the "except where otherwise noted" exceptions to the OSPI open license.

For additional information, please visit the OSPI Interactive Copyright and Licensing Guide.

OSPI provides equal access to all programs and services without discrimination based on sex, race, creed, religion, color, national origin, age, honorably discharged veteran or military status, sexual orientation including gender expression or identity, the presence of any sensory, mental, or physical disability, or the use of a trained dog guide or service animal by a person with a disability. Questions and complaints of alleged discrimination should be directed to the Equity and Civil Rights Director at 360-725-6162 or P.O. Box 47200 Olympia, WA 98504-7200.

Download this material in PDF at https://www.k12.wa.us/student-success/support-programs/learning-assistance-program-lap/menus-best-practices-strategies. This material is available in alternative format upon request. Contact the Resource Center at 888-595-3276, TTY 360-664-3631. Please refer to this document number for quicker service: 20-2021.



All students prepared for post-secondary pathways, careers, and civic engagement.



Chris Reykdal | State Superintendent
Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction
Old Capitol Building | P.O. Box 47200
Olympia, WA 98504-7200