A study of a self-monitoring intervention to increase on-task behavior and productivity

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A STUDY OF A SELF-MONITORING INTERVENTION TO INCREASE ON-TASK BEHAVIOR AND PRODUCTIVITY

By
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A Thesis

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the Master of Arts Degree of The Graduate School at Rowan University
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Approved by

Professor

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ABSTRACT

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A STUDY OF A SELF-MONITORING INTERVENTION TO INCREASE ON-TASK BEHAVIOR AND PRODUCTIVITY 2003/04
Dr. Steven Crites
Master of Arts in Special Education

The subject of this study was an eleven year old Hispanic boy from an inner city elementary school. Subject was taught to observe his on-task behavior and rate his performance using a rubric. Intervention was conducted in a general education inclusion class consisting of six students with special needs and eleven regular education students. Inclusion model consisted of co-teaching during the mathematics class and small homogenous grouping for Language Arts Literacy. Results of this study indicate that self-monitoring, when applied in a structured classroom with positive reinforcements, is an effective approach for students with mild disabilities to gain a better understanding of appropriate behaviors and to acknowledge their responsibility in the behavioral choices they make.
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Chapter One - Introduction

Research on the relationship between adolescents with learning disabilities and problem behavior has recently shown increased popularity. As a result of the current mandates placed by the 1997 Amendments to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act and the revolutionary policies set forth by the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, today's classrooms have metamorphosized with the inclusion of students with disabilities. Due to the trends toward the inclusion of students with Specific Learning Disabilities, "concern has arisen over the adequacy of training for general educators in addressing the needs of students with a wide range of ability levels (Katsiysannis, Acton, Ellenburg, & Lock, 2000). Strategies that they have long applied to general classrooms are being re-examined and modified to meet the changing needs of today's student.

Adaptations to the present education of students with special need must first analyze the 1997 Amendments to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). These amendments brought forth considerable provisions to IDEA that entailed a restructuring of the law. Changes were made in the Individualized Educational Plan including the inclusion of the general education teacher on the multi-disciplinary team in the development of the IEP. Students with disabilities are now included in state and district-wide assessments, including the reporting on their performance and progress. In the development of the IEP, the team must also decide if the student will need accommodations or take an alternative assessment. The funding of special education programs was also reorganized. One major addition to the law was the significant
provisions on mediation of disputes and discipline of students with disabilities (Salvia & Ysseldyke, 2004).

The issue of student behavior was first addressed in the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act Amendments of 1997. This law states that not only the Individualized Education Program (IEP) team attends to the behaviors, but that the general education teacher must also be involved in the planning. In 1997, IDEA required that the “IEP Team shall in the case of a child whose behavior impedes his or her learning or that of others, consider, when appropriate, strategies, including positive behavioral interventions, strategies, and supports to address that behavior” (Gartin & Murdick, 2001, p. 345). Consequently, schools are now required to assess behavior differently from the way they had previously. The legislation requires that school personnel become familiar with relatively novel methods of evaluating behavior such as a Functional Behavioral Assessment (Gartin & Murdick, 2001).

Prior to the legislation, many behavior analysts considered FBA and positive behavioral supports (PBS) to be “best practices” (Gresham, Watson, & Skinner 2001). FBA is research-based system of determining the function of a behavior by collecting data on the antecedent, behaviors, and consequences of the behavior. When the function of the behavior is determined, the information obtained is used to develop interventions to reduce or eliminate the problem behavior and to facilitate replacement positive behaviors. The primary goal of FBA is identify environmental conditions that are associated with the occurrence and nonoccurrence of problem behaviors (Gresham, Watson, & Skinner, 2001).

Currently, education reform has been devoted to Congress’ reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) known as the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB). The new act is based on the framework of outcome accountability, doing what
works based on scientific research, expanding parental options, and increasing local control and flexibility. This law will focus on the achievement of all students to effect a change in the general culture of today’s schools. The special education population will be greatly effected by programs supported through NCLB legislation including early literacy skills, tutoring programs for schools not meeting the grade, utilizing highly qualified teachers, and mandatory testing of all students. The assessment component of the law will allow parents to be notified of their child’s academic progress and that of their school’s.

Assessment is what most notably will effect the education of the special needs population. Because of the participation of students with disabilities in standardized testing, the special needs population will no longer be excluded in the reporting of data which demonstrates the proficiency of America’s youth. Current special education philosophy suggests students succeed best when taught among their regular education peers. Unfortunately, with high stakes testing on the horizon, current research suggests that students with disabilities might potentially have limited access to an inclusive education (National Education Association (NEA), 2003).

The off-task behavior of students with special needs tend to monopolize the time of the general education teacher. They exhibit little independence in solving their own problems and become prompt dependent. Student demands lead to disruption of the learning process for both the student and his/her classmates.

The research will focus on one student who exhibits off-task behavior during whole group, small group and independent instruction. This study will examine the effects of a Behavioral Intervention Plan on the inattentiveness of a student with learning disabilities in an inclusive class setting.
The research is designed to answer the following:

1.) Will a positive support program of self-monitoring lead to an increase in on-task behavior?

2.) Will increasing on-task behavior affect educational progress?
Chapter Two – Review of Literature

Behavior Management

The primary goal of managing student behavior is to bring student behaviors under stimulus control. This means that “students should react to antecedent stimuli without always having to experience the consequences of their behavior” (Kerr & Nelson, 1989 p.136). Many behavior problems in the classroom can be potentially averted by the behavior and practices established by the classroom teacher. By utilizing motivating, engaging, and structured classroom activities numerous disruptive behaviors can be avoided. As the diversity of students’ characteristics within classrooms increases, the need increases for classroom behavior management systems that are responsive to groups and individual student characteristics.

“Psychologists have long believed that behavior is controlled or influenced by the events and conditions (antecedents) that precede it as well as by the events and conditions (consequences) that follow it” (Levin & Nolan, 2000, p.126). While acknowledging the importance of all these variables, teachers should be aware of two other important aspects of classroom management; the physical environment and classroom guidelines.

When organizing the physical environment of a classroom, the teacher should keep into account the environmental conditions of which the teacher has relative control such as lighting, heating and noise volume. It has been noted that environmental conditions such as these have an effect on student learning and it is the responsibility of the teachers to create an environment that encourages student achievement (Levin & Nolan, 2000).
The appropriate use of classroom space, such as in seating arrangements, should be flexible enough to house the various learning activities in the classroom and to allow for close proximity between teacher and student. Bulletin boards and display areas should be a representation of student accomplishments, ideas, and efforts. In addition, students should be afforded the opportunity to voice opinions into the use of classroom space to encourage a student-directed learning environment (Levin & Nolan, 2000).

In contrast to the physical structure, a teacher has a great deal of influence on the classroom guidelines, including of classroom procedures and rules. Classroom procedures involve such activities as how to line up for lunch, handing in homework and general classroom etiquette. Each year, students have the task of learning a new teacher’s procedures, which are enacted to ensure the easy transition from one activity to another. Sufficient time should be spent on “teaching” the students these procedures to facilitate the class into a successful management system (Levin & Nolan, 2000).

When discussing classroom rules with students, teachers should always address behavior that is desired rather than inappropriate behavior (Levin & Nolan, 2000). In today’s classrooms, students will not simply abide by the rules of a teacher because they are told to do so. Students should be active participants in the discussion of the necessity of rules in the classroom/society, their development, consequences, and application. When students feel an ownership in the rules, they may be more obliged to follow them. “Rules should be directed at organizing the learning environment to ensure the continuity and quality of teaching and learning and not as exerting control over students”, (Levin & Nolan, 2000, p. 131).

In order for rules and procedures to become a part of the classroom instruction, teachers should use natural and logical consequences for both compliance and non-compliance. Students
must see the consequences of their experiences are directly related to their behavior (Levin & Nolan, 2000).

Traditional Methods of Behavior Management

Behavior Modification programs involving rewards (e.g. token economy and behavioral contracts) and/or punishment (response cost and time-out) are traditional methods used by teachers in classroom management. Rewards and punishments can be used with both individual students and the class as a whole. Group-oriented contingencies appear to have more advantages including; the ability to use the peer group to encourage appropriate behavior and the amount of time a teacher can save when individual contingencies for each group member are not needed (Haring, McCormack, & Haring, 1994).

Using rewards in response to a desired behavior is called positive reinforcement. When rewards are used for a desired behavior, it is likely that a person will continue to do the behavior to receive the award. Using rewards as a motivational and teaching tool in the classroom continues to be one of the most controversial issues in behavior management. Some regard rewards as "doggy treats" and believe children should be intrinsically motivated to do the right thing. Unfortunately we do not live in a "Leave it to Beaver" world where both mom and dad share in the mental and physical development of their children.

A token economy is a simulated economic system based on token reinsforcers (e.g. stars, stickers, points, or play money) (Haring, McCormack, Haring, 1994). Students earn tokens that can later be used to trade for desirable things. In instances where behaviors are not appropriate, tokens can also be taken away (response cost). Token reinforcement has been used in many educational programs to improve academic skills, motivation, and behavior problems (Haring & McCormack, 1994). Even though tokens can be dispersed quickly and easily, this method can be
labeled an intrusive intervention because teachers do need to spend time developing an appropriate system for their particular class (Kerr & Nelson, 1989).

A behavioral contract is a written description of the relationship between a student’s behaviors and the consequences of performing those behaviors (Haring & McCormack, 1994). A contract should identify target behaviors, monitoring procedures, and identify reinforcers students will receive for appropriate behavior. It is important to note, that the contract must be agreed upon by both the teacher and the student for its successful application. According to Carns (1994), the desired behavior should be worded positively for the success of the contract. He believes that “children seem to be infinitely more willing to do what is requested rather than avoid what is unwanted” (Carns, p 155). Contracts are relatively more intrusive in terms of time to negotiate, write, monitor, and fulfill but they do not restrict the students’ freedom to participate in normal educational activities (Kerr & Nelson, 1989)

Punishment is a process used in which a behavior is made less likely to occur in the future because it is followed by a negative consequence (Haring, McCormack, & Haring, 1994). Behaviors can be punished by consequences that either withdraw a specific amount of reward or prevent access to rewards for a certain period of time. According to Levin and Nolan, punishment does not help the student examine the motivation behind the behavior nor the consequences of the behavior for him or others because it focuses the child’s concerns on the immediate effect (Levin & Nolan, 2001). Accordingly, punishment directs the student to associate the punishment with the punisher (teacher) rather than with his/her actions. Although teachers embrace this method due to its ease of administration, its effectiveness in managing today’s students’ problems is uncertain.
Educators have been introduced to the research that now says that simply suppressing a behavior by punishing a student is counterproductive. Although it may have short-term effects of reducing behavior, punishing behaviors without a school-wide system of support is associated with increased aggression, vandalism, truancy, tardiness, and dropout. In addition, reactive approaches do not teach the student replacement behaviors to use as alternatives to the inappropriate behavior in the future or to generalize to other areas (Ruef, 1998).

All people do what they are motivated to do, and therefore their behavior reveals their motivation (Levin & Nolan, 2001). In order for rewards and punishments to be effective, teachers need to play an active role in the implementation. The teacher must be consistent in assigning and withholding rewards and punishments. Students must see the connection between their behavior and the reward or punishment. Finally, the reward or punishment actually must be perceived as such by the student.

New Approaches to Behavior Management

In contrast to the behavior modification techniques previously talked about, there has been increasing research on the effectiveness of self-management procedures as useful and effective for addressing problem behaviors of children with special needs. Self-management interventions commonly involve teaching students to engage in actions designed to change or maintain one's own behavior. Functionally, self-management interventions in the classroom involve teaching a child to engage in some behavior (i.e. self-instruction) in an effort to change the probability of occurrence of a target behavior (i.e. disruptive behavior) (Cole, 1992). Rather than relying on token economy or contingency contracts where the teacher monitors and recognizes the behaviors, students are taught to self-regulate their learning and behavior by utilizing self-management procedures.
Cognitive behavior modification (CBM) is a broad term used to express a number of precise techniques that teach self-control through enhanced understanding of cognitive processes and knowledge of how behavior affects academic and behavioral outcomes. Unlike other behavior modification plans, the interventions applied in a CBM are student driven rather than teacher driven making it highly desirable to busy educators (Swaggart, 1998 p. 235).

The process of implementing CBM consists of observational learning, self-instruction, and self-monitoring. In observational learning, the student studies how to behave appropriately through observing others. Students observe and model appropriate behavior, reconcile what their behavior should be and anticipate what will be the reinforcer for the appropriate behavior (Swaggart, 1998)

During self-instruction, students use self-statements (e.g. Am I on-task? or What is my next step?) to assist in amending behaviors that often obstruct effective learning and performance. Before self-instruction can take place, the teacher must identify an observable inappropriate behavior that can be recognized by the student. Next, the teacher develops materials to use during implementation. Finally, the teacher discusses the behavior, strategy, and obtains a commitment from the student to learn and apply the intervention (Swaggart, 1998).

The last phase is self-monitoring which is defined as occurring when a student assesses if a target behavior has occurred and then records the result (Rankin & Reid, 1995). Self-monitoring allows a student with mild disabilities, who in addition to difficulty with self-regulation of behavior, may also have an external locus of control, maladaptive attributions, and learned helplessness (Rankin & Reid, 1995). When it was originally conceived, self-monitoring was thought of as a non-intrusive clinical assessment technique; however, clinicians soon realized it effected an actual change in behavior. This approach provided student with new ways
of thinking about his/her behavior and it reinforces the notion that behavior is under personal control. Researchers defined this form of behavior change as reactivity (attending to one's own behavior causes it to change) and introduced these interventions with a wide variety of behaviors (Reid, 1996).

In order for self-monitoring to be successful, students need to become reflective of how they feel, think, behave and most significantly how their behavior affects their personal accomplishments as well as their interactions with others. In contrast to traditional behavior modification programs, this program teaches the students to observe and critique their behavior in order to attain preset goals. Students are given the tools to empower themselves to control their own behaviors, recognize their successes and in the long term be able to generalize it to various environments (Swaggart, 1998).

When a student is taught to self-monitor, he/she receives a motivating and gratifying picture of improved behavior. The feedback is immediate, making it relative to the behavior in question. Students are involved in the identification and selection of targeted behavior enabling them to recognize the behavior is important to change. Self-monitoring promotes communication with parents because students can readily discuss the data they collected. Most importantly, self-monitoring describes the behavior of one student in relation to himself rather than a comparison with other students facilitating cooperative interactions rather than competitive ones (Daly & Ranalli, 2003).

**Functional Behavioral Assessment**

Our discussion will now begin to focus on the problem behaviors exhibited by individual students: determining the target behavior(s), implementing internal interventions, and assessing effectiveness in changing behavior and increasing productivity. "A functional behavioral
assessment (FBA) is defined as a collection of methods used for gathering information about antecedents, behaviors, and consequences in order to determine the reason or function of behavior” (Gresham, Watson, & Skinner, 2001, p.158). An FBA is conducted by a team of individuals who have direct contact with the student, a behavioral expert to lead the FBA process, an administrative figure to support and make recommendations and, when relevant, the student. FBA’s should be conducted when a problem behavior is interfering with the students learning or the learning of others and a BIP is needed to promote students success (Sugai, 2000 p. 151).

Target behaviors are identified and defined in observable and measurable terms rather than being based on mental states or processes. Goals are then established for behavior change. The criterion for determining the success of the intervention is based on the estimates of the frequency, duration, or severity of the behaviors that are currently occurring. Objectives may focus on extinguishing or reducing a problem behavior to tolerable levels, increasing desirable behaviors, and teaching the student to determine when behavior is or isn’t appropriate.

To effectively manage and distinguish an individuals’ problem behavior, one must first understand the function of the problem through systematically studying the behavior and the factors that contribute to its occurrence and maintenance. The function of behavior implies the purpose a particular behavior serves an individual. These functions of behavior normally occur for five reasons; social attention, access to tangibles or preferred activities, delay or reduction of aversive tasks, escape or avoidance of other individuals, and internal stimulation (Carr, 1994). The main purpose of conducting a FBA is to enhance the value, competence, and relevance of a behavior improvement plan (BIP).
FBA is not completed with one test or observation but rather a series of observations, interviews, and an in-depth view of student records. As the data are collected, they are used in the development of strategies and interventions to change and/or manipulate the behavior of the student(s) (Sugai, Lewis, & Hagan, 2000 p.150).

There has been some cynicism regarding the FBA's appropriateness of use within public schools. Some concerns include the logistical practicality of conducting an FBA in schools, the applicability to the full array of students in schools, and the level of proficiency needed to conduct and use this type of assessment. The effectiveness of this type of procedure with higher functioning students has been questioned due to the fact that a majority of research in which FBA's have been used has been conducted with individuals with severe disabilities (March & Horner, 2002).

Positive Behavior Support

Positive behavioral support (PBS) is a broad term used to describe a comprehensive, research-based, proactive approach to behavioral support aimed at producing comprehensive change for students with challenging behaviors (Ruef, 1998 p.21). It is based on a functional assessment of behavior and is comprised of individual strategies that address the prevention of problem behavior and the development of new skills and enhanced patterns of social interaction (Fox, Dunlap, & Cushing, 2002). Its goal is not to directly eliminate the problem behavior but to understand its function and teach the student new and prosocial behaviors that achieve the same purpose and will replace the inappropriate behavior (Carr, 1994).

When the function of the behavior has been determined, it is now time for the development of strategies to prevent continual behavior problems. The focus of intervention has now changed from what one might do to the child to what one might change about our own
classroom practices. It becomes the teachers' responsibility to teach appropriate alternative responses that serve the same purposes as the challenging behavior and to also manipulate the classroom environment to promote positive responses. The following are some strategies that have been recommended and deemed effective by teachers (Ruef, 1998, p.31).

1. Altering the classroom environment- Teachers can remove or modify environmental conditions within their classroom that trigger classroom behaviors such as accommodating individual needs, room arrangement, and traffic patterns.

2. Increase Predictability and Scheduling- Teachers should have a posted daily schedule in addition to informing students of changes in the schedule and alerting students of transitions.

3. Increase choice making- Teachers need to understand that students with disabilities are not afforded many opportunities to make choices in their daily lives and should be allowed and taught to make appropriate choices.

4. Making Curricular Adaptations- Teachers should adapt the curriculum when observation suggests that the existing curriculum is prompting the challenging behavior. Changes can be made in the level of interest in the tasks, difficulty level, length of task, and the nature of the task.

5. Appreciate Positive Behaviors- Teachers should reward correct behavior with student's appropriate rewards, eventually reducing the rewards over time.

6. Teach Replacement Skills- Most importantly, by teaching alternate responses that serve the same purpose as the challenging behavior, teachers can reduce the incidence of challenging behaviors and increase the skill level of their students.
To summarize, PBS involves identifying the purpose of challenging behaviors, teaching alternate responses that serve the same purpose as the problem behavior, consistently rewarding the alternate response and minimizing the rewards for challenging behaviors and dissipating the physiological, environmental and curricular factors that trigger problem behaviors (Ruef, 1998).

Results of Research

Great speculation has arisen over whether self-monitoring results in behavior change. In 1992, Prater and Hogan studied the effects of self-monitoring to improve on-task behavior and academic skills of an adolescent with mild handicaps across special and regular education settings. Utilizing audio cues and a visual prompt, the student was taught to self-monitor on-task behavior and academic performance in the resource setting then implement the procedure in three settings, resource room, general education math class and general education English class. Improvements were noted in all three settings including an increase in on-task behaviors in all settings and an increase in spelling and math accuracy by over two percentage points in the general education classes.

In 1993, Webber, Shuermann, McCall, and Coleman conducted a meta-analysis of research on the effects of self-monitoring as a behavior management technique in special education classrooms. A preview of the twenty-seven studies found that self-monitoring can be successful with special education students of various ages and in various settings to increase (a) attention to task, (b) positive classroom behaviors, and (c) some social skills. The researchers also concluded that the simple act of recording their own behavior would cause students to become more aware of their behavior, leading to decreases in unwanted behaviors.

Maag, Reid, and DiGangi (1993) studied the effects of self-monitoring on on-task behavior, academic productivity, and academic accuracy with six elementary-school students
with learning disabilities in a general education. Three targeted behaviors were examined, (1) on-task behaviors, (2) academic productivity, (3) and academic accuracy. The students received instruction in three types of self-monitoring, self-monitoring attention, self-monitoring productivity, self-monitoring accuracy. Self-monitoring took place in the general education classroom while training for each self-monitoring procedure took place in the resource room.

Results indicated increases in on-task behavior regardless of self-monitoring procedure used. Their findings showed that (1) self-monitoring different target variables does not appear to differentially affect on-task behavior, (2) self-monitoring different target variables does not appear to differentially affect academic productivity and/or accuracy, (3) self-monitoring academic outcomes is more effective than monitoring attention for academic productivity and/or accuracy, and (4) students prefer to monitor academic outcomes.

Hyland and Keaton (1994) examined the effects of self-monitoring combined with self-charting and positive reinforcement for improving on-task behavior defined as preparedness for instruction. The target behaviors were defined as students having (1) a supply of paper, (2) math book, (3) pencils and (4) been seated at their desk before tardy bell rang. In this study, thirty-two students from an economically disadvantaged urban school showed an increase in on-task behavior over the course of the study. During the baseline phase, the average percentage of off-task behavior was 18%. At the conclusion of the study, the percentage of off-task behaviors decreased to 3%. The percentage of off-task behaviors continued to be around 3% in the fading phase. After the completion of their study, the researchers concluded that “although self-monitoring is an effective intervention, the combination of self-charting and reinforcement may increase its magnitude” (Hyland & Keaton, 1994 p.8).
A more recent study was conducted by Mammolenti, Vollmer, and Smith (2002) who examined whether self-evaluation and self-reflection coupled with self-monitoring of on-task behavior would increase the occurrence of on-task behavior of twelve fourth and fifth grade students with mild disabilities. The average of the twelve-students on-task behaviors for each of the six weeks of this study showed improvement in weeks one through three, decreases in weeks four and five, and increase in weeks six. At the beginning of the study, it was noted that the students were in a competition with one another over wanting to be on-task but the effect did not last throughout the study.

Mammolenti data described a change in student behavior when the first tone sounded for those students who were not already on-task while Vollmer had a different effect. She describes the students as becoming bored with the study by week three and she had to cue them to mark their record sheets. Due to student unwillingness to participate, lower rates of on-task behavior were noted for her groups (Mammolenti, Vollmer, & Smith, 2002).

A difference in the delivery of curriculum might have contributed to the results. Mammolenti used a structured reading program where expectations were consistent and routine in contrast to the instruction by Vollmer, which varied day to day (Mammolenti, Vollmer, & Smith, 2002).

In addition, a lack of proper instruction on self-monitoring of behavior, a lack of dedication to the program by both students and teachers might have contributed to the decrease in weeks four and five. Because students did not spend suitable time reflecting on their behavior, investigators did not believe that self-reflection and self-evaluation coupled with self-recording on on-task behavior would further increase the occurrence of on-task behavior (Mammolenti, Vollmer, & Smith, 2002).
In contrast, the investigators found self-monitoring coupled with incentives can increase on-task behavior. Students were observed as being bored when non-tangible reinforcers were used, contrary to the beginning of the program when the students showed enthusiasm to please their teachers by showing on-task behaviors (Mammolenti, Vollmer, & Smith, 2002).

This study concluded that when reinforcements and daily routines were utilized, on-task behaviors improved. There was no evidence of further impact when using self-evaluation or self-reflection.

In summary, self-monitoring has been found to produce increases in on-task behavior with student with disabilities. Several common threads appeared throughout much of the research including that self-monitoring allowed the students to acknowledge the existence of problem behaviors. This might not have occurred had it not been for the students being taught to observe their behavior and the behavior of others and to critique its importance in the learning environment. The relevance of reinforcements to the implementation of the interventions was also frequently discussed. In most cases, the motivation to continue the implementation of the plan was dependent on the tangibles received by the student for desired behaviors. In order for the successful instruction of self-monitoring to the students, it was recommended that the strategies be taught in a resource setting and implemented in the general classroom.

To date, there has not been extensive research on long-term effectiveness and generalizability (applicability to other situations and settings) of self-monitoring to other student environments. In a 1992 study, Cole and Bambara found that self-management strategies such as self-monitoring are used with the premise that the student will generalize the appropriate behaviors to other environments. Given that assessment has been limited, when generalization
of self-management was assessed, results were typically positive, especially with contingency based plans.

Empirical reasoning of whom and when generalization is likely to be accomplished remains in question, future research should seek to address person-specific or ecological variables that appear to enhance and impede the generalization process. An additional limitation exists in how setting generalizability has been measured. In order to determine effectiveness of self-management, a true test of generalizability needs to be conducted separate from post-training modifications. (Cole and Bambara, 1992).

Applicability to academic performance

In a study of two students with learning disabilities, DiGangi, Maag, and Rutherford (1991), assessed academic performance by monitoring the number of problems answered correctly (accuracy) and the number of problems completed (productivity). The first subject showed substantial increases in on-task behavior and academic productivity with the implementation of self-graphing and a minute increase in academic accuracy. In contrast, subject two; although increases were examined in on-task behavior after self-monitoring was introduced, subsequent phases showed no improvements. Upon completion of the study, questions arose such as “why would increases in self-monitoring of on-task behavior result in increases of academic productivity and accuracy for both subjects”?

In a follow-up study by Maag, Rutherford, and DiGangi (1992), six students with learning disabilities were observed and provided interventions in the general education classroom to study the social validity of behavior change produced by self-monitoring and contingent reinforcement for on-task behavior and academic productivity. The study showed that self-monitoring increased on-task behavior as well as academic productivity. Next, self-
recording was shown to be a necessary aspect of producing behavioral change and self-
observation alone is not sufficient. Third, the use of contingent reinforcement improved the 
reactivity of self-monitoring for half of the subjects. Fourth, the inclusion of goal setting to 
contingent reinforcement resulted in increases in on-task behavior for one-third of the subjects. Lastly, in respect to academic productivity, the inclusion of goal setting to contingent 
reinforcement resulted in the largest gains across all subjects.

Few have examined the differential efficacy of self-monitoring attention versus academic 
outcomes. This study measured three target variables, (1) percentage of on-task behavior, (2) 
academic productivity and (3) academic accuracy. Results showed consistencies with other 
studies reporting increases in on-task behavior regardless of the type of self-monitoring 
procedure employed. An increased number of the problems completed were noted when 
productivity was monitored.

According to a study by Reid and Harris (1993), self-monitoring of attention and self-
monitoring of academic performance may result in increased levels of attention, but they also 
suggested that on-task behaviors are not automatically connected to active academic engagement 
(Shimabukuro and Prater, 1999).

Based on the research, management of student behavior is diverse. As professionals, 
teachers need to be aware of their own basic beliefs about classroom management. A teacher 
must first organize and manage her classroom in such a way that he/she does not inadvertently 
empower inappropriate behaviors. Rules and procedures need to incorporate the needs and ideas 
of the students to which they are meant. No matter which type of behavior management plan a 
teacher employs, consistency, flexibility, and professionalism are the most important aspects of 
any classroom management plan.
In order to bring students behavior under stimulus control, as noted previously, one must understand the function on the behavior. This can be accomplished by conducting a Functional Behavioral Assessment (FBA). Target behaviors are identified, interventions are applied, and effectiveness of interventions is assessed in the development and application of a Behavior Improvement Plan (BIP). A BIP is developed incorporating strategies such as positive behavioral supports and self-monitoring.

Self-monitoring allows the students to observe when, where and to what intensity the problem behavior is occurring. It can be stated that when a student self-monitors their behavior, there is an increased awareness of the inappropriateness of ones behavior. Self-monitoring has been found to increase on-task behavior, especially when coupled with reinforcements or tangibles.

In the next chapter, we will examine the methods and materials used to conduct an intervention on on-task behavior. Based on research, this researcher developed a program utilizing a self-monitoring technique that would lead the subject to become aware of his inappropriate classroom behaviors.
Chapter Three: Methodology

Experimental Design

An ABAB design was used for a period of 4 weeks. During the A phases, baseline data was collected for a period of three consecutive days for 6 observations sessions in both academic areas for each subject. Students were involved in group and individual practice assignments. The B phases consisted of a period of six consecutive days for 12 observation sessions in both academic areas for each subject of the self-monitoring intervention in which students self-monitored and critiqued their behavior while the inclusion teacher documented student productivity (number of assignments assigned/ number of assignments completed satisfactorily.)

Students were instructed on the rules of self-monitoring. Teacher modeled to students during two training sessions what on-task and off-task behavior looks like. Students were instructed on the rules of self-monitoring. A visual prompt was given to use during instruction as a reminder for students to ask themselves the following,

(a) Are my eyes on the teacher/assignment?
(b) Am I sitting in my seat and facing forward?
(c) Have I raised my hand to ask a question?
(d) Do I understand the lesson?
(e) Did I finish the assignment?
(f) Did I turn in my work?
(g) Am I working silently?
At the conclusion of each session, student was brought to a private area of the classroom to complete survey. Student was then instructed to honestly critique his behavior in the ten items addressed. Student was unaware of when and for what point total a reward would be given.

Teacher confirmed students' understanding of the procedures by asking verbal questions. An additional training was given before the second day of treatment to insure that the student returned to work after recording their responses rather than waiting for the next cue.

Baseline data was collected a second time for a period of three consecutive days for 6 observation sessions in both academic areas for each subject.

In the last phase, students continued to self-monitor record their attention to task without reinforcements being applied.

Setting and Subject

Currently, one target behavior exhibited involves the student being off-task during group instruction. His behavior fluctuates between playing with objects, such as pens, and being distracted by the actions of other students. It has been observed that he is capable of accounting for other people's behavior more easily than his own. In a small group setting, other students tend to cause him to be distracted and/or disruptive. Researcher has observed that in a group of 4-6 students, he will speak and act out inappropriately. When assigned independent work, student does not start to work when told, needs constant reminders to stay on-task, does not complete assignments and fails to turn in the work.

The study was conducted in an economically disadvantaged urban inner city elementary school. In 2003, a pilot inclusion program was instituted for all fifth grade students with learning disabilities. Students receive 100% of their education in the general education setting with an inclusion special education teacher providing in-class support during the Language Arts Literacy
Program and Mathematics. The subject in this study was a Hispanic fifth grade student with specific learning disabilities (SLD) age 10. In previous grades, the student had attended the resource room for both Language Arts Literacy and Mathematics. Observations and interventions were conducted during the inclusion periods, Monday through Friday. The student obtained a full scale IQ score of 85 with a verbal IQ score of 88 and a performance IQ score of 84 on the WISC-III. On the Woodcock-Johnson-III Test of Achievement, his standardized scores were: Reading 83, Written Language 81, and Mathematics 104. This discrepancy between I.Q. and achievement in reading and written language qualifies him for the category of Specific Learning Disability.

Procedure

The student was chosen for this study based on the special education teacher’s observations of difficulties in attention and performance. A functional behavioral assessment was conducted to determine the function of the behavior. Target behaviors were identified and defined as being easily distracted by the actions of others in a regular classroom and small group, not completing and turning in assignments, and excessive tactile stimulation/compulsion (i.e. pen clicking, tapping, organizing).

Data was collected over a period of 5 days to determine frequency, rate, and intensity of target behaviors. Anecdotal records were made noting antecedent, behavior, and consequence. Conferences were also held with general education teachers to collaborate findings.

Subjects target behaviors were more often observed during the late-morning language arts sessions. Researcher observed that subjects’ distractibility occurred most often during a lull or transition in group instruction occurring simultaneously with an increase in noise in the classroom. At these times, subject appears to be unsure of what is expected of him and he
retreats into disruptive and/or inappropriate behaviors. It should be noted that this disruptive period occurs right after students have returned from lunch and recess. Researcher hypothesizes that this behavior could be due to the subjects desire to avoid task. Instances of distractibility during small group instruction could be due to students need for individual attention.

Subjects’ inability to complete and turn in assignments has adversely affected his academic growth. Researcher observed student’s lack of productivity occurred during both math and language arts literacy. During math when multiple problems are given, subject has difficulty with beginning assignment and attempting only 50% of problems. Although math is one of the subjects’ strengths, he gets confused and disoriented with problems that involve multiple steps. During language arts, student is responsible for completing multiple tasks. Even with frequent prompts and requests, researcher observed student does not compete and turn in assignments. Researcher notes that when subject completes assignments he seeks positive feedback from teacher immediately, but when he does not complete assignment he avoids the teacher.

Lastly, researcher observed subjects overt need for tactile stimulation. At all times, subject has 5-7 pens lined up on his desk. It should also be noted that the subject would only use pens because he states “pencils give him goose bumps”. His fixation with pens leads to the subject being off-task and not participating in the class. Researcher would hypothesize that the subject uses these objects as a way of escaping or delaying work.

Data Collection

Baseline data was conducted during two instructional periods of 50 minutes each, one session each of mathematics and language arts literacy, for a period of three days. At the end of each session, the researcher completed a survey detailing appropriate behaviors a good student would perform in an instructional period. Appropriate behaviors included the following:
1. Participation in class by raising hand to answer a question.

2. Listening and paying attention to teacher's lecture.

3. Working without disturbing others.

4. Asking for help when needed.

5. Following directions the first time given.

6. Starting work when told to do so.

7. Completing work assigned.

8. Turning in work.

9. Sitting with feet facing forward.

10. Not letting other things distract student.

Observer would rate the following behaviors with a 3 for behaviors always shown, 2 for behavior shown most of the time, 1 for behaviors shown sometimes, and 0 for behaviors never shown. Each day, students' performance was tallied for a total points earned per day. Subject was given a tangible reinforcement for being honest in his interpretations. Appropriate reinforcements were discussed and chosen by student ranging such as ice cream, pens, and candy. Inter-observer reliability was scored at 98% using observations from the special education teacher and regular education teacher.

**Dependent Variables**

Two dependent variables were assessed in the course of this study; Attention to Task and Academic Performance. Attention to task refers to student displaying appropriate classroom behavior such as sitting in seat, taking notes, asking questions, and maintaining eye contact with teacher and/or assignment. Academic performance refers to the acceptable quantity of work completed (productivity) and the quality of the work (accuracy).
Materials

In order to implement this study, the following materials were utilized;

(1) Daily assignment profile.

(2) Self-monitoring survey sheet

(3) Weekly summary sheet of behavior

(4) Visual prompt on classroom wall (appendix 1)

(5) Visual prompt on student desk (appendix 1)
Chapter Four - Results of Intervention

The research was designed to answer two questions; will a positive support program of self-monitoring lead to an increase in on-task behavior and will increasing on-task behavior affect educational progress? In the following chapter, the evaluations of both the researcher and the subject will be reviewed to determine commonality, discrepancy, and distinctions in the observations of the target behaviors.

Baseline Phase #1

The data indicate that during the first baseline session, the subject averaged about 25 daily points out of 60. During the math sessions, it was noted that the subject was on-task more often than during the language arts period. The subject received daily points of 16, 14, and 15 during the math period for the three days of baseline compared to 5, 12, and 11 during the language arts literacy period (See Table 1). Most notably, student demonstrated difficulty in asking for help, following directions the first time given, starting independent assignments, completing assignments, and being distracted by environmental factors in the classroom.
Table 1: COMPARISON OF BASELINE DATA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>MATH BASE 1</th>
<th>MATH BASE 2</th>
<th>MATH BASE 3</th>
<th>LANGUAGE ARTS LITERACY BASE 1</th>
<th>LANGUAGE ARTS LITERACY BASE 2</th>
<th>LANGUAGE ARTS LITERACY BASE 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PARTICIPATION</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATTENTION TO TEACHER</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WORKED W/O DISRUPTIONS</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASKED FOR HELP</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOLLOWED DIRECTIONS</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STARTED WORKING ASAP</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMPLETED WORK</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TURNED IN WORK</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAT UP STRAIGHT</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO DISTRACTIONS</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>16</strong></td>
<td><strong>14</strong></td>
<td><strong>15</strong></td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td><strong>12</strong></td>
<td><strong>11</strong></td>
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</table>

Researcher noted that the subject completed and turned in 67% of the work assigned during both math and reading. All math assignments were completed and turned in while language arts literacy assignments averaged 42%.

*Intervention Phase # 1*

On the first day of the intervention, the researcher issued a tangible reinforcer to the subject to encourage participation in the intervention. Although re-instruction was given on the proper procedures for scoring the intervention, subject routinely rated himself with the highest score of three for starting independent assignments, completing and turning in assignments, and being distracted by environmental factors in the classroom.

During the first intervention session, the subject rated himself 50% higher than researcher during baseline data session with a daily average of 50 points (See Figure 1).
A commonality was observed in the data in that both the subject and the researcher scored the subject higher during morning math session (See Figure 2).
Researcher noted that subject issued low scores for participation in class and distractions by other things in class.

In regards to the subject completing and turning in assignments, subject recorded that he completed and turned in an average of 80% of the work. Included in this data, subject observed he completed and turned in 100% of math assignments and 72% of language arts literacy.

Baseline Phase #2

The second baseline saw a rise of 13% in the average of daily points accumulated for each session (See Figure 3).

Figure 3

![Percentage of Total Daily Points in Baseline](image)

Generally, the researcher found an increase in the student’s frequency of certain behaviors such as raising hands to answer questions, working without disrupting others and sitting forward in his desk. The subject sought positive feedback on completing the intervention. He frequently asks the teacher what he is to do next, whereas before he would simply sit until directed to perform a task.

Assignments during this phase were frequently incomplete. Math assignments averaged 50% while language arts literacy assignments averaged 83%. Researcher noted that the subject
began to have difficulty with math content. Subject needed one on one instruction and was not able to complete all problems assigned. Student showed signs of frustration when he was unable to remember steps involved in solving problems.

*Intervention Phase #2*

The final intervention saw a decrease of 8% in the average of daily points accumulated (42 points). This decrease can be due to the subject's improved understanding of the intervention (See Figure 4).

![Percentage of Daily Points in Intervention](image)

Based on the subject's data, he continues to see his behavior in math to be more on-task than during the language arts literacy period.

*Conclusion of Data*

Overall, an increase was observed in the average of total daily points awarded by the researcher from the first baseline (25) to the second baseline (32). In contrast, a decrease was noted in the average of total daily points awarded by the subject from the first intervention (50) to the second
intervention (42). In addition, on five separate days, the researcher and subject accumulated comparable daily point totals. It was on these days that the subject received a tangible reinforcement. During the first intervention, the researcher noted on two occasions that their scores did not correlate to one another (See Figure 5)

Figure 5

In chapter five, the researcher will further explain the data given and theorize the reasoning for distinctions in the subject’s behavior. Findings of this study will also be compared to previous research findings.
Chapter Five: Implications of Intervention

Discussion

Today's classrooms have seen a transformation in recent years. Gone are the days of the authoritarian teacher who dispenses knowledge. Today, teachers act as facilitators that guide their students through the content areas while encouraging the development of active learners. Where does this leave special education students? They do not learn in the same manner as the active learners today's high profile tests are designed to assess. Many special education students learn as they live, as mere spectators with little connection to the relationships, culture, feelings, and communications in which they should be participating. They lead a passive existence with little desire, strength or confidence to become independent or self-sufficient.

Due to federal and state guidelines, today’s students with special needs are required to be assessed in the same content areas as their grade equivalent peers, regardless of their academic level. As a result, students with special needs are feeling the pressure to perform, which is leading to problematic behavior. With the change in the dynamics of the classroom comes the need for adaptation in classroom management strategies.

Current legislation requires schools to assess behavior in different ways, such as conducting a Functional Behavioral Analysis. It is believed that by finding the function of the target behavior, interventions can be developed to either reduce or eliminate the target behavior or to facilitate a replacement behavior.

Modern research in classroom management has moved toward student’s development of self-management strategies. This strategy is effective with students with mild disabilities.
because they frequently exhibit external locus of control, maladaptive behaviors, and learned helplessness (Rankin et al, 1995). Using self-management strategies such as self-monitoring teaches students to analyze their own behavior thus engaging the student in thinking about their behavior in different ways. This in turn allows the students the opportunity to see their behavior as being under “their” control and not the teacher’s control. Having students self-monitor their behavior enables to choose how they want to behave along with choosing the consequences of that behavior, good or bad.

In keeping with being a student-centered model, self-management strategies acknowledge that a child’s problem behavior can not be extinguished without also looking at other factors such as classroom settings, procedures and the child’s possible lack of skills to control behavior. This approach to behavior is not simply a band-aid but rather a long term plan to reduce or eliminate problem behaviors, teach appropriate behaviors and most importantly provide supports to make the intervention a success.

Conclusions

The goal of this intervention was to increase the subject’s on-task behavior by providing a positive support program that enabled the subject to acknowledge specific target behaviors while increasing educational progress.

In general, the data accumulated was inconclusive, but the intervention provided an opportunity for the subject to observe and critique his own behavior in a manner he had not previously done. Through observations conducted by the researcher, it appears that the intervention drew the subject’s attention to specific behaviors that were easily observable by the subject. Target behaviors such as participating in class by volunteering to answer questions,
sitting forward and completing tasks increased and were generalized to other subject areas and continue after intervention.

The researcher found that the other target behaviors such as working without disrupting others, following directions, and not being distracting by other factors were more subjective making them harder for the subject to identify and assess. This coincides with the study conducted by Maag, Reid and DiGangi (1993) who found that self-monitoring of academic outcomes was more effective than monitoring of attention. In a study by Hyland and Keaton (1994), their target behaviors consisted of behaviors that were easily observable for a student such as having specific supplies and being in their seat at the tardy bell. In summary, self-monitoring would be best suited for target behaviors that are directly observable to the student.

Although the intervention was simplistic in design, the lack of routine and structured environment interfered with its implementation. First, the students were to have their daily assignments listed on the board so that they may record and check them off as they were completed. This was often forgotten by either the teacher or the subject and it had to be updated throughout the day.

Another difficulty with implementation was the completion of the survey after each session. The student was instructed by the researcher to take five minutes to complete the survey. Unfortunately, class periods usually ran long and students were often rushed or had to complete the survey later. This disrupted his memory of the target behaviors and the validity of the survey accuracy. According to the joint study by Mammolenti and Vollmer, the first study was successful because it used a structured reading program where expectations and routine were consistent. The later study would be more synonymous with the instruction in this subject’s classroom in that it also varied day to day. (Mammolenti et al, 2002)
Lastly, the lack of proper subject supervision during the intervention was an overall problem. It was the intention of the researcher to work with the subject as he applied the intervention, but time restraints and attention needed toward the other students in the class did not allow for this. The amount of time it takes to successfully and accurately apply interventions such as these is the primary reason teachers do not use them (Cole & Bambara, 1992)

**Recommendations**

Continued use of intervention, with modifications, is recommended for the remainder of the year to allow the subject to develop a routine of observing his behavior. Modifications would include reducing observable target behaviors from ten to three. The student will practice the intervention by focusing on only three behaviors at a time then remove and adjust target behaviors as needed. Rather than observing behavior at the conclusion of the class, student should be cued during instruction to assess behavior at that moment. This will allow the student to evaluate the target behavior immediately. Lastly, rather than using reinforcements randomly, they should be given consistently at first and then withdrawn slowly.
References


References- Continued


References- Continued


## Appendices

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INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
DISPOSITION FORM

Susan A. Biglin
Principal Investigator

Co-Principal Investigator (if applicable)

23 Westwood Road
Address of Principal Investigator

Address of Co-Principal Investigator

Mays Landing, N.J. 08330
City, State, and Zip Code

City, State, and Zip Code

609-476-1003
Telephone # Fax # e-mail address

Telephone # Fax # e-mail address

TITLE OF RESEARCH
Will a self-monitoring system affect a change in on-task behavior and productivity?

ADMINISTRATIVE DISPOSITION - DO NOT WRITE BELOW THIS LINE

Your claim for exemption for the research study identified above has been reviewed. The action taken is indicated below:

APPROVED FOR EXEMPTION AS CLAIMED: CATEGORY #

Note: Anything that materially changes the exempt status of this study must be presented to the IRB for approval before the changes are implemented. Such modifications should be sent to the IRB Office at the address above.

APPROVED FOR EXEMPTION - BUT NOT AS CLAIMED. Your claim for exemption does not fit the criteria for exemption designated in your proposal. However, the study does meet the criteria for exemption under CATEGORY #

A determination regarding the exempt status of this study cannot be made at this time. Additional information is required.

Your proposal does not meet the criteria for exemption, and a full review will be provided by the IRB.

EXPEDITED REVIEW: \(\checkmark\) Approved \(\) Denied

FULL REVIEW: \(\) Approved \(\) Approved with modifications \(\) Denied

DENIED:

See attached Committee Action Letter for additional comments.

Chair, IRB \(\) Co-Chair, IRB

Date \(\) Date
Appendix B

Dear Parent,

I am a special education teacher at Texas Avenue School and I am currently working with your son/daughter in their classroom as an In-Class Support Teacher. The reason for this letter is to ask your permission to include your son/daughter in a research project.

I am completing my Master's Degree in Special Education under the direction of Dr. Steven Crites, and have chosen to study the off-task behavior of students. The goal of this project is to teach students to monitor their own behavior, to identify the behavior as a hindrance to their education, and to learn replacements behaviors to increase their success in all academic areas.

Students will be taught to self-monitor their behavior during instruction, analyze their behavior, and relate their behavior with their academic performance. The student will rate his classroom behavior at the end of math and language arts class. When student receives the appropriate number of daily points, student will receive an award such as candy, ice cream, pens or something else applicable to student.

Through this self-monitoring, the student will become more aware of their off-task behaviors and will learn replacement strategies. His off-task behavior will decrease and he will see a relationship between his off-task behavior and academic performance. This study will last approximately five weeks. At the conclusion of the study, I would like to discuss the results of the intervention with you and your son.

If you have any questions or concerns, you may contact either myself at 343-7350 or my Graduate Advisor, Dr. Steven Crites at 1-856-256-4500, ext. 3684. Thank you.

Sincerely,

Susan Biglin

Please indicate whether or not you will allow your child to be a participant in this study.

_____ I grant permission for my child __________________________ to participate in this study.

_____ I do not grant permission for my child __________________________ to participate in this study.

______________________________  ________________________________
(Parent/Guardian Signature)       (Date)
January 21, 2004

Fredrick P. Nickles
Superintendent, Atlantic City School District
1809 Pacific Avenue
Atlantic City, N.J. 08401

Dear Superintendent Nickles,

This letter is in regards to permission for conducting a research project at my school. My name is Susan Biglin and I am a special education teacher at the Texas Avenue School. Currently, I am completing the last phase of my Master's Degree in Special Education at Rowan University. I am presently enrolled in my thesis class, under the direction of Dr. Steven Crites, and have researched an intervention I would like to test out with one of my students. The intervention is on teaching students to self-monitor their behavior. My student is classified as having a Specific Learning Disability. His greatest difficulty he faces in the classes is staying on-task and completing assignments. The intervention plan begins with a tone the student will hear in the classroom. The tones will be at fixed intervals, varying from 30 seconds to 90 seconds. When they hear the tone, the student will be instructed by a picture prompt to ask themselves four questions, Are my eyes on the teacher or assignment?, Am I sitting in my seat and facing forward?, Am I using the correct materials?, and Am I working silently?

It is my hope that as students become more aware of their off-task behaviors and its relationship to classroom achievement, they will learn replacement strategies, off-task behavior will decrease and they will see a relationship between their off-task behavior and academic performance. This study will last approximately five weeks.

If you have any questions or concerns please contact me at 343-7350.

Thank you for your consideration,

Susan Biglin
Special Education Teacher, Texas Avenue School
23 Westwood Road
Mays Landing, N.J. 08330
609-476-1003
Appendix D
Appendix D

NAME:  

DATE:  

DAILY SELF-MONITORING SHEET- READING and MATH

Circle one of the three choices for each question below:
3 = always  
2 = most of the time  
1 = sometimes  
0 = did not do

1. I participated in class by raising my hand to answer a question.
   3  2  1  0

2. I listened and paid attention when the teacher was talking.
   3  2  1  0

3. I worked without disrupting others.
   3  2  1  0

4. I asked for help when I needed it.
   3  2  1  0

5. I followed directions the first time given.
   3  2  1  0

6. I started working when told to do so.
   3  2  1  0

7. I completed my work in this class.
   3  2  1  0

8. I turned in my completed work.
   3  2  1  0

9. I sat up straight with my feet forward.
   3  2  1  0

10. I did not let other things distract me during the lesson.
   3  2  1  0

DAILY TOTAL