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KRISTEN S. SCHRAUBEN
Grand Valley State University, Department of Psychology

JAMIE OWEN-DESCHRYVER
Grand Valley State University, Department of Psychology

SANJA CALE
SUNY Old Westbury, Exceptional Education and Learning Department

STRIVE TO IMPROVE EDUCATIONAL OUTCOMES: SUPPORTING STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES IN THE GENERAL EDUCATION CLASSROOM

Abstract: Increasingly, students with a variety of disabilities are being included in general education settings; however, many of these students have academic, behavioral, and social challenges that can interfere with their participation and performance. Teachers and school professionals supporting students with disabilities need effective and efficient strategies that can improve student outcomes. This paper describes a set of six domains of research-supported practices that can be implemented to support students. These practices are organized using the acronym STRIVE: Social supports, Teaching practices, Rewards and motivation, Independence, Visual supports, and Engagement. We include examples of how these practices can be used class-wide to support all students, and how they can be adapted to support specific students with disabilities. Practitioner-friendly applications and resources are included to support implementation within school settings.

Keywords: disability, general education, educational supports, teaching practices, social supports.

INTRODUCTION

In the past several decades, the general education landscape has changed, with increasing numbers of students with behavioral, academic and social challenges being served in general education settings. Students with a variety of disabilities, such as those with Specific Learning Disabilities, Emotional and Behavioral Disorders, Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD), Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), and Intellectual Disabilities often participate in classrooms alongside typically developing peers. In many cases, these students may require more intensive levels of support to achieve pos-

Correspondence address: Kristen S. Schrauben, e-mail: schrakri@gvsu.edu, https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8990-1571; Jamie Owen-DeSchryver https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3566-1525; Sanja Cale https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0924-7304.

itive educational and social outcomes. School professionals need simple and effective strategies that apply to the majority of students in any classroom. This paper serves to provide a brief, practitioner-friendly guide for educational professionals as they work to meet a range of student needs in general education.

Rather than provide a complete and comprehensive review of the literature, our goal is to offer a succinct review of six helpful, research-based domains, including practices from each of these domains that can be implemented in general education classrooms to meet the needs of an increasingly diverse student population. These six domains of practices are discussed as part of an easily remembered acronym, STRIVE: (1) Social support, (2) Teaching practices, (3) Rewards and motivation, (4) Independence, (5) Visual supports, and (6) Engagement. Strategies from each of these domains can be implemented by both special education and general education professionals who are supporting students with disabilities. They also fit well within a multi-tiered support framework (i.e., Response to Intervention, Multi-Tiered Systems of Support, Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports) as they can be used to address the needs of a whole school, smaller groups of students, or individual students. We have organized this document to discuss how these practices can primarily be implemented at two levels. First, we describe the strategies that can be implemented class-wide to improve outcomes for all students in a classroom. Then, we outline how the practices can be implemented with individual students, specifically targeted to students with disabilities. Many of these practices can be implemented at both levels simultaneously. Figure 1 outlines both class-wide and individual level applications of STRIVE strategies.

STRIVE Domain	Class-wide Applications	Individual Student Applications
Social Supports	• Social emotional curricula • Peer supports	• Social skills instruction
Teaching Practices	• Explicit Instruction • Content enhancement	• Differentiated instruction • Accommodations • Modifications
Rewards & Motivation	• Classroom reward systems • Effective praise	• Individualized reinforcement systems
Independence	• Classroom expectations & routines • Paraprofessional training to support independence	• Self-monitoring systems
Visual Supports	• Rules & classroom schedules • Graphic organizers • Concrete – Representational – Abstract" (CRA) sequence of instruction	• Individualized picture cues & schedules • Communication systems
Engagement	• Opportunities to respond (OTR)	• Offering choices • Incorporating student backgrounds & interests • Instructional level material

FIGURE 1. STRIVE strategies

SOCIAL SUPPORTS

At a classroom level, school professionals may choose to implement a class-wide social-emotional curriculum program to encourage the development of social skills. These programs often focus on teaching self-awareness, emotion regulation, decision-making, interpersonal problem solving, and management of relationships (Greenberg et al., 2003). In addition to improving students' social-emotional competence, the implementation of a social-emotional curriculum can have a range of effects such as reducing disciplinary incidents, preventing conduct disordered behavior (Webster-Stratton, Reid, & Stoolmiller, 2008), and improving academic achievement (Ashdown & Bernard, 2012). There are many social-emotional curriculum programs available, with programs targeting different age groups from preschool, to elementary, to middle school, to high school level. The Collaborative to Advance Social and Emotional Learning (CASEL) is a resource that can be used by school professionals to identify social-emotional curriculum programs, determine educational and health outcomes of such curricular interventions, and help educators become more facile with implementation. With a stated goal of promoting the science of social-emotional learning and translating research findings into practices that can be used within schools, the CASEL offers many resources that can improve students' social-emotional competence and academic success, while preventing behavioral and mental health problems (Graczyk, et al., 2000).

Peer support is an additional intervention that can be implemented class wide to address the social challenges of students with disabilities (see Figure 2). Within peer support programs, general education peers are trained to support students with disabilities (Carter, Moss, Hoffman, Chung, & Sisco, 2011). General education peers are provided with information about the student's disability and participate in identifying and implementing strategies to effectively support that student, with a particular emphasis on social engagement. Peer support programs promote the development of connections and friendships between students with and without disabilities and have been shown to increase student progress on social goals (Carter et al., 2016). Students with disabilities learn appropriate social behaviors as they observe the skills modeled by their classmates during everyday interactions. Students without disabilities who participate as peer supports report that they gain increased knowledge, become role models, and learn new skills, including advocating for the needs of others (Copeland et al., 2004)

Developing a Peer Support Program		
Recruitment and Organization	Ongoing Support	Optional Considerations
• Recruit peers to support students with disabilities • Obtain parent permission • Assign peer supports based on schedule availability to provide support during core academic class periods, non-academic classes, and/ or lunch, hallway or recess	• Use a training curriculum • Organize regular meetings with peers and students with disabilities to problem-solve issues • Schedule events (e.g., banquets, fundraisers, outings) for peer supports and students with disabilities	• Work with local education board to determine if participation in peer support program can result in elective credit for middle school/ high school peers • Provide peer support for after-school activities

FIGURE 2. Developing a Peer Support Program

Some students with disabilities may require additional, individualized instruction to improve their social skills. Approaches to teaching these skills vary, but may include modeling and practice, reinforcement for demonstration of the targeted social skill, or the use of visual supports (e.g., objects or picture cues) to demonstrate the appropriate behavior (see teaching practices and visual supports sections). Direct instruction may be used to teach isolated skills, such as initiations or responses to greetings (Nientimp & Cole, 1992). More sophisticated social skills (e.g., perspective-taking) may require significantly more teacher-directed instruction with demonstration, prompting and feedback to ensure student learning. One issue that can be problematic when teaching social skills to students with disabilities is the generalization of skills across environments. Problems with generalization of trained social skills to natural environments have been noted for both children with Autism Spectrum Disorder (Plavnick, Kaid, & Macfarland, 2015) and students with AD/HD (Willis, Siceloff, Morse, Neger, & Flory, 2019), therefore research suggests that it is important to teach and support the demonstration of social skills within a range of natural environments and with different people to ensure generalization.

TEACHING PRACTICES

At a classroom level, teachers can use explicit instruction to guide both instructional design and delivery to improve student learning (Archer & Hughes, 2011). Explicit instruction represents a direct, and systematic approach to teaching, with complex skills broken down into smaller steps. Teachers use clear language to initiate lessons, while modeling the skill or task, and then provide students with multiple guided practice opportunities. Teachers actively monitor students to provide acknowledgement for accurate responses and corrective feedback for inaccurate responses. Explicit instruction has been used to teach a variety of academic skills to students with and without disabilities, including decoding, reading comprehension, spelling, writing and math. Zohar and David (2007) even demonstrated that explicit instruction could successfully teach eighth graders higher order thinking skills such as problem-solving, analysis of causal relationships, and hypothesis testing (i.e., meta-strategic knowledge). In particular, they found that the explicit teaching approach had strong effects for low achieving students.

Teachers can also utilize content enhancement as a class-wide approach to improve the organization and delivery of content, and make it more accessible to students. Many students, including those with disabilities, may lack the necessary note taking and study skills needed to be successful, requiring teachers to not only teach content, but also teach students how to learn content. Utilizing content enhancement, such as graphic organizers (see visual supports section), note-taking strategies, and mnemonics, can help students become more strategic learners. Guided notes are teacher-prepared handouts that provide an outline or structure for students, allowing them to focus on remembering and understanding key facts and concepts without having to simultaneously organize the ideas and write them in a way to aid future studying (Konrad, Joseph, & Eveleigh, 2009). Figure 3 provides a sample of a guided notes handout. Another content-enhancement strategy involves the use of mnemonics, which help students use memory-enhancing strategies to better recall content. In a research synthesis of mnemonic devices, Scruggs and Mastro-

pieri (2000) concluded that "keyword" strategies, where students are prompted to remember vocabulary based on a visual association with a picture, "pegword" strategies, where students identify a rhyming word to represent a number or order, and "letter" strategies, where each letter within a word represents an important piece of information, were highly effective tools. Content enhancement such as guided notes and mnemonic devices have improved the comprehension and retention of information for students with and without disabilities (Konrad et al., 2008; Mastropieri, Sweda & Scruggs, 2000).

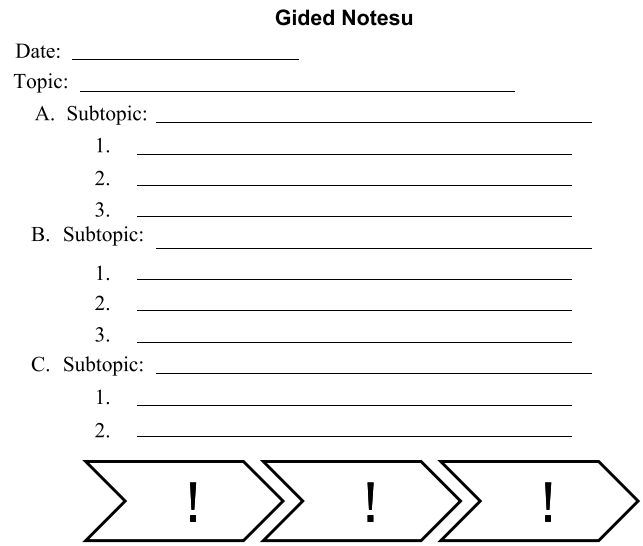

FIGURE 3. Sample of guided notes

To support the learning of students with a range of disabilities in general education classrooms, teachers should differentiate instruction. Researchers have demonstrated that differentiated instruction leads to better student outcomes than those found in classrooms where teachers do not alter their instructional approaches (Tomlinson et. al., 2003). Educators can make minor adaptations, or accommodations, to alter the way that instruction is delivered in the classroom without altering the content being presented. Accommodations enable a student to better access information because the teaching and assessment methods are more appropriately matched to the student's learning profile. Examples of accommodations can include alterations to how materials are presented in class (e.g., directions read, directions repeated, enlarged print), provision of a separate, distraction-free setting for testing (e.g., study carrel, separate room), and extended time to complete work.

Modifications, or individualized changes, can also be made to the content and performance expectations for a student, if that student is unable to achieve the level of performance of his or her peers. Research has demonstrated academic gains for students who have their instructional materials modified to meet their needs (Lou et al., 1996). In a study by Lee, Wehmeyer, Soukup & Palmer (2010), students with disabilities showed improved academic responses and fewer competing behaviors (e.g., aggression, property destruction, noncompliance) when they were actively engaged

in the general education curriculum through the use of modifications. To modify the curriculum effectively, the teacher can assess the student's ability and base appropriate curricular alterations on understanding skills and output method. For example, teachers could alter comprehension tasks to fit the skill level of the student by changing the task from one that is open-ended to one that uses a choice format, a cloze procedure (i.e., fill in the blank), a yes/no question, or has important content organized for the student (key information is highlighted or labeled). Other examples of modifications include reducing the difficulty level of an assignment, or adapting texts and reading materials to the individual's level in order to allow participation in the curriculum (Higgins, Boone & Lovitt, 2002).

REWARDS AND MOTIVATION

Class-wide reward systems can be an effective and practical way for teachers to manage student behavior without having to simultaneously manage different individual interventions. For example, teachers can set up a token economy in which all students can earn tokens (e.g., points, marbles, chips) for demonstrating specific positive behaviors, which can then be redeemed for other desirable rewards (Simonsen, Fairbanks, Briesch, Myers & Sugai, 2008). Class-wide group contingency systems work similarly, but tokens are earned by a group of students engaging in target behaviors as they work towards a shared goal (Simonsen et al., 2008). A widely researched group contingency system is the Good Behavior Game in which the class is divided into two or three teams and the team(s) with the fewest instances of a specified problem behavior at the end of the game period is rewarded (Tingstrom, Sterling-Turner & Wilczynski, 2006). The success of these different reward systems is dependent on having clear, predetermined behavior expectations and also having a meaningful menu of age-appropriate reinforcement options. Reinforcers can be tailored to fit students' interests and classroom resources, and may include desired items or activities, free time, special activities, homework passes, wearing a special tag/badge, or other privileges. These class-wide systems can improve student engagement, achievement, on-task behavior, and peer relationships, and also decrease inappropriate behavior and transition time (Simonsen et al., 2008).

All students benefit from teachers providing praise, but educators must ensure that praise is used appropriately (See Figure 4) because researchers have demonstrated that students should receive praise that is contingent, or based on desirable behaviors or performance, rather than at random times (Brophy, 1981). While positive statements like "great job" and "thanks for being good" may feel natural, to be effective, teachers should provide praise that specifically describes the desired behavior or performance (e.g., "I like how you are sitting quietly during circle time," "You finished 9 out of the 10 problems on the worksheet!"). While reprimands and corrections for negative behavior are sometimes needed in the classroom, teachers should be aware of the ratio of positive statements to negative statements provided to students. Some research has identified that for each time a teacher has to provide a reprimand or other negative statement to a student, the teacher should positively interact with the student four or five times (Trussell, 2008). Praise is a simple but effective strategy that has been shown to improve students' academic performance (i.e., correct responses, productivity and accuracy) and behavior (i.e., on-task, attention, compliance, cooperation; Simonsen et al., 2008).

Keys to Effective Praise
Contingent or dependent on certain behavior/performance
Specific in describing the behavior/performance
Frequent (4:1 or 5:1 ratio of positive to negative statements)

FIGURE 4. Keys to effective praise

More customized strategies and plans may be required for students with disabilities who continue to exhibit challenging behaviors and show low academic motivation. In particular, when a student responds poorly to class-wide motivational systems, it may be necessary to create an individualized reward system. Functional behavior assessment can be utilized, in consultation with other school professionals, to develop and implement individual behavior plans based on the function of the student's behavior (Iwata & Worsdell, 2005). These behavior plans vary depending on the type and severity of the behavior and the child's age, but an important component to any individual behavior plan is to also individualize the reinforcement used. What is reinforcing for each student may be different and using a preference survey with the student is one potential tool to ensure the student will be motivated and engaged in the plan. For students with some disabilities, choice-based stimulus preference assessments where potential rewarding stimuli are systematically presented together in pairs, can allow educators to understand how students rank order their preferences, which may lead to better identification of powerful stimuli to use in an individualized reinforcement system (King & Kostewicz, 2014).

INDEPENDENCE

In a School-wide Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (SW-PBIS) model, the teaching of classroom expectations is a fundamental classroom management practice (Reinke, Herman & Stormont, 2013). Teachers develop classroom expectations that are aligned with school-wide rules, are age-appropriate, and are stated positively. School staff teach these expectations to students and review them regularly because students are more likely to follow classroom rules that are clear and explicitly taught compared to rules that are abstract or unclear. In addition to developing classroom expectations, teachers can develop and support students to successfully complete school-based routines. Students may be taught academic routines (e.g., how to write an essay, how to take notes), or they may be taught transition routines that guide movement around the classroom or through the school building. Additional routines that support small group work (e.g., how students can successfully collaborate when working with peers) may also be systematically implemented. Leinhardt, Weidman, and Hammond (1987) found that when routines were explicitly taught, they became automatic for students. Because the routines reduced the complexity of the environment, this allowed students to learn other skills.

When supporting students with disabilities in general education classrooms, school teams often assign additional adult support, such as a paraprofessional, or paraeducator, who helps by prompting the student with disabilities to complete routines and engage in the curriculum. One concern is that students with disabilities can become dependent on these adult supports, rather than developing independence skills.

Giangreco, Doyle, and Suter (2012) indicate that paraprofessionals assigned to work with students with disabilities should provide temporary support, but then be faded out as much as possible. There is no doubt that paraprofessionals can be important facilitators of independence if they are taught that this is part of their role, but they may instead feel that is their job to actively and consistently prompt students with disabilities to complete tasks. Research has shown that teachers and school teams can facilitate the independence of students by providing training and ongoing feedback to paraprofessional staff (Toelken & Miltenberger, 2012).

One way that paraprofessionals and other school professionals can improve independence in students with disabilities is by teaching students to self-monitor (see Figure 5 for sample). Self-monitoring is a component of self-management where students are taught to track and record data related to their progress on an academic or behavioral task (Dunlap, Dunlap, Koegel & Koegel, 1991; Reid & Harris, 1993). For example, Shimabukuro, Praeter, Jenkins, and Edelen-Smith (1999) demonstrated the effectiveness of teaching students with learning disabilities self-monitoring and self-graphing strategies to complete academic tasks in three areas: reading comprehension, mathematics, and written expression. For all three areas, students showed increases in on-task behavior, productivity, and accuracy. Self-monitoring systems have also been used to reduce behavior problems, such as off-task behavior, disruption and negative social interactions (Bruhn, McDaniel, & Kreigh, 2015) and have been demonstrated to be effective for students with a range of disabilities (Clemons, Mason, & Garrison-Kane, 2015).

Activity	Did I raise my hand to answer a question?	Did I wait until my teacher called on me before I said my answer?	Did I earn my star?
Group Math	(Yes) No	Yes (No)	★

FIGURE 5. Example of self-monitoring system

VISUAL SUPPORTS

One effective way to meet the needs of various students with disabilities in the general education classroom is with the use of visual supports, such as diagrams, graphic organizers, and picture cues. Pictorial tools are designed to increase students' understanding of language and expectations, as well as provide structure and support. At the class-wide level, classroom rules can easily be posted using words and pictures as reminders of expected classroom behavior. In addition, teachers can post schedules to prepare students for daily activities and transitions. By posting the rules and schedules visually, the expectations are clear for each student. The environmental structure of the classroom can also be enhanced by the use of visual cues to identify areas (e.g., listening center, library) or specified places for materials (e.g., bin for markers, tray to turn in homework).

Students in general education settings benefit from having content delivered visually using objects or graphic organizers, such as charts and diagrams. Graphic organizers involve organizing concepts or ideas visually to help students understand the relationships between them (Dye, 2000), which can improve students' reading com-

prehension (Stetter & Hughes, 2010), advanced mathematics skills (Ives, 2007), and written expression (Ciullo & Reutebuch, 2013). Figure 6 provides a sample graphic organizer for reading comprehension.

Story Map	
Characters – Who?	**Setting: When & Where?**
Problem:	
Event:	**Event:**
Solution:	

FIGURE 6. Sample graphic organizer for reading comprehension

The "Concrete – Representational – Abstract" (CRA) sequence of instruction incorporates visuals and manipulatives to improve conceptual understanding. It has often been used to teach mathematical skills, and research suggests that it can be particularly effective for students with learning disabilities (Harris, Miller, & Mercer, 1995; Milton, Flores, & Moore, 2018). Teachers begin by teaching at the concrete level where students are given an opportunity to practice skills using manipulatives (e.g., blocks, chips). Once mastered, instructors model and teach at the representational level, where students are presented with pictorial representations (e.g., tally marks, drawings) before moving to more abstract concepts (e.g., numbers).

Many visual supports can be used class-wide, or can be modified to fit the needs of individual students with disabilities. Students who need more frequent or proximal reminders for behavior can have pictures on their desks to illustrate rules or expectations. Teachers can easily create an effective individualized picture schedule for a student with a disability, and use these systems to support engagement in the classroom. Cihak (2011) showed that both picture schedules and video modeling schedules improved independent transitions between classroom activities for students with autism. In a comprehensive literature review, Knight, Sartini & Spriggs (2015) identified visual schedules, or Visual Activity Schedules, as an evidence-based practice that effectively supported students with ASD in all age groups. For children with disabilities who have difficulty verbally communicating, visual supports can also provide a means for expressive communication. For example, a yes/no or choice board allows a child to answer questions and a feelings chart allows a child to express emotions without any speech. Many "low tech" and "high tech" communication devices utilize pictures to help students respond to prompts, ask questions, and form sentences. With the Internet, educators have access to a wide range of free visuals to support the academic, behavioral and communication needs of all students in their classrooms.

ENGAGEMENT

Students who are disengaged and passive in school tend to perform poorly, fail to complete homework and classroom activities, and lack participation in extracurricular activities. In some cases, early lack of engagement may be a precursor to later school

dropout. In order to prevent these negative outcomes, it is important to act early and implement strategies that improve student engagement. At a classroom level, one strategy that has been widely studied to improve student participation and engagement is to provide frequent Opportunities to Respond (OTR; MacSuga-Gage & Simonsen, 2015). When implementing this practice, teachers direct students to answer questions and provide feedback on student responses. Teachers are encouraged to increase the number of opportunities for students to respond during each instructional activity, often by increasing the pacing of questions. Questions may be targeted to individuals, small groups, or large groups of students (see Figure 7). Teachers may ask for verbal, motor or written responses, sometimes requiring that students chorally respond, raise their hands, write responses on a whiteboard, or use response cards. When teachers increase OTR in classrooms, research shows an associated decrease in disruptive behavior and improved task engagement (Haydon, Mancil & Van Loan, 2009; Sutherland, Alder & Gunter, 2003).

Teacher Direction Verbal question or visual cue	Student Response Written, verbal, or motor response (choral or individual)	Teacher Response Specific, positive feedback, or prompt
Group OTR: Teacher says, "*when I say, 'number one', I want everyone to read the word next to number one out loud*". Teacher waits and gives the signal, "*Number one*"	Students chorally respond by reading the first word.	Teacher says, "*yes, that's right, you read the word, _____*".
Individual OTR: Teacher says, "*John, read the second word on the page*".	John reads the second word	Teachers says, "*excellent, that's the word ____*"
Group OTR: Teacher says, "*Class, what word did John just read*?"	Students chorally respond by repeating John's word	Teacher says, "*yes, number two says, _____!*"

FIGURE 7. Example of Providing Opportunities to Respond (OTR)

Source:

Sometimes individual strategies are needed to engage students with disabilities in the general education classroom. These students may have historically experienced academic failure and teachers should take special care to ensure that, despite these failures, students are actively connected to classroom instruction. Three ways to do this are to allow students to make choices, utilize students' background knowledge and interests, and target materials at students' instructional levels. The first strategy involves providing students with choices when possible. Some simple choices might include permitting students to choose what book to read, which group members to work with, or which worksheet to complete first (Stefanou, Perencevich, DiCintio & Turner, 2004). Teachers can also consider other ways to offer choices including allowing students with disabilities to decide how they should be evaluated or how they want to demonstrate their knowledge (Stefanou et al., 2004).

Another way to facilitate student engagement is to capitalize on students' prior knowledge and interests when providing instruction. Just as students' mastery of con-

tent varies, students' interests vary (Tomlinson et al., 2003). Instruction based on interests is linked to increased motivation and improved short- and long-term learning (Tomlinson et al., 2003). For students with disabilities with unique interests, such as a child with ASD that loves trains, teachers may need to find more creative ways to incorporate the student's interests throughout the school day. The student could read books about trains, write stories about trains, solve math problems involving train speeds, and learn how the steam engine of a train works in science class.

To foster continued engagement, teachers can provide students with materials targeted to their appropriate instructional level. Material that is too difficult results in students becoming frustrated and giving up easily (frustrational level) and material that is too easy results in students becoming bored (independent level), so it is important that an appropriate level of challenge is determined (Burns, VanderHeyden & Jiban, 2006). Providing students with appropriately challenging material, or materials at their instructional level, can improve time on-task (Treptow et al., 2007) and has been shown to improve outcomes in both reading and math (Burns, 2002).

SUMMARY & IMPLEMENTATION

With increasing numbers of students with disabilities placed in general education classrooms, school professionals need evidence-based strategies to help students succeed. The six STRIVE domains and associated strategies outlined in this paper can be used by teachers to improve social, behavioral and academic outcomes for students. Students often have deficits in multiple areas and teachers may find it difficult to address each area individually. However, addressing just one deficit using STRIVE can have a cascading effect and lead to positive changes in other domains. Students who improve academically may be less likely to act out in frustration, and when behavior problems are reduced, students may attend more readily to classroom instruction. In addition, students who develop social skills and are supported by peers may be less likely to display problem behaviors. Many of the STRIVE practices can be used classwide with all students or applied to individual students. For students who require the most intensive supports, teachers can seek out the guidance and expertise of school-based team members such as a school psychologist, behavior interventionist, special education teacher, or other support staff to develop an individual plan to meet the student's needs. Figure 8 provides a brief list of some resource websites that can be accessed by school-based teams planning to implement specific STRIVE practices. With these powerful, research-based strategies and the support of school-based teams, all students, including those with disabilities, can have improved outcomes in the general education classroom.

STRIVE Domain	Practice Resources
Social Supports	Effective social-emotional curricula: http://www.casel.org/guide/ Implement peer supports: https://www.gvsu.edu/autismcenter/peer-to-peer-support-for-students-with-asd-305.htm Social Skills instruction: http://www.behavioradvisor.com/SocialSkills.html or http://do2learn.com/organizationtools/SocialSkillsToolbox/index.htm

STRIVE Domain	Practice Resources
Teaching Practices	Provide explicit instruction: http://explicitinstruction.org/ Use mnemonics: http://www.ldonline.org/article/15577/ Accommodations/modifications: http://www.wrightslaw.com/info/fape.accoms.mods.pdf
Rewards & Motivation	Manage behavior: http://toughkid.com/tk-products.html Multi-tiered positive behavioral supports & interventions: https://www.pbis.org/ Reward & motivate students: http://www.interventioncentral.org/behavioral-intervention-modification Create a classroom-friendly reinforcer survey: www.jimwrightonline.com/php/jackpot/jackpot.php
Independence	Implement self-monitoring: http://www.interventioncentral.org/node/961544 Promote independent learning: http://www.guilford.com/books/Fostering-Independent-Learning/Harvey-Chickie-Wolfe/9781593854515 Supporting paraprofessionals: http://www.swiftschools.org/talk/helping-or-hovering-role-paraprofessional-top-eight-tips-inclusive-classroom
Visual Supports	Graphic organizers: https://www.teachervision.com/lesson-planning/graphic-organizer Visual support resources: https://www.autismspeaks.org/family-services/resource-library/visual-tools Sample visuals: https://www.iidc.indiana.edu/pages/visualsupports
Engagement	Increase opportunities to respond: http://www.pent.ca.gov/mt/opportunitiesrespondtool.pdf Engage students: https://www.marzanoresearch.com/resources/tips/hec_tips_archive

FIGURE 8. Resources for STRIVE strategies

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DĄŻENIE DO POPRAWY WYNIKÓW EDUKACYJNYCH: WSPIERANIE UCZNIÓW Z NIEPEŁNOSPRAWNOŚCIĄ W KLASIE SZKOLNEJ

Abstract: Coraz częściej uczniowie z różnymi rodzajami niepełnosprawności są włączani do ogólnego systemu edukacji, jednak wielu z nich ma problemy natury edukacyjnej, behawioralnej i społecznej, które zakłócają ich uczestnictwo w zajęciach i wyniki w nauce. Nauczyciele i specjaliści szkolni wspierający uczniów niepełnosprawnych potrzebują skutecznych i efektywnych strategii, które mogą poprawić oceny uczniów. W artykule opisano sześć różnych praktyk, popartych badaniami naukowymi, które mogą zostać wdrożone, aby pomóc uczniom. Praktykami tymi są: wsparcie społeczne, praktyki nauczania, nagrody i motywacja, niezależność, wsparcie wizualne i zaangażowanie. Zaprezentowano także przykłady, w jaki sposób praktyki te mogą być stosowane w całej klasie w celu wsparcia wszystkich uczniów, a także jak można je zaadaptować, aby pomóc konkretnym uczniom z niepełnosprawnością. Przyjazne dla profesjonalistów sposoby przeprowadzenia interwencji oraz zasoby do nich przydatne zostały załączone, aby ułatwić ich wdrożenie w środowisku szkolnym.

Słowa kluczowe: niepełnosprawność, edukacja ogólna, wsparcie edukacyjne, praktyki nauczania, wsparcie społeczne.