137 Best Practices in Can't Do/Won't Do Assessment

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OVERVIEW

Can't do/won't do assessment is a pragmatic procedure grounded in the functional academic assessment literature. It describes two possibilities with regard to child performance. The basic premise of the can't do/won't do assessment is that children who are not meeting expectations for successful academic performance in the classroom either cannot (i.e., have a skill deficit) or will not (i.e., have a performance deficit) do the academic work, or perhaps some combination of the two. The distinction is important because the type of intervention that is likely to effectively resolve the academic problem would be different for each cause. Children who cannot do the work that is expected in the classroom are children whose skills are deficient and would most benefit from a skill-building intervention. Children who are not motivated to perform the work would most benefit from an intervention that arranges contingencies to maximize the probability of adequate academic performance. When children are identified as not meeting expected benchmarks or as being at risk for academic failure at Tier 1, the can't do/won't do assessment may be conducted at Tier 2 to identify interventions that are likely to effectively remediate poor performance (see also Ikeda, Neeson, & Witt, chapter 5, vol. 2; Kovaleski & Pederson, chapter 6, vol. 2; Tilly, chapter 2, vol. 1). Can't do/won't do assessment is a tool that contemporary school psychologists will want to have in their arsenal given the shifting emphasis of school psychologists as systems change agents and instructional consultants. Use of targeted assessment to identify instructional strategies that will enhance academic performance of students school-wide in an efficient and sustainable manner is an expected competency and service for school psychologists now and in the future (see Ysseldyke et al., 2006).

BASIC CONSIDERATIONS

Because can't do/won't do assessment is a Tier 2 activity, Tier 1 activities should occur prior to its use. That is, use of the can't do/won't do assessment requires some method of identifying which children might benefit from the assessment. Following administration of a technically adequate universal screening procedure, a subset of children who are at risk for academic failure may be targeted for participation in the can't do/won't do assessment. The purpose of the can't do/won't do assessment is to guide hypotheses about the cause of poor academic performance and the development of effective interventions.

BEST PRACTICES

At any given moment, each person must face the question of what to do next. That decision is informed by both the person's skill and ability to perform and the person's motivation to act or to not act on particular options available. How individuals choose to proceed has been the subject of considerable thought and research by philosophers, theologians, and scientists (Honderich, 1988). The study of reasons why individuals fail to take certain actions when those actions are well known to them has a rich history.

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Background

Because the performance/skill deficit distinction is fundamentally part of our own behavior and our interpretations of the behavior of others, there is a tendency to make inferences. Teachers working in classrooms with students who fail to transition quickly from recess back to an instructional lesson may infer that poor transitioning is a performance deficit. In other words, a teacher may assume that because he or she has repeatedly asked students to transition more quickly or more "correctly" that students *know how* to complete this transition according to the teacher's expectations and *can do so fluently* if only the students are properly motivated. In fact, poor transitioning may very likely be a stimulus control problem requiring a more specific type of instruction. For example, students may not understand exactly what behaviors are expected of them during this transition, they may not have been provided adequate opportunities to practice this skill with feedback, or sufficient cues might not have been provided to signal that the transition is beginning and expectations are in place with consequences coming for incorrect performance. On the other hand, teachers may infer that a student who *does not do* a math assignment *cannot do* a math assignment. The common sense nature of the can't do/won't do distinction invites inference about whether a particular situation derives from a performance or skill deficit. Such inferences are frequently inaccurate because they are based solely on casual observation. For the concept to be useful as a foundation for developing interventions and reaching reliable decisions, the performance/skill deficit distinction had to move out of the realm of philosophy, common sense, and inference and into the realm of a scientifically based concept built on the scientific method.

Perhaps the major turning point in the history of this concept was Bandura's (1969) integration of performance and skill deficits into his social learning theory. The clear definitions provided by Bandura combined with a growing interest in the functional analysis of behavior brought the concept quickly into the realm of science. The functional analysis of behavior provided a methodology for systematic and reliable evaluation of individuals to improve the accuracy of inferences made about their behavior.

Within the fields of school psychology and special education, Gresham (1981) was the first to make the distinction of performance or skill deficit in the context of children's social skills. The work of Bandura and Gresham helped to show the legitimacy and usefulness of determining whether poor performance was caused by lack of motivation or inadequate skill from a clinical and scientific perspective.

The next step was empirical studies directed at determining whether procedures could be developed to reliably distinguish between skill and performance deficits and, if so, whether the distinction was meaningful in terms of intervention outcomes. In the next section, we will briefly review the research pertaining to distinguishing skill and performance deficits.

Noell et al. (1998) conducted a similar study with first- and second-grade children with deficient reading skills. In this study, researchers systematically introduced and evaluated the effects of treatments that were designed to differentially affect oral reading fluency scores for children with skill deficits as compared to performance deficits. The treatments consisted of contingent reward, which was expected to benefit students with performance deficits as well as instructional interventions, such as modeling and practice, which were expected to have more benefit for students with skill deficits. The findings indicated a pattern of differential responding to the various treatment conditions. At least one student benefited from contingent reward alone, another benefited most from instruction alone, and others benefited more from a combination of contingent reward combined with instructional and practice opportunities. Noell, Roane, VanDerHeyden, Whitmarsh, and Gatti (2000) examined this question with three preschoolers. In this study, children with speech delays were taught to say their name when asked (a skill that none of the children could perform at baseline). In this study, a baseline phase was followed by a reward phase, and if the reward phase was unsuccessful, a training phase was introduced. For one of the participants, contingent reward was sufficient to establish the skill, indicating that lack of performance was caused by a performance deficit. For the remaining three students, instruction was required to establish the skill, indicating that lack of performance was caused by a skill deficit. These studies were important because they established a method for systematically evaluating skill and performance deficits.

Literature Base

The can't do/won't do assessment is grounded in the functional academic assessment (Daly, Witt, Martens, & Dool, 1997; Lentz & Shapiro, 1986) and brief experimental analysis literatures (Daly, Martens,

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Hamler, Dool, & Eckert, 1999) and is essentially an application of behavior analysis in education. In a keystone article, Lentz and Shapiro (1986) proposed a model for understanding child learning in the context of instruction and the classroom environment. The philosophical and scientific roots of what would later come to be called functional academic assessment were specified in this article. Further, current best practice procedures with regard to direct measurement, progress monitoring, assessing what is expected to be learned, and linking assessment data to intervention were summarized. As tools for direct assessment and progress monitoring became more widely available and validated through research, scholars and practitioners logically sought ways to utilize the data for decision making and intervention development. The brief experimental analysis and functional academic assessment literatures provided models for how assessment data could be gathered to pinpoint the causes of poor academic performance.

In another key article, Daly et al. (1999) described an operationalized sequence of procedures that could be implemented to experimentally determine the cause of poor academic performance. Contingent reward was a condition included in their analysis to examine the possibility that lack of performance was caused by lack of motivation or a performance deficit.

More recent work building upon the early studies conducted by Noell and colleagues and Daly and colleagues to refine and validate procedures for distinguishing skill and performance deficits has been conducted by other groups of researchers. For example, Duhon et al. (2004) first assessed students using methods similar to Noell and colleagues. That is, the researchers first conducted very brief assessment consisting of two curriculum-based measurement (CBM) probes with students who exhibited reading deficits during universal screening. On the first probe, which was administered as part of universal screening, the student was asked to complete the probe following standard CBM administration conditions. For the second probe, the students were given rewards if their scores on the second probe were greater than for the first probe. Students who improved their scores by more than 20% on the second probe were considered performance deficits, and students who did not improve their scores on the second probe by the required amount were considered skill deficits. Hence, this study included a direct test of whether a student demonstrated a skill or a performance deficit. The study also addressed whether this test was valid. The test was followed up with an extended period of intervention during which students received two interventions. One intervention matched the results of the assessment and one was contraindicated. For example, if the assessment indicated a student demonstrated a skill deficit, then the instructional intervention would be indicated and the contingent reward intervention would be contraindicated. The results showed that the indicated treatment was most effective for all students. That is, the brief functional analysis procedures correctly identified the most effective intervention to use in all cases.

The functional analysis procedures for quickly assessing and then prescribing an appropriate intervention were examined in a fine-grained and elaborate study conducted by Jones and Wickstrom (2002). They included several different assessments/interventions for skill deficits as well as one for performance deficits. The results were consistent with other studies and indicated that "competing hypotheses regarding the instructional needs of students can be isolated and confirmed using a brief experimental analysis" (p. 564).

How to Conduct the Assessment With Sample Protocols and Graphs

The can't do/won't do assessment can be used as part of a multitiered screening process or it can be used on an individual basis to guide instructional programming. Hence, this assessment produces data that may be used as part of a larger response to an intervention decision-making model to identify children in need of additional services to improve learning. It also produces data of immediate formative benefit to teachers (i.e., informs instructional changes to improve learning). The process is time efficient and can be administered by a trained adult inside or outside of the classroom. Standardized administration procedures should be followed (see Appendix A). Can't do/won't do assessments for reading must be administered individually, whereas can't do/won't do assessments for mathematics or writing may be administered individually or in small groups. The basic format is the same regardless of the academic area being assessed, and the underlying logic could be applied to many other academic and other behavior targets.

Thus, although this chapter has focused largely on academic examples, can't do/won't do assessment could be used to assess the function of many behaviors, and there is a rich related empirical base for directly measuring the effect of altered contingencies on

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adaptive and maladaptive behaviors (e.g., the functional analysis/functional behavioral assessment literature).

To conduct the can't do/won't do assessment, school psychologists must have a set of materials for the child to respond to (e.g., generally CBM procedures are followed and external, content-controlled materials are utilized), a baseline level of performance for comparison, a treasure chest of materials and rewards from which the student can select a desirable reward for improving his or her score, scripted instructions for administering the assessment, and a simple graphing program (e.g., Excel) for generating graphs.

In a quiet space, the school psychologist should follow standardized procedures to review the child's baseline level of performance, tell the child that he or she will be able to select a reward for beating his or her last score, and readminister the baseline measure following the same procedures as were used when administering the baseline measure. So, for example, a child may have scored 10 digits correct per minute at fourth grade on a grade-level task (e.g., multidigit multiplication without regrouping).

If the teacher and educational school psychologist wish to directly examine the effect of incentives on performance, they could use the can't do/won't do assessment. In this case, the school psychologist may pull the child out of the classroom at a time that is convenient to the teacher. The school psychologist will sit with the child at a small table, briefly establish rapport, and pull out the treasure chest. The treasure chest is a plastic box filled with many small tangible items that are appealing to children of that age (e.g., hair jewelry, bouncy balls, pencils, art supplies, stickers, slinky, marbles, edibles) and coupons to earn special privileges (e.g., clean the dry erase board, be the line leader) or free time (e.g., computer time, game time, free choice). The school psychologist should encourage the child to sample the items in the treasure chest and ask the child if there is an item or activity that the child will be excited to earn. The idea is to identify something that is highly motivating to the child. If the child does not seem excited about any of the items in the treasure chest, the school psychologist should negotiate an alternative reward that the child does seem excited about (i.e., ask the child for suggestions). The age of the child influences the types of items that should be made available in the treasure chest. Older students often prefer items such as get out of homework free cards, edible items, or special in-school privileges such as go to the front of the lunch line passes. A quick, informal survey of students is the most effective way for school psychologists to identify the types of items that might be useful in a treasure chest.

When using can't do/won't do assessment with older children (i.e., secondary), individual administration is preferred to avoid any possible embarrassment or peer influence on performance during the assessment. Further, the school psychologist should thoughtfully arrange contingencies outside of the classroom so as not to draw unwanted attention to the older student (e.g., a young child earning special privileges may be celebrated by his or her peers, whereas older students may be belittled and this would reduce the instructional utility of the findings if not anticipated and planned for).

The cost of the can't do/won't do assessment depends upon the number of assessments conducted and the cost of rewards included in the treasure chest. In a school of 500 children, $50 to $100 is sufficient to cover the costs of items for the treasure chest for one academic year.

Once the child has selected an item or activity that he or she would like to earn, then the school psychologist can administer the task. Following the above example, the school psychologist should tell the student that the student will earn the reward for beating his or her last score of 10 digits correct per minute and administer an equivalent probe of multidigit multiplication without regrouping for 2 minutes following standard CBM instructions. The school psychologist would then score the probe and deliver the reward only if the student scored higher than 10 digits correct per minute on the probe. Importantly, the reward should not be given if the criterion is not met. Some school psychologists use consolation rewards (e.g., a sticker) for students who do not meet the reward criterion. Depending on the purpose for which the assessment is being used, school psychologists may repeat baseline conditions (briefly withdraw contingencies) and then reinstate the reward condition to more conclusively examine the effect of incentives on performance. Another variation involves administering multiple trials at each assessment point and recording the median score for decision making.

If multiple can't do/won't do assessments are needed (i.e., multiple academic targets or administering multiple trials to obtain a median score), the use of indiscriminable contingencies will be important. To use indiscriminable contingencies, the school psychologist simply tells the student, "I am going to ask you to complete three worksheets. The last time you did this worksheet, you scored 10 digits correct in one minute. Today, I'm going to give you three tries on the same worksheet. But, I am not sure which one will be scored. I am going to shuffle the papers and pick one to score when we are

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done. If *that* score is higher than 10 digits correct, then you will earn the reward. So be sure to do your best work on all the worksheets."

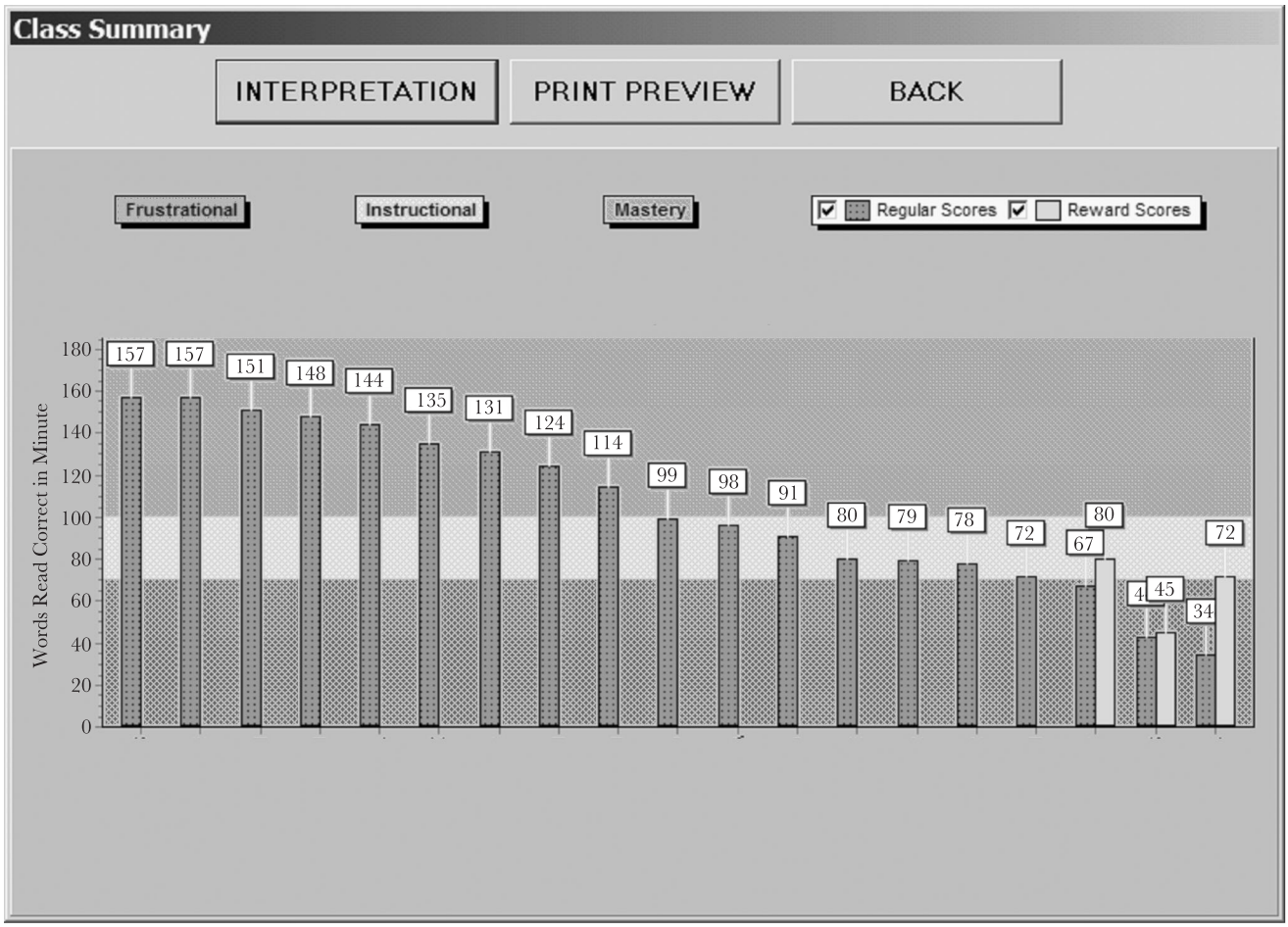
Another way is to say, "We are going to do a math task and a reading task today. These are the same tasks we did in class 2 weeks ago. But this time, if you beat your score, you will get a chance to earn a reward from the treasure chest. I am not sure which one will count. When we are done, we will shuffle the papers and pick one. If the score on *that* task is higher than your last score, then you can earn a reward so be sure to do your best on both tasks today."

If performance contingencies are used in an intervention program, additional considerations must be made for satiation, acceptability for use in the classroom, promoting behavioral maintenance (or treatment effects over time), and adjusting the contingency to promote sustained performance increases over time (e.g., beat the last *highest* score).

When the can't do/won't do assessment has been completed, the school psychologist should graph the child's performance and provide feedback to the teacher. Can't do/won't do assessments are invaluable to teachers who may have hesitated to require adequate task completion from some children because the teachers were not sure whether or not the child could perform the task. These data can readily be shared with parents during parent–teacher conferences. Importantly, the school psychologist should briefly interpret the data for the teacher and indicate how instruction could be altered based on the data obtained to improve student learning.

In Figure 1, the can't do/won't do assessment was used as a larger package of a response-to-intervention (RTI) model called STEEP (www.isteep.com). Here the entire class was screened using CBM for reading. After a class-wide performance problem was ruled out (i.e., class median score was in the instructional range), the bottom

Figure 1. Class-wide screening data.



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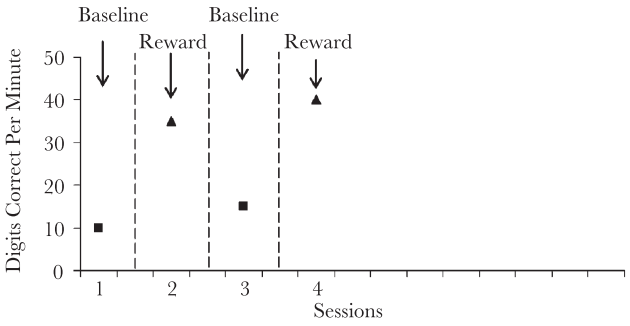
16% of children who were also in the frustrational range were selected for the can't do/won't do assessment. Each bar in this graph shows the words read correctly per minute on a grade-level passage for each child in this fourth-grade class. The lowest-performing 16% of children each have two bars on the graph. The first bar shows their performance during class-wide screening (67, 44, and 34 words correct per minute [wc/min]) and the second bar shows words correct per minute on the same passage during the can't do/won't do assessment (80, 45, and 72 wc/min). These data indicated that two of the three students improved their performance above the instructional criterion when offered an incentive to beat their scores. Based on these data, these children were not recommended for further skill-building intervention toward eligibility determination. Yet, teachers were provided with ideas to alter contingencies in the classroom to both require and support higher-quality performance on a consistent basis (i.e., require these children to do the work that they are capable of doing). One of the students did not meet the instructional criterion to earn an incentive. This student did beat her last score by one point and therefore earned a reward. But because the instructional criterion was not met, this child was recommended for further assessment and skill-building intervention. Within an RTI model of decision making, this child proceeded for individual intervention and demonstrated a successful RTI. When used as part of an RTI model where all children in a school are screened, about 15% of cases may meet criteria to participate in can't do/won't do assessment and about 10% of cases screened may meet criteria to receive individual intervention based on an inadequate response given incentives (VanDerHeyden, Witt, & Naquin, 2003; VanDerHeyden, Witt, & Gilbertson, in press).

More detailed analyses of the effect of incentives on performance are possible. Figures 2 and 3 show some variations of this assessment that are more informative but more time consuming. Increased confidence may be placed in these findings since reward conditions were withdrawn and reinstated, replicating the effect on academic performance. Figure 2 shows that the child's academic performance is improved with the use of incentives. These data could also be evaluated in light of some benchmark criterion used by the school to determine risk status. So, for example, if the criterion used to reflect risk status were 50 digits correct per minute, then decision makers may conclude that this child should receive individual skill-building intervention combined with incentives for improved performance. If, on the other hand, the benchmark criterion

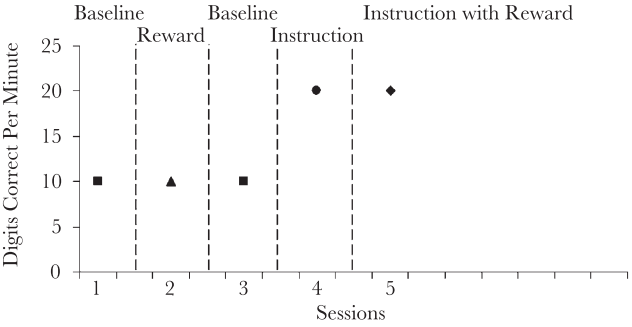
Figure 2. Functional assessment of reward contingencies on academic performance.



used by the school were 30 digits correct per minute, then decision makers may conclude that intervention is not needed and teachers may be provided with feedback about how to obtain higher quality performance in the everyday learning environment. In the example provided in Figure 3, this child's performance is similar during baseline and reward conditions (i.e., performance is unimproved with the use of contingent rewards). However, instruction produces an immediate improvement in performance. Adding contingent rewards to the instruction condition does not further improve performance. Hence, school psychologists should recommend a skill-building intervention and monitor growth to determine if the intervention successfully resolves the performance problem or if additional assessments and interventions might be needed.

Depending on the purpose of the assessment, school psychologists should select the briefest assessment that adequately serves their intended purpose. If the can't do/won't do assessment is used as part of a larger package of an RTI model, then the brief version may be utilized efficiently and effectively (VanDerHeyden et al., 2003; VanDerHeyden & Witt, 2005). If the school

Figure 3. Functional assessment of reward contingencies and instruction on academic performance.



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psychologist is working with an individual student to complete a detailed functional assessment of performance and develop an individualized intervention plan, the more time-consuming but more thorough analysis is recommended (Daly et al., 1999).

Increasing the Acceptability of the Can't Do/ Won't Do Assessment

A fundamental component affecting the meaning of the can't do/won't do assessment is the degree to which the treasure chest contains highly reinforcing items. It is generally useful to remind teachers that the can't do/ won't do assessment is an assessment and not a permanent treatment recommendation and that if insufficient types or numbers of items are included in the treasure chest then the assessment may fail to detect performance deficits that are negatively affecting a child's classroom performance. It is generally ideal to conduct this assessment outside of the classroom and to instruct children that when they return to their classrooms, that any earned rewards should be placed into their backpacks and should not be taken out until school is out. As a final note, it is often helpful, particularly if the can't do/won't do assessment is being used as part of a larger package of RTI decision making, to send a note home to parents indicating that children may come home with small tangible rewards.

Data on Effectiveness and Numbers of Cases That May Be Can't or Won't Do Cases

In one study where all first- and second-grade students at a school were screened for possible reading and mathematics problems as part of an RTI model, 15% of cases met criteria to receive the can't do/won't do assessment. As a percentage of total number of cases screened, 11% demonstrated skill deficits (or performances that did not improve above the risk criterion during the can't do/won't do assessment), and these cases proceeded to individual intervention (VanDerHeyden et al., 2003). In a district-wide examination of an RTI model, 9% of screened cases met criteria to participate in a can't do/won't do assessment. Following the assessment, 4% of the screened cases exhibited performances that did not improve above the risk criterion to earn a reward (VanDerHeyden et al., in press). Hence, the can't do/ won't do assessment ruled out 4–5% of the screened cases as being caused primarily by lack of motivation. As a percentage of the at-risk cases, the can't do/won't do assessment reduced the number of at-risk cases by 27–50% in these two studies.

SUMMARY

This chapter has described how can't do/won't do assessment may be efficiently and effectively used to rule out lack of motivation as a cause of inadequate academic performance in the classroom. Because the procedures are grounded in the functional analysis literature, the procedure may be applied to behaviors other than academic targets (e.g., disruptive behavior, use of manners). Also, this chapter has focused on examples with children enrolled in the primary grades, but the can't do/won't do assessment may be used with older students as well with appropriate changes to the rewards used (i.e., rewards must be of interest to the student and therefore should be age-appropriate). The assessment provides information of immediate formative/instructional benefit to the teacher and also to the school's decision-making team. The can't do/won't do assessment may be administered as part of a larger package of RTI within a school (as occurs with the STEEP model; VanDerHeyden et al., 2003) or may be utilized on an individual basis by the school psychologist when conducting detailed functional analyses of academic performance (Daly et al., 1999; Jones & Wickstrom, 2002).

The can't do/won't do assessment is grounded in the functional academic assessment or brief experimental analysis and behavior analysis literatures and has been empirically evaluated in several studies by several research teams.

Despite the many positive benefits of the can't do/ won't do assessment, several limitations are notable that would provide fertile ground for future research. Practical questions that could be pursued in future research include the number of trials needed to adequately detect performance deficits and the degree to which stimulus materials should be similar during baseline and can't do/won't do assessment conditions (i.e., equivalence of stimulus materials). It is important to recognize that scientifically it is impossible to definitively conclude that a child's performance is not sensitive to contingencies (i.e., the child does not have a performance deficit or won't do concern); rather, the school psychologist can only conclude that the child's performance did not improve to earn the rewards that were available (i.e., it is always possible that the school psychologist did not select rewards that were actually reinforcing to the student's behavior). Further, the capability of the assessment procedures to detect performance problems is also influenced by measurement considerations including task difficulty. Finally,

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additional research examining the use of can't do/won't do assessment (e.g., anticipated effects, potential decision-making criteria) with older children and focusing on nonacademic behavior targets would be of value to practitioners.

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A brief multielement design was used to evaluate the effects of various instructional conditions on the reading performance of four children. Instructional conditions included contingent reward, repeated readings, listening passage preview with repeated readings, listening passage preview with repeated readings for both the instructional-level text and the high-content overlap text, and listening passage preview with repeated readings and use of an easier passage. Words read correctly per minute was evaluated under baseline conditions (no intervention) and under each of the conditions described above. Consistently higher performance under one or more of the conditions above was interpreted as evidence that such an intervention would be effective to improve reading performance. Differentiated responding was observed for all participants in that performance was demonstrated to improve under one or more of the conditions relative to baseline.

Daly, E. J., III, Witt, J. C., Martens, B. K., & Dool, E. J. (1997). A model for conducting a functional analysis of academic performance problems. *School Psychology Review*, *26*, 554–574.

Describes a model for directly testing possible causes of poor academic performance. Suggests using functional analysis procedures to directly examine the following common causes of poor academic performance. (a) Students have not had enough practice to perform the skill correctly. (b) Students are not sufficiently motivated to perform the skill correctly. (c) Students have not had enough help to correctly perform the skill. (d) Students have never been asked to perform the skill in that way before, or the task is too hard. Understanding the cause of poor performance allows practitioners to develop interventions to successfully improve the learning problem. According to this model, each potential cause above is linked to a logical intervention strategy. For example, to examine the hypothesis that students have not had adequate practice to perform a skill, guided practice can be provided and performance evaluated to determine if practice improves performance. If so, then the hypothesis is supported and a successful intervention has been identified. This article extends functional analysis procedures to academic performance problems and provides the conceptual basis for assessments like the can't do/won't do assessment and the brief experimental analysis work.

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Noell, G. H., Gansle, K. A., Witt, J. C., Whitmarsh, E. L., Freeland, J. T., LaFleur, L. H., et al. (1998). Effects of contingent reward and instruction on oral reading performance at differing levels of passage difficulty. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, *31*, 659–663.

A multiple baseline across materials design was used to evaluate the effects of several instructional conditions on oral reading fluency for three children. Specifically, contingent reward, modeling, and guided practice were sequentially implemented across reading passages representing current grade-level difficulty and the two preceding grade levels (easier passages). In all three cases, the procedure successfully identified a particular instructional strategy that improved performance on grade-level passages relative to baseline. For one of the three participants, contingent reward successfully established correct responding, whereas some combination of modeling and guided practice were necessary to establish correct responding for the other two participants.

Witt, J. C., & Beck, R. *One minute functional assessment and interventions: Can't do it or won't do it.* Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

Describes how to be systematic in determining why a student has a problem and what to do about it. Applies to both can't do or skill problems as well as won't do or performance problems. Specific procedures are provided for those interested in assessing students to determine whether a student has a can't do or won't do problem. Several interventions are offered for won't do problems as well as various types of can't do problems.

APPENDIX. INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE CAN'T DO/WON'T DO ASSESSMENT

Materials needed: Probes with the student's name, the student's teacher's name, and the date printed at the top; treasure chest.

Math

1. Greet the student: "We're going to do some math today."
2. "The last time you did this math worksheet, you scored ___ digits correct."
3. "Today, I'm going to give you an opportunity to do this worksheet again. If you can beat your score, then you can pick anything you like from the treasure chest."
4. Show the student the treasure chest. Allow the student to briefly sample items in the treasure chest.
5. Ask the student: "Do you see anything in there that you would like to earn?" If the student does not seem excited about any of the items in the treasure chest, you may offer free time, outside time, visit with favorite teacher, or get the student to nominate something reasonable.
6. "This is a math worksheet. All of the problems are _____ [addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, etc.]. When I say 'start,' you may begin answering the problems. Start on the first problem on the left on the top row [point to the first question]. Work across and then go to the next row. Do you have any questions?"
7. "Start." Wait 2 minutes.
8. Monitor student performance to ensure that the student works the problems in rows and does not skip around or answer only the easy problems.
9. "Stop."
10. Count the number of digits correct. If the student increased his or her score by one digit, then allow the student to select something from the treasure chest. If the student did not increase his or her score by one digit, then do not allow the student to make a selection from the treasure chest.

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