COLLABORATIVE NARRATIVE INTERVENTION ALIGNED WITH RTI FOR AT-RISK KINDERGARTEN STUDENTS

by

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(Under the Direction of Jennifer A. Brown)

ABSTRACT

Teaching narrative structure is an appropriate and practical intervention for serving at-risk students and those with identified disabilities because of its relationship to language and literacy skills. This preliminary study explored a Tier II, collaboratively implemented, small class narrative instruction embedded in everyday classroom activities and Tier III, individualized narrative intervention that incorporated goal setting and self-monitoring training. Students' inclusion of story grammar components and language complexity increased in response to narrative instruction and intervention. Implications for research and clinical practice are discussed.

INDEX WORDS: Narrative, Language, At-risk, Children, Response to Intervention

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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

It is well documented that early language and emergent literacy skills are predictive of subsequent reading, social, and academic successes (Badian, 1982, 2000; Catts et al., 2001; Roth, Speece, & Cooper, 2002). Understanding of discourse genres may help explain this relationship. Discourse genres fall along a continuum from oral to literate language, and students are expected to become proficient communicators along this continuum (Westby, 2005). Oral language is the most informal and contextualized form of discourse because it is supported by shared topics and experiences, familiar vocabulary, gestures, facial expressions, and intonation. On the other end of the continuum, literate language is decontextualized, and uses complex syntax and the written word to express meaning. The process of becoming a literate communicator involves the acquisition of skills along the discourse continuum, including the production of oral narratives. Children begin school with varying levels of oral language competency and a wide range of exposure to literate language (Cabell, Justice, Konold, & McGinty, 2011). Environmental and family-specific factors – including emergent literacy experiences, culture, and socio-demographic variables – attribute to different levels of discourse competence in young students (Hoff, 2012).

Narratives are important in understanding the relationship between language and literacy because narratives involve complex language not commonly used in other forms of oral discourse. Narrative discourse bridges a gap between contextualized, oral and decontextualized, literate language (Westby, 2005). Poor narrative skills have also been demonstrated to be

predictive of poor language outcomes (Bishop & Edmundson, 1987). Proficiency in the comprehension and production of narratives is a step towards the development of reading and writing skills. Beyond its foundation in literacy, narrative discourse is an important component of language that is essential to the human experience. Stories allow us to build connections with the people around us, influencing social competence (Bliss & McCabe, 2012).

**Cultural Influences of Narratives**

Narrative style and structure often differ across cultures. Low-context narrative styles, used in mainstream American culture, emphasize the explicit verbal message; words convey meaning more so than nonverbal elements (Westby & Rouse, 1985). Most narratives follow the same basic structure by temporally organizing a single episode. This narrative structure is referred to as "story grammar" (Stein & Glenn, 1979) and is topic-centered. A story begins with the introduction of a *character(s)* in a designated *setting.* An *initiating event* gets the story going. The character then has some *internal response* that leads them to take *action(s).* Finally, the story comes together in a *concluding event.* Story grammar structures provide the storyteller with a natural organizational system that helps in the execution of a well-formed narrative. Without a knowledge and understanding of story grammar, students tell fractured stories with missing, unexplained, or poorly sequenced elements (Bower, 1976). Further, understanding story grammar structure supports the comprehension of oral and written narratives because it provides the listener with a sense of predictability about the narrative. The predictability of narratives is important for low-context cultures because the contextualized, nonverbal cues are absent. Because the American classroom is typically a source of low-context expectations, students from more high-context cultures may have difficulty transitioning and adjusting to the demands of a classroom (Westby & Rouse, 1985). In high-context cultures (e.g., African American culture) the

listener extracts meaning from the speaker's verbal message in addition to crucial nonverbal cues (e.g., gestures, facial expression, intonation). Observational skills are important in correctly interpreting meaning of the narrative. Early research suggested that African American students are more likely to tell narratives following a topic-associated structure, a series of loosely connected episodes with implied shifts in characters and temporal markers, during a class sharing activity (Michaels, 1981).

The predominant or preferred narrative structure and style may differ across cultural and ethnic groups (Fiestas & Pena, 2004, Gardner-Neblett, Pungello, & Iruka, 2012; Goldstein, 2000). Despite those differences, recent findings have demonstrated that African American, Latino American, and European American first and second grade students produce similar frequencies of different narrative structures (Gorman Fiestas, Pena, and Clark, 2011). Teachers and speech language pathologists (SLPs) need to be aware of cultural differences to understand the needs of each student to distinguish language differences from disorder while ensuring all students gain the skills needed to make academic progress. The Common Core State Standards for kindergarten students include standards addressing the retell of familiar stories with characters, setting, and major events (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010). This narrative standard builds in complexity as students progress in school. Therefore, teaching all students skills in narrative production using story grammar components is important. Children entering kindergarten may have varying levels of experience with the narrative structure required in school (Heath, 1982; Terry, Mills, Bingham, Mansour, & Marencin, 2013) highlighting the need for explicit narrative instruction to lead to better literacy and overall academic outcomes.

**At-Risk Populations**

In addition to cultural variations and literacy exposure, children from families with a low socioeconomic status (SES) have vulnerability to health, social-emotional, and academic challenges which may significantly impact school readiness and success (Bradley & Corwyn, 2002). In fact, at school entry an achievement gap is already present in students who are developmentally unprepared for the expectations of the classroom due multiple risk factors, including poverty, minority status, and parental education level (Zill & West, 2001). Low SES is a strong predictor of poor emergent literacy and oral language skills (Dickinson & McCabe, 2001). Environmental factors – such as verbal stimulation, access to play materials, and shared book-reading opportunities – may be lacking in low SES homes which contribute to this relationship. Without intervention, this achievement gap between impoverished students and their more advantageous peers continues to widen and impact later academic achievement (Ramey & Ramey, 2004). The multitude of risk factors has a differential effect on students' academic achievement. Many at-risk students will demonstrate resiliency and succeed academically (Becker, & Luthar, 2010; Obradović et al., 2009). However, more often, at-risk students fall behind. Therefore, it is important to identify these students early and provide extra support to decrease the achievement gap.

**Response to Intervention**

Response to intervention (RTI) is a model of identifying students who need additional support beyond general classroom instruction and for providing differentiated instruction according to the needs of each student. The RTI model has two essential components: tiered-interventions and progress monitoring. The tiered framework for interventions allows for systematic differentiated instruction; intensity and specialization of the intervention increases as

students move up to a higher tier (National Research Center on Learning Disabilities, 2003). Use of progress monitoring guides the process of identifying students according to their response to their current interventions. When an adequate amount of progress monitoring data are collected to make an informed decision, non-responders are moved to a higher tier in an effort to individualize instruction. Once students reach the set benchmark they may be moved back down to a lower tier. According to the 2004 IDEA revision, students can be made eligible for special education using progress monitoring data to demonstrate their decreased response to quality interventions through the tiers. This framework requires evidence-based interventions, and research aligning with the RTI framework is valuable in providing resources for service providers in the school.

Over the last decade the roles of school speech language pathologists (SLPs) have evolved in response to the implementation of RTI initiatives. School-based speech and language services have been traditionally delivered in a pull-out format outside the classroom. However, SLPs are now increasingly providing collaborative services within the classroom (Ehren, Montgomery, Rudebusch, & Whitmire, 2008; Justice, 2006). The RTI model emphasizes SLPs' critical role in the classroom to collaborate with general education teachers and other school professionals in the development and provision of RTI intervention approaches (Justice, 2006; Staskowski & Rivera, 2005). Tier I interventions represent evidence based instruction delivered to all students in the general education classroom. At this level SLPs are encouraged to plan professional development and group instruction focused on language and literacy (Staskowski & Rivera, 2005). Even if students in the classroom are not on the SLPs caseload, the SLP's specialized and unique knowledge in the areas of language and literacy can be beneficial to supporting general education instruction. SLPs have a more direct role in providing services for

the higher tiers. For example, SLPs may provide interventions to support literacy skills in these tiers. The intensity and specialization of the interventions increase as a child moves to the next tier. The progress monitoring data collected by the SLP and general education teacher throughout the student's progression through the tiers is used to determine eligibility of special education services.

Movement towards a collaborative model allows SLPs to uniquely contribute to the language and literacy services provided in each of the tiers. There is a clear relationship between oral language and reading skills (Catts, Fey, Zhang, & Tomblin, 2002; Harlaar, Hayiou-Thomas, Dale, Plomin, 2008. Children spend the majority of their school day in the classroom, making it a natural environment for intervention. Teaching skills within natural environments aids in the generalization of those skills. Additionally, providing services within the classroom gives access to specialized instruction to all students.

**Narrative Intervention**

Teaching narrative structure is an appropriate and practical intervention for serving at-risk students and those with identified disabilities because of its predictive relationship to literacy. Based on the Common Core State Standards, elementary school students are expected to retell stories, identify characters, settings, and main events in a story, and ask and answer questions about key details from a story (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010). Research suggests that explicitly teaching story grammar components and the causal relationships between the components may be an effective method improving narrative skills and achieving these standards (Brown, Garzarek, & Donegan, 2014; Gillam et al, 2014; Spencer & Slocum, 2010).

Effectiveness is often measured by the inclusion of story grammar components (macrostructure) and by language complexity that (microstructure) within a student's story. There are two primary methods of obtaining this information, story retelling and personal story generation. Retelling stories provides students with the opportunity to be an active participant in the reconstruction process, which reinforces the inclusion and appropriate sequencing of story grammar elements. Morrow (1985) found that guided and repeated practice in retelling improved students' comprehension of stories. Personal story generation is important because it is an immediately relevant skill for social interaction and safety. For example, students can tell their parents about their school day with increased clarity and detail.

A growing body of evidence supports the effectiveness of narrative interventions, specifically with individual and small groups. Spencer and Slocum (2010) found measurable improvements of story retells in preschool students with risk factors and poor narrative skills following a narrative intervention. The intervention focused on teaching story grammar in the context of story retell and story generation, utilizing visual support and guided instruction from the clinicians. These researchers delivered the intervention in groups (3-4 students) and included linguistically and culturally diverse participants. To encourage active participation when delivering services in a group setting, students played games related to identifying story grammar components in the group members' retells and narrative generations. While the students' story retells clearly improved, personal story generations were unclear because of the difficulty in eliciting stories. Story generation is also a more difficult task that is not developmentally expected for preschoolers to master. Despite the limited data points, the authors claim these participants made moderate gains in personal story generation.

Brown, Garzarek, and Donegan (2014) implemented a narrative intervention in small groups of students with socioeconomic risk factors. In a multiple-baseline study across participants, we examined the effects of a multicomponent narrative retell intervention on kindergarten students' macrostructure skills, measured by the inclusion of story grammar components in retells. Adding to the current narrative intervention literature, authors included a guided self-monitoring component within the intervention package. During instruction, the students took turns retelling a story that was recorded using an iPad application. Then, as the clinician played the recording of the student's retell, the students were instructed to listen for and identify the story grammar components. The explicit instructional methods resulted in students showing measureable gains in inclusion of SGCs in the production of narrative retells. These gains were maintained following two-weeks without intervention.

The evidence for large group and full classroom interventions is limited. Few researchers have explored the effects of interventions conducted by SLPs in the general education classroom. Gillam and colleagues (2014) recently published an SLP led, classroom-based narrative discourse intervention in two first grade classrooms. The researchers compared the effects of narrative intervention with embedded vocabulary instruction (experimental classroom) to "business-as-usual" reading and listening comprehension instruction (comparison classroom) on student's storytelling and vocabulary. Prior to the intervention, students were characterized by low- and high-risk status based on macro-and micro-structure narrative skills. The experimental and control classrooms comprised a combination of high- and low-risk students. Narrative instruction was integrated into the classroom schedule and included three phases: (1) Teaching of story grammar elements, (2) Elaboration of story, (3) Independent storytelling. Within each phase the SLP used story modeling, story retelling, story generation, and comprehension

instruction to aid students' understanding of narration. Post-intervention assessments revealed a significant improvement in the narrative and vocabulary skills in the experimental classroom, suggesting the effectiveness of classroom-based narrative instruction. Further, the achievement gap between high-and low-achieving students diminished in the experimental classroom following the intervention but remained in the comparison classroom.

**Self-Regulated Strategy Development**

The use of self-regulated strategies fosters more effective learning, increases motivation (Schunk, 1996; Mason, 2013), and supports generalization of skills (Sawyer, Graham, & Harris, 1992). Self-regulation and social competence in kindergarten are predictive of later reading and math skills through sixth grade (McClelland, Acock, & Morrison, 2006). For this reason, McClelland and colleagues (2006) emphasized the importance of incorporating explicit teaching of these skills in interventions. Schunk (1996) found that self-evaluation and goal setting together contributed to higher self-efficacy, motivation, task-orientation, and performance than goal setting alone. Self-regulated learning is dependent on motivation. Goal setting is a specific component of self-regulated strategy that engages students and encourages motivation. Related to goal setting, self-monitoring, the observation and recording of one's own behavior, is another self-regulated learning practice that has had promising effects on various skill development (Goddard & Sendi, 2008; Fuchs, et al., 2003; Schunk, 1982). Incorporating self-monitoring and goal setting into narrative interventions may help support the development of narrative skills.

**Purpose**

In the present study, a class of kindergarten students received a three-week narrative instruction. Using a Tier II RTI model, the instruction was co-taught by the general education teacher and an SLP graduate student. To conform to the standard flow of the classroom, the

narrative instruction took on the framework of a typical classroom-teaching unit. Per the RTI model, students who do not make expected gains should move to a higher tier and receive more intense and specialized instruction. Based on student response to the full-class narrative instruction, a Tier III level of intervention was provided to three students. These students received individual intervention tailored to address their specific needs. Self-monitoring and goal setting were incorporated in the individual sessions to foster engagement and motivation. The students' narratives were analyzed for macrostructure and microstructure elements.

# CHAPTER 2

# METHOD

## Participants

Students (n=11) enrolled in a kindergarten classroom at a non-profit private school serving inner-city children in the Southeastern United States participated in this study. Students presented with one or multiple risk factors including minority status, low-income families, single parent households, grandparent-led households, families living in Housing and Urban Development neighborhoods or in Section 8 subsidized homes. All students were African American and eight were boys. One student had an IEP with an identified expressive-receptive language disorder; the remaining students did not have an identified speech or language disorder. All students passed a hearing screening. All students spoke with a strong language variation consistent with African American English (AAE) as measured by the *Diagnostic Evaluation of Language Variation-Screening Test* (DELV-ST; Seymour, Roeper, deVilliers, & deVilliers, 2003) and clinical judgment. Students' language disorder risk status, as measured by the DELV-ST, ranged from low-to-high risk (27% lowest; 9% low-med; 18% med-high; 36% highest). The *Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test* (PPVT; Dunn & Dunn, 2007) receptive vocabulary class mean was 94.81 (SD = 10.52; range = 79-108). The *Test of Narrative Language* (Gillam & Pearson, 2004) Narrative Language Ability Index class mean was 76 (SD = 10.12, range = 61-97), demonstrating below average narrative skills in narrative comprehension and oral narration prior to instruction. All students in the class participated in Phase I activities and based on Phase I performance, three students were selected to participate in Phase II.

**Interventionists**

A Communication Sciences and Disorders graduate student (author) with specific language and literacy training, including providing story grammar intervention, the kindergarten classroom teacher, and a certified SLP with a PhD and 11 years of experience providing culturally responsive and educationally relevant interventions were the narrative interventionists and data collectors for this study. The classroom teacher and author implemented the full-class narrative instruction together two times a week using a co-teaching collaborative model. The classroom teacher continued narrative instruction independently on two other days each week to increase the intensity and to align with collaborative practices that can be implemented in typical settings. For Phase II of the study, the author also served as the interventionist for independent narrative intervention sessions. The SLP supervised the graduate student throughout the instruction and intervention phases. Prior to beginning the instruction, the graduate student spent time in the classroom to build rapport with the students.

**Experimental Design**

This preliminary study consisted of two phases. In Phase I, we used a pretest-posttest design. Kindergarten students received full-class narrative instruction for 4-5 days a week for three consecutive weeks. Students' narrative retells were assessed pre-and post-instruction. Because all students were identified as being at-risk for poor academic achievement and the class size was small, Phase I modeled a Tier II intervention within the RTI framework.

Phase II represented a Tier III intervention within the RTI framework. Based on student response to the full-class instruction and student availability (e.g., regular attendance), three students with unique language and engagement profiles were selected to receive individual narrative intervention sessions with an added self-monitoring and goal setting component. At the

completion of Phase II, the classroom teacher was encouraged to continue to incorporate SGC instruction in class activities as she deemed appropriate.

In Phase II, we used a single-case repeated acquisition design across six SGCs and replicated across three participants to evaluate acquisition of SGCs in student narrative retells in response to explicit teaching during intervention. Repeated acquisition designs allow for short baselines so students are not delayed in receiving interventions that show promise of beneficial outcomes. Repeated acquisition designs are appropriate for measuring the acquisition of academic skills when there are equivalent learning tasks and skills can be studied repeatedly (Kennedy, 2005).

**Descriptive Measures and Materials**

**Diagnostic Evaluation of Language Variation-Screener (DELV-ST).** The DELV-ST (Seymour et al., 2003) is a standardized measure that assesses for and classifies linguistic variation that deviates from mainstream English, distinguishing normal dialectal variation from differences due to language delay or disorder. The DELV-ST was administered prior to the instruction phase to inform cultural differences when interpreting narrative structure differences and as a culturally responsive way to identify students at-risk for a language disorder.

**Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test- Fourth Edition (PPVT-4).** The PPVT-4 (Dunn & Dunn, 2007) is a standardized measure of receptive vocabulary skills. Students were administered the PPVT-4 prior to instruction to serve as a descriptive measure.

**Hearing Screening.** A pure-tone audiometry hearing screening was conducted before inclusion in the study. All students were required to pass the hearing screening or have appropriate amplification to be included as research participants.

**Test of Narrative Language (TNL).** The TNL (Gillam & Pearson, 2004) is a standardized measure of narrative discourse skills, including story comprehension, retell, generation, and sequencing. Administration of the TNL occurred pre-instruction for all students to serve as a comprehensive measure of students' narrative discourse skills.

**Dependent Measure**

The dependent variables of interest were the macrostructure and microstructure within students' narrative retells. Macrostructure was measured by the inclusion of the six-SGCs explicitly taught during the narrative instruction: character, initiating event (take-off), internal response/emotion (feelings), action, and consequence (landing). Microstructure elements included language complexity measures of narrative retell length (i.e., number of total words, number of different words) and diversity of conjunction use. Narrative probes from the *Test of Narrative Retell (TNR): School-Age Kindergarten Stories* (Peterson & Spencer, 2012) were administered to provide a standardized, criterion-referenced measure of narrative retell performance. The TNR probes consist of short stories without pictures that have similar narrative structures. Standard administration of the TNR begins with the examiner instructing the child, "I'm going to tell you a story. Please listen carefully. When I'm done you are going to tell me the same story. Are you ready?" The examiner reads the child the narrative, and then says, "Thanks for listening. Now you tell me that story." If the child does not say anything, asks questions, or requests help, the examiner may prompt with "It's OK. Just do your best;" "I can't help but you can just tell the parts that you remember." Each narrative retell was recorded and transcribed to facilitate accurate scoring. Narrative macrostructure scoring followed the framework of the TNR. For each SGC, students received two, one, or zero points: two points for complete and accurate inclusion of the SGC; one point for key words or phrases, but incomplete inclusion of the SGC;

zero points for no mention of the SGC. Six SGCs were targeted during instruction, yielding a total of twelve possible points. Based on TNR scoring guidelines, the median score of a minimum of three TNR probes was used in data analysis.

In Phase I, three TNR Benchmark probes were administered at three time points: 1) pre-narrative instruction, 2) post-narrative instruction, and 3) follow-up, two months following the end of explicitly designed narrative instruction to assess maintenance of gains. In Phase II, the primary measurement points specific to the individualized intervention are before and after individualized intervention for each SGC; additionally, the pre-instruction and follow-up administrations provide context for response to individualized intervention.

**Procedure**

**Phase I-Full Class Instruction.** The kindergarten class received 30 minutes of narrative instruction during their reading block for 4-5 days a week for three weeks. The narrative instruction approach was adapted from the Supporting Knowledge in Language and Literacy program (SKILL; Gillam, Gillam, & Laing, 2012). The instruction concentrated on systematic explicit teaching of SGCs (see Table 1) and modeling the use of connecting and transitional vocabulary (e.g., because, so, but). SGCs were taught sequentially, with an introduction to narrative structure on day one and a single component targeted each day thereafter. Following the introduction of each SGC, it was reviewed and practiced in subsequent sessions. On the first day of instruction, the instructors (i.e., classroom teacher and graduate student interventionist) addressed the concept that stories follow similar structures and are comprised of various parts. The instructors displayed each of the story grammar icons on the classroom smart board and explained that the icons represent the different parts in a story. This introduction primed the students for the narrative instruction. The narrative instruction followed a similar structure as

Brown, Garzarek, and Donegan (2014) and can be divided into phases: before the story, during the story, and after the story.

***Before the story.*** The instructors opened the session by verbally defining the targeted SGC, modeling a representative gesture, and displaying the corresponding icon on the smart board. Students were asked to repeat the definition and gesture along with the instructors. The instructors provided examples of the component and asked the students to come up with their own examples. To further aid the students' comprehension of the SGC, the instructors visually modeled the use of the component in a brief puppet show. One of the instructors identified the targeted component in the puppet show to provide a model of the students' job during the story. Following the introduction of each SGC, students were asked to identify the component in the puppet show on subsequent days. After all six SGCs were introduced, instructors began sessions by reviewing each component (e.g., asking students to name, define, identify, and show the gesture for each SCG).

***During the story.*** Students were reminded of the targeted SGC definition and instructed to listen for the SGCs during a storybook reading. One of the instructors read a story with pictures, asking questions throughout to help the students identify the components. The instructor repeated the correctly identified SGC to reinforce it to the entire class.

***After the story.*** After the story, the instructors showed the story grammar icon and gesture and asked the students to identify the component(s) within the storybook. A minimal to maximal prompt system was used to elicit targeted responses. Students were then given pictures of different scenes in the story and instructed to organize them independently. Students used the pictures to practice retelling the story individually, in small groups and/or as a class. These retells encouraged the inclusion and appropriate organization of each SGC. The instructors

provided feedback to the students by expanding their stories while emphasizing the targeted SGCs and modeling appropriate transition vocabulary. The instructors concluded the lesson by redefining each known SGC and modeling an appropriate retell.

**Phase II-Individual Intervention.** The instructors reviewed the whole class instruction data to identify students who would benefit from individualized intervention. Students were selected based on the following criteria: a) limited or inconsistent gains in SGCs; b) difficulty monitoring or assessing performance (e.g., evaluating story performance as equally strong whether one or five SGC was included); and c) regular school attendance.

***Ava***: Ava included zero SGCs prior to full-class narrative instruction and received a Narrative Language Ability Index of 70 on the TNL, demonstrating below average narrative discourse. She demonstrated a slight increase in including the character in instruction retells after Phase I; however, she did not include any other SGCs. Her retells typically consisted of a single sentence with several restarts before saying, "I don't know." She exhibited some challenging behaviors (e.g., changing seats, off-topic conversation, inattention, turning away from activities) during Phase I that limited her engagement with instructional activities.

***Alisha***: Alisha received a Narrative Language Ability Index of 76 on the TNL, demonstrating below average narrative discourse. Alisha made gains on her TNR performance from pre- to post- class instruction, but the gains were variable across trials (range of 6-10). Alisha evaluated her own performance as strong regardless of how she performed and it appeared that her higher scores were from TNR stories with personal relevance. During Phase I instruction, she demonstrated variable attention to task and often gleaned information by observing other students' work during individual activities rather than independently completing tasks.

***Omar***: Omar presented with a moderate expressive-receptive language disorder. His TNL Narrative Language Ability Index of 61 demonstrated poor story comprehension, retell, generation, and organization ability. Prior to the narrative instruction (Phase I), Omar's narrative retells on the TNR consisted of a single utterance with mention of one-to-two incomplete SGCs. Following, Phase I narrative instruction, Omar's inclusion of SGCs increased but was inconsistent (range of 0-9). Based on his prior low level of language functioning and his variable response post-narrative instruction, Omar was selected as a participant for Phase II.

***Sessions.*** Four one-on-one, 30-45 minute intervention sessions were conducted with each of the three students following Phase I. The sessions were individualized to match each student's narrative skills. Similar to the full-class instruction, the intervention continued to focus on teaching SGCs (see Table 1) and modeling the use of connecting and transitional vocabulary (e.g., because, so, but). Students practiced identifying the SGCs and retelling stories with the inclusion of these components. In addition, goal setting and self-monitoring training were incorporated to encourage independence and facilitate the application of these skills. The key elements of this intervention are described below.

***Progress Monitoring.*** Each session began with a TNR progress-monitoring probe (recorded on the iPad), which informed the focus of instruction for that session. Following the standard administration of the TNR, the interventionist reviewed the SGCs by presenting the definition, icons, gestures, and assisting the student in identifying these pieces in the TNR probe. This review primed the students for the self-monitoring exercise. We administered a second TNR probe at the end of each intervention session to record student response immediately following intervention.

***Self-monitoring/Goal Setting.*** Students were instructed to listen for the SGCs in their own story (the TNR probe), as it was played back on the iPad. Each time the student identified a SGC in the replay it was marked on the corresponding space of the self-monitoring checklist (Appendix C). First, the student had an opportunity to independently identify the component and the interventionist guided this process if the student missed or incorrectly labeled a SGC. Specific guidance included the following prompts: pausing the recording and instructing the student to listen again, pointing to the corresponding icon, providing the definition of the SGC, and problem solving by asking questions (e.g., "Who was in the story?" "Did you say that in your story?"). This process was to teach self-monitoring skills by listening for the inclusion of SGCs in story retells. Once the self-monitoring checklist was filled out, the student graphed the number of SGCs that were included in their own retell (Appendix D). The data gathered from the self-monitoring checklist was used to create goals for future retells (e.g., "This time you included 3 SGCs. Next time let's see if you can include 4") and guide the focus of the remainder of the session.

***Story time.*** The interventionist and student reviewed the SGCs that were left out of the TNR retell. The student was instructed to listen for these components in a picture book. Then, the interventionist read a picture book and guided the student in identifying the SGCs. The student retold the story with expansion and feedback from the interventionist to encourage the inclusion of all components.

**Fidelity and Reliability**

A trained observer measured fidelity of intervention procedures by completing a checklist consisting of key procedural components in 31% of Phase I instructional sessions and 33% of Phase II intervention sessions (see Appendix A and B). Phase I fidelity ranged from 81-100%

with a mean of 91%; Phase II fidelity was 100%. A second rater independently scored 30% of the TNR and audio-recorded narratives to measure reliability of SGC scoring. Percent agreement ranged from 84-100% with a mean of 95%.

Table 1 Story Grammar Components

| Component | Definition/Description |
|---|---|
| Character | The "who" of the story; the main actor(s). A character can be a person or animal |
| Setting | Where and when the story takes place. A setting may include a place, city, or time of day. |
| Take-Off (initiating event) | What gets the story going. The take-off can be a problem, a surprise, or something that someone wishes for. |
| Feelings (Internal Response/Emotion) | How the character feels about the take-off. It could be mad, sad, happy, excited, embarrassed, or another emotion. |
| Action | What the character does about the take-off. |
| Landing (Consequence) | What happens at the end; the result of the action. |

# CHAPTER 3

# RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to explore feasibility of a narrative intervention delivered within an RTI framework and to examine preliminary relationships between the intervention and students' narrative retell skills. Phase I of this study modeled a Tier II service for which all students in the small class were participants. Phase II modeled a Tier III intervention for which three students with low responses to Tier II instruction were participants.

## Phase I Results

The aggregate data for students' inclusion of SGCs in story retells from the TNR probes are presented as a class average for each time point: pre-instruction (M=3.45), post-instruction (M=6.64), and follow-up (M=7.8) in Figure 1. The graph shows a steady increase in students' inclusion of SGCs at each time point. Specifically, students demonstrated an increase of 3.19 points from pre-to-post-instruction and 1.16 from post-instruction to follow-up. This increase represents story retells with the inclusion of two-to-four additional SGCs at follow-up.

**Macrostructure.** Table 2 displays the scoring criteria used for students' inclusion of SGCs in the TNR probe retells. Students earned 2 points for each complete and accurate SGC and 1 point for partial or incomplete SGCs. Normative data has not yet been established for the TNR. However, the developers provide an estimated age-appropriate criterion for the inclusion of SGCs. They suggest that by five years old, a child should include the character, take-off, action, and consequence/ending when retelling a TNR probe. Settings and emotions are

emerging and may be present, but these components are often incomplete. Based on this age-based criterion a total score of 10 is the goal for five years old.

The breakdown of the inclusion of SGCs is presented in Figure 2 as a class average and in Table 3 as a frequency count for each time point.

***Character.*** According to the TNR age-based criterion for five year olds, students should identify the character by name in retells. The class average score for inclusion of character increased from 1 pre-instruction to 1.82 post-instruction, which was maintained at 1.8 at follow-up. Prior to the narrative instruction, 45.5% of students included the character's name in TNR retells, 9% identified the character as a general referent (e.g., "the boy"), and 45.5% retold the story using pronouns without a referent. At the post narrative instruction time point, 91% of students included the character's name in the story, and 82% of students maintained this gain at follow-up.

***Setting***. The class average for setting increased at each time point, from .45 pre-instruction to .82 post-instruction and 1 at follow-up. According to the TNR age-based criterion, setting is emerging at five years old, and a score of one is appropriate. At the pre-instruction time point 9% of students included a complete setting with both location and activity identified, 27% included a partial setting with either location or activity identified, and 63% excluded setting entirely from their story retell. Following narrative instruction, 72% of students met or exceeded the TNR age-based criterion, with 60% of students maintaining this gain at follow-up.

***Take-Off***. The class average for take-off increased from .73 pre-instruction to 1.55 post-instruction. These gains were maintained at follow-up with a class average of 1.6. The TNR age-based criterion suggests that inclusion of the take-off in retells be complete and clear by five years old. At the pre-instruction time point 27% of students fully included the take-off, 18%

included an incomplete or unclear take-off, and 54% excluded the take-off in their retells. The majority of students post-instruction (72%) and at follow-up (80%) met the age-based criterion.

***Feelings.*** The TNR age-based criterion suggests that emotion words are emerging, and a score of one is appropriate. Gains were not demonstrated for the inclusion of feelings. We specifically measured the emotion associated with the take-off of the story (e.g., "Jordan was *mad* because he lost his favorite ball") because this was the SGC that was taught. Students occasionally included ending emotions, but these were not scored. The class average for feelings was .18 pre-instruction, slightly increased to .36 post-instruction, and decreased to .2 at follow-up. Only one student included the feeling pre-instruction, two students included it post-instruction, and one student included it at follow-up.

***Action.*** The class average for action decreased from .91 pre-instruction to .73 post-instruction, then increased to 1.9 at follow-up. The TNR suggests that action should be fully included in story retells at five years old. To receive a score of two, the child should include the specific attempt to solve the problem using dialogue or description of scenario. At pre-instruction, 36% of students included the complete action, which dropped to 27% (decreased by one student) post-instruction, and increased to 90% at follow-up. Partial inclusion of action (score of 1) was minimal. The raw data indicates that the majority of students fully included action in at least one of their three TNR probes post-instruction, but this skill was inconsistent across trials. Students were consistent in including action in TNR retells at follow-up.

***Landing.*** The class averages for landing at each time point are as follows: .55 pre-instruction, 1.36 post-instruction, and 2 follow-up. By five years old, the TNR age-based criterion for landing is the clear and complete inclusion of either the consequence (direct result of the action) *or* ending (events that occur after the problem is fixed) of the story. Consequence

and Ending are two distinct components on the TNR, but we taught them together as "landing" because this matched the age-based criterion. The progression of the class average demonstrates a steady increase culminating with all students meeting the TNR age-based criterion for landing. The frequency of students meeting this criterion increased from 9% at pre-instruction, 63% at post-instruction, and 100% at follow-up.

**Microstructure.** Language complexity of narrative retells was assessed using microstructure analyses for length (total number words [TNW]), lexical diversity (total number of different words [NDW]), and diversity of conjunction use at each time point (see Figures 2 and 3). In addition to the descriptive statistic comparison of means, paired sample *t* tests were used to evaluate the within-group differences in TNW and NDW from pre-instruction to post-instruction. Cohen's *d* was calculated as an effect size index (*d* values of .2, .5., and .8 represent small, medium, and large effect sizes, respectively).

Narrative retells increased in length from pre-instruction (M=22.39, SD=16.94) to post-instruction (M=33.91, SD=13.80), as measured by mean total number of words included in narrative, $t(10) = 2.931$, $p = .02$, $d = 0.91$. Lexical diversity increased from pre-instruction (M=15.15, SD=10.21) to post-instruction (M=22.88, SD=7.93), as measured by mean number of different words produced, $t(10) = 3.187$, $p = .01$, $d = 0.72$. Diversity of conjunction use provides a measure of complexity and cohesion. Figure 3 displays students' use of each conjunction as a class percentage. Pre-instruction student narrative retells primarily consisted of *and* (59%) and *then* (34%). Often these two conjunctions occurred together ("and then") and were used as a filler phrase. Students decreased use of *and* (49%) and slightly increased use of *then* (39%) post-instruction. At follow-up inclusion of *and* was maintained at 51%, and *then* decreased to 29%.

Higher level coordinating (e.g., but, so) and subordinating (e.g., because, when) comprised of 7% of all conjunctions pre-instruction, which steadily increased to 12% post-instruction and 20% at follow-up.

**Phase II Results**

Results for Ava, Alisha, and Omar's SGC production in retells are visually depicted in Figures 4-6. Each data point represents the median score at that time point. For contextual reference, each child's Phase I pre-instruction and follow-up data are also included in the figures. The solid line indicates the change in SGC per child as a result of the individualized Phase II intervention. Overall, the students increased their use of SGCs; however, there is substantial variation across the three students.

***Ava.*** Ava demonstrated the most consistent skill increases of the three students in Phase II. She increased her production of character, take-off, feelings, action, and landing from 0 to 2. She progressed from not including those components before the individualized intervention to complete production subsequent to intervention. She did not increase her production of setting. Ava quickly learned the process of self-monitoring and appeared motivated by setting goals and monitoring her own performance.

***Alisha.*** Alisha maintained her accurate use of character, take-off, action, and landing from pre-intervention to post-intervention. She increased her inclusion of setting and maintained the exclusion of feelings in her retells. Alisha was included in Phase II because of her inconsistent performance and limited self-awareness of performance. She quickly learned the self-monitoring strategies, appeared to motivated by her progress, and demonstrated increased confidence in retelling stories (e.g., began immediately when asked instead of needing several

prompts to start). She accurately evaluated her own performance at the conclusion of the intervention.

***Omar.*** Omar initially presented with an absence of all SGCs except an incomplete version of the landing. It appeared that his landing score was represented by his repetition of the last thing he heard. On the first day of intervention, it appeared that Omar had difficulty understanding the task and wh-questions were not helpful because of his limited understanding of such questions. Instead of presenting Omar with all of the SGCs, his intervention was simplified to focus on one component at a time. Additionally, the SGC visual were used extensively throughout the intervention. Omar increased his use of character and take-off to an incomplete level (e.g., said "boy" instead of the character's name) and increased his inclusion of action to a complete level. He maintained the same level of landing production. Omar did not include feelings or setting in his retells.

***Social Validity.*** The strongest indicator that this approach was feasible and acceptable was not only the classroom teacher's participation in the collaborative instruction as part of the research study, but her continued instruction on SGCs after the study ended. Classroom observations after the study's conclusion illustrated her use of the SGC words, definitions, and prompts in read alouds as well as when students were generating personal narratives. Based on the overall lower performance of feelings included in retells and her classroom observations, she increased her instruction on emotions. Additionally, five undergraduate Communication Sciences and Disorders students who were blind to this study listened to pairs of narratives from the students at different study time points, presented in random order. They indicated which one sounded more complete and coherent with 100% correspondence to the time point.

Table 2 Narrative Retell Scoring Criteria

| | 2 | 1 | 0 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Character | Main character's name | Generic character description (boy, sister) NOT pronouns | Only pronouns |
| Setting | Setting activity AND location | Location OR setting activity | No information about setting |
| Take-Off | Complete and clear problem | Incomplete or unclear problem | No problem |
| Feelings | Specific emotion related to take-off | General emotion or behavior related to take-off | No emotions or emotion behavior |
| Action | Specific attempt by main character to fix the problem using dialogue or brief description of what was wanted | General attempt to fix the problem without dialogue or a description of what was wanted | No attempt to fix the problem |
| Landing | Complete and clear description of the direct result of the action OR of events that occur after the problem is fixed | Incomplete or unclear description of the direct result of the action OR of events that occur after the problem is fixed | No ending |

Table 3 Frequency of Story Grammar Component Inclusion

| SGC | **0 (Not Present)** | | | **1 (Emerging)** | | | **2 (Complete)** | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Pre *(n=11)* | Post *(n=11)* | MA *(n=10)* | Pre *(n=11)* | Post *(n=11)* | MA *(n=10)* | Pre *(n=11)* | Post *(n=11)* | MA *(n=10)* |
| Character | 5 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 10 | 9 |
| Setting | 7 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 7 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 4 |
| Take-Off | 6 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 8 | 8 |
| Emotion | 10 | 9 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 1 |
| Action | 5 | 6 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 9 |
| Landing | 6 | 3 | 0 | 4 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 7 | 10 |

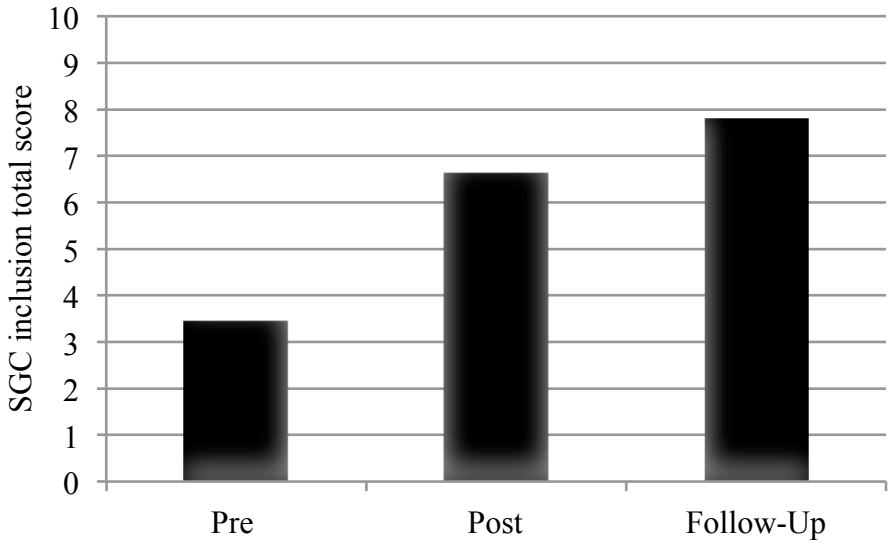


Figure 1 Class Mean for Total Story Grammar Components

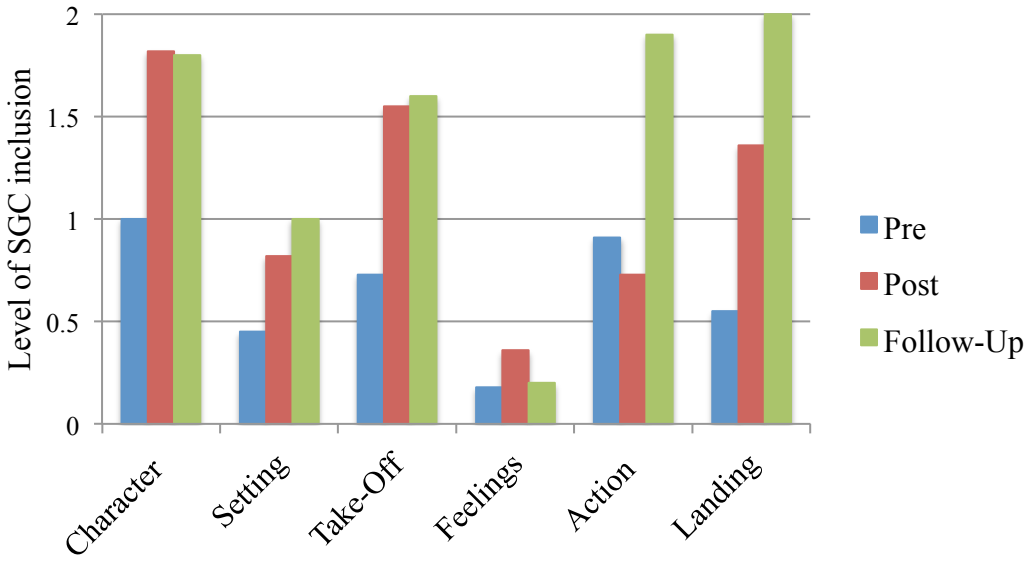


Figure 2 Class Mean for each Story Grammar Component

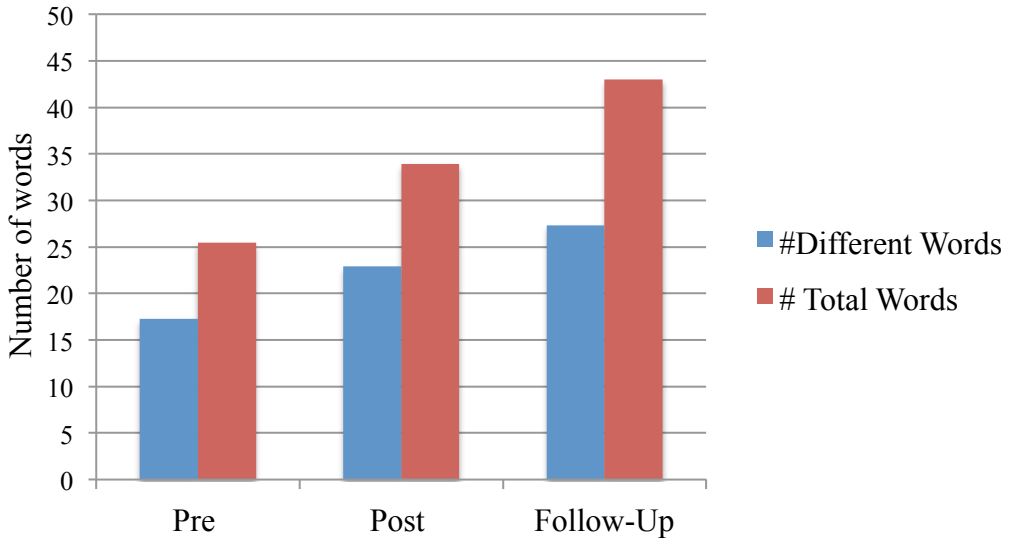


Figure 3 Class Mean Total Words and Total Different Words

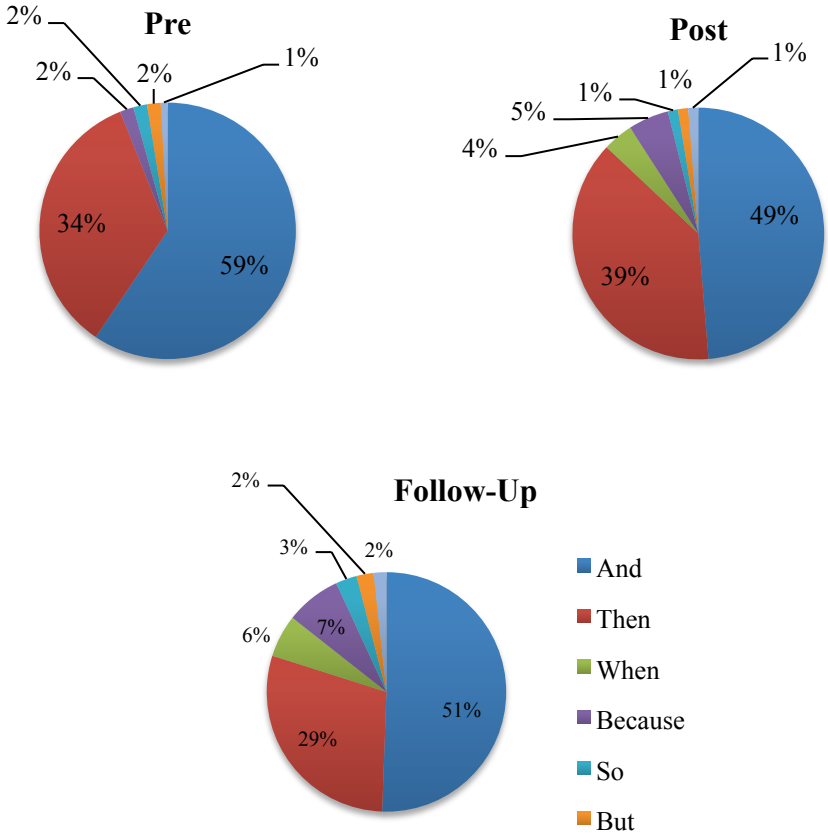


Figure 4 Class Percentage of Diversity of Conjunction Use

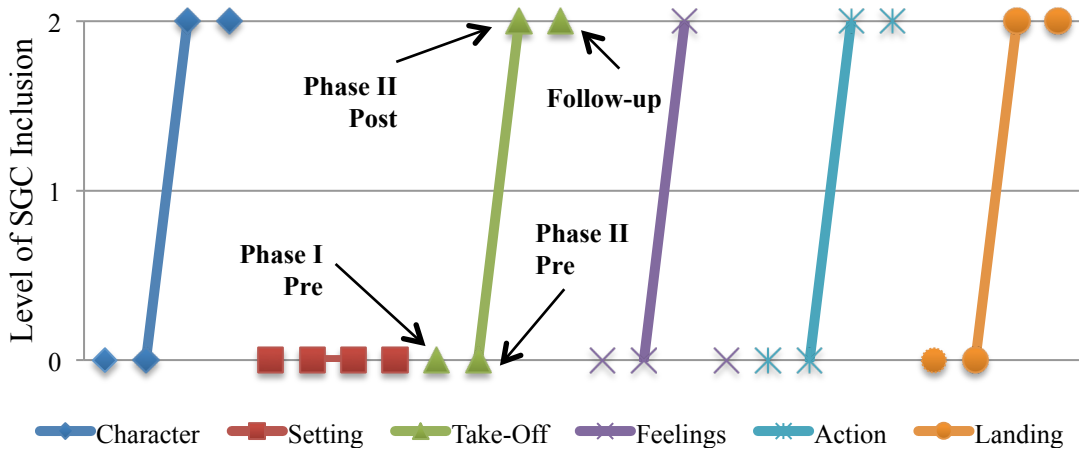


Figure 5 Ava's Inclusion of Story Grammar Components

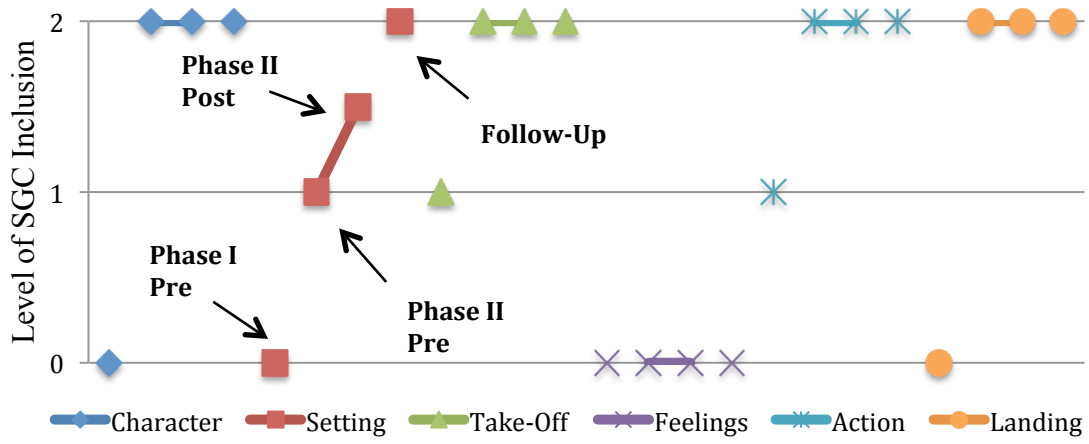


Figure 6 Alisha's Inclusion of Story Grammar Components

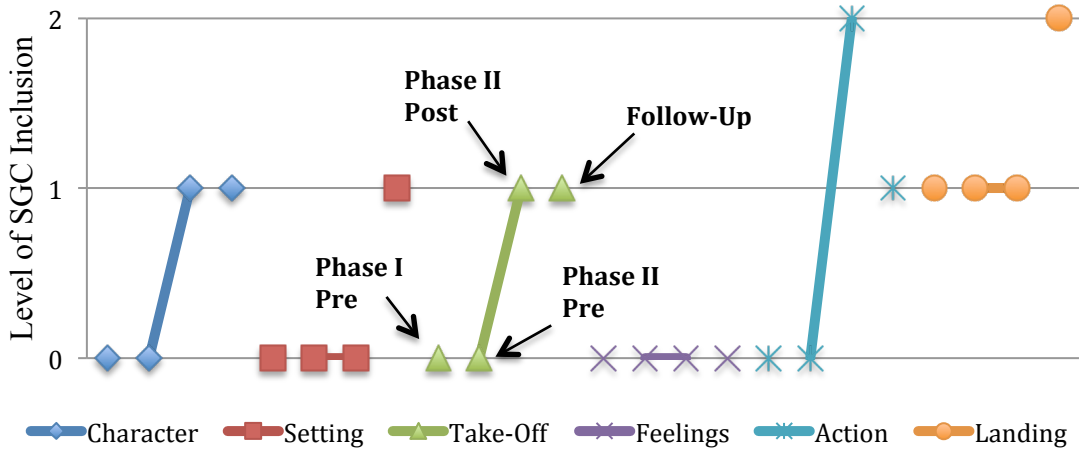


Figure 7 Omar's Inclusion of Story Grammar Components

# CHAPTER 4

# DISCUSSION

The primary aim of this preliminary study was to explore the implementation of an adapted narrative intervention that aligns with a RTI framework. Specifically, students' progress in narrative retell skills was evaluated in a collaboratively implemented, full class narrative instruction and in an individual narrative intervention incorporating goal setting and self-monitoring training. SLPs are called to work with general education teachers to provide specialized Tier II and III interventions. The techniques used in this study align with this principle and were designed to provide SLPs and teachers with practical tools and methods for effective collaboration. Most narrative research has been conducted through small group instruction in a pull-out format over the course of several weeks or months with a single professional as the interventionist. Furthermore, few studies incorporate the intervention into the classroom. The current study's focus on collaboration in the development and co-taught implementation of narrative instruction adds to the literature specifically in the area of narrative intervention and broadly in the area of SLP-teacher collaboration.

## Collaborative Practice

Establishing an open line of communication with the teacher provided the foundation for our collaboration. Meetings, email, and informal conversations provided the instructors with opportunities to share thoughts, ideas, expectations, and concerns throughout the development and implementation of the narrative instruction. For example, prior to beginning instruction we discussed the classroom schedule, structure, and narrative instruction goals and plans. Together,

decisions were made on how to incorporate the instruction into the existing classroom structure. Embedding the instruction into the children's everyday activities in the classroom decreased the potential for negative impacts of disrupting a child's schedule. The teacher provided important insight on the classroom dynamics and individual student behaviors relevant to the planning and implementation of the instruction and contributed to the learning outcome goals for the class. During the implementation of the narrative instruction, the instructors continued to communicate, plan, and problem solve together (e.g., how to ensure each student has an opportunity to answer SGC questions during story time).

Along with communication, co-teaching contributed to our collaboration. Co-teaching involves joint planning and joint instructing of students with and without disabilities (Murawski, 2003). With a co-teaching model, students benefit from the expertise of two professionals from different disciplines. We specifically used a team approach during co-teaching, where we each took ownership of the lessons and simultaneously contributed to the instruction (Hamilton-Jones & Moore, 2013). The positive impact of collaboration can be seen by the teacher's continued incorporation of the instruction strategies and SGC vocabulary into reading time following the end of the formal narrative instruction.

**Response to Intervention**

SLPs have been encouraged to adapt their intervention practices to align with the RTI framework for several years (Ehren, Montgomery, Rudebusch, & Whitmire, 2006). There is a need for expanding evidence-based RTI intervention models addressing specific skills. Phase I allowed the SLP to be in the classroom instructing a full class. Though only one student had an IEP, all students benefited from the SLP being present in the classroom. The positive gains in inclusion of SGCs and language complexity are similar to what is found in other narrative

intervention studies. These results show promise for full class narrative instruction, adding to the emerging narrative intervention studies based in the classroom. This study provides a model targeting narrative skills that can feasibly be implemented with students at-risk for not reaching or maintaining language and literacy standards.

Progress monitoring is an important component to RTI models to demonstrate student response to evidence-based instruction. It is important that the progress monitoring tool reflects the outcome goals of the intervention. We administered the TNR to have a standardized measure of inclusion of SGCs and language complexity. SLPs may be particularly interested in these narrative samples because they also provide opportunities for natural language sampling, which can serve as an informal screener or as progress monitoring for other language goals. The TNR is quick to administer (<3minutes per story). Progress monitoring may be challenging to maintain because it takes time, effort and coordination between teachers and other school professionals. Finding a quick and simple progress monitoring tool that yields ample information may increase efficiency and effectiveness of this task.

**Instruction and Intervention Activities**

With the goal of facilitating success, we attempted to select activities and materials that would engage and motivate the students and promote active participation during full class instruction and individualized intervention sessions. Previous research suggests having students produce gestures while teaching a skill promotes retention of that skill (Cook, Mitchell, & Goldin-Meadow, 2008). We paired gestures and visual icons with SGC names and definitions as a method to encourage memory and comprehension of SGCs. Gestures and icons were embedded into all activities. Students easily learned the gestures and readily showed them when prompted (e.g., “Show me character”). After all SGCs were taught we reviewed the entire sequence of

gestures and icons while talking through the casual connectors between SGCs to facilitate comprehension of the story grammar structure.

Teaching was scaffolded to support students in their development of narrative discourse skills. We began with a puppet show to model the use and identification of SGCs in a story. This was engaging for all students, and they frequently asked to participate in the puppet show. The same puppet show story was repeated for each SGC. Young children often enjoy and learn from repetition because it provides predictability; because students became familiar with the story after just one exposure, the focus of instruction could remain on the SGCs as they were introduced rather than the comprehension of the puppet show plot. During the story, the students took turns identifying SGCs; minimal to maximal support was provided to assist students in successfully identifying the components. One goal during the story time was to have each student have the opportunity to answer questions or identify a SGC. Students appeared to enjoy these opportunities (e.g., emphatically raising hand to answer question). However, some students had difficulty attending to their peers' responses. Following the story, students were asked to arrange story pictures in order independently. This provided them with an opportunity to receptively demonstrate their knowledge of story structure. Practice retelling the story individually, in groups, and as a class provided practice in using story grammar.

**Cultural Responsiveness**

Proficiency in comprehension and production of stories using a story grammar structure is predictive of later language and literacy skills (Bishop & Edmundson, 1987; Fazio, Naremore, & Connell, 1996). Cultural variation exists in narrative style and structure, though recent research suggests that young African American, Latino American, and European American children produce narratives of differing structures with similar frequencies (Gorman Fiestas et

al., 2011). Professionals involved in assessing narrative skills and providing narrative instruction should be culturally responsive to potential variations in narrative style and structure to distinguish differences from disorders. The demonstrated effects of African American students with strong language variation consistent of AAE dialect, adds to the literature on culturally responsive narrative interventions.

The students participating in the current study each presented with multiple socio-demographic risk factors and showed narrative skills below age-based criterion prior to class instruction. Given the academic achievement gap often present at school entry it is important to invest time in emergent literacy skills, including narrative discourse for at-risk students. Following the full class narrative instruction, the majority of students increased inclusion of SGCs and language complexity, making their story retells more complete and cohesive. The predictive relationship between narratives and later language and literacy skills emphasizes the probable contribution such gains in narrative discourse skills may have in decreasing this academic achievement gap.

**Self-monitoring and Goal Setting**

Individualized sessions included self-monitoring and goal setting training to further promote acquisition, generalization, and maintenance of story grammar knowledge. Brown, Garzarek, and Donegan (2014) found positive student gains in students' inclusion of SGCs using a guided self-monitoring strategy in their multi-component narrative intervention. In Phase II we built on this research by explicitly teaching self-monitoring and goal setting within the context of inclusion of SGCs. It was necessary that the students have a basic knowledge of SGCs from Phase I to engage in this practice. Students initially required maximal support to identify SGCs in their own TNR retells. Support faded across sessions for Ava and Alisha, but Omar required

maximal support throughout the individualized sessions. Students enjoyed hearing their retell played back to them, which encouraged attention and engagement.

**Limitations**

The intent of conducting this research in students' natural least restrictive environment, the classroom, was to increase the ability of teachers and SLPs to generalize our findings to their own students and classrooms. In doing so, the study is less controlled by the limitation of external factors that regularly occur in schools. In Phase I student participation was primarily impacted by absences and disruptive behavior. Absences were infrequent, but if they occurred, students had multiple exposures to the material and opportunities to practice the skills addressed on days they were present. Some students missed a portion of class instruction due to challenging behaviors. The flu spread through the school during the end of Phase I and beginning of Phase II. Due to sickness and frequent absences, student availability was an important factor in selecting target students for participation in Phase II. Though Phase II had unfortunate timing, it brings attention to an important issue that schools frequently encounter. Teachers and SLPs must seek student progress and success in spite of external factors, including student absences.

The pre-test-post-test study design does not control for external and internal validity. We cannot dismiss the possibility that observed student gains were due to maturation or other instruction throughout the day. However, since we focused on collaborative practices, the classroom teacher providing instruction and/or exposure to SGCs beyond the specified study procedures is actually an indicator of success more than a specific limitation. Additionally, student gains from post-instruction to follow-up may be indicative of continued instruction and exposure as opposed to maintenance in the strictest sense. For Phase II, the repeated acquisition design with each SGC as a repeated skill has limitations in that the SGCs may not be equivalent

skills. Therefore, the limited experimental control warrants caution in directly attributing the results to the specific intervention.

**Future Directions**

RTI initiatives call SLPs to be in the classroom working collaboratively with teachers. Future narrative intervention research should continue to explore the effects of collaborative full class narrative instruction focused on explicit teaching of story grammar components. Research designs that include comparison groups will be beneficial in demonstrating the effectiveness of these models. With generalization of skills the goal of any instruction, the inclusion of story generation as a progress monitoring tool would provide data for generalization of narrative skills.

Multi-component intervention packages are prevalent in narrative research. One disadvantage of using these packages is the inability to determine the relative effectiveness of each of the components. Isolating specific strategies thought to be significant in fostering the development of narrative discourse (e.g., self-monitoring, retell practice) could further our understanding of effective and efficient narrative interventions.

For the many reasons outlined, narrative discourse is a critical language and literacy skill. Read alouds are a daily class activity for most early elementary students during which other content is introduced (e.g., animals, rhyming words, history). The predictability of narrative structure may facilitate the comprehension of new content. Therefore, narratives may provide a framework for teaching other important literacy skills including lexical development (e.g., vocabulary) and linguistic complexity (e.g., grammar). Future research should explore narrative instruction with embedded vocabulary and structural language complexity components.

The ability to tell a well-formed narrative has implications for a child's later language and literacy skills. Oral narratives fall in the middle of the discourse continuum, are

decontextualized, and require more complex language organization and semantic skills than conversation, serving as a building block for reading and writing (Westby, 2005). Response to classroom instruction and maintenance of peer relationships are influenced by students' accurate comprehension and production of narrative discourse, which is demonstrated by the inclusion of these skills in the Common Core State Standards. The predictive relationship between narratives and later language and literacy skills emphasizes the importance of targeting narratives in literacy prevention and intervention initiatives. Students presenting with multiple risk factors for language disorders may specifically benefit from focused narrative instruction. This study provides additional support for explicitly teaching story grammar to support narrative discourse development.

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Appendix A: Phase I Fidelity Checklist

**Fidelity Checklist**

Interventionist:_____ Observer:_____

Date:_____

Story Grammar Component:_____

| | Interventionists | Yes | No |
|---|---|---|---|
| Before the story | 1. Verbally defined targeted story grammar component. | | |
| | 2. Put the targeted story grammar component icon on the smartboard while explaining that the icon represents the targeted story grammar component | | |
| | 3. Asks the children to define the targeted story grammar component. | | |
| | 4. Demonstrate use of story grammar component (puppet show) | | |
| During the story | 5. Tell children to hold up their hand when they hear the targeted story grammar component read. | | |
| | 6. Repeat the definition of the targeted story grammar component. | | |
| | 7. Read the story. | | |
| | 8. Acknowledge when children hold up their hand at the correct time by saying, "Tell me _____" or provides a prompt if children don't independently identify. | | |
| After the story | 9. Facilitate guided group retell of the story. | | |
| | 10. Provide positive feedback and review the story grammar component with the children. | | |
| | 11. Expands on children's retell by adding in additional components of the story with an emphasis on the targeted component. | | |
| | *Total* | | |
| | *Percentage* | | |

Appendix B: Phase II Fidelity Checklist

**Fidelity Checklist**

Interventionist:_____ Observer:_____

Date:_____ Group:_____

| Interventionist: | Yes | No |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Administers TNRs. | | |
| 2. Records retells using iPad. | | |
| 3. Gives student an icon checklist list and dry erase marker. | | |
| 4. Names each story grammar component icon. | | |
| 5. Instructs student to check off story grammar components they hear. | | |
| 6. Plays recording of retell. | | |
| 7. Reviews and gives feedback on progress monitoring. | | |
| 8. Reviews story grammar components. | | |
| 9. Reads story from picture book. | | |
| 10. Asks student to retell story independently. | | |
| 11. Provides expansion and support during story retell. | | |
| *Total* | | |
| *Percentage* | | |

Appendix C: Story Grammar Component Checklist

| | |
|---|---|
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|  | |
|  | |
|  | |

Appendix D: Student Graph of Story Grammar Components

Name:_____

Date _____

# Story Grammar Components

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
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| | | | | | |
| | | | | | |
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