Academic Diversity: Ways to Motivate and Engage Students with Learning Disabilities

Prepared by Beverly Weiser, PhD
Southern Methodist University
Dallas, TX
(July 2014)

Are poor readers doubly disadvantaged in that they soon begin to lag behind
their peers in both "skill" and "will"? If so, then their poor reading skills
and low reading motivation may begin to influence each other.

- Morgan & Fuchs, 2007

Students with learning disabilities often become frustrated because they see themselves as being incompetent in many areas of school, thus generally making them unmotivated and unexcited to read, write, and complete tasks for fear of failure, embarrassment, and disrespect. As competence in a subject or task improves, however, motivation typically increases, generating a cycle of engagement, motivation, and competence that supports better academic achievement for students with varying abilities (Irvin, Meltzer, & Dukes, 2007). Because motivation leads to engagement, motivation is where parents and teachers need to begin, especially for students that are experiencing learning disabilities (LD) in reading, writing, spelling, and mathematic problem solving.

In this InfoSheet, answers to frequently asked questions about how to motivate and engage students with and without LD will be discussed. Additionally, many effective strategies and instructional routines will be provided that may help students increase their motivation and engagement across content areas, and ultimately their learning, their academic performances, and their self-efficacy. While it is unfortunate that many of the suggestions and strategies that follow have not been included in a wide range of experimental research investigations, the theory and reasons behind using these types of activities have been well documented and have shown to be effective with students of varying academic abilities.

Motivation and Engagement

What is the Difference Between Motivation and Engagement?

Kamil et al. (2008) suggest that motivation in school refers to whether students possess the "desire, reason, and predisposition to become involved with a task or activity," while engagement refers "to the degree to which a student processes [the activity or] the task deeply through the use of active strategies and thought processes and prior knowledge" (p. 26). Other researchers and psychologists think that students' active participation in their learning is highly linked with motivation, and then in turn, motivation is highly correlated to academic performance. Take reading in school, for example. Engagement may make the most differ-

ence in students' comprehension and their ability to participate in discussions, activities, and higher-level thinking skills such as analyzing, inferring, questioning, and evaluating (e.g., Gersten, Fuchs, Williams, & Baker, 2001; Wood & Blanton, 2009). However, if a student is unmotivated by the subject or is unable or unwilling to read the text, comprehension fails and students will not have the opportunity to develop higher level reading skills. This also pertains to other content areas such as mathematics, science, history, and social studies.

What is the Difference Between Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation?

Extrinsic motivation is used more often in schools because students get instant gratification for completing a task. This type of motivation occurs when the source of the motivation comes from outside the student and task; another person (e.g., the teacher or a parent) is rewarding or punishing the student to finish an assignment or another task (Witzel & Mercer, 2003).   Examples of extrinsic motivation include stickers, candy, rewards, verbal recognition from others, studying to get a good grade, special privileges, or it could be fear of receiving a punishment. While students may seem to be motivated by extrinsic motivators, these motivators can have some serious drawbacks: (1) when motivators are not sustainable – when the reward or punishment is withdrawn, the motivation often disappears; (2) when the effect of the motivator wears off – when the reward or punishment stays the same, the motivation tends to slowly drop off and often requires a bigger reward as the next motivator; and (3) when the motivation prevents intrinsic motivation

Intrinsic motivation, on the other hand, occurs when the source of motivation comes from within the student and task. Students with intrinsic motivation see the task as enjoyable, interesting, and worthwhile and seek self-

approval for completing assignments and other tasks. When students set learning or performance goals, work to meet these goals, and hopefully do meet their goals, they generally tend to feel more intrinsically motivated and have a greater sense of accomplishment. An intrinsically motivated student will solve mathematical word problems because they find the challenge fun and interesting or may read independently after school because they find it entertaining. When students are completing assignments for an extrinsic outcome, it tends to hurt intrinsic motivation; motivating with extrinsic rewards or punishments can remove students' own internal desire to complete a task on their own (Wery & Thomson, 2013).

Motivation for Students with LD in Resource Rooms or Inclusion Classrooms

Which Type of Motivation is More Important for Students with LD?

Students with LD generally experience a strong correlation between their low extrinsic and intrinsic motivation and their poor academic performances (Lepper, Corpus, & Iyengar, 2005; McGeown, Norgate, & Warhurst, 2012), whereas higher-achieving students tend to be motivated by strong levels of mostly their intrinsic motivation (Becker, McElvany, & Kortenbruck, 2010; Wang and Guthrie, 2004). In fact, all of these aforementioned researchers have found that while many teachers offer extrinsic motivators to encourage things such as engagement, academic outcomes, and good behavior, these types of rewards are generally negatively correlated with students' academic performance. Other studies, however, have suggested that extrinsic motivators may be helpful for students with LD who experience very low intrinsic motivation mostly due to believing they are unable to learn (e.g., Park, 2011).

While both extrinsic and intrinsic motivators may be useful for students of varying abilities, teachers and parents should try to instill intrinsic motivation in their students, especially those with LD and low self-confidence, so that they do not need or rely on extrinsic motivation to complete tasks. Comments focused on effort, such as "You must be proud that you studied and were able to answer so many correct," "I can tell you are working so hard to learn this material," and "I can definitely see that you are really trying your best" are ways to begin instilling intrinsic motivation. While this comes more naturally for teachers and parents of younger students, it is critical they help build intrinsic motivation for older students frustrated with their learning disabilities (Melekoglu & Wilkerson, 2013). If teachers and parents can put more emphasis on having a supportive environment where mistakes are viewed as learning opportunities instead of failure, generally students with varying abilities start to develop their own learning goals. Teachers and parents should focus on giving positive feedback when students with LD make small gains to further promote intrinsic motivation with their students.

How Does Feedback Influence Student Motivation?

To a very large degree, students expect to learn if their teachers expect them to learn. Stipek, 1988

Students with and without learning disabilities receive verbal and nonverbal feedback about their strengths and weaknesses, their work habits, and their finished work on a daily basis. However, students with LD often struggle more with motivation and engagement than typically achieving students (Nyborg, 2011). Research shows that motivational utterances can increase students' expectancy of success and task value (Brophy, 2010). Deci, Koestner, and Ryan (1999), in a meta-analysis of 128 studies using extrinsic rewards, found that a teacher's use of praise and extrinsic reward often led to increases in students' intrinsic motivation. Likewise, messages teachers (and parents) communicate to students with LD, whether intentionally or unintentionally, can affect students' motivation, learning goals, and academic outcomes (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Klassen & Lynch, 2007). Timing of feedback is critical for students with LD; feedback should be given as soon as possible while the student is either working on the task or has just finished it for optimal effectiveness. In fact, feedback for students with LD should occur while they are still mindful of the task and are still striving to complete a learning goal (Brookhart, 2008).

Hattie and Timperley (2007) suggest that there are four types of feedback: feedback about the task, feedback about the processing of the task, feedback about self-regulation, and feedback about the self as a person. Giving students feedback about the task (FT) includes telling the student if something is correct or incorrect, remarking about the depth or quality of the work (often by using a rubric for explicit feedback or writing comments for implicit feedback), asking the student to give more information (e.g., "You gave excellent examples for questions 1 and 2. Please go back and add a couple more examples on number 3"), and/or telling whether the assignment was neat, organized, or well-written.

Feedback about the process (FP) focuses on the task, but generally gives students more specific intrinsic information about how they approached the task, information about the relationship between how the students did on the task and their performance (e.g., "Making an outline before you started your essay truly improved your response"), and information about possible other strategies or processes that could improve their work (e.g., "Why don't you read through your answer one more time

making sure that each sentence is a complete thought?").

Self-regulation is the process students may use to monitor or keep track of their own learning and completion of tasks. Most often, self-regulation strategies for students with LD include (1) setting their own learning and performance goals; (2) self-monitoring their engagement, behavior, and/or performance; (3) self-instruction or self-talk to help them self-regulate and direct learning (e.g., "I need to look at my journal to remember what this word means"); and (4) using self-reinforcement for completing tasks or steps in a group of tasks (e.g., "I am going to give myself a high-five for completing this assignment on time") (Reid, Lienemann, & Hagaman, 2013). For some students, especially those with LD, feedback about self-regulation (FSR) can be very effective if it is used to enhance self-efficacy and confidence (Brookhart, 2008). If students are in the habit of seeking, accepting, and acting on feedback from a teacher or a parent, they can become more effective learners from this feedback, meaning that they see the feedback is useful, worth the effort, and necessary to successfully complete a task. However, for students with LD with very low self-efficacy and confidence, self-regulation strategies may be new or not appropriate; therefore, FSR will need to be added slowly as students begin to develop intrinsic motivation and/or begin to learn and use self-regulation methods.

Feedback about the student (FS) involves more personal statements as in "Now, that's a smart boy!", "Are you having trouble with your memory today?", "Why on earth would you do that?", "You are amazing today!", and "Good girl!" Unfortunately, many teachers give FS more than any other type of feedback without realizing that it really doesn't inform or contain any information that can be used in further learning or that it can be demeaning and embarrassing to students, especially in front of

their peers. In fact, after synthesizing the research on feedback for students, Hattie and Timperley (2007) found that the most effective feedback is when teachers and parents interconnect FT, FP, and FSR, meaning that students develop more intrinsic motivation when their teachers or parents combine these types of feedback together when talking to them about what they have accomplished or completed. Additionally, Hattie and Timperley found that FS rarely helps students develop confidence or motivation.

In any case, teachers and parents should communicate high but realistic goals for students with LD. When students with LD are provided optimally challenging but attainable tasks and activities with appropriate constructive feedback, they generally begin to improve their intrinsic motivation, confidence, and ultimately their academic performances. Student responses to teacher and parent feedback are the criterion in which feedback can be evaluated – the goal is to provide the feedback that best meets the needs of the students.

Motivation and Choice

What are Some Effective Ways to Motivate Students with LD?

One of the greatest motivators is giving students with learning disabilities a choice of what they are going to do whether it is in writing, math, reading, or any other content area (Morgan, 2006; Stenhoff, Davey, & Kraft, 2008). Giving choices to all students, including those with LD, generally makes students take a more engaging role in their learning and holds them accountable for finishing the task; students can take charge of what they are doing because they have chosen the activity they wanted to do. Research has shown that allowing students a choice of what they read keeps them more engaged in what they are reading and for long-

er periods of time (Guthrie & Humenick, 2004). In fact, Guthrie and Humenick completed a meta-analysis on 22 experimental or quasi-experimental research studies on using various types of motivational techniques, including affording student choice. Studies in which students were afforded choice in academic tasks outperformed students on similar assignments who were just told what to do (mean effect size of 0.95). Students in these studies were given choices of which text to read, which activities or assignments to complete using the text, and occasionally, which students to work with. Reynolds and Symons (2001), for example, found that students' intrinsic motivation increased, as did the amount of time students were actively engaged in completing their assignments.

While research studies affording students choice in assignments has been positive for students with LD, many specific strategies allowing students to choose between tasks have not been investigated in experimental, randomized/control studies. However, from professional experience and observational studies, giving students choice of what they are to complete has evidence of being beneficial to students with LD in resource rooms and especially in inclusion settings where students of varying abilities can choose their own tasks from the same options. References to support some choice strategies are found below along with suggested websites for more information and examples of how to use the strategy.

There are several ways to give students choice at all grade levels and in all content areas. In most cases, the examples below can be used for all students without any modifications for students with learning disabilities, meaning that the one assignment of choice can be used with students of varying academic abilities. Most of the activities given can be done on paper, a computer, or using a tape recorder; students can do these independently, with a part-ner, or in a small group. They also work great in centers so that teachers can work with other students.

Differentiating with Choice Boards and Menus

"Differentiation is making sure that the right students get the right learning tasks at the right time." Earl, 2003

Differentiation is a process to approach teaching and learning for students of differing abilities in the same inclusion classroom or in self-contained resource rooms. Differentiation, while not a new instructional process, has many benefits for students with LD because it is a means to maximize each student's growth and individual learning needs. When combining differentiated assignments with student choice, teachers are empowering students with LD to be in control over their options while the teacher directs the learning that best meets the students' readiness, interests, learning styles, and more.

Choice boards are lists of activities that are designed by the teacher to focus on the specific needs of students, including ones with LD because they are directly aligned to differentiate learning goals and skills. Choice boards are often used to reinforce, practice, or enhance content knowledge and academic objectives. Choice boards can be placed in folders, in a center, on the board, or on a handout. Students then make a choice from a particular group of assignments; the teacher targets work toward student need, but at the same time allows the student to make a choice. Recommended choice boards can be found below.

RAFT – A differentiated writing-to-learn strategy to give students choice. RAFT (Santa, 1988) is a higher level thinking strategy that encourages writing across the curriculum using a writing-to-learn process for students to enhance their understanding of the narrative and expository text. Instead of a traditional essay to

explain or summarize concepts, events, persons, etc., the RAFT strategy encourages creative thinking, different points of view, alternate opinions, and recall of content knowledge in a more motivating way. Teachers can use RAFTs to differentiate the content and product for students with varying academic skills and knowledge levels. RAFT is defined as the following:

R: Assume a *Role*. Who are you as the writer - reporter, writer, observer, object, teacher, newscaster, etc.?

A: Consider an *Audience*. To whom are you writing? Who will be reading the writing - the teacher, other students, a parent, editor, people in the community, etc.?

F: Write in a particular *Format*. What type of writing will you be doing - newspaper article, letter, diary entry, poem, email, brochure, etc.?

T: Examine a *Topic* from a relevant perspective. What is the subject or point of your writing - famous historian, athlete, biology term, a character, a prehistoric caveman, a mountain range, etc.?

Students with LD, in particular, can enhance their higher level thinking skills and reflect in unusual ways about what they have read. The RAFT strategy forces students to process information, rather than merely write out answers to questions. Students with LD may be more motivated to undertake the writing assignment because it addresses various learning styles, and most importantly it gives them a choice on how they are going to express what they have learned. Some examples of a RAFT can be seen in Figure 1.

Figure 1: RAFT Examples for Different Content Areas

Studying the Digestive System

Role	Audience	Format	Topic
A Chocolate Chip Cookie	A Chocolate Chip Manufacturer	Travel Guide	Journey Through the Digestive System
Song Writer	Teenagers	Song	I Need to Be Good to My Digestive System
Reporter	A 6th Grade Class	Research Report	How the Digestive System Works

Studying Photosynthesis

Role	Audience	Format	Topic
Plant	Sun	Thank You Email	The Sun's Role in Photosynthesis
A Rain Drop	Water Condensation Members	Press Release	Evaporation During Photosynthesis
Sun	Plants	Petition	Why Do I Have to Do Everything Around Here?

Reviewing Punctuation

Role	Audience	Format	Topic
A Comma	Third Graders	Rap	You Need to Know When to Use Me
A Period	Other Punctuation Members	A Speech	Why I Do More Than You Do
A Semicolon	School Newspaper Editors	Letter	I Wish You Knew Where I Belong
Quotation Marks	A Journalist	Interview	I Am Needed Whenever Someone Speaks

Note. The above three RAFT examples were created by the author.

Think-Tac-Toe. Think-Tac-Toe is an activity that can be used for differentiating for students with and without disabilities, and basically works like a traditional tic-tac-toe where you are to get three in a row – vertically, horizontally, or diagonally. Some benefits of using Think-Tac-Toes are that they are easy to make, they can be used in a center or as a whole group assignment, they can be used with all grades and all subject areas, and best of all, the students get to pick the ones that they want to do. Another plus about Think-Tac-Toe is that students with LD have different options they can pick just like everyone else except that these small tasks are not as overwhelming as doing 40 math problems or writing spelling words three times each and they can be a lot more fun. With a little creativity, a teacher can strategically place items so that all students are learning the same material or skill, but each takes a route that he or she can manage.

Think-Tac-Toes, as mentioned above, can be used in any content area in various ways, but one way to really motivate students with learning disabilities is to base them on Bloom's Taxonomy of progressively higher thinking skills: Knowledge, Comprehension, Application, Analysis, Synthesis, and Evaluation. So often, students with learning disabilities do not get the opportunity to use their higher-level thinking abilities. As you can see in the template found in Figure 2, all the levels of Bloom's Taxonomy are represented and examples of ways to start writing the task for each are listed. In the bottom row, teachers can pick the level of Bloom's Taxonomy that they want to use or they can put two examples in these boxes and have the students choose one to do.

Using the starter words in the template found in Figure 2, creating a Think-Tac-Toe can be done in just a few minutes. Figure 3 is an example of a completed template a teacher could use in mathematics to motivate students with LD to increase their higher level thinking skills while practicing adding, subtracting, multiplying, dividing, fractions, and more. Students with LD or those that are struggling are generally motivated first by having choice, and second because they feel like they are not getting a "lower grade level" assignment. If needed, adaptations can be made for students with LD including (1) allowing the student to pick any three boxes even if they are not in a row; (2) changing some of the boxes based on the readiness of the student; and (3) creating activities that are based on different learning styles.

While the example in Figure 2 is for use in mathematics, Think-Tac-Toes can be used in any content area with students in all grades. Think-Tac-Toes can be a great center activity to reinforce and/or review previously taught material. To look for other examples of Think-Tac-Toes, google "Think-Tac-Toe" or look at some of the recommended websites that follow.

Figure 2: A Template to Use for Building in Bloom's Taxonomy on a Think-Tac-Toe

A Think-Tac-Toe Based on Bloom's Taxonomy To Use Across All Content Areas		
Knowledge list, define, tell, describe, identify, show, label, collect, examine, quote, name, who, when, where	**Comprehension** summarize, describe, interpret, contrast, predict, associate, distinguish, estimate, discuss, extend	**Application** apply, demonstrate, calculate, complete, illustrate, show, solve, examine, modify, relate, change, classify, experiment
Analysis analyze, separate, order, explain, connect, classify, arrange, divide, compare, select, explain, infer	**Synthesis** combine, integrate, modify, rearrange, substitute, plan, create, design, invent, what if?, compose, formulate, prepare, generalize, rewrite	**Evaluation** assess, decide, rank, grade, test, measure, recommend, convince, select, judge, explain, discriminate, support, conclude, compare
Comprehension or Evaluation	**Application or Evaluation**	**Knowledge or Analysis**

Note. Question Cues are from: http://www.bloomstaxonomy.org/

Figure 3: An Example of Using Bloom's Taxonomy in a Think-Tac-Toe for Math

Knowledge – List all the combinations of dollars and coins you can think of to make $11.85.	**Comprehension** – Estimate how much money you will need to buy 3 pairs of jeans that cost $21.63 each. For 9 pairs? For 25 pairs?	**Application** – Solve this problem: Jane wants to buy a mountain game that costs $6.53. Tell how much change she will get back if she gives the store clerk a $20 bill. Tell three ways the clerk could give back the change.
Analysis – Divide each of these amounts in half and in fourths: $6.42 $12.56 $22.64 $15.10 $33.40	**Synthesis** – Create a money math problem for which the answer is $22.65.	**Evaluate** – Grade this problem. If it is not correct, write what you would say to another student to help him learn why it is wrong. $12.04 -3.67 $9.63
Comprehension or Evaluation Write a paragraph discussing how a person could divide $24.60 into four separate envelopes using only single dollar bills and nickels.	**Application or Evaluation** Write a lesson for me to explain to the class on how to subtract $5.50 from a $10 bill.	**Knowledge or Analysis** Decide how much money you would need to have to buy 6 plants at $4.55 each, 2 bags of soil at $2.90, and one large pot at $9.99. (Tax is included in prices.)

Note. This Think-Tac-Toe was created by the author.

Dinner (or breakfast or lunch) choice menus. A dinner menu is designed much like a real menu, again allowing students to choose which items to "order." Although there are many different ways to make a menu, most start with a task or "appetizer" that all of the students are expected to do. The next section is usually the "Entrée" where students are given three to four options and are required to complete one task. Generally, there are several choices all relating to one main idea or concept. "Side Dishes" have three to four choices, but the students typically pick two of them. "Dessert" is optional and is an enrichment activity usually involving higher-level thinking skills. Each part of the menu usually goes along with an important concept for that particular grade level. Everyone is basically reviewing the same main points, but having the choice of which ones to do make

it more engaging, especially for struggling students and those with learning disabilities. An example of a dinner menu that is focusing on chemical changes but also reviews physical changes that were previously taught can be seen in Figure 4.

Figure 4: A Dinner Menu on Chemical Changes and Reviewing Physical Changes

Dinner Menu – Chemical Changes

Appetizer (Everyone Shares)
- Use **chemical reaction** in a sentence that shows you know what it means.

Entrée (Select One)
- Draw pictures that show what **happens during** chemical changes.
- Write one or two paragraphs about what **happens during** a chemical change.
- Create a rap or a poem that explains what **happens during** a chemical change.

Side Dishes (Select at Least Two)
- Explain in writing the differences between **chemical and physical changes**.
- Compare and contrast **chemical and physical changes** using a Venn diagram.
- With a partner, create and perform a skit that shows the differences between **chemical and physical changes**.

Dessert (Optional)
Create a test to assess your teacher's knowledge of chemical changes.
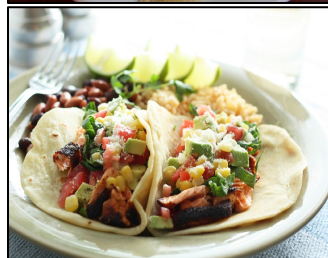
Note. The above dinner menu was created by the author; photo citations can be found at end of reference section.

Giving choice by changing the verbs. Another quick idea to give students with LD choice in their assignment to either learn or review a concept, event, text content, etc. is to give choice in the task by changing the verbs in the activity or question. For example, instead of saying, "Write about the life of Abraham Lincoln," the teacher could change the verb to (1)

"Interview Abraham Lincoln," (2) "Imagine you are Abraham Lincoln and tell what your greatest achievements were to your grandchildren," or (3) "Use a tape recorder and contrast Abraham Lincoln with George Washington." Another example of changing the verbs could be used during reading/language arts after students have finished reading a chapter in Gary Paulsen's *The Hatchet*. Instead of checking understanding by having students write down three events that happened during the chapter, you could change the verb to make the assignment more engaging by asking students to "Illustrate three events that occurred during the chapter and put a caption under each drawing," or "Imagine that you are Brian and tell how you would have reacted or what you would have done during the different events that happened in the chapter." As with the other choice ideas previously mention, changing the verbs can be used with students with varying abilities in all grade levels and across all content area subjects. Refer to Figure 5 to see some examples of verbs to use to offer choice to students with LD.

Figure 5: Giving Choice by Changing the Verbs

Argue against...	Critique...	Find examples of...	Plan...
Argue for...	Decide between...	Find support for...	Predict...
Categorize...	Defend...	Identify...	Pretend...
Check	Design...	Imagine...	Rank...
Classify...	Develop...	Interpret...	Recommend...
Compile...	Devise...	Interview...	Reconstruct...
Compose...	Draw...	Invent...	Revise...
Construct...	Examine...	Make...	Suppose...
Contrast...	Expand...	Make up...	Tell a better way...
Create...	Explain...	Organize...	Tell a different way...

Conclusions about Motivation and Engagement

While there is not a fool-proof way to actually motivate and engage students with learning disabilities, it is important to understand the most effective practices others have used to help their students be more engaged in their learning. Many recommendations were suggested to use with students with learning disabilities of all ages; however, in summary, teachers and parents may want to try to include the following evidence-based suggestions to help their students and children become more motivated and engaged in the classroom and at home when working on homework and projects.

- Believe that all students can learn – teachers and parents who have expectations for their students are a very powerful influence.
- Establish meaningful, purposeful, and realistic content learning goals for students.
- Provide a positive learning environment where students know it is okay to make mistakes.
- Create activities that are relevant to students' experiences and interests. Make it REAL.
- Build in instructional conditions that increase reading engagement and conceptual learning (e.g., student goal setting, self-

- regulated strategies, and collaborative learning activities).
- Encourage independence whenever possible and provide positive feedback when students are working well independently.

- Verbally praise students for their effort instead of their performance.
- Try to increase intrinsic motivation behavior in students so that they will be engaged in their learning and become less reliant on receiving extrinsic rewards.

Recommended Websites

Choice Boards – Think-Tac-Toe – Choice Menus and References to Support their Use

http://daretodifferentiate.wikispaces.com/Choice+Boards

http://daretodifferentiate.wikispaces.com/file/view/nagc_choice_menus.pdf

http://2differentiate.pbworks.com/w/page/860033/Choice%20Boards

http://teach.fcps.net/trt7/Think%20Tac%20Toe.htm

https://www.google.com/webhp?sourceid=chrome-instant&ion=1&espv=2&ie=UTF-8#q=think%20tac%20toe%20examples

http://daretodifferentiate.wikispaces.com/Idea+Sharing+Page

http://pps-pajaro-ca.schoolloop.com/file/1317567558039/1312697332954/2422853761126579929.pdf

http://www.pvusd.net/extensionmenus

Heacox, D. (2011). *Making differentiation a habit: How to ensure success in academically diverse classrooms.* Minneapolis, MN: Free Spirit Publishing.

Tomlinson, C. A. (2003). *Fulfilling the promise of the differentiated classroom*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD). Note. More information on this book with selected samples from the chapters can be found at http://www.ascd.org/publications/books/103107.aspx

RAFT Examples, Information, and References to Support their Use

http://www.readwritethink.org/professional-development/strategy-guides/using-raft-writing-strategy-30625.html

http://daretodifferentiate.wikispaces.com/R.A.F.T.+Assignments

http://curry.virginia.edu/uploads/resourceLibrary/rafts.pdf

http://www.readingrockets.org/strategies/raft

www.adlit.org/strategies/19783

Mitchell, D. (1996). Writing to learn across the curriculum and the English teacher. *English Journal, 85,* 93-97*.*

Santa, C., & Havens, L. (1995). *Creating independence through student-owned strategies: Project CRISS.* Dubuque, IA: Kendall Hunt*.*

Santa, C., Haven, L., & Harrison, S. (2008). Teaching secondary science through reading, writing, studying, and problem solving. In D. Lapp, J. Flood, & N. Farnan (Eds.), *Content area reading and learning* (3rd ed., pp. 237–256). New York, NY: Erlbaum.

Recommended Publications on Motivating Students With and Without LD

Bulgren, J. A., Graner, P. S., & Deshler, D. D. (2013). Literacy challenges and opportunities for students with learning disabilities in social studies and history. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 28*(1), 17-27.

Brookhart, S. M. (2008). *How to give effective feedback to your students*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD). Note. Chapter 2, Types of Feedback and Their Purposes, is retrievable from http://www.ascd.org/publications/books/108019/chapters/Types-of-Feedback-and-Their-Purposes.aspx

Brozo, W. G., & Flynt, E. S. (2008). Motivating students to read in the content classroom: Six evidence-based principles. *The Reading Teacher, 62*(2), 172-174.

Casey, H. (2008). Engaging the disengaged: Using learning clubs to motivate struggling adolescent readers and writers. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 52*(4), 284-294. Retrievable from http://www.reading.org/Libraries/books/bk835-Casey-Bean.pdf

Irvin, J. L., Meltzer, J., & Dukes, M. (2007). Student motivation, engagement, and achievement. In J. L. Irvin, J. Meltzer, & M. Dukes (Eds.), *Taking action on adolescent literacy: An implementation guide for school leaders* (Chapter 1). Alexandria, VA: ASCD. Retrievable from http://www.ascd.org/publications/books/107034/chapters/Student-Motivation,-Engagement,-and-Achievement.aspx

Margolis, H., & McCabe, P. P. (2006). Improving self-efficacy and motivation: What to do, what to say. *Intervention in School and Clinic, 41*(4), 218-227. (Free to CLD Members)

Melekoglu, M. A. (2011). Impact of motivation to read on reading gains for struggling readers with and without learning disabilities. *Learning Disability Quarterly, 34*(4), 248-261. doi:10.11 77/0731948711421761 (Free to CLD Members)

Seo, S., Brownell, M. T., Bishop, A. G., & Dingle, M. (2008). Beginning special education teachers' classroom reading instruction: Practices that engage elementary students with learning disabilities. *Exceptional Children, 75*(1), 97-122.

Sevilio, K. L. (2009). You get to choose! Motivating students to read through differentiated instruction. *Teaching Exceptional Children Plus, 5*(5), 1-11. Retrievable from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ967752.pdf

Witzel, B. S., & Mercer, C. D. (2003). Using rewards to teach students with disabilities: Implications for motivation. *Remedial and Special Education, 24*(2), 88-96.

Note. The majority of these publications are available free of charge. Some of the current links (as of May 2014) are listed for your convenience. ***If the link is no longer working, put the name of the publication in your browser to search for it.***

References

Becker, M., McElvany, N., & Kortenbruck, M. (2010). Intrinsic and extrinsic reading motivation as predictors of reading literacy: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 102*(4), 773-785.

Brookhart, S. M. (2008). *How to give effective feedback to your students*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD).

Brophy, J. (2010). *Motivating students to learn*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Deci, E. L., Koestner, R., & Ryan, R. M. (1999). A meta-analytic review of experiments examining the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation. *Psychological Bulletin, 125*, 627-668.

Earl, L. M. (2003). *Assessment as learning: Using classroom assessment to maximize student learning.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Gersten, R., Fuchs, L. S., Williams, J. P., & Baker, S. (2001). Teaching reading comprehension strategies to students with learning disabilities: A review of research. *Review of Educational Research, 71*, 279-320.

Guthrie, J. T., & Humenick, N. M. (2004). Motivating students to read: Evidence for classroom practices that increase reading motivation and achievement. In P. McCardle & V. Chhabra (Eds.), *The voice of evidence in reading research* (pp. 329-354). Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes Publishing.

Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of Educational Research*, *77*(1), 81–112.

Irvin, J. L., Meltzer, J., & Dukes, M. (2007). Student motivation, engagement, and achievement. In J. L. Irvin, J. Meltzer, & M. Dukes (Eds.), *Taking action on adolescent literacy: An implementation guide for school leaders* (Chapter 1). Alexandria, VA: ASCD. Retrievable from http://www.ascd.org/publications/books/107034/chapters/Student-Motivation,-Engagement,-and-Achievement.aspx

Kamil, M. L., Borman, G. D., Dole, J., Kral, C. C., Salinger, T., & Torgesen, J. (2008). *Improving adolescent literacy: Effective classroom and intervention practices: A practice guide* (NCEE #2008-4027). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. Retrievable from http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/pdf/practiceguides/adlit_pg_082608.pdf

Klassen, R. M., & Lynch, S. L. (2007). Self-efficacy from the perspective of adolescents with LD and their specialist teachers. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 40*(6), 494-507.

Lepper, M. R., Corpus, J. H., & Iyengar, S. S. (2005). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivational

orientations in the classroom: Age differences and academic correlates. *Journal of Educational Psychology,* 97(2), 184-196.

McGeown, S. P., Norgate, R., & Warhurst, A. (2012). Exploring intrinsic and extrinsic reading motivation among very good and very poor readers. *Educational Research, 54*(3), 309-322.

Melekoglu, M. L., & Wilkerson, K. L. (2013). Motivation to read: How does it change for struggling readers with and without disabilities*? International Journal of Instruction, 6*(1), 77-88. Retrievable from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED539840.pdf

Morgan, P. L. (2006). Increasing task engagement using preference or choice-making: Some behavioral and methodological factors affecting their efficacy as classroom interventions. *Remedial and Special Education, 27*(3), 176-187.

Morgan, P. L., & Fuchs, D. (2007). Is there a bi-directional relationship between children's reading skills and reading motivation? *Exceptional Children, 73*(2), 165-183.

Nyborg, G. (2011). Teachers' use of motivational utterances in special education in Norwegian compulsory schooling: A contribution aimed at fostering an inclusive education for pupils with learning difficulties. *International Journal of Special Education, 26*(3), 248-259.

Park, Y. (2011). How motivational constructs interact to predict elementary students' reading performance: Examples from attitudes and self-concept in reading. *Learning and Individual Differences, 21*(4), 347–358.

Reid, R., Lienemann, T. O., & Hagaman, J. L. (2013). *Strategy instruction for students with learning disabilities* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Reynolds, P. L., & Symons, S. (2001). Motivational variables and children's text search. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 93*(1), 14-23.

Santa, C. (1988). *Content reading including study systems*. Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt Publishing.

Stenhoff, D. M., Davey, B. J., & Kraft, B. L. (2008). The effects of choice on assignment completion and percent correct by a high school student with a learning disability. *Education and Treatment of Children, 31*(2), 203-211.

Stipek, D. (1988). *Motivation to learn: From theory to practice.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Wery, J., & Thomson, M. M. (2013). Motivational strategies to enhance effective learning in teaching struggling students. *Support for Learning, 28*(3), 103-108.

Wang, J. H., & Guthrie, J. T. (2004). Modeling the effects of intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, amount of reading, and past reading achievement on text comprehension between U.S. and Chinese students. *Reading Research Quarterly, 39*(2), 162-186.

Witzel, B. S., & Mercer, C. D. (2003). Using rewards to teach students with disabilities: Implications for motivation. *Remedial and Special Education, 24*(2), 88-96.

Wood, K. D., & Blanton, W. E. (2009). *Literacy instruction for adolescents: Research-based practice.* New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Dinner Choice Menu Photo Citations

1st photo: Appetizers on white plate

Kenyon, Chelsie. "Mexican Appetizer Platter." Photo. *About.com*. 2006. 14 July 2014 http://mexicanfood.about.com/od/fiestaappetizers/r/quickappetizer.htm/

2nd photo: White plate with tacos and limes

Unknown photographer. "Blackened Salmon Tacos with Corn Salsa and Cilantro Lime Ranch." Photo. *Cooking Classy with a Sprinkle of Fancy*. 28 March 2012. 14 July 2014 http://www.cookingclassy.com/2012/03/blackened-salmon-tacos-with-corn-salsa-and-cilantro-lime-ranch/

3rd photo: Yellow plate, Spanish rice with limes
Unknown photographer. "Mexican Rice." Pho-
to. *Quick 'n Easy Recipes.* Unknown publica-
tion data. 14 July 2014.
http://www.quickneasyrecipes.net/mexican
-rice-2/

4th photo: White plate, Flan Dessert
Foodie Susan. "Flan – A Spanish Dessert." Pho-
to. *DELICIOUSFOOD4U.COM*. 6 Sept. 2012.
14 July 2014.
http://www.deliciousfood4u.com/2012/09/
flan-a-spanish-dessert