INTERVENTIONS
for Academic and
Behavior Problems II:
Preventive and Remedial
Approaches

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CHAPTER 12

Behaviorally Effective School Environments

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INTRODUCTION

Calls to improve the quality of school discipline and safety have increased dramatically in response to recent school shootings, rising problem behaviors in schools, and a lack of school preparedness. Over the past 20 years, discipline, related factors (e.g., fighting, violence, vandalism, truancy, lack of discipline, drug use) have been among the top concerns of the general public and teachers (Elam, Rose, & Gallup, 1996a, 1996b). In addition, since 1975 efforts to improve educational services and opportunities for students with emotional and behavioral disorders have increased in general education settings (P. L. 94–142, Individuals with Disabilities Education Act Amendments of 1997 [IDEA 1997]; U.S. Department of Education, 1994).

The escalating concerns about students who display antisocial behavior are not new and, in fact, have been discussed regularly ever since our public school system was established. Although different in form, the immediate response then, as now, has been to tighten structural controls (e.g., lockdowns, security guards, metal detectors), exclude students with serious troubling behavior (e.g., expulsion, alternative placements), and increase punishments (e.g., corporal punishment, restrictions, in-school detention) (Elliot, Hamburg & Williams, 1998; Loeber & Farrington, 1998).

As problem behaviors escalate there is greater police presence on school campuses, installation of metal detectors, greater use of random drug tests and searches, and adoption of school uniforms. All of these responses have emotional appeal and political support, but have not been shown to be effective in improving discipline or safety in our schools (Elliot et al., 1998; Loeber & Farrington, 1998). Faced with a lack of viable alternatives, existing systems have answered the challenges presented by students with problem behavior by excluding them from school and by increasing the use of punishment-based strategies (Mayer, 1995; Mayer & Sulzer-Azaroff, 1990).
Unfortunately, punishment-based interventions have been shown to be one of the three least effective responses (in addition to psychotherapy and counseling) that institutions can make to violent problem behavior (Gottfredson, 1997; Lipsey, 1991, 1992; Lipsey & Wilson, 1993; Tolan & Guerra, 1994). In fact, if punishing problem behavior is used without a system of positive behavior support, increases in aggression, vandalism, truancy, tardiness, and dropping out (Guess, Helmstetter, Turnbull, & Knowlton, 1987; Mayer, 1995; Mayer & Sulzer-Azaroff, 1990), in addition to increases in mental health problems (McCord, 1995), tend to be observed. When reactive management is overemphasized, and prevention is underemphasized, students with problem behaviors are the most likely to (a) be excluded from school (Reichle, 1990), (b) drop out (U.S. Department of Education, 1994), (c) prompt teacher requests for assistance (Horner, Diemer, & Brazeau, 1992; Sprague & Rian, 1993), and (d) become involved in antisocial lifestyles (American Psychological Association, 1993; Walker, Colvin, & Ramsey, 1995).

In a review of schooling practices related to making schools safer and less violent, Morrison, Furlong, and Morrison (1997) cite six factors that affect the academic and social development of students:

1. **Academic failure** is a strong predictor of later psychological disturbance, delinquency, substance abuse, and dropping out of school.

2. **Lack of attachment**, commitment, and bonding to school is associated with school failure.

3. **Negative expectations** for students by staff.

4. **Peer rejection**, or association with a negative peer culture, are high risk factors for school failure.

5. **Negative school climate**, teacher apathy, authoritarian leadership style, and lack of teacher student participation are not associated with effective schools.

6. **High student density** due to limited space, low capacity to avoid confrontations, and poor building design may promote violent behavior.

Fortunately, yet ironically, as incidence and prevalence rates of problem behavior have increased, so has the effectiveness of behaviorally based interventions to address deviant and destructive behavior (Carr et al., 1999). We are more effective today at responding to behavioral problems than ever before (Biglan, 1995; Larson, 1994; Mayer, 1995; Peacock Hill Working Group, 1991; Sugai & Horner, 1994, 1996; Sugai & Tindal, 1993; Walker et al., 1995; Wolery, Bailey, & Sugai, 1988). For example, we know that social skills instruction, instructional and curricular adaptations, and behaviorally based interventions are among the most effective interventions for reducing prob-
### FIGURE 1

Summary of Scientific Conclusions From Gottfredson (1997) of What Works, Does Not Work, and Is Promising in School-Based Prevention Programs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>To Prevent Crime and Delinquency</th>
<th>To Prevent Substance Use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>What works?</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Programs aimed at building school capacity to initiate and sustain innovation.</td>
<td>• Programs aimed at clarifying and communicating norms about behavior.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Programs aimed at clarifying and communicating norms about behaviors: by establishing school rules, improving the consistency of their enforcement (particularly when they emphasize positive reinforcement of appropriate behavior), or communicating norms through school-wide campaigns (e.g., anti-bullying campaigns) or ceremonies.</td>
<td>• Comprehensive instructional programs that focus on a range of social competency skills (e.g., developing self-control, stress-management, responsible decision making, social problem solving, and communication skills) and that are delivered over a long period of time to continually reinforce skills.</td>
</tr>
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<td>• Behavior modification programs and programs that teach &quot;thinking skills&quot; to high-risk youths.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **What is promising?** |                          |
|• Programs that group youths into smaller "schools within schools" to create smaller units, more supportive interactions, or greater flexibility in instruction. | • Programs aimed at building school capacity to initiate and sustain innovation. |
|• Behavior modification programs and programs that teach "thinking skills" to high-risk youths. | • Programs that group youths into smaller "schools within schools" to create smaller units, more supportive interactions, or greater flexibility in instruction. |

| **What does not work** |                          |
|• Counseling students, particularly in a peer group context, does not reduce delinquency or substance use. | • Programs that improve classroom management and that use effective Instructional techniques. |
|• Offering youths alternative activities such as recreation and community service activities in the absence of more potent prevention programming does not reduce substance use. This conclusion is based on reviews of broadly defined alternative activities in school and community settings. Effects of these programs on other forms of delinquency are not known. |
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...lem behaviors and educating students with severe problem behavior (Gottfredson, 1997; Lipsey, 1991, 1992; Lipsey & Wilson, 1993; Tolan & Guerra, 1994; Walker et al., 1995). Procedures such as functional assessment, social skills instruction, self-management strategies, and direct instruction have impressive empirical support (Kauffman, 1997b). In addition, Gottfredson (1997) examined 149 published studies of school-based programs designed to prevent problem behavior, especially crime, delinquency, and substance use. A summary of her scientific conclusions is shown in Figure 1. The consistent theme is that (a) investing in students through effective instruction in social skills and academics and (b) redoubling efforts to establish predictable and positive learning environments remain the most promising strategies for reversing current trends.

Unfortunately, we have been ineffective in obtaining sustained and accurate use of these practices in schools, especially for children with disabilities who present significant behavioral challenges. This failure exists not because we lack the technology or are uncaring, but because we have failed to (a) increase the capacity of educators to create and maintain environments that blend these technologies with sustainable support systems (Sugai & Horner, 1994, 1996; Sugai, Horner, Dunlap et al., 2000; Zins & Ponti, 1990) and (b) establish effective and efficient mechanisms to disseminate to educators what we know works; that is, we have not operationalized the call for “research-to-practice” (Carmine, 1997).

A major thesis of this chapter is that in our effort to build effective behavioral procedures we have paid insufficient attention to establishing effective systems of schoolwide positive behavioral interventions and supports. More importantly, we have failed to prepare teachers and administrators to understand and implement systems that make effective and sustained use of these preferred practices (Sugai, Bullis, & Cumblad, 1997). It is not enough to identify practices that are effective. We also need to define and build systems that will support effective practices over time. Zins and Ponti (1990) addressed the need for supportive systems when they wrote, “A program consisting of potent and validly conceived mechanisms and processes may not succeed because the host environments are not able to support those processes” (p. 24).

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of both the practices that have been demonstrated to improve the behavior of students in schools and the “host environment” systems that nurture and sustain these practices. Priority is given to proactive efforts that unify school, family, and community; increase the effectiveness, efficiency, and relevance of team-based problem solving; and give high priority to an agenda of primary prevention.

THE CONTENT OF SOCIALLY COMPETENT SCHOOL ENVIRONMENTS

To develop and sustain socially competent school environments and to improve school discipline, an analysis of the problem context and the use of a systems approach to school-wide discipline and positive behavior support are necessary. The basic message is that effective schools invest in systems and strategies that prevent behavior problems rather than relying on compelling consequences to deter problem behavior (Furlong, Morrison, Chung, Bates, & Morrison, 1997; Walker et al., 1996).
A comprehensive approach to school discipline emphasizes (a) teaching appropriate behaviors rather than just punishing unwanted behavior, (b) matching the level of intervention resources to the level of behavioral challenge presented by students, and (c) designing and integrating multiple systems that deal with the full range of discipline challenges (Walker et al., 1995). Among the most important messages for school redesign is the need to prevent behavior problems through proactive instruction rather than reactive remediation of discipline problems after they develop. Just as our business community has learned that quality products come from systems that emphasize building initial quality into the product rather than elaborate systems to check for errors after the product is built (Albin, 1992; Deming, 1986), so we must emphasize and invest in teaching appropriate behaviors before problems develop (Colvin, Kame'enui, & Sugai, 1993; Colvin, Sugai, & Patching, 1993; Gresham, 1997; Sugai, 1992). Viewing inappropriate problems as outcomes of inefficiencies of the system (Jenkins & Jenkins, 1995) is a more efficient and effective way to improve discipline in our schools.

Even proactive efforts, however, will need to be accompanied by targeted behavioral programs for those students who come to school with well-established patterns of antisocial and disruptive behavior. For these students, the key is to ensure that the resources (time, personnel, materials) assembled for behavioral intervention match the magnitude of the challenge. In this regard Travis Thompson’s (1994) assessment of American education is most relevant: “We in America have for too long approached our children’s futures as if we were taking a chance on the lottery. We invest very little and hope that somehow chance will bail us out.” Our history suggests that low cost, get-tough efforts have had minimal value in addressing serious patterns of violent and destructive behavior.

Effective discipline efforts also move beyond the “silver bullet” approach to establish durable reform. Violence in our schools has multiple causes and will require an integration of multiple behavioral systems. To expect one package, or one tactic, to address the full spectrum of behavioral challenges underestimates the breadth of the challenges. What is needed is a constellation of procedures that are delivered within well-integrated systems.

One comprehensive approach to educational and behavioral support builds from assumptions about the distribution of behavioral challenges in our schools. This approach emphasizes that prevention of academic and behavioral failure requires attention to multiple systems of intervention: Universal Interventions, Specialized Group Interventions, and Specialized Individual Interventions (Colvin, Kame'enui, & Sugai, 1993; Sugai, 1996; Sugai & Horner, 1994, 1996, 1999; Sugai, Horner, Dunlap, et al., 2000; Walker et al., 1996). Two important principles are illustrated in this framework. First, the intensity of the intervention must be commensurate with the severity or intensity of the problem behavior. Second, the effectiveness and efficiency of the individual student system are dependent upon the effectiveness and efficiency of the school-wide system. Figure 2, on page 320, illustrates the elements of this model for both behavioral and academic problems. Each triangle represents all students in a school. For both behavioral and academic goals, the school begins with proactive, uni-
versal interventions that target instruction on appropriate skills for all students. All children will receive instruction in basic reading skills. All children also will receive instruction on basic social skills. The universal intervention will be effective with many, but not all, students. The large group of students in the lower part of each triangle represents those students who respond successfully to the proactive, universal intervention. Of those students who do not respond to the universal intervention, some will respond to efficient, specialized group interventions. Those children who do not learn reading skills from the universal intervention may succeed in a smaller group-instruction format that allows more practice. Those children who do not perform appropriate social skills after the universal intervention may respond to a simple group intervention that targets increased structure and contingent feedback. These students are represented in the middle section of each triangle. There will remain, however, a small number of students at the top of each triangle who enter schools either with significant skill deficits or learned misrules and do not respond to either universal or specialized group interventions. These students will need highly individualized and intensive group interventions either to learn to read or to develop social behaviors that will allow them to succeed in school.
Applying this comprehensive approach to behavioral support in schools involves attending to the behavior of all students in the school, not just those with problem behaviors. The key is to prevent students from moving toward violent and destructive behavior. Results from recent work (Colvin, Kame'enui, & Sugai, 1993; Hall, 1997; Taylor-Greene et al., 1997) suggest that a major proportion (>80%) of the total student body in many elementary or middle schools enter the schoolhouse door without major problem behaviors. These students have adequate social skills, are ready to learn and respond to universal interventions that teach social behaviors. The goal for this large group of students is to elaborate and maintain their social and academic readiness, and prevent the acquisition of norm-violating behaviors that would lead them toward antisocial lifestyles. These students also provide the foundation for a positive social culture within the school.

A second, smaller group of students (5–10%) will be “at-risk” for severe problem behaviors because they enter school from backgrounds with significant risk factors, such as poverty, disability, dysfunctional family structure, and/or deteriorating neighborhoods. These students will engage in problem behaviors beyond an acceptable level, and will be unresponsive to the basic discipline systems used for the whole student body even after they receive the universal training. These “at-risk” students require more targeted attention (e.g., small group instruction), but often are responsive to simple, individually focused interventions (e.g., token economies, behavioral contracts, self-management). The behavior support goal for this group is to decrease opportunities or situations in which high risk behaviors might be fostered and to establish effective and efficient pro-social repertoires that would increase their responsiveness to universal interventions.

A third group of students (1–5%) will display chronic patterns of violent, disruptive, or destructive behavior. These students will contribute 40–50% of the major behavioral disruptions in the school, draw 50–60% of building and classroom resources and attention, and will not demonstrate responsiveness to universal or targeted group intervention procedures. Support for these students will be intense, individualized, and often require comprehensive systems integration in which school personnel collaborate with the family, community agencies, and juvenile justice officials (i.e., multi-sector initiatives and cross-systems change) (Lawson & Sailor, 2000). The behavior support objective for this group of students is to reduce the intensity, frequency, and complexity of their problem behavior patterns, and provide suitable prosocial replacements that will compete with their more intrusive and unacceptable problem behaviors.

The organization of students into these three groups oversimplifies the dynamic of behavioral challenges in schools, but it emphasizes the different intervention systems that any school will need. Prevention of future behavior problems becomes the guiding theme of the interventions (Walker et al., 1996). To summarize, in terms of “prevention,” primary prevention involves efforts to avert the initial acquisition of problem behaviors. Like prenatal care, early childhood vaccination, dental fluoridation, and other health enhancing efforts, the emphasis with primary prevention in schools is on procedures that can be used universally (with and by everyone), are comparatively inexpensive to admin-
ISTER, and avoid the development of problems. Secondary prevention refers to procedures that quickly remediate problems while they are still emerging. Like early medical care for a young child with asthma, secondary prevention efforts in schools involve procedures that are more intense, for example, special classes, small group interventions, and individually targeted procedures (e.g., behavioral contracts, social skills instruction, problem solving training). Tertiary prevention involves more intense interventions for students with ingrained, chronic patterns of problem behavior. Like insulin interventions for individuals with diabetes or medication control of high blood pressure, interventions typically must be highly individualized, incorporate wraparound services, and emphasize protection and control as well as a focus on behavior change.

Alignment of the behavioral challenges presented by the full range of students in a school with integration of the three prevention approaches provides a useful structure for organizing the multiple behavioral systems needed in a school that promotes high levels of behavioral competence.

PROMOTING BEHAVIORAL COMPETENCE: EFFECTIVE BEHAVIORAL PRACTICES IN SCHOOLS

Exciting advances are occurring in the use of behavioral procedures in schools (Gresham, Sugai, & Horner, 2001). Initial strategies and tools for responding to individual students are leading to broader classroom interventions, and more recently, to school-wide and district-wide systems for behavior change. Central examples of these changes lie in School-Wide, Classroom, and Individual Student systems as described below.

School-Wide Behavior Support Systems

The school-wide system consists of a set of universal or general strategies and processes that are intended to create an environment to which most students (i.e., 80-85%) respond predictably and prosocially (Colvin, Kame’enui, & Sugai, 1993; Colvin, Marz, DeForest & Wilt, 1995; Colvin, Sugai, & Kame’enui, 1993; Pruitt, Kelsh, & Sugai, 1989; Taylor-Greene & Karub, 2000). For these students the goal is to maximize academic achievement, enhance peer and adult interactions, and inhibit problem behaviors. School-wide systems are designed to have primary prevention functions. The school-wide system has little impact on the behavior of those students who present the most severe and intractable behavior patterns. In fact, school-wide strategies and processes might be conceptualized as “screening” devices for identifying these students who, by definition, do not respond favorably to universal or general interventions (Taylor-Greene et al., 1997).

The school-wide system is composed of six major components: (a) a statement of purpose (or mission), (b) a list of positively stated behavioral expectations or rules, (c) procedures for directly teaching these expectations to students (Gresham, 1998), (d) a continuum of strategies for encouraging these expectations, (e) a continuum of strate-
gies for discouraging rule violations, and (f) procedures for monitoring and record-keeping (Colvin, Kame'enui, & Sugai, 1993; Colvin, Sugai, & Kame'enui, 1993; Sulzer-Azaroff & Mayer, 1994). School-wide systems are important because they provide a foundation for enhancing consistency and prosocial behavior within and across individual classrooms and non-classroom settings (e.g., hallways, cafeterias, buses, assemblies, playgrounds) (Colvin, Sugai, Good, & Lee, 1997; Kattub, Taylor-Greene, March, & Horner, 2000; Nelson & Colvin, 1995). By increasing the efficiency with which school-wide systems function, greater attention and resources can be directed toward classroom and individual student systems.

Gottfredson and her colleagues indicate that schools which have (a) clear school expectations and rules, reward structures, and sanctions for rule violations; (b) efficient faculty communication and problem solving structures; and (c) present a caring and prosocial climate are associated with greater capacity to respond to disruption and tend to have reduced rates of problem behavior (Corcoran, 1985; Gottfredson, 1987, 1997; Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 1985; Gottfredson, Gottfredson, & Hybl, 1993). In addition, Gottfredson (1997) indicates four strategies for improving classroom and school environments:

1. Building school capacity to manage itself;
2. Setting norms or expectations for behavior and establishing and enforcing school rules, policies, or regulations;
3. Changing classroom instructional and management practices to enhance classroom climate or improve educational processes; and
4. Grouping students in different ways to achieve smaller, less alienating, or otherwise more suitable micro-climates within the school (pp. 5-15).

School-wide systems have process features that support and sustain the development and use of these effective practices and promote classroom and school climates. Effective school-wide behavior support systems have (a) an administrator who is an active leader and participant in quality improvement systems, (b) a team-based decision- and problem-solving structure with grade and staff representation and high status in the operation of discipline systems, (c) high commitment (>80%) from all staff (e.g., classified, certified, administrative, special), (d) a behavior support action plan that has high priority and is integrated into the school improvement plan, (e) in-house behavioral capacity (technical expertise), and (f) a long-term (3-4 years) investment in the effort (Colvin, Kame'enui, & Sugai, 1993; Lewis & Sugai, 1999; Sugai & Horner, 1996).

Classroom Behavior Support Systems

Although school-wide rules and expectations serve as foundations for classroom discipline, classroom systems possess greater variability because teachers display individualized expertise and content knowledge in curriculum, design of instruction, and behavior management. In addition, their approach to classroom management is shaped
by their prior teaching experiences and pre-service and in-service training history, etc. (Smylie, 1988, 1989). Because of these differences classroom systems represent mini school-wide systems. In addition to the six components indicated for the school-wide systems, classroom management systems include strategies and processes for (a) curriculum selection and modification/accommodation, (b) design of instruction, (c) presentation of curriculum and instruction, and (d) proactive classroom management.

When selecting a curriculum that increases student engagement and minimizes disruptive student behavior, the following questions should be considered: (a) Is the acquisition of misrules controlled? (b) Are skill components sequenced? (c) Is presentation content detailed? (d) Is student engagement maximized? (e) Are correction procedures given? (f) Are practice activities included? and (g) Are cumulative reviews provided? (Kame’enui & Darch, 1995). When student performance progress is inadequate, Deschenes, Ebeling, and Sprague (1994) suggest the following curriculum adaptations be used to improve the match between student skills and curriculum demands: (a) adapt amount to be learned, (b) adapt amount of time allotted and allowed, (c) increase amount of teacher assistance, (d) adapt delivery of instruction, (e) adapt skill difficulty, (f) adapt learner’s response mode, (g) adapt amount of learner involvement, (h) adapt goals, or (i) provide different instruction and materials.

Although a classroom teacher might have the best curriculum and the most complete lesson plans, students still may fail to benefit because the teacher’s instructional presentation skills are insufficient. The research on effective teaching behaviors is well developed and clear (e.g., Brewer, Hawkins, Catalano, & Neckerman, 1995; Cotton, 1995; Emmer, Evertson, Clements, & Worsham, 1994; Evertson, Emmer, Clements, & Worsham, 1994; Good & Brophy, 1987; Paine, Raddichi, Rosellini, Deutschman, & Darch, 1983; Rosenshine, 1986). A summary of these effective teaching behaviors is provided in Figure 3.

The goal of proactive classroom management is to increase predictability and to accommodate the individual and collective needs of students. In general, six major areas should be considered: (a) physical environment (e.g., traffic patterns, seating arrangements, unsupervisable areas), (b) student routines (e.g., transitions, starting/ending work, getting help or materials), (c) teacher routines (e.g., working with assistants and volunteers, taking attendance, dealing with visitors, scheduling), (d) behavior management (e.g., encouraging prosocial behavior, discouraging rule violations, responding to crises), (e) curriculum and materials (e.g., availability, quantity and quality), and (f) data management and evaluation (e.g., grading work, individual education plan progress, keeping track of problem behavior) (Colvin & Lazar, 1997; Good & Brophy, 1987; Kame’enui & Darch, 1995; Paine et al., 1983; Sprick, Sprick, & Garrison, 1992).

Like the approach for establishing school-wide behavior support, the process of proactive classroom management is based on an instructional approach in which the structures and functions of classrooms are taught to students with the same strategies used to teach academic skills and content knowledge (Colvin, Sugai, & Patching, 1993; Kame’enui & Darch, 1995; Sugai, 1992). This teaching approach involves four basic steps. The first is to teach the behavioral expectation, rule, or routine directly and
Summary of Effective Teaching Practices

1. Structured and scheduled opportunities to learn.
2. Curriculum aligned with desired outcomes.
3. Curriculum is delivered directly.
4. Students successfully interacting (engaged) with curriculum.
5. Brisk pacing.
6. Continuous monitoring of students and structuring of activities.
7. Specific explanations and instructions for new concepts.
8. Allocated time for guided practice.
9. Cumulative review of skills being taught.
10. Regular and varied assessments of learning of new concepts.
11. Regular and active interactions with individual students.
12. Frequent and detailed feedback.
13. Varied forms of positive reinforcement.
14. Effective and varied questioning strategies.
15. Student attention secured and maintained within and across instructional activities and environments.
16. Reinforcement for task completion.
17. Appropriate selection of examples and non-examples.
18. Clearly defined and enforced behavioral expectations.
19. Appropriate use of model/demonstration.
20. Appropriate use of behavioral rehearsal.
21. Effective, planned, and smooth transition within and between lessons.
22. High rates of correct student responding.
23. Positive, predictable, and orderly learning environment.
24. High expectations for achievement.
explicitly to all students. The teaching process consists of carefully selecting and sequencing teaching examples (positive and negative), providing demonstrations and role play (behavioral rehearsal) practice activities, testing with untrained examples, and providing informative corrections for errors and adequate positive reinforcement for correct responding (Engelmann & Carnine, 1982; Kame’enui & Simmons, 1990; Sugai, 1992; Sugai & Lewis, 1996). The second step is to arrange opportunities for the expectation, rule, or routine to be elicited in the natural environment. The third step is to monitor (active supervision) the student’s performance in the natural environment by providing corrective feedback and positive reinforcement based on the student’s performance. The final step is to monitor the progress being made by the student to determine the effectiveness and efficiency with which he or she displays the expectation, rule, or routine and to make appropriate modifications in the instruction. Specific, intense, and comprehensive teaching is recommended at the beginning of the school year (e.g., first day and week of school) along with regular review and practice sessions throughout the school year (Jones & Jones, 1995; Kame’enui & Darch, 1995; Paine et al., 1983; Sprick et al., 1992).

Individual Student Behavior Support Systems

Although proactive, comprehensive school-wide behavior systems may have a noticeable impact on the majority of students (e.g., 80–85%) and proactive classroom behavior support systems may promote relatively high rates of academic engagement for most students, a small proportion of students will not respond favorably and may require specially designed group or individualized interventions (Kauffman, 1997a; Walker et al., 1995). These students display high rates of problem behavior (externalizing and internalizing) that tend to be unresponsive to general or universal interventions which are effective for the largest proportion of students (primary prevention).

In general, a system for developing, implementing, and managing programming for individual students who display severe behavior problems should include the following prerequisites: (a) written policies, procedures, and formats; (b) active administrative support; (c) comprehensive, proactive school-wide system of behavior support; (d) in-building behavioral competence; (e) team-based problem-solving response (e.g., behavior support team, teacher assistance team); (f) sufficient resources (e.g., personnel, time); and (g) intact, proactive, and comprehensive school-wide system of behavior support/discipline. The general content of the specialized school-based interventions that are needed to respond to the severity of the problem behaviors displayed by these students consists of the following components: (a) early identification/intervention, (b) efficient request for assistance, (c) immediate planned response to crisis situations, (d) functional behavioral assessment, (e) competing pathways summary, (f) behavior support plan, (g) plan for implementation of behavior support plan, (h) active implementation of plan, (i) ongoing record-keeping and evaluation, and (j) wraparound processes.

Early identification/intervention. Identifying students who are at-risk for antisocial outcomes early in school is widely recommended (Walker et al., 1995; Walker &
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