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IDENTIFYING A ROADMAP OF SUPPORT FOR SECONDARY STUDENTS IN SCHOOL-WIDE POSITIVE BEHAVIOR SUPPORT APPLICATIONS

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The need for an increased understanding of secondary and tertiary supports within a school-wide positive behavior support framework in high schools is discussed. Outcome data such as discipline referrals sent to the office seem to indicate that school-wide applications of positive behavior support can decrease the proportion of students who require more intensive supports. While limited information is available on high school level supports, connections can be made with cutting edge research on self-determination and increased student participation in buy-in to the overall process. Connecting individualized supports to the overall curriculum of the schools appears to have implications for increasing the effectiveness and efficiency of supports in secondary school settings.

This paper examines the application of a three-tiered positive behavior support (PBS) approach in high school settings, particularly the application of intensive supports through a continuum. Considerable research in school-wide applications of PBS has focused on elementary and middle schools (Taylor-Greene et al., 1997). There appears to be limited examples of school-wide positive behavior support in high schools, and fewer examples of more intense interventions as they relate to school-wide applications in high schools (Bohanon-Edmonson, Flannery, Sugai & Eber, 2005).
This article seeks to build an approach to inform future applications of school-wide PBS supports in high school by: (a) reviewing current positive behavior support approaches and the application to high schools, (b) discussing secondary and tertiary levels of support as they relate to interventions beyond primary school-wide approaches, and (c) developing a conceptual framework for a comprehensive process of support for secondary schools.

Current Approaches to School-Wide System of Support and High Schools
The following section is a brief overview of applications of school-wide PBS supports. We will discuss the definitions of PBS, the underlying principles of support, applications of PBS, and their impact on schools.
Definition of PBS
According to Turnbull et al. (2002) PBS consists of *a broad range of systemic and individualized strategies for achieving important social and learning outcomes while preventing problem behavior* (p. 337) that can be applied school-wide. This approach comprises viable treatment solutions for students whose behavior impedes their learning by providing: (a) concepts underlying behavior, (b) a structure for providing supports, and (c) a set of evidenced-based strategies that can be implemented in schools.

Several concepts regarding behavior and discipline provide the basis for PBS. Positive behavior support is built on the theory that behavior both communicates needs and serves a purpose (Foster-Johnson &Dunlap, 1993; March & Horner, 2002; O'Neil et al, 1997). Further, its literature base purports that positive and negative reinforcement impact behavior (i.e., increase behaviors) (March & Horner, 2002). In terms of traditional discipline, PBS is constructed on the theory that punishment is a double-edged sword that can be effective with some students, while producing potential side effects for others (Horner et al., 1990; Mayer & Sulzer-Azaroff, 1991, Sidman, 1989). These side effects can

impact student and staff quality of life factors (e.g., social networks, physical activity) (Turnbull et al., 2002). The emphasis on teaching within the model is supported by the etymological examination of the word *discipline*, which derives from the Latin word *disciplina*, which means to teach appropriate behaviors that lead to an ordered way of life. Subsequently, this approach to behavioral change requires teaching, acknowledging, and re-directing successive approximations of behavior towards a goal (i.e., shaping) (Edmonson & Turnbull, 2002).

PBS includes three levels of support: primary, secondary, and tertiary (Colvin, 1991, Walker et al., 1996, Horner & Todd, 2004; Lewis & Sugai, 1999). Primary school-wide or universal supports are provided to the entire student population, and tend to directly impact approximately 80% of the students within a typical school. These supports are characterized by whole-school applications (e.g., agreeing upon and teaching common behavioral expectations), but do not necessarily require intense training for staff to implement. At the core of this level is teaching and acknowledging student behavior. The establishment of a positive school culture, underlying purpose of the primary schoolwide level, is clearly enhanced by the students exhibiting adequate social skills such as respect for self, others, personal responsibility for tasks. Bremer & Smith (2004) indicated that secondary students may be interested in interventions that include directly teaching social skills (e.g., expectations) to *(a) avoid the negative consequences of inadequate social skills, including loneliness, job loss, or embarrassment at school or work; and (b) enjoy the benefits of having good social skills, such as friendship, acceptance from others, and good relationships at school and work* (p. 2). These authors indicated that secondary teachers can enhance the effectiveness of teaching behaviors by asking, *students to identify the social skills necessary for achieving goals important to them* (p.2). Students and teachers can select these skills to be taught one or two at a time and rehearse them through the use of role play. Even with effective primary interventions, we still need supports that address the top 20% of the student population with the most significant needs. While this level of support is effective for a majority of the students, at least 20% of them will require more intense support than exposure to schoolwide interventions (Walker et al. 1996). These more intensive supports are provided in addition to the primary supports and on a group or individual basis.

Group level or secondary supports are delivered to a smaller segment of the school population, and require additional data collection and training. For example secondary level supports can involve: (a) interventions delivered to groups of students (e.g., classroom management interventions); and (b) groups of students from disaggregated settings (e.g., different classrooms or grade levels), but with common needs (e.g., daily behavior contracts and goal setting to address attention maintained behaviors). Specific examples of these approaches will be discussed below. Finally, approximately five percent of the students will require tertiary and individualized supports. While the students are exposed to school-wide and group-level interventions, the needed supports becomes more intense and individualized, as does the behavioral expertise and level of data analysis necessary to make informed treatment decisions.

Tertiary or individualized supports are characterized by the most intense level of training for staff and greatest specificity of data collection and investment of time. *Figure 1* provides a graphic explanation

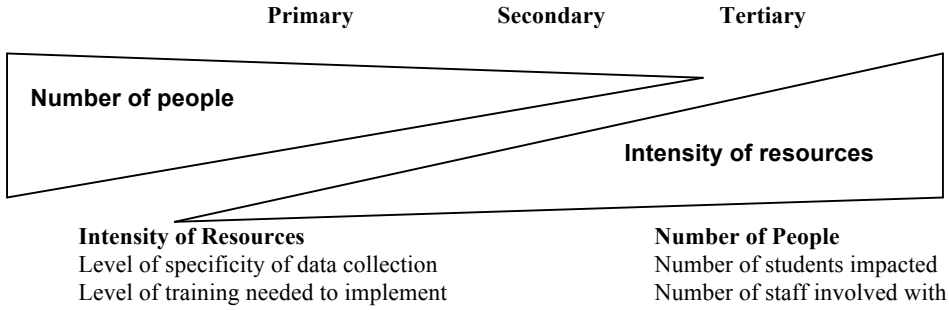

Figure 1.
Explanation of the intensity of resources and number of people required to implement primary, secondary, and tertiary supports (Adapted from Turnbull et al., 2002).

of this approach to support. There is a large group of effective interventions that are designed for individual students. These interventions were initially developed to support students with disabilities (Sailor & Roger, 2005) but are applicable to a broader group of at risk students. Some PBS related interventions include, but are not limited to self-monitoring (Dunlap et al., 1995), self-management

(Watson & Tharp, 1998), task-interspersal (Horner, Day, Sprague, O'Brien, & Heatherfield, 1991), incorporating preferred activities into instruction (Dunlap, Foster-Johnson, Clarke, Kern, & Childs, 1995), behavioral momentum (Dunlap & Morelli-Robbins, 1990), priming (Wilde, Koegel, & Koegel, n.d.), functional-communication training (Dunlap & Kerns, 1993), teaching replacement behaviors (Lewis, Sugai, Colvin, 1998), behavioral contracting (Walker et al., 1996), and person-centered planning interventions (Turnbull & Turnbull, 1998). Only a few of these examples have been studied within the context of a setting that also is implementing primary (schoolwide) levels of support. The efficacy of providing school-wide supports to increase the frequency (Eber, Lewendoski, Hyde, Bohanon, 2005) and effectiveness (Turnbull, Turnbull, Shank, Smith, 2002) of secondary and tertiary interventions is increasingly being documented.

Current Applications of PBS in High School Settings

There appears to be solid body of research that discusses promising practices that have documented impact on high school students. Though independently these practices exist, there are few, if any, models that combine these components comprehensively into one school setting. High schools have only recently begun the implementation of the three tiered model. A recent monograph provides a discussion of some of the critical features of school-wide support for high schools. This monograph was culminated following a round-table discussion involving more than 170 PBS implementers from across the country (Sugai, Flannery, and Bohanon, 2005). Though the discussions at the meeting were across all levels of implementation it was noted that majority of the high schools were only implementing at the schoolwide primary intervention level.

Secondary and Tertiary Supports in High Schools

In this section we discuss the extension of PBS from primary/universal level to the inclusion of the supports needed at the secondary and tertiary levels within the context of the high school. The latter two are discussed together because they are seen as a continuum of support provided for identified students, while still having access to primary interventions (e.g., school-wide acknowledgment).

McIntosh (1994) provided an overview of *secondary* level supports that were necessary for success of high school students. He discussed, as adapted from Crone et al., (2003), that critical elements of the support process included: interventions being continuously available, a response to support requests within 72 hours, students agreement to participate, low effort from teachers, alignment with school-wide expectations, staff and faculty implementation at school, interventions based on a variety of assessments and expectations, meetings to monitor and catch students, and ongoing progress monitoring. Specific intervention programs included function-based intervention teams (Hawken, March, & Horner, 2003; Hawken & Horner, 2002) and hallway interventions (Leedy, Bates, & Safran, 2004). According to McIntosh (2005), concerns for implementing secondary level in high schools included: lack of funding for release time for training, lack of involvement of experienced staff and parents on PBS teams, identifying students who require secondary level supports, over reliance on particular members of the staff (burn out), and the inability to monitor the progress of students during and following interventions. To ameliorate these concerns teachers need to be relieved of other duties to meet, plan, and to allow faculty to collect information for support plan development (e.g., direct observation).

Other secondary interventions could include classwide peer tutoring, systems for checking and connecting with students by tracking daily behavior, classwide contingencies and goal setting for targeted behaviors. These interventions can be applied to intact groups of students (e.g., classwide tutoring), or to groups of students with similar needs (e.g., attention) via asynchronous connections (e.g., systems for check and connect). A key element of this approach, in the opinions of these authors, is that interventions should be minimally invasive and efficient for general education staff to implement.

Complications related to implementation may increase with the sheer size and complexity of the school (NGA, 2003). To address these concerns, McIntosh (2005) reported that implementers recommended encouraging staff to connect with community agencies for support in provide training for new staff when they join the school, encourage parents to bring suspended students to a conference, use data systems to track office discipline referrals (e.g., School-wide Information System - http://www.swis.org), and waiting to implement secondary level interventions until school-wide supports are being fully implemented .

The premise of this article, as represented in *Figure 3*, is that if secondary supports seem to address the needs of the students, there is no need to advance to tertiary supports. If however, the needs of the students (particularly with respect to their quality of life) are too complex for a simple behavior plan, or the team cannot develop a functional alternative for a behavior, we should consider developing

tertiary support. These tertiary supports will be needed in addition to the primary and secondary supports for a small minority of students (about 5%).

Scott, Eber, Malloy, and Cormier (2004) provided a discussion of elements of tertiary supports as they related to the high school settings. The focus on the improvement for the student, family, and staff can be an expedient route to improve academic and behavior functioning. Accordingly, these authors suggested that individual tertiary supports have several key elements: (a) the voice and choice of the family and student, (b) a team process that is a strengths-based and relies on natural supports and settings, (c) a comprehensive plan based on the priorities of the team, and (d) planning for supports both within and outside of the school with the potential involvement of community agencies. Several factors appeared to influence the ability of schools to implement these types of supports including: (a) lack of staff involvement due to multiple initiatives, and large case loads; (b) time to plan and implement interventions, (c) administrative barriers including regulations, multiple initiatives, and limited support through funding; and (d) lack of more creative options including alternative methods for student course credit and alternatives to suspension and expulsion (Scott, Eber, Malloy, & Cormier, 2004).

To address these concerns, the authors suggested: (a) piloting interventions including flexible roles for staff, on-going training, and creating small pilot studies to win "converts" to the approach; (b) flexible schedules for team meetings including early release of students; (c) administrative support for funding by connecting with other school-wide initiatives and using data to "sell" the program to constituents; (d) use of existing and the creation of new systems that address needs such as after-school programs, advisory periods, grade level interventions; and (e) alternative academic programs.

Focus on transition and self-determination.

Due to the age and development level of the high student some additional components need to be considered during development of supports. The goal of secondary and tertiary interventions for high school students is to increase student success in high school and beyond. One of the primary purposes of high school is to prepare students for a successful transition to post secondary options. Critical to this next life step is the student's ability to be self-determined. This requires that interventions not only are based on functions of behavior but also are based on a process that is (a) leads to an increased level of self-determination, and (b) transition oriented.

Self-determined transition planning involves including the student, in an authentic way, to have more influence on their current and future well-being. Wehmeyer (1996) defined self-determination as students being: autonomous (e.g., free of undue influence), self-regulated (e.g., the ability to act and evaluate their behavior), psychologically empowered (e.g., belief in one's own capacity to act), and self-realized (e.g., accurate knowledge of self). Further, Wehmeyer, Baker, Blumberg, and Harrison (2004) identified two primary contributors to self-determined living including: "the capacity of the person to act in a self-determined manner and the degree to which the environment in which the person lives, learned, works, and plays provides opportunities for him or her to make choices and exert control over his or her life" (p. 29).

The components used to teach self-determination elements include, but are not limited to, "choice and decision-making skills, problem-solving skills, goal setting and attainment skills, self-management skills, self-advocacy skills, positive perceptions of control and efficacy, and self-knowledge and self-awareness" (p. 56). One of the driving forces behind teaching self-determination included "a bias and an ethical obligation in promoting self-determination to enable persons to do for themselves as much as they can and to minimize the amount and intensity of "other-determined" or other directed supports" (Wehmeyer, Baker, & Blumberg, 2004, p. 30).

Several studies have been conducted that indicate self-determination to be a skill that can be taught to the betterment of secondary students. While most studies in this area focus on students with disabilities, we propose that these techniques can be used with a wide variety of students who have needs with or without disabilities. Agran and Wehmeyer (2000) conducted a study where students with developmental disabilities and mental retardation developed a target behavior from their personal transition plans which included work, social, academic, and community living skills. On average, approximately 3.68 training sessions were required for the students to develop mastery of directing their own learning on their personal goals. Directly teaching self-determined skills was a key component to these interventions.

Wehmeyer, Agran, and Hughes (2000) conducted a study of teachers of students with disabilities, who worked with students between the ages of 14 and 21 (N = 1,219, response rate = 12%). Teachers reported that they did not teach these skills due: (a) to a belief students would not benefit, (b.) the teacher lacked the skills necessary to instruct these skills, and (c) they did not believe they had the authority to do so. Interestingly, teachers in general education settings said they were more likely to teach these skills than teachers in more segregated settings (e.g., self-contained special education

classrooms). Recommendations from this study included: (a) increased administrative support, (b) integrating self-determination beyond a specific class, and (c) increased connection with the IDEA requirement to include students in transition planning.

Palmer, Wehmeyer, Gipson, & Agran (2004) studied 22 middle and junior high school students with developmental disabilities and the integration of self-determination and curriculum modification with state and local standards. Following the intervention students demonstrated significant improvement in criterion-referenced measures of problem solving [$F(1,20) = 4.84$, $p = .04$]. Also, students demonstrated improvement on measures of study planning following interventions [$F(1,20) = 13.05$, $p = .002$].

Wehmeyer and Schwartz (1997) conducted a follow-up study of 80 students with mental retardation and learning disabilities one year after leaving high school. These authors found that while 90% of the students still lived with their parents, students who had high levels of self-determined behaviors (see Wehyemer, 1996) were more likely to have their own checking account ($X^2 = 4.75$, p=.03), savings account ($X^2 = 5.34$, $p = .02$), to be working full or part time ($X^2 = 6.75$, p 009), and to say they were more interested eventually living outside of their parents' homes than those with lower levels.

Processes that support the development of transition and self-determined *tertiary* supports can include person-center planning processes (e.g, Futures Planning Wraparound Supports). While there is a growing body of knowledge indicating these strategies have proven effective for students with disabilities, there is limited data regarding the application of these supports for high school students without disabilities within a school-wide framework. Each of these strategies will be discussed below along with their relationship to the development of tertiary supports for PBS and high school settings.

Increasing self determination through person-centered planning.

Person-centered planning, a key component of tertiary interventions, according to the Beach Center on Families and Disabilities involves helping individuals in "getting a life." This process involves a life filled with an active network of friends that reflects the personal preferences of the individual, a variety of daily activities, and a process that promotes dignity (Beach Center, Accessed 10/01/2005). For students with disabilities, this process can be associated with transition planning and family support (Dunlap, Fox, & Vaughn, 2003). Interventions related to person-centered interventions include group action planning, futures planning, self-determination and transition planning, and wraparound services.

Person-centered planning was designed as a process to support individuals with developmental disabilities but has been expanded for use with many different populations. With the student as the center of the intervention, teams work together to address the needs of the student and their family. As Flannery, Slovic, & Bigai (2001) stated, candidates for person centered plans would include, "individuals looking for a new focus or direction in their lives; students who are at risk of dropping out of school; students planning their transitions from school to the community; individuals in corrections systems; and those who are rehabilitation consumers benefit from these tools" p. 15. Our assertion is that this type of support can be generalized to benefit students who do not quality for a specific disability, but may be at risk of failure in the future (Flannery, Slovic, & Bigaj, 2001). While there is not one way to provide person centered planning, including students in the identification of their concerns and strategies for ameliorating them can be a powerful experience (Flannery, Slovic, & Bigaj, 2001).

Some concerns for implementing person-centered plans included: (a) that it is useful only for persons with developmental disabilities, (b) the length of meetings can be exhaustive (particular for students with students with learning disabilities, at risk youth, talented and gifted youth, teen parents), and (c) the desire for students to have shorter meetings with fewer people (Flannery, Slovic, & Bigaj, 2001). Providing purposeful training on the planning process appears to be a crucial component. Flannery, et al., (2000) conducted a study of students with a range of disabilities and their teachers who used person-centered planning as tool for transition planning. They found that participants who participated in comprehensive training increased : (a) use of procedures, (b) numbers of out-of school goals, (c) participation of non-paid staff providing support, and (d) overall higher satisfaction with the planning process.

Person centered planning appears to have several uses for students with intense needs, with and without special disabilities. For instance, components of person-centered planning tools (e.g., visual mapping of social networks) can be used to supplement and inform other assessment processes such as the FBA with regard to setting events or issues of complex quality of life needs (Flannery, Slovic, & Bigaj, 2001). The process also can be used for the development of transition plans and individual education plans (IEP). Further, these processes can be extended to whole class use (Flannery, Slovic, & Islasox, 1997).

Futures planning is a person centered planning process that supports the idea that the student's voice and choice are paramount. This process is typically used for students who have complex quality of life needs. A key element to this tool is that the student takes a more independent lead in the initial dialogue and problem solving. Many of the examples of future planning focus on engaging students who have lost interest in school by dealing directly with post-secondary outcomes (refs). "The task of re-invigorating the student's interest in the school begins with the development of broad, long-range goals by using the personal futures planning steps" (Cheney, Malloy, and Hager, 1998, p. 51).

According to the Malloy, Cheney, Haner, Cormier, & Bernstein (1998) the goal of futures planning meetings is to, "determine the career-related activities the young person wants to engage in and to develop specific action steps that will lead to meeting his or her career goals." Other program goals include high school completion, post-secondary education, and development of positive social relationships. Initially, the student takes the lead in articulating who is in their circle of support. Family members, friends, paid professionals, and other concerned individuals are added to the process after have been identified as someone who can assist with a goal of the futures plan.

Within the futures planning process, a staff member meets with a student to establish rapport and trust. Once the student is prepared, the staff member and the student meet for up to two hours using a visual agenda (e.g., flip charts), one of the most commonly used being the McGill Action Planning Systems (MAPS) (Vandercook, York, & Forest, 1989). On each page of a flip chart, one of the following headings is written: personal history, "who I am today", "people in my life", my dreams, fears, personal goals, short-term objectives, and time for the next meeting (Malloy, Cheney, Haner, Cormier, & Bernstein, S., 1998). The facilitator and the student discuss each domain and record the process on the flip chart. The culminating activity is the development of an action plan for the student regarding personal goals.

Cheney, Malloy, and Hager (1998) reported improved outcomes for high school aged students with emotional and behavior disorders following the future planning process. Through goal setting, students were allowed to develop flexible education plans by earning credit for work-based learning, adult basic education diplomas (flexible classes), and graduation equivalency degrees. Flexible courses included allowing students to complete independent studies with support of the school instructor and a university mentor. Other components of futures planning included: flexible education services, naturally supported employment, interagency collaboration and coordination, social skill building, and mentoring. These researchers reported 16 of the 17 students involved in their study completed their high school programs.

Malloy, Cheney, Haner, Cormier, & Bernstein (1998) reported similar outcomes for youth with emotional and behavioral disorders using the futures planning method. At least 94% of their first cohort of students obtained employment; two years later 88% of the students who were physically able to work were still employed; and their average wage was $6.31 per hour. The reported graduation rate for students within their program was 73%. After one year, satisfaction at school for the students involved within the program was reported to have increased from 5% to 63%, and from 33% to 54% on work satisfaction. The students' ability to problem solve and obtain personal goals was reported to have increased. Many of the goals developed by the students involve transitioning from secondary to post secondary environments. For some students, there is a need for additional members of a support team. Should this be necessary from the outset, or if students require additional support to implement their plan, wraparound can be an effective intervention.

Finally, one of the most comprehensive and intense levels of support at the tertiary level is the wraparound process (Eber, 2003; Epstein, M., Nordness, P. D.,Gallagher, K., Nelson, R., Lewis, L., & Schrepf, S., 2005). Wraparound is a defined planning process used to build personalized teams who construct networks of support and interventions with individual students with or at-risk of emotional or behavioral challenges and their families (Burchard, Bruns and Burchard, Bruns & Burchard, 2002; Eber, 2005). Originating in the mental health and child welfare fields, wraparound is very similar to person-centered planning in that it focuses on quality of life indicators and takes a strengths/needs approach to ensure success in natural home, school and community settings. Other features of wraparound are that it is community based, culturally relevant, and family centered.

Family and youth voice and ownership of the plan are emphasized during the wraparound process and natural support persons such as extended family, friends, a coach or a youth minister or other positive connections are sought for the teams. The wraparound process helps establish the voice and ownership needed to ensure that supports and interventions actually produce the desired effect (e.g. outcomes) for students, and their families and teachers. Wraparound supports students and their families by coordinating interagency supports and services with effective behavior, academic, and social interventions. Positive behavior supports and effective academic strategies are important

components of wraparound plans; a functional assessment process is often needed to guide the team in designing interventions.

Rather than providing services to students, "family members and the child are asked to [initially] indicate their strengths and prioritize their needs" (Eber, Sugai, Smith, & Scott, 2002, p. 173). These needs can include medical, safety, social, psychosocial, familial, and vocational domains across home, school, and community settings. The overall process consists of clearly defined steps that require teams to step back and look at the big picture including quality of life indicators and factors that ensure contextual fit. These steps include: (a) initial conversations to hear the child and families' story, (b) developing teams based on strengths/needs identified by the student/family, (c) identifying roles and goals of team members, (d) developing a mission statement with the child and family, (e) starting meetings with identification of strengths and celebrations of success, (f) identifying needs across domains, (g) prioritizing needs, (h) developing action plans, and (i) assigning tasks and monitoring progress through a designated evaluation process (Eber, 2005).

A critical point of clarity must be made regarding the wraparound process. At the initial stages of the process, teams must begin by identifying the real needs of the student (and family) and in doing so must be careful to differentiate needs from services. For instance, a wraparound team would *not* say that Roger "needs social skills training" as that is a definition of a service vs. a need. In this instance, Roger's team would need to back up to identifying his *real need* which (per information/stories he has shared during initial conversations) is to feel accepted and respected by peers. In order to help Roger meet his need, the team may find themselves brainstorming how to increase/improve his social network so that negative peer attention is less reinforcing to his acting out behavior. The support of helping him access opportunities to interact with peers around activities/settings he enjoys (e.g. strength-based) is the process that will address this need (e.g., context based social skills instruction would lead to functional outcomes).

A Conceptual Framework for Secondary and Tertiary Interventions in High Schools

There have been a limited number of examples of the application of the aforementioned processes as a treatment package within a school-wide – primary intervention framework. Based on the previous discussion, we propose that high school settings need at least six components in place to provide effective support beyond the primary schoolwide level. These components include: (1) embed self-determination within the general education universal primary curriculum, (2) increase teachers' ability to use function-based teaching approaches, (3) use functional assessment processes to identify needs for groups of students and individual students, (4.) provide futures planning processing (if student quality of life needs are an issue), (5.) implement wraparound approaches if the complexity of student's needs require additional resources, and (6) implement a systematic mechanism for the identification of students who require steps two through five.

Building Supports into the Universal Curriculum

Much of the research related to primary support is a result of the recent push in the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (1997), and its current re-authorization IDEIA (2004), to provide increased access to the general education curriculum in the least restrictive environment and the consideration of positive behavioral supports for students whose behavior is impeded their learning. While it may appear strange that we are discussing primary supports in terms of more intense interventions, we do so to address concerns of efficiency.

As we move to more intensive interventions, the increased drain on resources becomes more apparent. We are, therefore, encouraged to become more efficient with our supports and services. If there are ways to include individual supports in ways that benefit more students, then we should perhaps consider their application within applications of primary support. One method of becoming more efficient is to build supports universally into the academic curriculum.

Turnbull, Turnbull, Shank, and Smith (2002) defined universal design of learning as a process for embedding instructional modifications within typical instruction for all students. Similar to curb cuts on public sidewalks, "ramps" can be put into the instruction so that all students, including those without disabilities can benefit. Universal design in our approach is analogous to primary behavioral supports. In fact they can be combined together for a potentially effective intervention that may have a great deal of relevance to high school staff.

In the previous example provided at the initial section of this paper, individual students, and in some cases groups of students, can be taught self-determination skills. We propose that these procedures could be incorporated in a secondary distribution for all students in the classroom. As Palmer, Wehmeyer, Gipson, and Agran (2004) suggested, self-determination skills can be aligned with state and local standards to provide access to the general education curriculum.

Teachers could be taught to incorporate these strategies into their lesson plans within typical instructional activities. For instance, if an instructor was teaching a lesson that involved identifying

main characters within a story or text, the students could select among three activities to describe the character they select (choice making); or identify why it is difficult to obtain more information about the character and generate solutions for obtaining more information (problem solving): or teachers can promote the development of self determination through use of general class procedures such as use of a task list for an assignment for students to check off as they complete each phase of their projects (self-monitoring) or have students determine how soon they will be able to complete the project and develop action steps to reach their goal (goal setting). These activities could be embedded within the lesson that every student experiences. This scenario would create activities that provided additional supports for students who require them, and directly and indirectly teach self-determination skills to all students. Similar lesson plans will meet evolving state standards meant to directly teach social problem solving and self awareness skills.

Function--based teaching strategies.

In terms of using FBA strategies during typical lessons, teachers can learn *function-based teaching strategies*. Sometimes referred to as "with-it-ness," our hope is that teachers will begin to incorporate the PBS assumptions of behavior into their daily planning and interactions with the students. Function-based instruction would have the teachers think ahead of time of the barriers students might have during a lesson (e.g., directions given orally may be missed by some students), and to reflect on their instruction in terms of the principles of PBS (e.g., punishment, reinforcement, settings events, shaping, discipline) (e.g., "Carlos seems to become disruptive when we start silent reading, I wonder if this is because he is frustrated with the reading level?").

At our own institution, the Jesuit tradition of reflecting about one's behavior is strongly reinforced. We attempt to prepare our teachers to become so fluent with principles and strategies of PBS, they can immediately react to a situation and adjust accordingly. For instance, if a student tapping his pen, the teacher should pause before reacting, and perhaps conduct a very brief FBA. If in the past the student has acted out for teacher attention, the reaction should be aligned with the perceived function of the behavior. This teacher would intuitively know to look for the student who is "doing the right thing" and praise that student. As soon as the student of concern is back on track, specific praise would be provided.

However, if this does not work, the teacher can reflect on the incident using the behavior pathway. The teacher could ask, *I wonder what triggered the behavior*, or *I wonder what he earned or got away from*, or *I wonder if there is something I should check into with her about her quality of life*? In this case, the teacher remembers that when the student is given instructions orally, she has a great deal of trouble and will tap her desk. So, the next day, the teacher explains the instructions in short statements, repeats the instructions twice, and writes the steps on the board. The teacher provides a universally designed support that benefits all students in the class. It is this type of instruction that we believe will provide additional support to prevent as many problem behaviors as possible. Still, there will be groups of students and individuals who have needs beyond those ameliorated by including universal supports into the instruction.

Expanding the functional assessment process to groups of students.

As Hawken, March, and Horner (2003) discussed, if an intervention does not match the purpose of the behavior, it could in fact make the problem behavior worse. Another critical component is to describe the needs of the student or group within a pathway. Staff members can better identify the type of intervention is needed for both groups and individual students using this process. For instance, a teacher may tell students it is time for a cooperative group work (antecedent), and a group of four students consistently engage in behaviors such as asking to go to the bathroom, or talking to their friends in loud voices (behavior), all of which leads to removal from the class (consequence). By conducting an initial interview and perhaps an observation, one could determine that when presented with a non-preferred activity (working in groups), four students will engage in off task behaviors (e.g., talking in loud voices), which ultimately leads to being sent out of the room (escape), one could provide interventions at each level that address these concerns (e.g., interspersing preferred and non-preferred activities).

Table 1 provides an example of interventions that would address the problem behavior, at each level of the pathway. We hypothesize that the FBA and the behavioral pathway are useful processes for problem solving needs for individual and groups of students. Systems level setting events also can be identified within the behavioral pathway. An example of this would be that students were not informed when to return to their classes following a lunch period. A class level intervention might be necessary, or a more primary school-wide approach to teaching, posting, and acknowledging the policy for lunch time behavior for all students. This could easily be incorporated into beginning of the year orientation activities or follow-up booster sessions. The progress of these interventions could be tracked through school-wide data systems. For instance, a recent newspaper article about a high school in Frankland,

NH discussed how the effects of a freshmen level advisory intervention plan demonstrated impact on their office discipline referrals in general. The team was able to both track their level of effectiveness of their interventions and celebrate their successes (Gilford, 2005).

This would be a useful professional development activity as teams begin the process of learning to develop interventions. Table 1 can also be used as part of planning. Teams could use the format by identifying an intervention/service available in the school and placing it in the table. They could also then see the overlap in the services provided and holes in their available services

There can be several criteria that guide the decision about when to move to more intensive supports beyond the initial behavior intervention plan. These criteria include: (a) the student does not appear to be making progress as reported by data commonly available to the school under the current intervention, when implemented with fidelity (e.g., office discipline referral data, tardies to class, direct observations, teacher interviews); (b) the majority of the needs appear to involve setting events (e.g., intense quality of life issues); and (c) the students, teachers, and support team were in such disagreement that developing a support plan with an individual student would have been impossible. Certainly the FBA/BIP should not be abandoned at this point. Due to the comprehensive nature of the student's needs, it may be that by simply adding "reliable allies" to the team will have an impact on the student (Turnbull et al., 2002). Should the high school student require more intensive quality of life interventions, we suggest the use of futures planning, followed by wraparound process if necessary.

As previously stated, a key feature of the success for students in their future is their ability to act in a self-determined way. A logical choice for increasing this ability is the future planning process. The progress of students using future planning can be monitored with tools that address quality of life. Some of these include the Education Checklist (EBD/PBIS Network, Accessed 10/05/2004) which allows teachers to provide input on the students' progress within their classrooms, and the Student and Family Checklist (EBD/PBIS Network, Accessed 2004) which allows the student and family to track the effect of the person-centered plan across needs and strengths including safety/medical/basic needs, social relationships, emotional functioning, behavioral domains, and cultural/spiritual domains. Both forms are to be completed within 30 days of the referral of the student, but prior to the first meeting; and at three, six, and nine months following the initial futures planning meeting.

Should the team decide that the futures planning process was effective for the student, as measured by school-indicators and the additional checklists, then there would be no need to move to more intense supports. If the team; however, decided that the next steps in the plan required more individuals for success, then it would be necessary to move to wraparound. Importantly, since the first step of the wraparound process is the initial discussion (Eber et al., 2002) the student will already have taken the lead in the process of the direction of the team. Tools such as the Wraparound Checklist (EBD/PBIS Network, Access 10/05/2005) and a trained wraparound facilitator would be necessary components in this process. If the FBA/BIP and the futures planning have been completed, the wraparound facilitators are potentially better equipped to guide the student to address setting events that will have direct impact on their school performance. However, following the FBA, futures planning, and wraparound process, the student is more likely to potentially experience a higher level of self determined interventions and behaviors.

Systematic referral for support.

As McIntosh (2005) suggested, there needs to be a systematic way for students to be identified for support, with some sort of response occurring within 72 hours. Both direct and indirect referral process can be used. For example, teacher referrals to support teams serve as direct requests for support. The use of office discipline referrals, progress towards graduation, attendance, and grade level performance can be used to identify students in need of more intense support.

Conclusion

We are currently in the process of developing pilot studies, along with the Illinois Positive Behavior Support Network to implement these strategies. A critical component will be to identify a systems level assessment tool that includes the six features measures above. We believe this paper provides an overview of promising practices for high school students and information about contextual fit for school-teams. While the focus of this paper has been on secondary and tertiary supports, there appears to be implications for extending primary supports as well. We hope that others in the field will be encouraged by the discussion and identify potential lines of future research for enhancing secondary and tertiary supports for high school students.

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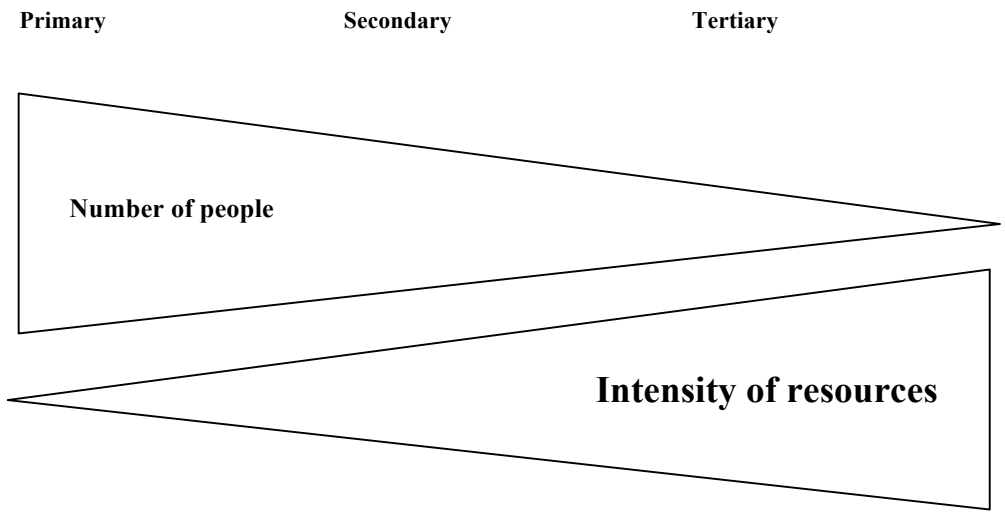
Table 1

Group planning Chart for Identifying Interventions through Behavioral Pathways and Function

Setting Events	Antecedents	Behaviors	Consequences
Samples	*Samples*	*Samples*	*Samples*
Mentoring (A)	Direct instruction	Self-management,	Check-in/check out
Developing	(SD)	self-evaluation,	systems (A)
routines (S)	Incorporate	goal setting	Group
Health	preferred	(A,O)	contingencies
interventions (S)	activities (V,O)	Re-direction (SD)	(A,V)
Increase social	Choice making	Shaping and	Premack principle
network (A)	(E,V)	differential	(E,V,O)
Extended day	Pre-correction (SD,	reinforcement	Crisis management
activities (A, V)	S)	(SD,A)	strategies (SD,A,S)
	Prompting (A,O)		

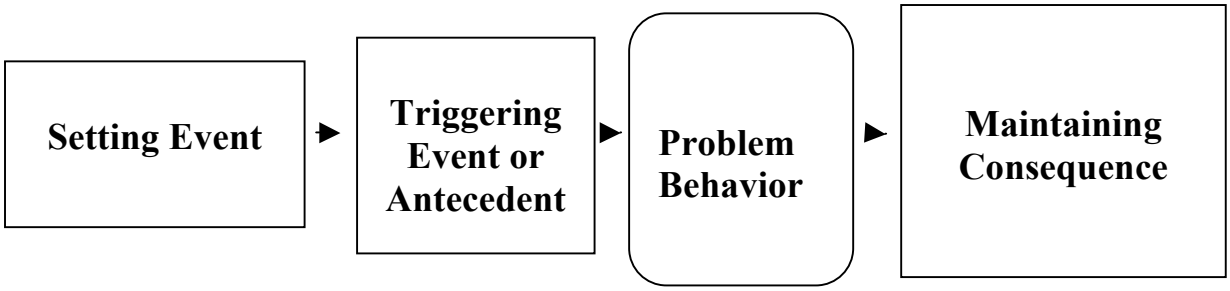
Note. Function labels A = Attention, O = Object, E = Escape, V = Avoidance, SD = Skill Deficit, S = Sensory



Intensity of resources:
Level of specificity of data collection
Level of training needed to implement
Time required by individuals to implement

Number of people:
Number of students impacted
Number of staff involved with implementation

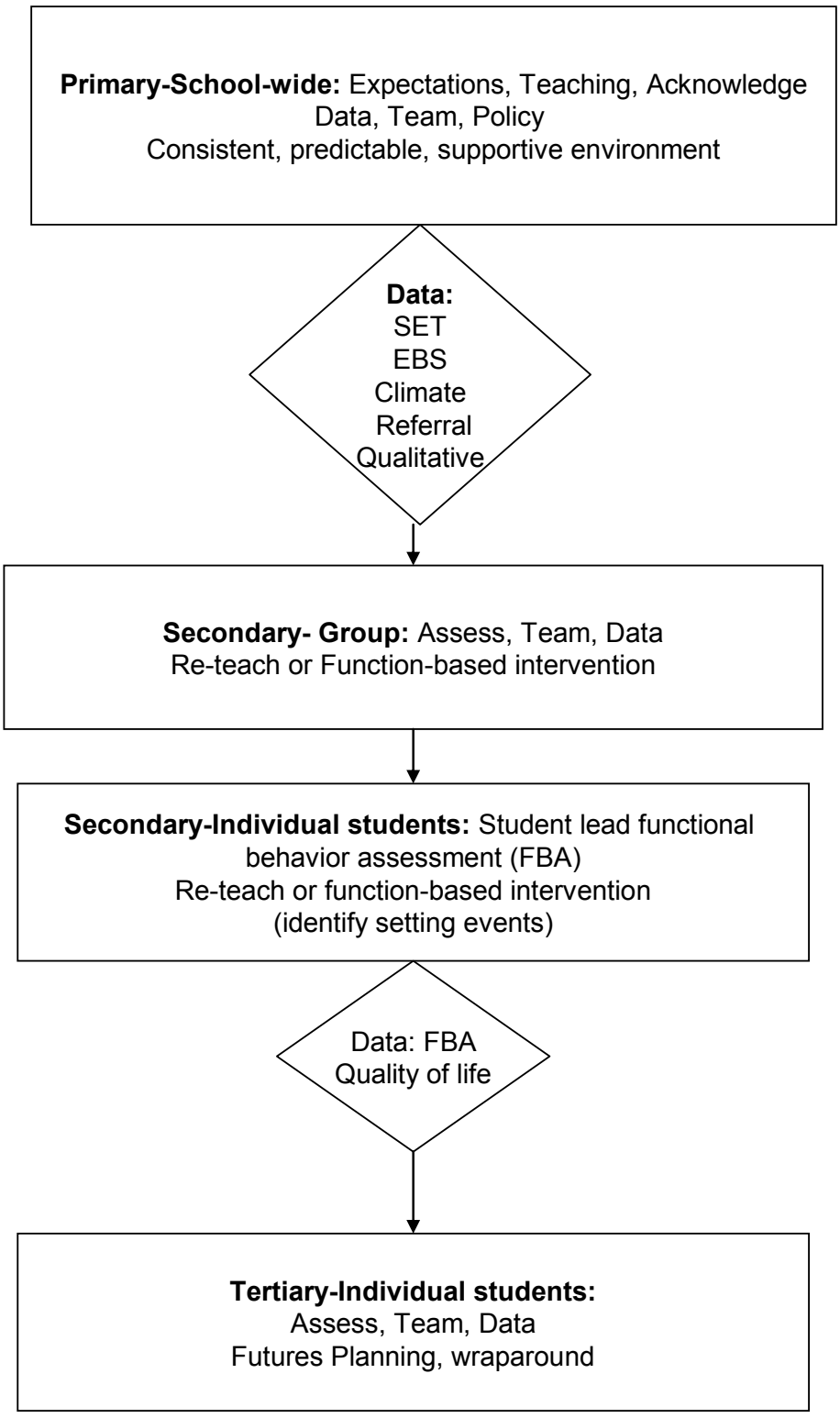
Figure 2. Example of using behavioral pathway planning for groups of students.



Setting Event	Triggering Event or Antecedent	Problem Behavior	Maintaining Consequence
Unclear policy for returning from lunch	Students are allowed to leave the lunchroom	Students remain in the hallway and are tardy	Students continue to socialize and delay the beginning of class

Figure 3. Graphic explanation of the flow of supports from primary to tertiary for high school settings.

Secondary PBS Model Draft 2-16-05



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