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ABSTRACT

This monograph offers six papers which present a model to assist in developing instructionally differentiated programming based on individual needs for students with behavioral disorders. The first three chapters focus on underlying philosophies. A paper by Myron Swize titled "Colorado's Needs-Based Approach" stresses that it is more important to focus on students' instructional needs than on their disability. "Implications of a Needs-Based Philosophy," by K. Kay Cessna and Lois Adams, considers how this approach uses identified student needs to drive all decisions regarding instruction and services. The third chapter, "The Expanded Curriculum: Individualizing the System," also by Lois Adams and K. Kay Cessna, discusses the need to expand the typical curriculum in order to provide individualized instruction for students with disabilities. Instructional design is the focus of the fourth and fifth chapters. "Behavioral Intent: Instructional Content for Students with Behavioral Disorders," by Richard S. Neel and K. Kay Cessna, suggests that meaningful behavior curriculum is determined by the student and that problem behaviors should be viewed as diagnostic of needed instruction rather than as the focus of intervention. The complexity of managing appropriate instruction for students with behavior disorders is discussed in Chapter 5 (also by Neel and Cessna), titled "Instructional Themes: A Pragmatic Response to Complexity." The final chapter is titled "Instructionally Differentiated Programming: Suggestions for Implementation," by K. Kay Cessna and Jaclyn Borock. Most chapters contain references. (DB)

Instructionally Differentiated Programming

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William T. Randall
Commissioner of Education
Richard A. Laughlin
Deputy Commissioner

August 1, 1993

Dear Colleague,

Outcome data for students with behavior disorders indicates that the promise inherent in the federal law is far from being realized for this group. The provision of appropriate, yet integrated services for these students has proven to be a special challenge for all of us.

Six years ago, Colorado began a major initiative to rethink services for students with behavior disorders. We have attempted to synthesize current best-thinking regarding services for these students and translate it into practice. The result is an approach which provides more instructionally differentiated services for these students within the context of the Needs-based special education system currently in place in Colorado.

The enclosed monograph is a summary of that work and is offered to you in the spirit of continuing the discussion in the ongoing search for better services for students with behavior disorders. Contact Kay Cessna, Special Education Services Unit, (303) 866-6701 for further information regarding this project.

Sincerely,

Fred Smokoski

Fred J. Smokoski
Director of Special Education

Instructionally Differentiated Programming:

A Needs-Based Approach for Students with Behavior Disorders

A monograph providing description, rationale and examples for designing responsive instructional programs for students with behavior disorders

Sponsored by
Colorado Department of Education
Special Education Services Unit
201 East Colfax Avenue
Denver, Colorado 80203

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INTRODUCTION

Differentiated Programming: Designing Responsive Instructional Programs

Programming for students with behavior disorders is a complex task with outcomes for these students falling far short of what most professionals and parents would consider acceptable. Many different areas are suggested as plausible explanations for the lack of adequate services such as shortage of funds, absence of articulated curricula, insufficient staff, inaccurate assessments, and ineffective programming. Many professionals strongly support a particular solution and maintain that if only everyone else would implement their plan, the problem would be solved. Whenever different explanations are proffered and championed by loyal supporters, conflicts arise. Before such conflicts can be resolved, it is helpful to clarify the purpose of programming and the desired student outcomes before addressing strategies.

Most educators would agree that the purpose of programming for students with behavior disorders is to provide them with the skills necessary to function successfully in the wide range of environments present in society. Although it is more difficult to reach agreement on what these specific skills should be, such general goals as being productive, establishing and maintaining self-control, interacting with others in acceptable ways, and developing and maintaining successful social relationships are supported by almost everyone. The problem, therefore, does not rest with defining the goals for students, but rather in designing programming that best supports students in achieving the goals.

A major obstacle to resolving the problem is the quest for a homogeneous solution to the problems of a heterogeneous set of students. While students with behavior disorders are alike in that their social behaviors interfere with their ability to profit from the usual educational programs, they are not alike in the manner or degree to which their behaviors interfere. Yet typically, students identified as having a behavior disorder are placed in programs considered to be homogeneous because the focus is the same: controlling the students' behavior. It might be argued that the existence of a continuum of services would prevent such standard programming. However, far too often, any differences in programs is one of increased external control only. Thus, when the control procedures used in one placement are found to be ineffective, a new setting is developed. Fundamental structural changes rarely take place in the content and format of instruction. These new settings are basically the same as the previous ones with the addition of stronger consequences and more severe behavioral controls. In other words, change is reduced to a change in placement rather than any real change in the program itself.

The continuum of services created does not represent programming that is truly differentiated along curricular lines. For the most part, current methods are similar in design and content to academic instruction in regular classes, regardless of the stated program goals. Further, in a given program, similar goals are often stressed for each student and taught using similar, if not identical, teaching strategies. Reduction of undesired behaviors through increased control is frequently confused with effective behavioral curricula. Often students' behavioral needs are not adequately addressed in current assessment practices, IEP development or instructional design. This may be due partially to a tendency to view problem behaviors independent of their context. For example, the result or function of behavior demonstrated in a particular context is rarely analyzed. This prevents the selection of instructional targets that effectively compete with the problem behavior in the context where the problem occurs. In essence, although individualized programming and instruction is considered the heart of special education, current programming for students with behavior disorders does not show a marked degree of differentiation. Resolution of the problems requires that as diverse needs are identified in the students served, alternatives that alter structure and content of instruction are available. Only programming that is instructionally differentiated can adequately respond to students' needs and assist them in achieving their goals.

Instructionally differentiated programming is a model of how such programming might be achieved. It is a concept rather than an entity: a process rather than a prescription. It implies the development of structurally different programming options in response to unmet needs of students with behavior disorders. Such a response seems logical. If students with behavior disorders indeed constitute a heterogeneous group, then a more differentiated response is indicated. Because schools are concerned with the education of these students, the differentiation should be driven by students' differing instructional needs.

The purpose of this monograph is to provide a model to assist in developing programming that is more instructionally differentiated based on individual student needs. The monograph has been constructed so that chapters may be read independently if the reader has a special interest in any one aspect. Numerous references to other chapters are included in each chapter so that the reader can explore topics in depth at another time without interrupting the current discussion. The three sections are intended to assist the reader in holding a number of distinct concepts that are ultimately combined into an alternative approach to special education for students with behavior disorders.

Section I: *Overview of Underlying Philosophies* provides an alternative model for special education services. Colorado's philosophy of needs-based programming, which is based on the premise that it is more important to focus on students' instructional needs than on their disability, is presented in Chapter 1. Chapter 2 demonstrates how the needs-based approach begins with a consideration of the students' needs and then uses those needs to drive all decisions regarding instruction and services. Chapter 3 discusses the need to expand typical curriculum in order to provide individualized instruction for students with disabilities within the larger system.

Section II: *Focus on Behavioral Problems: Instructional Underpinnings* contains information on two important concepts fundamental to designing programs with an instructional focus for students with behavior disorders. Chapter 4 suggests that meaningful behavior curriculum is determined by the student and that problem behaviors should be viewed as a diagnostic of needed instruction rather than as the focus of intervention. The complexity of managing appropriate instruction for students with behavior disorders is discussed in Chapter 5. Instructional themes are suggested as a helpful strategy.

Section III: *Implementation* describes application of these concepts and offers suggestions for their successful employment (Chapter 6).

This document — the result of a five year initiative — would not have been possible without the cooperation and collaboration of many persons. The support of the Special Education Services Unit of the Colorado Department of Education is deeply appreciated. We have been fortunate to have two state directors with the uncommon foresight to support the long-term development necessary to create a new vision for Colorado services for students with behavioral disorders. A sincere thank you to Brian McNulty, who was state director when the project started, to Fred Smokoski who became state director during the project, and to Myron Swize, who initiated the search for a more individualized and effective approach to services in 1976. Special thanks to Rick Neel, who began in a traditional consultant role and quickly became our spark-plug, our team-mate, and our friend. Heartfelt thanks to Jackie Borock and to Lois Adams for their expertise, their enthusiasm, and their willingness to go the extra mile. Finally, my deepest appreciation to the service providers of Colorado who gave so generously of their time and experiences. Your commitment will lead to better services for students with behavior disorders.

K. Kay Cessna, Editor

Section I

Overview of Underlying Philosophies

CHAPTER 1

Colorado's Needs-Based Model

by Myron Swize

The education of children with disabilities has evolved greatly over the last few decades, resulting in a specialized field. The federal definition refers to special education as "specially designed instruction to meet the unique needs of a handicapped child." Practically speaking, special education usually refers to a group of programs designed to serve children with specific handicapping conditions. Originally, the types, names, and numbers of handicapping conditions have varied from state to state. More recently, however, through enactment of the Education of All Handicapped Act (PL 94-142) which has now become the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, the federal government has identified these conditions that all states must serve.

Evolution of Special Education Programs

Inherent in the original approach to special education is the belief that appropriate services can be provided to children based on an identification of their major handicapping conditions and their impact on the learning process. Consequently, special education programs were established and teachers were specially trained to deal with the various handicapping conditions. State legislatures, in turn, passed legislation mandating the provision of special education services and allocated categorical funds for special education. Correspondingly, state departments of education created new endorsement areas for teachers of the different handicapping conditions and established divisions within their departments to distribute state and federal funds, to monitor the provision of special education services, and to provide technical assistance to local agencies. Finally, local school districts set up their own special education programs and employed teachers to staff such programs and administrators to assure their proper governance.

In short, a separate alternative educational system was established. Yet, the "cascade of services," the most predominant delivery model, was intended to ensure that children with handicapping conditions were being educated as *part* of the educational system rather than *apart* from it.

In 1976, Colorado questioned the philosophical basis upon which special education was established and developed its own model. Two major reasons prompted this move. First, interactions with parents and information gathered by state department personnel during the monitoring process made it clear that the assumption that identifying a child's handicapping condition would lead to appropriate services was ill founded. Thus, even though services to children with handicapping conditions improved, outcomes were not satisfactory. Second, we found that a categorical approach made it difficult to meet student needs while simultaneously adhering to the concept of the least restrictive environment. This concept required that students with disabilities be educated in the regular classroom unless it could be demonstrated that they must be placed in a more restrictive setting in order to achieve an appropriate education. Specifically, if special education were equated with specially designed programs (which are at least in part separate from the "mainstream" of education), special education would remain "apart" from regular education.

The real problem appeared to be twofold: First, the needs of children were not being identified, only the handicapping condition. Further, although some individualization of instruction was taking place, it was teacher dependent. Second, the educational system did not offer an adequate process for identifying the needs of children with disabilities and a corresponding delivery system to provide the services necessary to meet such needs. Based on our experiences, we believed that if systems were capable of appropriately individualizing instruction for children with handicapping conditions, there would ultimately

be less need for separate categorical programs, thus eliminating a major problem with educating children/youth in the least restrictive environment.

Premises Behind Colorado's Model

The Colorado model for educating children with disabilities was based on certain values. Specifically, education must reflect the values of this nation as they are expressed in our Constitution and statutes. The Constitution provides direction and enables our society to evolve toward becoming more humanitarian. And while it does not address education specifically, it does specify such values as equal protection under law and the least restrictive environment. The public school system, therefore, should be established on these principles.

Children should not be separated from their peers without justifiable cause. Since *Brown vs. Topeka*, it has become increasingly clear that our nation has become less tolerant of education's tendency to solve its more difficult challenges by separating children from their peers. The concept of "separate but equal" has been cast aside, and educators are being required to develop a system that enables all children to be educated in their natural environment unless the school system can demonstrate that there is sufficient cause to do otherwise. It must begin with the assumption that all children can be educated with their peers. "Removal from the regular education environment occurs only when the nature and severity of handicap is such that education in regular classes with the use of supplementary aids and services cannot be achieved satisfactorily" (34CFR 300.550).

It is more important to identify the needs of a child and the services necessary to meet those needs than to identify the handicapping condition and the program designed for that handicapping condition. Children with disabling conditions constitute as heterogeneous a group as non disabled children. Therefore, to equate a specific handicapping condition with a specific set of educational needs borders on stereotyping. Although it is required that a handicapping condition be identified for reporting purposes, it should never be the driving force behind the types of services a child should receive. Rather, the focus should be on what the child *needs*. The needs of a child relate to the outcomes established for that child. Thus, the ultimate outcome for children with disabilities is their ability to be functional in society once they leave the educational system.

To enable a child to be functional in society, the whole child must be considered. That is, it is important to enable the child to function as appropriately as possible socially-emotionally, communicatively, cognitively, and physically. The intent is not to focus on the impairments in any of these areas, but to identify both those weaknesses that are keeping the student from receiving an appropriate education and those strengths that will enable the student to become functional.

For nondisabled students, public schools have traditionally made certain assumptions. For example, students with average intelligence take what they have learned in an academic setting and generalize it to other situations. Also, children go through a gross-and fine-motor developmental sequence without any specialized intervention. Even the ability to communicate could be assumed in nondisabled children. Such assumptions have enabled the public schools to develop curricula that emphasize subject matters that would lead students to become functional in society.

For children with disabilities, however, services have been based on the assumption that teacher knowledge of the handicapping condition was essential for developing an appropriate curriculum. Since school systems knew of no way of incorporating such curricula into the regular education curriculum, they separated children into separate programs.

Traditionally, public schools have placed the greatest emphasis on the development of students' cognitive skills with minimal consideration given to the other functioning areas, such as social/emotional needs. Although some efforts have been made by public schools to address these other areas (e.g., through counseling or psychological services), generally such needs have been considered the responsibility of other agencies such as mental health or private care.

Such an approach has been relatively successful with nondisabled students, but certainly not with children who have disabilities. For example, an impairment in any one of the

functioning areas could have a negative impact on the student's education. The school's refusal to address the resulting needs could render a child dysfunctional. A physical disability often has kept children from attending classes with their peers and later disqualified them from being gainfully employed. Similarly, the inability to communicate has sentenced children to a frustrating and nonproductive existence.

If the goal of the educational system is to enable a child to become functional, the definition of education must be broadened to include the whole child. It is for this reason that public school systems in Colorado are being asked to address the needs of students in each of the four above-mentioned areas. In addition, how children with disabilities function in the different environments in which they find themselves must also be addressed. Historically, public schools have considered no other environment than the school setting itself. We believe that the criterion for success in the public school system is whether students are able to function successfully in society after completing their education.

For nondisabled students, the educational system's concentration on skill development in the school environment has been relatively successful. That is, children have left the school setting able to function at least minimally, and most often successfully, in other environments such as their homes, the work place, and the community.

For children with handicapping conditions, however, the lack of skill development in more appropriate settings has often resulted in an inability to function successfully in these environments. Thus, the percentage of students with handicapping conditions who are not gainfully employed is shockingly high as demonstrated in numerous studies.

Once the needs of a child have been identified and prioritized, the characteristics of services necessary to meet these needs must be identified. At a minimum, the nature of services, the intensity of such services, and the frequency with which such services are to be provided must be established. It is not sufficient simply to place a student in a program that corresponds to his/her handicapping condition.

Implications for Local School Systems

What implications does this approach to the education of children with handicapping conditions have for local school systems? Perhaps more than such systems are able to integrate without considerable disruption to their usual way of conducting business.

First, the assessment process for students with different needs must become more functional. Although standardized instruments may yield valuable information for the identification process, they seldom result in information that is useful to the service provider. Therefore, performance-based assessment must be incorporated into the evaluation process. For students with behavioral challenges, functional analysis is essential.

Second, if schools are to adopt a needs-based model, they must develop better ways to individualize instruction. While development of an individualized education program (IEP) theoretically addresses this challenge, in practice, the IEP unfortunately does not give classroom teachers the direction that they need. The needs-based model, on the other hand, asks districts to identify the student's needs and the characteristics of services necessary to meet such needs. In addition, IEP objectives must reflect the functional needs pinpointed by performance-based assessment.

Third, school systems must expand their curricula to allow for a greater diversity of learners. Children with different or more intense needs must be able to have more of their needs met in the regular classroom, often with additional supports and resources. It has become increasingly difficult for school systems to set up alternative tracks for students with disabilities. As a result, the public schools are being challenged to move towards a more inclusive model, one that has room for a variety of diverse learners.

Fourth, funding and data collection systems must be re-examined and re-designed to reward systems for providing services that reflect the students' needs. Unfortunately, most current funding systems reinforce districts for separating children with disabilities from their peers and for serving them on the basis of disability rather than on need.

Finally, teacher preparation programs must be changed to give general and special education teachers the skills they need in order to provide appropriate educational services

both to children with disabilities and to children without such challenges.

Conclusion

Adoption of a needs-based model has far-reaching implications for those involved in either administration or provision of services to students with disabilities. Every aspect of special education will need to be explored, including the process used to identify students, the delivery of services, and funding mechanisms that support alternative approaches. This process will take time and effort, but offers the possibility of truly individualized services.

CHAPTER 2

Implications of a Needs-Based Philosophy

by K. Kay Cessna and Lois Adams

The question of how best to deliver services to students who have disabilities is surrounded by controversy. As schools across the nation struggle with the issue of school restructuring (*Exploring Policy Options to Restructure Education*, 1991; Kaplan & Usdan, 1992), it is imperative that special educators reconsider and define their roles in relation to general education.

In the special education arena, the discussion has focused on the "Regular Education Initiative" (Will, 1986) and inclusion (*Winners All*, 1992). Proponents of these concepts (Gartner & Lipsky, 1987; Stainback, Stainback, Courtnage, & Jaben, 1985; Wang, Reynolds, & Walberg, 1986, 1988, 1989) propose that all educators share responsibility for meeting all students' needs and that students with disabilities should be fully included in regular education. Meanwhile, others believe that it is more appropriate to serve exceptional students in special education programs or classes (Kauffman, 1989, 1992; Lerner, 1987; Vergason & Anderegg, 1989). Still others have begun to objectively define the issues and to consider the policy implications of the various approaches (McLaughlin et al., 1992).

Unfortunately, the ensuing debate has focused on the *place* where services to students with disabilities should be provided and the *person* who should deliver these services (see, for instance, the discussion of assumptions underlying the REI in Jenkins, Pious, & Jewell, 1990). The result has been a means-ends inversion, whereby beliefs about *where* services should be delivered and by *whom* have become more important than *what* students need to learn and *how* they best learn it. When the emphasis is on *where* instruction occurs, students are made to fit into the existing systems of general and/or special education based on the assumption that once the proper location has been determined, appropriate instruction is guaranteed.

This approach appears to stand in contrast to the intent of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, which describes special education as "specially designed instruction" to meet the unique needs of students with disabilities. The law is very clear: Systems must be designed to meet individual students' instructional needs. Consequently, any approach that merely fits students into an existing system, whether it be general or special education, makes it difficult to fulfill the requirements of the law.

As a result of these conflicting forces, a model is needed that (a) focuses on individual student needs, (b) uses identified needs rather than labels to drive decision making, and (c) leads to an array of services that have structure, yet are fluid enough to be continually reconfigured to meet students' changing needs.

The Fan: A Model for Needs-Based Services

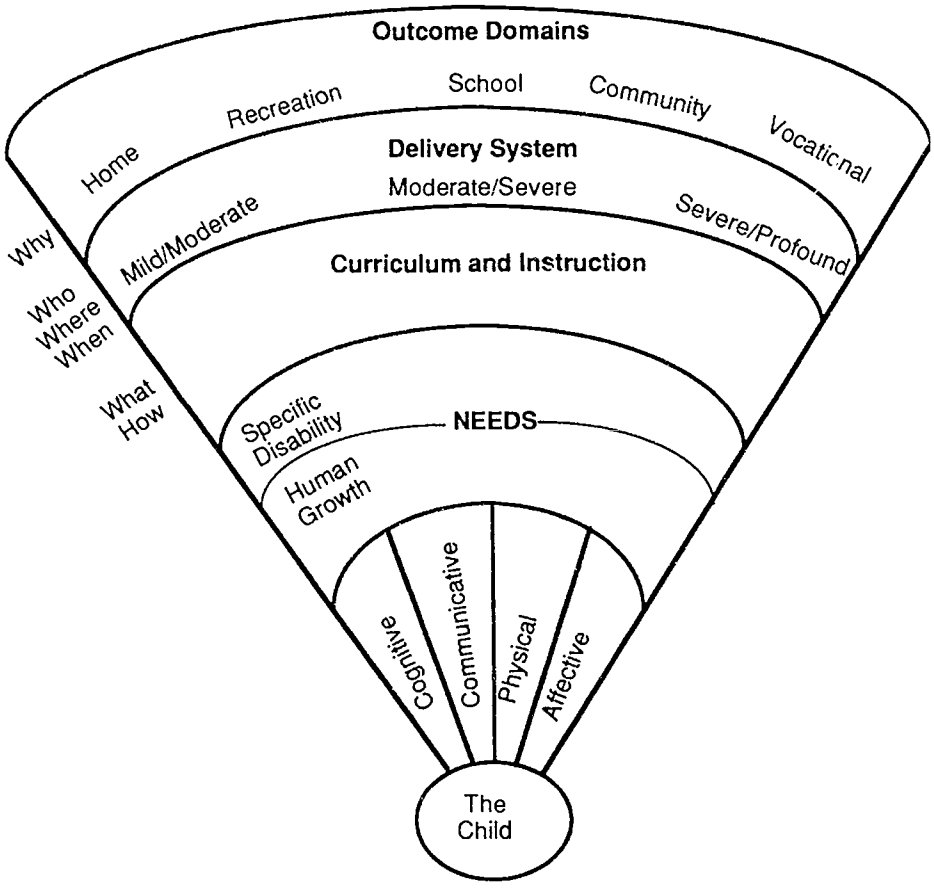
This chapter suggests needs-based services as the underlying model for a special education delivery system in which *what* students need and *how* they learn drive *where* services are provided and by *whom*. Adoption of such a model has important implications for special education as currently conceived. As a result, almost every aspect of special education from assessment of an individual student through service delivery has to be rethought (see Chapter 1 for a more complete discussion).

Implementation of a needs-based model requires a redefinition of special education as a *process* of planning, instructing, and advocating for a student rather than as a *program* into which the student is placed. Webster's dictionary defines process as "a continuing development involving many changes." By viewing special education as a process we

become able to more easily respond to the widely variant and constantly shifting needs and environments the student experiences.

The schematic in Figure 1 represents the key components of the proposed process approach. As illustrated in the top band of the fan diagram, the primary goal of needs-based special education is to help students with disabilities learn to function to their fullest potential at home, in school, and in the community (including vocational and recreational settings). Identified outcomes for each student include skills needed in school and other environments during the school years and beyond (the top band of the fan).

Figure 1



Basic Values

1. The purpose of education is the development of the whole child.
2. Student needs drive all decisions related to instruction, services, and placement.
3. The home school, regular classroom is the referent point for all students.

Needs-based special education is based on three major values: (a) education of the whole child, (b) programming to meet each child's needs, and (c) the home school, regular classroom is the initial reference point for all decisions regarding the child.

Whole Child

The assumption underlying the first value is that student learning is a complex phenomenon that involves interaction of the various domains (i.e., cognitive, communicative, physical, affective). Therefore, focusing instruction only on the domain that is most directly affected by the student's disability is not sufficient to assist the student in reaching his/her maximum potential. Instead, it is necessary to understand how the disability impacts the student's functioning in the other areas and to know the student's strengths (see Chapter 1).

Individual Needs

The assumption underlying the second value is that regardless of identified disability all students have a right to any instruction, service provider, or placement that best meets their needs. Consistent with this philosophy, all decisions regarding instruction, resource allocation, and schedule directly reflect individual students' identified needs and are not dictated by label. That is, the configuration of curriculum, instruction, services, and service providers is unique to each student. Rather than matching students to a set of existing services related to a label, each student has a unique program. Further, students are grouped and regrouped as their educational needs dictate. A school district with 500 identified students with disabilities, therefore, would have 500 special education programs.

Regular Class

The assumption underlying the third value is that the neighborhood school, regular classroom, is the preferred setting for any student; therefore, other placements should be considered only if necessary. Unfortunately, there is often a tendency to place a student in a categorical program immediately upon identification without sufficiently exploring how instruction might be delivered effectively in the home school or in the general education classroom. Using the general classroom as the starting point helps ensure that unnecessary segregation does not occur.

The importance of these three values is illustrated in Figure 1 where they form the platform upon which assessment, planning, and service provision rest. Most significantly, the diagram illustrates that the child is the focal point of a child-centered decision-making process in which the various components spread out from the child like a fan. Focusing on the child affirms that the purpose of special education is to teach students, not to correct or eliminate their disabilities. To be sure, education for students with disabilities should include teaching skills that may help ameliorate the disability, but the primary focus of special education is to help students with disabilities learn. Furthermore, learning should be occurring throughout the school day, not just those times when the student is interacting with a special educator.

Child-Focused Model

This model differs fundamentally from other models, which start by identifying the various programs available and then matching students to the programs. As a result, students with the same "problem" are scheduled together for specific blocks of time in order to eliminate those problems. Unfortunately, special educators have found that they are unable to "cure" most students with disabilities and that the impact of a student's disability is pervasive throughout the school day. For example, a student going into a resource room at 9 a.m. unable to read usually comes out at 10 a.m. still unable to read the social studies text in his next class. If the goal is to ensure that a student with disabilities is learning throughout

the school day, some factor other than disability will need to be considered to facilitate planning.

Intensity Versus Severity

When designing services to *teach* students, it is more useful to focus on the intensity of students' needs rather than on the severity of their disability. The intensity of a student's needs and the severity of the disability are not necessarily synonymous. Consider a student with a visual impairment. The most severe level of this disability is total blindness. However, once the student has acquired important skills such as the ability to read Braille and orientation/mobility, his educational needs may be considered more moderate in intensity. As a result, the consultative level of service would be sufficient and most appropriate for this student.

Conversely, students with a learning disability or language difficulty are often viewed as having a "mild disability." Yet, the intensity of many of these students' needs is sometimes very severe, especially by the time they reach high school. Therefore, services for these students may need to be much more intense, perhaps involving some direct service in a setting other than the general education classroom.

To be sure, there may be some correlation between intensity of need and certain disabilities. However, it is critical that no assumption of intensity of need for an individual student be based on his/her disability. In needs-based programming, the severity of a student's disability is considered only for the purpose of determining eligibility. Once that decision has been made, the focus shifts to planning based on the intensity of the student's needs. Students can then be grouped for instruction to be educated, rather than by disability to be "fixed."

Designing Needs-based Services

Three steps are involved in desiging needs-based special education: assessment of the whole child, careful articulation of needs, and identification of services to meet those needs.

Quality needs-based programming is totally dependent on accurate and comprehensive identification of student needs and appropriate outcomes. Such a definitive listing is possible only if the whole child is considered. Assessment of the child occurs in four domains: cognition, communication, physical, and affective, as indicated by the spokes leading out from the child in Figure 1. The depth of assessment in each area is dependent on the degree of concern that exists related to the child's functioning in that area. Information should address the child's strengths and weaknesses in each area, the impact that difficulties in one area may have on the other areas, and implications for learning. The goal is to arrive at an accurate picture of how the child functions as a learner.

Having achieved a complete picture of the student's functioning, the next step is to identify student needs as indicated by the first band on Figure 1. Typically, student needs have been expressed as the people, programs or services that are necessary for programming for the student. In a needs-based approach, however, it is more important to describe behaviorally what the student needs to learn. For example, it would be stated that an individual student needs small-group instruction on a regular basis rather than suggesting that the student needs a resource program. Similarly, within a needs-based model, it might be suggested that a student needs a realistic view of his/her abilities rather than "the student needs counseling." Figure 2 is an example of a comprehensive listing of students' needs that should be considered when planning a program.

Figure 2
Student Needs

I. **Curricular Needs**
Does any part of the student's regular curriculum need to be adapted or changed relating to:
- Method of presentation. Modality, Rate
- Level of difficulty
- Type of equipment or materials

II. **Developmental/Compensatory Needs**
Does the student need specific adaptive or developmental training relating to:
- Use of residual hearing or vision
- Orientation/mobility
- Gross- or fine-motor skills
- Visual or auditory processing
- Speech-sound production
- Receptive or expressive use of syntax, morphology, vocabulary
- Metacognitive strategies

III. **Physical Environmental Needs**
Does the student need adaptations or changes in the physical environment related to:
- Noise level
- Visual stimulation
- Physical accessibility
- Seating
- Lighting

IV. **Classroom Management Needs**
Does the student need alternative styles of teacher/student interaction relating to:
- Amount of structure
- Level of activity
- Behavioral management techniques
- Stress level

V. **Social/Emotional Needs**
Does the student's social/emotional environment need restructuring relating to:
- Peer relationships
- Self-concept
- Knowledge and acceptance of own disability

VI. **Life Skill/Transition Needs**
Does the student have unique needs in preparing for life after school relating to:
- Economic and career awareness
- Realistic occupational goals
- Employability skills
- Recreational and leisure time activities

VII. **Home-School Interaction Needs**
Does the student need adjustment in the home-school interaction relating to:
- Consistency
- Home reinforcement of concepts taught at school

Identification of need in such a descriptive manner allows planning to be truly individualized for the student within a given situation. When planning teams know the essential aspects of the need, they can function in a more creative, problem-solving mode. For instance, there are a number of ways in which a building could provide a student with "a consistent, reinforcing environment" (needs-based viewpoint). However, there is only one way to provide "a self-contained classroom" (traditional viewpoint). In designing individualized services, it is essential to utilize a multidisciplinary, multifaceted process in which student functioning and needs are carefully identified. Needs can then be recorded in individualized education plans (IEPs) that are broad in scope and have important implications for service delivery.

Implementing the Design

Translating the IEP into a daily schedule and a set of services causes difficulties in both needs-based and traditional special education models. The reason is that special educators focus on *individuals* and their specific, unique *needs* (whether holistic as in the needs-based philosophy or academic and/or social as in traditional approaches) and use this information to create individualized curriculum and instructional practices for each student in a bottom-up process.

General educators, on the other hand, focus on *groups* of students and *curriculum,* which has been developed based on scope and sequence within subject areas in a systemic or top-down process. Thus, the two systems operate from different perspectives. The special education approach with its focus on individual needs is a very effective problem-identification method. However, responses to the identified problem occur within systems (general education) that are organized around *groups* and *curriculum*, making it difficult to implement individualized solutions. Although neither approach is wrong, neither is sufficient alone. If students' needs are to be effectively and efficiently met, a framework must be devised that allows (a) discussion of both the *individual* and the *group* and (b) dialogue about both *need* and *curriculum.* In other words, a model is needed to facilitate systematic development and provision of services that meet the needs of individual students as well as the purposes of the collective education system.

The Expanded Curriculum

The Expanded Curriculum (see Figure 3) is proposed as such a model. It is intended to serve as a tool for special and general educators to ensure that students' needs (the "what" and "how") can drive the delivery system (the "who," "where," and "when") as represented by the second band in Figure 1. This approach helps circumvent the means-ends inversion in the debate regarding appropriate special education delivery.

Figure 3

EXPANDED CURRICULUM: What Will Be Taught

Differentiated Academic Curriculum	Development Compensatory Curriculum	Life Skills Curriculum
General School Curriculum		Managing Environment -
Math		*external management of community systems and environment*
Science		
Language Arts		Managing Employment -
Social Science		*ongoing awareness, exploration, and preparation*
Physical Education		
Home Economics		
Art		Management Self -
Etc.		*inter/intra personal skills*

Cessna/Adams

The Expanded Curriculum recognizes that the education system is organized to facilitate instruction of the curriculum and is based on the assumption that traditional curricular frameworks alone are inadequate for students with disabilities. Thus, within the structure of schools, the curriculum must be expanded in order to provide comprehensive programming. To accomplish this, three curricular strands are needed: Differentiated Academic Curriculum, Life Skills Curriculum, and Developmental/Compensatory Curriculum.

The Differentiated Academic Curricular Strand is composed of the curriculum that is taught to all students in a school, but also includes adjustments made to accommodate for students' diverse learning abilities and needs. The Life Skills Strand involves the curriculum that teaches skills in managing employment, the environment, and oneself. Finally, the Developmental/Compensatory (D/C) Strand consists of the curriculum that focuses on cognitive, communicative, physical, and social/emotional skills that are underdeveloped or that targets skills needed to compensate for a disability. (For a more complete discussion of the contents of each of these strands, see Chapter 3.)

When students' needs are converted into the three curricular strands, it is possible to plan efficiently and effectively for each student and to group students by instructional need. Thus, the model helps direct instructional decision making by providing a framework that ensures that all student needs will be addressed within a structure that can be incorporated into the larger educational system.

Case Study

To understand how this is accomplished, consider the example of a male high-school student with behavior disorders. Assessment information indicated that the student had a history of being aggressive, confrontative, and continually engaging in power struggles. Although his cognitive abilities were average, his basic academic skills were significantly below grade level. He had no long-term goals or marketable skills. He had excellent language skills and was in good health.

Based on this information, the planning team defined his needs as: survival-level skills in math and reading; the ability to negotiate with others and to control his anger; an environment that allowed him to feel some control with flexible scheduling and multiple feedback systems; behavior management systems that established firm expectations, but allowed for periodic renegotiation of the reinforcement schedule; and determining a career goal.

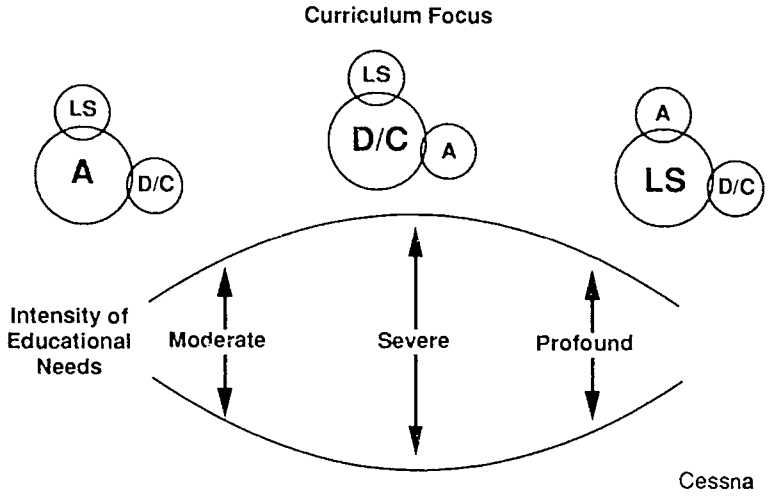
These identified needs were then converted into the three strands of the expanded curriculum. Survival-level math and reading fell under the Differentiated Academic Strand. Career exploration was placed in the Life Skills Strand, whereas the Developmental/ Compensatory Strand included direct instruction in negotiation and anger management. Further, the classroom environment and behavior management needs would be addressed in all class periods. In this manner, the student's functioning was converted into needs, which were subsequently converted into curriculum to facilitate planning for the individual student within the larger system.

Needs-Based Delivery Systems

Once all students' needs have been converted to curriculum, decisions must be made at the building and district levels about how to allocate resources and assign personnel to be able to offer the expanded curriculum as needed in each setting. Following the premise of needs-based programming, the curriculum, which was determined by student needs, in turn determines the delivery system (see the third band of Figure 1). The relationship between curricular focus and intensity of student need assists in converting the expanded curriculum into delivery of services and provides a framework for decision making about resource allocation. Figure 4 illustrates the relationship between curricular focus and intensity of need.

Figure 4

Relationship Between Needs Intensity and Curriculum Focus



Moderate Needs

For students who experience a moderate level of need intensity, the desired curricular outcomes are similar to those of their nondisabled peers. To be sure, some adjustment or "differentiation" of instructional activities, time, or presentation mode is necessary in order for them to learn successfully. But because they share the same curricular outcome, students with a moderate level of need are considered more alike than different in terms of curricular focus. This is true, regardless of whether they are labeled "learning disabled," "emotionally disturbed," "educationally mentally retarded" or "visually impaired."

The primary focus for these students is to accomplish the school's outcomes and to become independent. When considering the individual expanded curriculum strands, the principal focus of these students is Differentiated Academics. Although needs in the Life Skills and Developmental/Compensatory areas must also be addressed, decision making is driven by their needs in Differentiated Academics. This is illustrated in Figure 4 where the circle representing Differentiated Academics above the term "Moderate" is the largest of the intertwined circles representing the three curricular strands. We are not suggesting that services to all students with moderate needs would be the same. But their schedules must be designed to meet their primary needs: achievement of general education outcomes. Additional needs must also be met; this is accomplished by infusing content into existing general education classes or through newly designed classes/curriculum. Such curriculum might be taught by a (a) general educators supported through consultation, (b) special educators providing direct instruction, or (c) both special and general educators through a co-teaching arrangement.

Profound Needs

Other students, those with profound needs, need to learn to function interdependently to their fullest capacity. These students are aiso more alike than different in their curricular focus, regardless of the source of their disabilities.

They need curriculum that focuses on the life skills that will help them function to their unique, fullest capacity in all domains.

Life Skills curriculum is the primary focus for these students, with academics and developmental/compensatory curriculum woven in when and where appropriate. This is shown in Figure 4 where the circle representing Life Skills curriculum (LS) is largest for these students. Thus, these students' schedules are determined by a need to develop life skills needed at home, work, for leisure activities and in the community. Placement in general education classes is made to facilitate acquisition of these functional skills, not necessarily to achieve the same academic outcomes as those of typical peers.

Severe Needs

The most difficult students to plan for are those whose unique needs related to their disability are so intense that the curriculum must focus primarily on meeting those needs. For these students, the primary need is to acquire cognitive, communicative, social/emotional, or physical skills that develop naturally in most students and/or to compensate for their disability. However, students with severe needs are unique. They are different from each other in curricular content, since their needs are related to their specific, individual disability (see Figure 4). Yet they are alike in that their curricular focus is the Developmental/Compensatory Strand, with the other two strands woven in. Students' schedules are built in such a way that the main focus is on acquisition of developmental/compensatory skills with Academics and Life Skills infused as appropriate.

These students' needs require the same array of services as those of other students, including consultative, direct and co-taught. Planning is made more difficult, however, because the curriculum for these students must be pervasive throughout the day and not just delivered in formal classes intended for this purpose. Therefore, careful consideration needs to be given to which classes, by their very structure and teacher assigned, best facilitate instruction of the student's primary need.

Case Study

To understand how the expanded curriculum converts into decisions regarding delivery of services, let us return to the previous example of the high school student. The planning team determined that this student's needs were severe so the primary curriculum was Developmental/Compensatory with special attention to the student's need to learn appropriate means of achieving power and control in his life. This curriculum focus was then utilized to develop a schedule.

The team determined that the student could function successfully in one of the two general education consumer math classes, which were taught by different teachers. One of the teachers was exceptionally authoritarian; consequently, it was decided that the student should be placed with the other teacher. This decision reflects the team's awareness that this student's intensity of needs was severe and that a Developmental/Compensatory focus should be utilized for decision making. Further, the team recognized that it would have been difficult for the student to learn appropriate use of power if the first teacher had intermittently reinforced him for inappropriate use of power by engaging in power struggles.

The student's reading skills could not be appropriately addressed in any current general education class. However, it was learned that a survival reading class was to be offered by the learning disabilities teacher, which could effectively meet his need for reading instruction. Additionally, the school's initiative for at-risk students involved a class focusing on life skills with job shadowing where his need for career exploration could be met. It would be necessary, however, for the special education team to assist the teacher in altering the environment and behavior management systems to meet the student's need to feel some

control of the situation.

The school had no classes where the student's developmental/compensatory needs to develop appropriate skills to achieve power and control could be directly addressed. The special education team determined that a number of other students with various disabilities had similar needs for this type of instruction. The team arranged that one of the special education teachers would co-teach a class with one of the social studies teachers to include negotiation skills in the unit on the American labor movement. Because of the level of instruction necessary for anger management and the number of other identified students with the same need, it was determined that a class called "Social Survival" would be offered. Similar topics could be addressed in the context of the class as necessary. Decisions regarding this student were facilitated by utilizing the curricular focus of the expanded curriculum.

Based on the needs of this student and other students in the building the special educators were able to determine the total amount of time needed for consultative and co-taught classes as well as the number and kinds of classes that they would need to be offer. The needs of this student were able to be met within the organizational structure of the school. However, for another student with behavior disorders and a similar intensity of needs but different challenges, attendance at a center-based program within the district might be necessary. All decisions would be made on an individual basis.

The Expanded Curriculum serves as a mechanism for converting student needs into a curricular format so that grouping and resource-allocation decisions can be made for a building and a district. This allows a multitude of needs to be met in an orderly, efficient manner. Further, it allows decisions to be made about which resources are required to offer all curricular foci at the intensity required in a building and when it becomes necessary to group students with the same curricular foci in a center-based school.

Conclusion

The needs-based fan schematic (see Figure 1) shows how identification of student needs is basic to making decisions about curriculum ("what" to teach) and instruction ("how" to teach it). These decisions, in turn, lead to designing systems (the "who," "where," and "when") that facilitate meeting students' needs in the most integrated fashion possible.

Converting student needs into the Expanded Curriculum, in turn, provides a systematic way to categorize and manage these needs, for the purpose of developing and providing comprehensive instruction for each student. For example, the curricular focus derived from the intensity of need offers a mechanism for grouping students by need in order to educate them and helps design delivery systems at the district and building level. The needs-based model of special education provides educators with the opportunity to provide truly individualized programming within the larger educational system.

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CHAPTER 3

The Expanded Curriculum: Individualizing the System

by Lois Adams and K. Kay Cessna

In Chapter 2 we discussed the implication of a needs-based philosophy for special education services. This philosophy includes a focus on meeting the needs of the whole child and subsequently developing programming to teach to those needs. The Expanded Curriculum was introduced as a means to help organize and teach to the comprehensive needs of students with disabilities. Specifically, this concept allows students' needs (the "what" and "how") to drive the delivery system (the "who," "where," and "when"). In this chapter the Expanded Curriculum will be more thoroughly discussed.

Need for a New Concept of Curriculum

Since the concept of Expanded Curriculum is an extension of our current understanding of curriculum, it is necessary to consider briefly what constitutes curriculum. The vehicle traditionally used to address the goals and purposes of school is "curriculum."

Although this is a term used by all educators, it has become almost pancryptic in American education because it conveys so many different meanings (Schubert, 1986). However, perhaps reflecting its derivation from the Latin word meaning "the course of a chariot race" (Schubert, 1986), many agree with the broad definition that a curriculum is a path or course designed so that students may learn (Taba, 1962).

Curriculum primarily exists because many of the skills, ideas, and insights that we want students to learn are too important to be trusted to incidental and/or chance learning or, in some instances, too difficult for students to master by themselves (Tyler, 1949). For disabled students, curriculum is especially important because they may learn in an atypical manner, making it more unlikely that they will naturally or automatically acquire what their peers do. Further, they may demonstrate additional needs related to their disability that require development of specific curriculum.

This results in a twofold problem. First, because of their disabilities these students may have a greater number and a wider variety of goals pressed into the same amount of time as other students have in which to learn the traditional school curriculum. Second, it often takes students with disabilities longer to master each goal. So we are confronted with an interesting challenge: students with disabilities need more time to learn each skill and they often have to learn more than their nondisabled peers.

For these reasons, it is crucial that the curriculum for students with disabilities be consciously and carefully designed to avoid it becoming "a cafeteria offering, an indigestible melange of sundries rather than a patterned diet for learning" (Taba, 1962, p. 264), with more goals than can ever be reached. Although we are not proposing that curricular planning solves all the problems for students with disabilities, it is an essential element in effectively meeting these students' needs.

Decisions about curriculum reflect the designer's conceptual framework. Vallence (1985) suggested four questions that provide the basis essential for curriculum planners: (a) What can be changed—the students, the teachers, the environment? (b) What are the major purposes in developing curriculum—development of cognitive processes, self-actualization of the student, development of academic skills, continuation of traditional western culture, or social change? (c) What is a systematic process for developing curriculum? (d) In what terms can we best understand the implications of what we have wrought—technical, political, scientific, ethical, or aesthetic? When all four questions are satisfactorily answered, it is possible to "ensure that curriculum development is thorough, sensitive, methodical, and

defensible against most critics" (Vallence, 1985, p. 209).

There is one shortcoming in the traditional curricular frameworks, however: "The questions they illuminate still pertain chiefly to knowledge that is organized comfortably into subject matter areas and taught with the assumption that sequential mastery of cognitive information is what education must be" (Vallence, 1985, p. 209). General educators have "traditionally been bound by the strong subject-matter bias" of the typical school system and have held to the notion that "building a curriculum is chiefly a question of building a responsible structure of lessons to enable students to master [the subject matter] content" (Vallence, 1985, p. 213).

Historically, special educators have shared this understanding of curriculum. However, because students with disabilities often demonstrate problems that make it difficult for them to learn in the traditional manner and because what is included in the standard curriculum often is not sufficient to meet their diverse needs, answering the four curricular question is insufficient for programming for these students. Thus, this traditional view has limited our ability to develop alternative approaches to curriculum, thus inhibiting provision of appropriate, comprehensive special education.

The Expanded Curriculum

To the basic four curricular questions, we propose adding a fifth: "How must the curriculum be expanded in order to meet the unique needs of students with disabilities?" To answer this question, we need a framework that makes it possible to organize content and experiences around more than traditional content subject matter. To this end we propose the "Expanded Curriculum" (see Figure 5)—a model in which the needs of students with disabilities are clustered in three curricular strands: Differentiated Academic Curriculum, Life Skills Curriculum, and Developmental/Compensatory Curriculum. The following sections further elaborate the three strands of the Expanded Curriculum.

Figure 5

EXPANDED CURRICULUM: What Will Be Taught

Differentiated Academic Curriculum	Development Compensatory Curriculum	Life Skills Curriculum
General School Curriculum *Math* *Science* *Language Arts* *Social Science* *Physical Education* *Home Economics* *Art* *Etc.*		Managing Environment - *external management of community systems and environment* Managing Employment - *ongoing awareness, exploration, and preparation* Management Self - *inter intra personal skills*

Cessna/Adams

Differentiated Academic Curricular Strand

An important educational outcome for students with disabilities is the acquisition of knowledge and skills necessary to function successfully in society. School curriculum is generally recognized as composed of what society thinks is important to know and be able to do as "educated" citizens. Therefore, it is essential for students with disabilities to possess the knowledge and skills provided in the general school curriculum. However, a substantial amount of research suggests that students with disabilities (Note 1) may have difficulty with typical school subject matter (e.g., Algozzine & Ysseldyke, 1983; Cronis, Smith, & Forgnone, 1986; Deshler, Schumaker, Alley, Warner, & Clark, 1982; Dunn, 1973; Gajar, 1979; Kauffman, Cullinan, & Epstein, 1987; Kirk & Elkins, 1975; Luebke, Epstein, & Cullinan, 1989; Viadero, 1990).

Specifically, approximately two-thirds of the students who have been identified as "emotionally disturbed" (ED) function below grade level (Epstein, Kinder, & Bursuck, 1989; Kauffman et al., 1987; Steinberg & Knitzer, 1990). According to a number of studies, even though these students have academic difficulties, their problems at times may be different than those of students with other disabilities (Epstein & Cullinan, 1983; Fuller & Goh, 1981; Gajar, 1979; Luebke et al., 1989; Wagonseller, 1973). These academic difficulties may be related to the students' specific emotional difficulties (Kauffman et al., 1987). In addition, there remains another one-third of the labeled ED students who are functioning at or above grade level (Kauffman et al., 1987). There is a need for a variety of goals, materials and instructional techniques, that is, a differentiated academic curriculum, to facilitate ED students' acquisition of general school knowledge.

The Differentiated Academics Strand of the Expanded Curriculum is composed of all aspects of the traditional curriculum for which schools give grades: traditional content areas (social studies, health, science, English); basic or tool skills (reading, writing, math); and fine and practical arts (music, "shop," home economics, and physical education). The word "differentiated" serves as a reminder that effective instruction must always be provided at the student's level of functioning. Differentiation can occur by adjusting outcomes and/or activities. To adjust outcomes, students' needs and abilities are considered, then concepts and objectives in the unit, course, or subject are identified and prioritized relative to the student's needs.

To illustrate, it may be helpful to view curriculum as a giant submarine sandwich with three kinds of meat, two cheeses, lettuce, onions, and mayonnaise. The process of differentiation involves identifying the essence of "sandwich." For example, it might be decided that the essence of sandwich is one kind of meat and one kind of cheese. Subsequently, an individual's past eating history, current hunger level and physical capacity would be considered in deciding which additional ingredients might appropriately be added. In this way, a differentiated sandwich is created that maintains the integrity of "sandwich" while simultaneously allowing for individual differences. In like manner, curriculum can be analyzed to determine the concepts and objectives that are important for particular students.

In addition to differentiating outcomes by analyzing the curriculum, differentiation may occur by adjusting activities. For example, teacher activities may be differentiated by changing the mode of instruction, grading methods, and expectations for behavior and academic achievement. The activities the student participates in may also be differentiated by, for example, changing the way in which knowledge is demonstrated, the amount of guided practice expected, or the amount of time given to learn or complete tasks, knowledge, and skills. Thus, the outcome of the Differentiated Academic Strand is for the student to learn, to the maximum extent possible, what society has deemed important for all of its citizens to know by making changes to meet individual students' strengths and needs.

Practical Application of the Differentiated Academic Strand

The following is an example of Differentiated Academics for a student with emotional disabilities. Jason is a bright seventh grader, who performs two or more years above grade level in academic subjects. He is easily bored with

typical school subjects and he has several very effective strategies for bringing the total class to a screeching halt when he loses interest in an assignment. One of Jason's main difficulties is that he continually gets into power struggles with teachers and has a great deal of difficulty following rules and accepting discipline. The one "love" in Jason's life is rock music.

How can the academic curriculum be differentiated to meet Jason's needs? In the language arts class, one of the primary outcomes is that students be able to write short research papers on a topic of their choice. Although Jason possesses the skills needed to write, he rarely uses them on school assignments. Therefore, the primary outcome for Jason in language arts class is that he use his skills in a disciplined manner to produce a research paper.

The outcome for Jason is not different from the outcome for the other students, although he will need less instruction in the skills needed and more instruction in why and when to use them. For Jason it is important that the activities be adjusted so that he exercises the discipline to use the skills he already has. Jason can be given several choices as to ways in which he can fulfill the term paper assignment and an opportunity to design his own assignment, should he choose to do so. It is important for the teacher to identify the parameters of the assignment to meet the criterion of being a research paper (Does it need citations from research? Is a bibliography required? Must it follow a certain format? Is there a minimum acceptable length?). It is also important to carefully list for Jason how the paper will be graded. Since Jason has difficulty producing a finished written product, the requirements for the paper may be adjusted so that a one-page paper is the goal.

Jason and the teacher also can design an assignment that is meaningful to Jason: perhaps an article for the school newspaper on popular rock groups; a letter to the editor of the town newspaper defending rock music; or a paper written for his parents exploring careers in the rock music industry. In this way, the outcomes of the language arts class are slightly differentiated and the activities are significantly individualized to meet Jason's need.

Life Skills Curricular Strand

Students with disabilities must be able effectively to use what they learn in multiple environments; however, they often demonstrate difficulty applying and generalizing what they have learned. Therefore, the second strand of the Expanded Curriculum focuses on goals, objectives, materials and experiences that teach how-tos: how to manage the environment, employment, and self (see Figure 1). Thus, the strand focuses on applying skills in actual environments.

Students with invisible disabilities (those labeled "learning disabled," "emotionally disturbed," or "mentally retarded") have specific, sometimes intense, needs to learn to apply knowledge and skills (e.g., Cronis et al., 1986; Hasazi et al.,1985; Koegel & Derman, 1980; Kranstover, Thurlow, & Bruininks, 1989; Mithaug, Horiuchi, & Fanning, 1985; Neel, Meadows, Levine, & Edgar, 1988; Plue, 1984; Polloway, Epstein, Patton, Cullinan, & Luebke, 1986; Stillington, Frank, & Cooper, 1989; White, Schumaker, Warner, Alley, & Deshler, 1980; Zigmond & Thornton, 1985).

Students who have been identified as having emotional/behavioral problems are at particular risk in the area of life skills because their difficulties often involve "social skills" (Simpson, 1987; Walker, McConnell, & Clarke, 1985), which are basic to successfully managing self, environment and employment. In addition, maladjusted children evidence difficulty with means-end thinking (Higgins & Thies, 1981; Shure & Spivack, 1972), a component of problem solving that is important in the real world.

In a recent Washington state study, students who were labeled as having emotional disabilities were found to be unemployed nearly one and one-half times as often as their typical peers and nearly one-third of the subjects in the study were not involved in any sort of structured community or leisure activities (Neel et al., 1988). Furthermore, many individuals

with emotional disabilities do not obtain postsecondary education (Robbins, 1966; Shore & Massimo, 1979), so those who are employed are often undereducated and underemployed (Weiss, 1983).

In addition, probably related to difficulties in learning, students with disabilities often have difficulty transferring what they learn in one environment to another and in generalizing what they learn in one particular situation to a different but similar situation (Rutherford, Gresham, Stokes, & Baer, 1977). Therefore, when students with invisible disabilities are learning new information and skills, application must be continuously included and students must have ample opportunity to practice in real-life situations.

Both qualitative and quantitative data provide evidence for the importance of teaching students with invisible disabilities to manage the environment, employment, and self. The Life Skills Strand must provide these students with principles and skills that they can apply to solve their problems and meet their needs now and as adults.

Practical application of the Life Skills Strand

To illustrate how the Life Skills Strand might be incorporated into programming for students with emotional disabilities, let us again consider Jason. Jason has very unrealistic occupational goals. For example, he plans to be a rock musician although he neither plays an instrument, nor reads music. He also is not very clear about how much money he will need to live on, nor what he can expect to earn as a musician. In addition, he sees no relevancy of what he is learning in school to what he may need to know as a rock musician. Although Jason exhibits bravado in his relations with students and the teacher in class, Jason is very inept at obtaining information through interpersonal communication.

The Life Skills Strand is important for Jason. For example, the research assignment in his language arts class provides a perfect opportunity to infuse life skills objectives into the academic strand. Should Jason choose to research the job opportunities in rock music, he may be encouraged to interview one or more individuals in that profession to determine what skills are needed. This would entail making phone calls, developing a questionnaire, interviewing people, identifying which skills are necessary for success, and listening for and writing down information. This task provides opportunity for direct instruction, practice and application of crucial life skills in actual settings.

In summary, the focus of the Life Skills Strand is on application of concepts and use of specific practical skills in multiple settings to allow students to effectively manage employment, environment, and self.

Developmental/Compensatory Curricular Strand

This curricular strand becomes important when one asks "How does a student's disability cause unique needs that students without the disability do not have?" Therefore, this is the heart of what's "special" about special education. Specifically, the goal of Developmental/Compensatory curriculum is to help students with disabilities learn those skills that most students develop naturally or spontaneously and to acquire compensatory strategies that minimize the effect of the disability.

To better understand the Developmental/Compensatory Strand it may help to consider one of the "hard" or more obvious disabilities: visual impairment. For students with visual impairments it is necessary to have curriculum that teaches orientation and mobility as well as the use of alternative communication modes, such as Braille. To omit that curriculum would be to ignore the most pressing needs of a student with a visual impairment: acquisition of those skills that others develop naturally (orientation and mobility skills) and those compensatory skills that reduce the impact of the disability (use of Braille or other alternative communication devices). Thus, a primary developmental/compensatory curricular theme for students with visual disabilities is development of orientation/mobility and alternative communication skills.

For students with invisible disabilities, Developmental/Compensatory needs are not as obvious, but their needs in this area are often intense nonetheless. For instance, students who have been labeled mentally retarded often evidence difficulties in adaptive behavior (Cronis et al., 1986; MacMillan, 1988) and are described in the literature as being dependent and having an external locus of control (Baroff, 1986; Zigler & Ball, both cited in Whitman, 1990). These behaviors emphasize the importance of developing skills in how to be independent, both socially and economically. Language skills are important in achieving independence because language serves as a tool to help regulate behavior. Unfortunately, development of independent behavior may be inhibited in persons with retardation by deficiencies in their linguistic systems (Keene, 1972, Luria, 1961; Spradlin, 1963; Whitman 1987, all cited in Whitman, 1990). Therefore, Developmental/Compensatory curriculum for students who have been labeled mentally retarded must consist of compensatory skills for achieving independence and developing language skills to help mediate behavior. The theme of the D/C curriculum for students who are labeled mentally retarded is, therefore, learning how to be self-sufficient. While there is a common theme, the choice of the curriculum and how it is sequenced is based on individual need.

That academic deficits are endemic in students who have been labeled learning disabled is well accepted (Algozzine & Ysseldyke, 1983; Deshler et al., 1982; Kirk & Elkins, 1975; Lindsey & Kerlin, 1979). Research in learning disabilities based on a cognitive-processing framework suggests that many students with this label are inefficient learners or demonstrate production deficits. They may evidence deficits in the ability to access and/or apply the knowledge that they have (Baur, 1977; Hallahan & Bryan, 1981; Johnston & Winograd, 1985; Reed & Hresko, 1981; Swanson, 1986, 1988; Torgesen, 1977, 1980, 1982; Torgesen, Murphy, & Ivey, 1979; Wong, 1978, 1985; Wong & Jones, 1982; Wong & Wilson, 1984; Worden, 1986). In addition, there is evidence that students with learning problems also have difficulty in language functioning which may impact cognition (Bloom & Lahey, 1978; Wallach & Butler, 1984; Wiig & Semel, 1984). Therefore, both cognitive and communicative areas may be affected for students who have been labeled learning disabled.

As a result, Developmental/Compensatory curriculum for these students focuses on teaching them to become more efficient and effective learners. Through acquisition of linguistic skills and cognitive strategies students can develop, tap, and skillfully use their knowledge as active participants in the learning process. The instructional theme for many students labeled learning disabled is learning how to learn through development of linguistic and cognitive skills.

Emotionally disturbed students, by definition, have difficulty with social interactions and managing their emotions. Many of these difficulties involve interactions with peers, family and adults (Sabornie, 1987; Sabornie & Kauffmann, 1985; Walker, McConnell, & Clarke, 1985). This may be due to a lack of social skills (Cartledge, Frew, & Zaharias, 1985; Schloss, Schloss, Wood, & Kiehl, 1986) or inept communication skills (McDonough, 1989). Social situations are especially difficult for these students. For example, the social networks that they establish have a lower proportion of peer relationships and are more dependent on adult relationships (Barone, Schmid, Leone, & Trickett, 1990). At the same time they lack a positive sense of purpose in relation to the greater community (Henggeler, 1989) and have difficulty adapting their social interactions to their communities' social mores (Kauffman, 1989). Additionally these students have problems with work, marital, and occupational adjustment (Robbins, 1966, 1979; Wolfgang, Figlio, & Sellin, 1972).

The Developmental/Compensatory curriculum for these students will focus on teaching them skills needed to become more socially competent. In some instances, this will involve direct instruction of basic social skills that more socially competent students learn spontaneously. In other situations, students will need to be taught replacement behaviors which allow them to satisfy their emotional needs using more acceptable behaviors.

Practical application of the Developmental/Compensatory Strand

Let us revisit Jason's needs to demonstrate how instruction in the Developmental/Compensatory Strand might be provided. Jason was constantly

involved in power struggles. He regularly challenged the math teacher which resulted in his being sent to the office with distressing frequency. The other students complained that they did not want him in their work group because he was "too bossy" and "tried to take over." If they did not let him do it his way, he would start a fight or otherwise disrupt the work group. He became bored easily and seldom finished an assignment. When requested to return to work, he typically refused.

Developmental/Compensatory instruction was essential for Jason. It was agreed that efforts in this strand needed to focus on teaching him more appropriate ways to achieve a degree of power and control in his life. The special challenge when addressing this strand is that it will not always "fit" into traditional classes, yet at the same time, the needs must be addressed throughout the school day. Essentially, all aspects of the school day would be orchestrated to assist him in appropriate use of power and control.

The first step was to alter classroom structures whenever possible to allow Jason to experience more control over his own life. A daily contract was established which he was responsible for monitoring. He was encouraged to develop the format for his contract. Additionally, he assisted in generating the menu of reinforcers. A schedule change was initiated so that Jason was in another math class and would not need to interact with the former math teacher. This was done so that Jason would not experience reinforcement of inappropriate use of power through ongoing power struggles. The next step was to provide formal instruction in skills that would help him access power appropriately. Jason's social studies class was just beginning a unit on the American labor movement. Negotiation skills were infused into the class. He met regularly with a small group the counselor conducted to learn how to ask for what he needed more directly. The first skill addressed was the use of "I messages." Additionally, informal instruction was provided. When Jason started to engage in a power struggle, he was encouraged to communicate what he wanted directly. Whenever he refused to comply he was given two choices of acceptable responses. Environmental, formal and informal instructional avenues were used to provide Jason with Developmental/Compensatory instruction.

Conclusion

The three Expanded Curriculum Strands serve as organizers around which curriculum is developed and instruction provided. The strands represent three broad need areas of students with disabilities: (a) the need to acquire the information and skills valued by the community for all students (Differentiated Academic Strand); (b) the need to be able to apply knowledge and skills effectively to manage various settings (Life Skills Strand); and (c) the need to develop social/emotional, physical, communicative, and cognitive skills that nondisabled persons develop naturally and to compensate for skills that are difficult or impossible to acquire due to a disability (the Developmental/Compensatory Strand).

We believe that the Expanded Curriculum model meets several educational needs: (a) It makes it possible both to effectively meet the unique, individual needs of students with disabilities and to efficiently fulfill society's charge for all students; (b) It offers a broad outline of what students with disabilities should learn and, therefore, what teachers should teach; (c) It serves as a map showing a unique yet consistent journey of learning and growth for each student with a disability; (d) It provides a mechanism for determining how learning experiences may be interconnected to produce maximum results in an efficient manner; and (e) It offers information about how to group students and staff schools to best meet various needs. Thus, the Expanded Curriculum serves as an organizer for developing curriculum based on needs and allows for individual and group planning, thereby providing a needed linkage between special and general education.

We agree with Eisner that "Nothing matters more than curriculum matters" (Eisner, cited in Schubert, 1986, p. 5). We suggest that the Expanded Curriculum will allow educators

to effectively and efficiently provide needs-based education for students with disabilities in a variety of settings and situations.

Note 1. We propose that the concept of the Expanded Curriculum is appropriate for students with any disabling condition. For the purposes of this monograph, however, we limit our discussion and literature citations to the "invisible disabilities" (learning disabilities, mental retardation, and emotional disturbance), with specific attention to emotional disturbance.

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Section II

Focus on Behavioral Problems: Instructional Underpinnings

CHAPTER 4

Behavioral Intent: Instructional Content for Students with Behavior Disorders

by Richard S. Neel and K. Kay Cessna

Students with behavior problems act in ways that are disruptive, confusing, and often just plain annoying. In fact, children are often identified for specialized services based upon behaviors that are considered undesirable by others (Kauffman, 1989). Problem behaviors are particularly frustrating to teachers. For example, well-planned lessons can be ruined by students who know how to act in ways that bother others. Arguments spring up everywhere and extended talks lead nowhere. For some teachers, the classroom is full of tension, and the goal is to make it to the end of the day without too much anger and confusion. The literature is replete with suggestions for how to handle such behavior. Far too often, however, these discussions fail to address the complexity facing teachers who must manage a classroom of students with behavior problems while providing effective individualized instruction.

The purpose of the next two chapters is to provide classroom teachers with a framework for developing effective techniques to promote social competence in their students. This chapter focuses on how teachers may decide specific behavioral instruction for an individual child. First, we suggest a new way to view problem behaviors. Next, we show how the concept of behavioral intent can be used to determine the instructional content of programs designed for students with behavior disorders. Finally, in Chapter 5 we discuss how such a system could be applied to a classroom of students.

Problem Behaviors

Problem behaviors are not viewed by teachers as a central part of the curriculum. Instead, they are considered an interruption in the instructional process. As such they are behaviors to be stopped, not utilized. They are problems to be eliminated. They often induce in teachers the desire for increased control.

In short, successful instruction occurs when these behaviors no longer exist, and the children are going about the business of school: academics. According to this view, classroom environments are developed to control behaviors, and academics are adjusted to prevent trouble or lessen the number of situations where it occurs. Consequently, progress is measured in terms of increased academic achievement and reduction or elimination of problem behaviors.

Unfortunately, for a large percentage of students with behavior disorders, any such progress is illusionary. When the structure changes to reflect more natural settings or when a student moves from his/her protected setting, the real problem appears. By controlling behavior and substituting academic success for social competence, we have failed to teach the behaviors necessary to deal effectively with the situations that elicited problem behavior in the first place. In other words, we have substituted an academic curriculum for a social one.

Why does this occur? The problem lies in the behavior problems themselves. We can clarify the situation by looking more closely at the nature of the instructional content for children with behavior problems and how it differs from other types of instruction.

Normal Instructional Course

Take for a moment the normal course of a general academic program: reading in the third grade, for example. The scope and sequence of reading instruction is well articulated.

The lessons of any particular year are developed, and the link between the skills taught and reading as a whole is clearly specified. Of course, different approaches will have different lessons, sequences and skills, but each consists of a specific set of skills on which the teacher can focus. The important point is that the content of instruction is defined and the sequence of instruction is logically formulated.

Assessment then consists of determining which skills the student knows (in this case, how well he/she reads) and where those skills fit in the instructional sequence. Specific skill areas (e.g., phonics, decoding, vocabulary) may be taught and assessed as parallel strands of instruction, but the outcome is still measured through general reading. In other words, there is a strong correspondence between the defined content of instruction and assessment activities.

The planning and delivery of each lesson follows a typical format. The teacher plans the lesson, schedules the time, picks the materials, sets up the working space, places stimuli before the student, and corrects responses when necessary. The student's role is also prescribed. He/she comes to the setting expecting to respond to the stimuli (read), receive correction, and modify responses when required. If the child makes progress along the prescribed continuum (in this case, the reading sequence), the lesson has been successfully taught.

Instruction Related to Behavior Problems

How does instruction relating to a behavior problem differ? First, the "lesson" (i.e., the problem behavior) is scheduled by the student (some teachers claim it is scheduled at all the worst times!!!). The "techniques" used are also the student's choice. In fact, many students will use a type of social sonar to determine which "techniques" are best to use in various situations and with various teachers (it is not uncommon to see a student in middle school use a wide variety of words, gestures, and actions to accommodate the various learning styles of his/her teachers!).

The teacher and other students do most of the responding, and the student shapes their responses with his or her behavior. If the teacher responds in a way that is not what the student wants, misbehavior often continues until the teacher's response changes. Since the driving force behind determining success, as defined by the teacher, is the absence of the problem behavior, this shaping of teacher responses by the student often goes unnoticed. For example, it may be hidden in arguments, removal from class, or any number of other unpleasant interactions; or it may be disguised in the form of changes to the management system or behavioral plan used with a particular student. When a teacher substitute arrives, or class placement is shifted, the problem behaviors return at the same or higher rates. It is at these times that the degree of student shaping of teachers can be assessed.

The teaching of alternatives to behavior problems also differs from the teaching of academics in that the scope and sequence of what is to be taught is not clearly defined. Admonitions for problem behavior are general ("When are you going to grow up?") or vague ("Act your age"). The instructional goal of many programs is the elimination of problem behaviors and control of the student.

Ample instructions on how to stop behavior may be found in the literature (see Nelson and Rutherford, 1988, for a review), but only a limited number of programs focus on instruction in new, desired behaviors. Further, even plans that do promote individual skills often fail to provide developmental, long-term sequences of instruction. At best, skills modules are matched to specific problem areas (Goldstein, Sprafkin, Gershaw, & Klien 1980; Walker, McConnell, Holmes, Todis, Walker, & Golden, 1983) Progress is gauged in terms of skills learned, rather than movement toward maturity and social competency. This type of instruction is like teaching phonics or vocabulary without ever having the student integrate these skills into reading. Such instruction usually fails to generalize to noninstructional settings (Gresham, 1981).

Finally, assessment of behavior problems identifies what needs to be eliminated. Rarely do assessment reports include skills to be taught. Instead, IEP goals reflect reductions in

disruptive behavior (will reduce the number of tantrums by 50%) or global descriptions (will get along with others, will act appropriately, etc.). Indeed, when individual skills or behaviors are specified, they fail to reflect the context or social task required (Dodge, 1985; Ladd, 1985). Unless a clearer connection between desired actions and instructional goals is drawn, therefore, these goals provide little or no guidance to the teacher. Consider how a reading teacher would respond to similar goals; for example, "will read fluently, will appropriately gather ideas and impressions of others from the printed page."

Behavior problems, therefore, do not fall within the usual concepts of instruction. Programs developed to remediate them are reduction programs that focus on control or elimination of troublesome behaviors. They are rarely viewed as a normal instructional function of schools. If we are going to provide effective, long-term, developmental instruction for students with behavior disorders, we must develop curricula for teachers that clearly identify content, sequence, and instructional methods to teach students to be socially competent in various settings. Additionally, such programs must be effectively delivered in the classroom.

This chapter outlines the first step in that process by developing a way to view behavior not as the focus of intervention, but as a diagnostic of instructional goals. This view provides a method for determining appropriate content to be used by teachers.

Behavioral Intent

Providing effective instruction for students with behavior problems requires a system that can use the behaviors presented by the student (both desired and undesired) to develop and implement instruction. An initial first step in such a system necessitates that behavior problems be viewed in a new way.

Behavior problems are a diagnostic of the student's social goal or intent at any given point in time. We call this desired goal "behavioral intent." When students act, even demonstrating behaviors that we view as disordered, they act for a purpose. "Behavioral intent" refers to the purpose sought by the student as inferred from analyzing a series of overt behaviors in various situations.

The work of Krasnor (1982), Neel, Jenkins, and Meadows (1990) and others has shown that most children seek similar goals in social situations. Thus, the behavioral intents of most students with behavior problems are the same as those of socially competent students. The difference is that behaviors used to achieve the outcome (goal) by students with behavior problems are not accepted nor desired by others. It is important to remember, however, that this lack of acceptance does not, in and of itself, suggest that the behavior is less successful in achieving the desired intent for the student.

The selection of the word "intent" to describe the student's desired outcome might suggest a retrenchment from empirical, data-based instructional planning. This is not so. An analysis of the behavioral intent requires an empirical base. All intents, once inferred, must be verified through empirical means. Using behavioral terminology, behavioral intent describes a generalized reinforcer that is accessed through a range of activities. Intents are more than descriptions of the relationship between a specific behavior and the reward(s) that reinforce it. That is, the intents are descriptions of outcomes a student attempts to achieve through a series of social interactions, using a set of behaviors (skills) in a variety of situations and settings.

Some students always use the same series of behaviors to achieve a particular intent. For example, many aggressive students have found that striking an intimidating pose or uttering a few well-chosen words allows them to escape an unpleasant spelling assignment. Other students have developed a refined set of behaviors that they can use to achieve their social goal. Students who are known to manipulate adults are good examples of this second type. They have a wide repertory of techniques they can use to establish control over someone.

Behavioral intent differs from a description of specific behaviors as it involves determining the connection between observed behaviors and the outcomes expected by the student. Thus, several behavioral chains are observed in an attempt to discover the connection between a set of troublesome behaviors and the result(s) achieved *for the student*. It is from

the pattern(s) developed by these observations that intent is inferred.

The process is analogous to the communicative intent inferred from the pragmatic language behavior of young children (see Neel & Billingsley, 1989). Specific behavioral sequences are viewed as exemplars of a class of sequences or behaviors that indicate behavioral intents. The functional relationship between a particular behavior and its likely reinforcer is no longer the sole focus of instruction. Rather, they are considered as part of a larger class of intents. (The necessity of determining behavioral intents as a prerequisite of instruction will be discussed later in this chapter.)

Sometimes behavioral intent is not readily apparent, but requires frequent observations of several different interactions to be reliably determined. A provocative example of using behavioral intent as a way of viewing disordered behavior can be found in the work of Wahler and Dumas (1986). In households where abuse had been passed down from generation to generation, these authors found several instances of family members acting aggressively towards each other in response to physical abuse from the head of the household. Such aggression between victims was difficult to explain in traditional behavioral terms of observed behavior and probable rewards. Instead, Wahler and Dumas found that the reinforcing *intent* (our word) for the behavior was consistency and predictability. In other words, the family members preferred to act aggressively because they "knew" aggression and it was a predictable behavior.

By observing several iterations of family interactions, Wahler and Dumas were able to infer probable intent and make sense out of what otherwise appeared to be meaningless behavior. In this case, consistency could be viewed as a generalized reinforcer for a series of behavioral chains. Used in this way it is similar to behavioral intent. The term "behavioral intent" was chosen, however, because it connotes an interaction between the student's desired outcome and the achieved result.

The work of Wahler and Dumas brings up an important question. Are the intents achieved through use of problem behaviors pathological or disordered? Neel and his associates found that when 60 teachers, administrators, and related service personnel were asked to infer the intent of several behaviors of problem students with whom they had worked, the list reflected intents shared by most everyone in our society (Neel, Cessna, Swize, & Borock, in press). These findings have been replicated in several workshops in Colorado and Washington. A list of the intents identified across these studies is shown in Table 1.

If replicated more widely by others, these findings may lead to a new definition for disordered behavior. Problem behaviors would be a special case exemplar of a class of behaviors that achieved a particular intent. That is, they could be viewed as the "best case" from the student's point of view. They would be the particular set of behaviors that reliably achieved the desired intent in a variety of settings and situations. In other words, behavior problems become effective exemplars of a behavioral class.

From this perspective, problem behaviors are not different from their more desired counterparts. Rather, they are those behaviors that are not valued/desired by significant others, but have been determined by the student to be the most effective means of achieving a given objective in a particular situation or setting. As teachers, our task is not to deny or refocus the intent, but to establish a competing set of more desirable behaviors that achieves the intent sought by the student. In other words, the focus of instruction is to replace problem behaviors with other behaviors in the same class that will effectively achieve the student's desired intent.

Table 1

POSSIBLE OUTCOME GUIDE

Outcome	Description
Power/Control	When child's outcome is the control of events and/or situations. Characterized by child acting to stay in situation and keep control.
Protection/Escape Avoidance	When child's outcome is to avoid a task, activity; escape a consequence; terminate or leave a situation.
Attention	When a child becomes the focus of a situation; draws attention to self; result is that the child puts himself/herself in the foreground of a situation; discriminates self from group for a period of time; distinguishing feature is "becoming the focus" as the end product of the behavior.
Acceptance/Affiliation	When a child connects/relates with others; mutuality of benefit is present.
Expression of Self	When a child develops a forum of expression; could be statements of needs or perceptions, or demonstration of skills and talents.
Gratification	When a child is self-rewarded or pleased; distinguishing characteristic is that reward is self-determined; others may play agent role.
Justice/revenge	When a child settles a difference; provides restitution, or demonstrates contrition; settling the score.

Neel

Replacement Behaviors

The notion of teaching replacement behaviors is based upon two assumptions. First, *all behavior has meaning for the person engaging in it*. This may seem to be a trivial claim, but it is fundamental to any instructional approach to helping children with behavioral problems. As Laing (1975) stated in his insightful book on schizophrenia, *The Divided Self*, even language that appears to have a limited or nonexistent logical base has meaning for

the person using it. In fact, Laing would argue that it is only when we understand its purpose that we will be able to effectively help students. Our position is that behavior has purpose, that such purpose is valid, and that an understanding of that purpose is critical to instructional design.

Our second assumption is that *meaning and function precede form.* In other words, behavior is not only purposeful (i.e., achieves a particular outcome), it is also intentional (i.e., is directed toward a perceived outcome or reward). Although intents must at present by their nature remain as inferences, it does not mean that they cannot be empirically verified. For example, Neel and Billingsley (1989) demonstrated that it is possible to reliably infer behavioral intents with children who are nonverbal and who have limited social interactions. This work is supported by similar findings with different types of behavior problems (Dodge, 1985; Krasnor & Rubin, 1983; Neel, Jenkins, & Meadows, 1990).

The measurement of intents is difficult, especially with older students who tend to produce what Lewin (1935) called the "socially acceptable response in observed situations" (p. 67). Difficulty of measurement should not, however, be taken as evidence of the invalidity of the critical roles of intent and perceived reward in disordered behavior. It is the interaction between the desired outcome (intent) and the environmental response to the behaviors tested that produces the specific behavior(s) we call disordered. When interventions focus on reducing or eliminating a particular behavior, the principal intent of the behavior is also affected. Far too often, the desired intent is denied or disregarded because attention is focused on the behavior that is being used to achieve it.

By failing to include the concept of intent in our instructional design, we communicate a disinterest (and, in some cases, a genuine disregard) for the validity of the student's intent. But if, as we have shown (Neel et al., in press), intents are not pathological and are shared by all, such disinterest reflects a competition of values between the intents of the teacher and those of the child. The message sent to the student, therefore, is "My intent in this situation is more important than yours."

This failure to validate the student's perspective is a fundamental element of improper instruction of students with behavior problems. Therefore, to provide more effective instruction to these students, we must learn to accept the curriculum presented by the student through his/her behavior as THE content of instruction. In other words, we need to develop a student-driven curriculum. Such a curriculum is based upon understanding intents and teaching replacement behaviors. This is much different from typical curricula where content, scope, and sequence are just developed and students are then exposed to them.

What are replacement behaviors?

Replacement behaviors are members of a class of behaviors that achieve the same intent as that achieved by the problem behavior. However, while achieving the desired outcome for the student, these behaviors are socially acceptable to significant others in the settings and situations being considered.

To be effective, replacement behaviors need to reliably achieve the desired intent otherwise achieved by the problem behavior. An important distinction is that replacement behaviors are a class of behavior sequences that are taught to reach a particular event. A highly generalized, undesired behavior, therefore, cannot be replaced with a single, more socially acceptable one. Thus, few socially acceptable behaviors would be effective enough to compete one-on-one with a problem behavior. Socially competent individuals bring a complex array of behaviors and strategies to any situation. It is the effective use of these complex sets of behaviors that differentiates socially competent individuals from those with behavior problems.

Planning instructional content for students with behavior problems relies on identifying the behavioral intent achieved by the problem behavior and then arranging the environment so that other, more socially acceptable behaviors can be taught to replace the problem behaviors while still allowing the student to achieve his/her original intent. This differs from the common practice of reducing problem behaviors through external controls and highly structured environments, which allows little opportunity for error.

It is important that we make a distinction between teaching replacement behaviors and reducing problem behaviors. Replacement behaviors are not academic behaviors that are reinforced to compete with the problem ones. True, it is possible to develop a classroom structure that would increase academic behaviors and reduce one or more problem behaviors at the same time. However, to do so would be to switch intents, not replace behaviors. Take, for example, a student who wants to escape from a math assignment, and does so by throwing a tantrum every time he is given a set of problems to complete. We could set up a reward system to enable him to finish the problems and reduce the throwing of tantrums. However, this would not teach him how to escape more effectively. Whenever the need to escape returned, so would the tantrums.

In some circumstances, academics could be a successful replacement behavior. Consider the student who wants to affiliate with the teacher and does so by pestering the teacher with inane questions. If a program were set up so that the student was taught to finish a set of math problems to receive praise, then finishing math could become a replacement for inane questions. As mentioned, usually more than one replacement would have to be taught to effectively compete with inane questioning. But in this case, academics could be one of them. This partially explains why academics is an effective competitor for some behavior problems with some students. The important point is that whether or not a particular behavior is a replacement behavior depends upon the outcome achieved rather than the behavior itself.

As Winnet and Winkler (1972) pointed out, a majority of our behavioral interventions are designed to teach students to be docile and quiet. These behaviors may have utility in some classrooms, but they fail to address the social needs of students with behavior problems. Often, the progress we observe is nothing more than the lack of opportunity. If, for a student who deals poorly with frustration, we have engineered the classroom to eliminate frustrating events, we will indeed see a drop in the number of outbursts due to frustration. However, we may not have taught the student how to deal with frustration more effectively. In fact, Gresham (1981) and others have argued that we have not. Thus, the next time frustration appears, so will the problem behaviors. Such recurrences are often viewed as student error in dealing with frustration, and as such in need of elimination. We often change our program to ensure that the precipitating events do not recur. This phenomenon is often referred to as "lack of generalization between persons or settings."

A more instructive explanation is that due to our focus on the reduction of behaviors, we fail to see that the critical difference between the two settings was the engineered absence of frustration. The fluctuation in rates of behavior more likely reflects our ability (or inability) to control the number of frustrating events in the student's life. When frustrating situations arise in either setting, these students often act exactly the same. Differences in performance are due more often to the increase in uncontrolled, potentially frustrating, situations in the nontraining settings. What is lost is the realization that by controlling frustration we have eliminated the opportunity to learn new ways to deal with frustration when it occurs.

When the instructional focus is adjusted to reflect the student's perspective, responses to problem behaviors take on a different look. Problem behaviors are used diagnostically to determine a critical intent of the student, in this case, escape from frustration. The intent is acknowledged by the teacher, and a more acceptable way of achieving the intent can be taught.

Alternately, when instruction focuses on reducing behaviors, the intent is often ignored or denied, the behaviors are punished or ignored, and other activities or goals are rewarded as the "desired intent and behaviors" for the student. For example, teachers commonly complain that students argue when asked to do something. Specifically, teachers report that "He always argues with me when I tell him to . . . (sit down, stop talking, line up, get ready for the bus, etc.)." When asked about the desired response teachers typically answer, "Well, I just want him to stop arguing and follow directions."

Thus, programs are set up to reward "following directions" and punish (or at least not reward as often) arguing. The problem with this approach is that it assumes that the intent desired by the teacher (in this case, approval through compliance with instructions) is the same as the intent desired by the student. Far too often, this is not the case.

Another problem with ignoring the intent of the student is the resulting reinforcement of problem behaviors. Often these students use behaviors that produce consistent responses in others. If such behaviors are not acknowledged, and if other behaviors are taught that fail to address the needs of the student as the student sees them, a withdrawal state is initiated.

Assume for a minute that the problem student was arguing because it was the only reliable way he/she had to control the situation. If the student were to agree to follow directions, what would be the effect? It is likely that teacher contact would be less, and from the student's point of view he/she would be less in control, waiting for the next event (command) to occur.

Such uncertainty is too much for some students to handle, leading to situations where commands are met with arguments. Arguments are known events to the student (he/she has been in thousands of them!), and it is easier to deal with them than deal with the lack of control that results from complying with teacher requests. In attempting to correct the situation, therefore, the teacher has inadvertently contributed to it.

Conclusion

Replacement behavior is a deceptively simple notion. Accepting the concepts of behavioral intent and replacement behaviors has a profound effect on the content of instruction for students with behavior problems. Specifically, the instructional focus switches from instructing a set of convergent social behaviors to developing various sets of acceptable behaviors that achieve the many social outcomes desired by us all. Further, instruction becomes a planned response to various situations that arise in the child's world, rather than a highly controlled environment designed to reward only a limited set of social behaviors that only apply to instructional settings. Reliance on formal instruction is lessened, while informal instruction of a variety of social behaviors takes precedence. Social behaviors (even problem behaviors), previously seen as interruptions of important tasks, are now viewed as opportunities for instruction.

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CHAPTER 5

Instructional Themes: A Pragmatic Response to Complexity

by Richard S. Neel and K. Kay Cessna

Implementing a variety of complex programs is a main concern when providing needs-based instruction for children with behavior problems. Simply stated, the problem for teachers is how to design and implement programs that simultaneously meet the needs of several vastly different children? Diversity is not new to education.

Approaches to Teaching Students with Diverse Needs

Historically three general approaches have been used to address the problem. The first approach assumed that treatments needed to remediate emotional problems were outside the realm of public schools. As a result, many students with behavior probiems were excluded from schools, instead receiving treatment at residential hospitals, medical clinics, and private offices. In instances where schooling was provided, it was most often viewed as a placeholder where students went between therapy.

Following the passage of P.L. 94-142, more comprehensive programs were developed. For example, parallel systems for working with students with behavior problems emerged. That is, teachers focused on academics; psychologists, psychiatrists and social workers worked with emotions. While cooperation and planning across disciplines improved, the major responsibility for therapy remained with nonteaching professionals and classroom activities remained secondary to therapy. Some of these programs retained their residential nature, while others were developed in self-contained public schools settings. Most programs were located away from the general education students.

More recently, a third approach to educating students with behavior problems has been developed based on the belief that teachers could, and should, be the major providers of services to students with behavior disorders. This instructional movement took on two general forms. One branch reflected the curative value of therapy and, consequently, taught teachers to be what Rhodes (1967; Hobbs, 1965) called "educateurs." Variations within this movement included life space interviewing (Redl, 1976), crisis intervention (Hobbs, 1965), psycho-educational approaches (Rezmierski, Knowblock, & Bloom, 1982), and developmental therapies (Wood, Swan, & Newman, 1982).

The difficulty with these techniques was that they did not reflect general instructional practice, and often relied on guidelines and principles that were too vague for instructional design (Neel, 1984). Successful programs were carried out by specialists who possessed skills that were hard to describe, and even more difficult to transmit to others (Bettelheim, 1950; Erickson, 1963; Fagen & Long, 1976; Hewett, 1967; Long & Fagen, 1981; Morse, 1976; Redl, 1966; Wood, 1975). When programs were developed without a person with these special talents, instruction was often poorly articulated and of questionable value (Ullmann & Krasner, 1965). Thus, global instructional goals and IEPs reflected either general descriptions of acceptable behavior (acts appropriately 80% of the time) or primarily academic instructional targets (completes math assignment on time) (Kerr & Zigmond, 1986).

The second branch of the instructional movement was behavioral. (See Ullmann & Kranser, 1965, for a succinct description of the behavioral approach.) Here, focus was placed on determining the functional relationship between a particular problem behavior and the reinforcers that controlled it. Programs were written to modify specific behaviors by altering the conditions surrounding them. Thus, instruction focused on reducing problem behaviors (Winett & Winkler, 1972) and increasing academic skills.

Many teachers saw problems as specific behaviors that could be isolated from their

contexts and considered as equivalent responses, no matter where they occurred. For example, hitting was viewed as a behavior to be eliminated or reduced rather than as a student's response to a set of internal and external conditions. Accordingly, program structures were altered to increase control until specific stimuli and responses were highly discriminated. Often reinforcers were imported into these situations to ensure acquisition of the desired behaviors.

Two problems with the behavioral approach began to emerge. First, many of the behaviors learned in the training setting failed to generalize to new situations (Gresham, 1981; Stokes & Baer, 1977). The second concern was more pragmatic: Programs developed for one behavior of one student could not easily be maintained by teachers when confronted with many students with different problem behaviors. If a teacher had four to ten students, each with several behaviors of concern, he/she was asked to initiate, monitor and evaluate 16 to 40 programs at a time. As Miller (1956) suggested, adults can only hold about seven units of information at one time without having to group them. Therefore, managing 20 individual programs became too great a task. Teachers responded to the management demand of multiple behavior programs by grouping individual behavior programs into behavior management systems. As a result, individual differences were often lost and students' needs were not adequately addressed. Students who did not respond to these general behavior management system dropped out or were excluded from school. Overall, the effect of these programs was discouraging (Neel, Meadows, Levine, & Edgar, 1988).

Such grouping of individual programs was a necessary response to an instructional technology that, when applied to a group of students, produced too many programs to monitor effectively. The technology used in research settings to verify experimental control could not be extended to the classroom without major alterations through grouping. It was in this grouping, however, that the reflection of individual needs was often lost. No amount of training or admonishing (and there was plenty of both) could alter the result. The lack of individually developed social competency programs was not due to teachers' unwillingness nor lack of commitment to applying specific behavioral procedures. Rather, it was because the application of them was impossible when the diversity of programs became too great (Gerber & Semmel, 1984).

As these problems have emerged, the debate over which theoretical position or which body of research promises the most efficacious result has returned. Thus, arguments proposed by Thomas Szasz (1961) at the beginning of the instructional movement still come up at national meetings. (e.g., Behavior Disorder Conference, North Carolina, 1989; Council for Exceptional Children, Toronto, 1990; and the Research Directors Meeting, Washington, D.C., 1990).

It is our contention that the solution to the problem lies not in the selection of a theoretical rationale, nor in the talents of our teachers. We do not need to develop another "therapy" to replace the existing ones. A vast majority of the teachers who work with students with behavior disorders are neither neglectful nor malfeasant. As Senge (1990) pointed out, if many people, from different backgrounds, in different areas, produce a similar result (or in this case a lack of result), the problem lies in the structure, not the people.

We believe it is impossible to teach social competency to a diverse group of students with behavior problems as instruction is currently delivered. As a result, we need to develop instructional systems that integrate existing interventions in ways that adequately address the complexity of student needs and the diversity faced by teachers in classrooms.

This chapter discusses the use of behavioral intents, introduced in Chapter 4, as instructional themes that can be used to organize formal and informal instruction of social competency. We will demonstrate how empirically developed instructional themes can guide teachers through the myriad of interactions throughout the day. The ideas should not be viewed as replacements of the existing paradigm (Kuhn, 1970). Instead of an either/or approach, we are suggesting a synthesis of existing programmatic parts into a more effective whole based on the thesis that instructional events need to be added to the modified academics, classroom management systems, and environmental modifications commonly used in classrooms for students with behavior disorders. Instructional themes, emanating from an analysis of behavioral intents, provide the foundation for developing these additional instructional events.

Behavioral Intent as an Organizer of Instruction

The complexity of instructional demands presented to a classroom teacher requires simplification. In academic areas, complexity is accommodated by groupings, scheduling, and a menu of independent practice activities. In contrast, as discussed in Chapter 4, most social behaviors are unscheduled, cannot be easily grouped, and cannot be taught through independent activities. As a result, teachers have to design instructional programs that accommodate the social instructional needs of each student, provide the flexibility required to address unscheduled events, yet are simple enough to be effectively managed.

Critical to the success of any program for students with behavior disorders is the necessity of maintaining an instructional focus on the behavioral needs of each student (e.g., maintaining behavioral intents, teaching replacement behaviors). If this focus is not sustained, the maintenance and generalizability of instruction will be threatened (Neel & Billingsley, 1989). Additionally, the system must utilize the principles of good instruction developed over the past decades (e.g., specifiable instructional goals, frequent and direct measurements of change, and validation of effects in non-training settings).

Using instructional themes as a system of instruction allows the classroom teacher to integrate the information provided through the myriad of behaviors presented in an average day into an articulated set of interventions. The use of themes does not require the teacher to discontinue the use of existing instructional technologies. In fact, we believe that if we are to be successful in addressing the complexity of teaching social competency, we will have to learn to combine all that we know about teaching students with problems into an efficient curriculum. Too often we evaluate instructional options as either/or propositions to be accepted or rejected. It is our firm belief that a more fruitful approach is the integration of the best of what we know from a variety of sources, adding newly tested ideas as they emerge.

Extending Instruction to Promote Social Competency

Adams and Cessna (see Chapter 3) outlined the Expanded Curriculum that is required in all programs for students with disabilities. Figure 6 illustrates this foundation of instruction for students with behavior disorders. The middle column represents the developmental/compensatory elements required to adequately address the instructional needs of students with disabilities. As for academic and life skills curricula, the line between the portions of the curricula that are appropriate for all students and those that are specific to students with behavior disorders is blurred in most instances. The discussion in this chapter is focused on developing feasible instructional practices that promote social competency in students with behavior disorders.

Figure 6

EXPANDED CURRICULUM: What Will Be Taught

Differentiated Academic Curriculum	Social Competency Curriculum	Life Skills Curriculum
General School Curriculum *Math* *Science* *Language Arts* *Social Science* *Physical Education* *Home Economics* *Art* *Etc.*		Managing Environment - *external management of community systems and environment* Managing Employment - *ongoing awareness, exploration, and preparation* Management Self - *inter-intra personal skills*

Adapted from: Cessna/Adams

Instructional Themes

Instructional themes, derived from an analysis of various behavioral intents, has shown promise as an organizer of instruction (Neel, Cessna, Swize, & Borock, 1990). An "instructional theme" is defined as the central or primary intent accessed by a specific class or a set of problem behaviors exhibited by a student. Sometimes, these themes are referred to as the "main issue" of a student (Kaplan, 1989).

Often these behaviors appear to be very different. They are grouped here by their common use to access a particular intent. For example, fighting, ignoring, arguing and temper tantrums may be seen as four different behaviors that access one intent (control). These behaviors could be grouped under the instructional theme of "learning how to gain and exercise control within a situation." The frequency of accessing a particular intent and/or the intensity of the problem behavior(s) can suggest to the teacher how central or dominating this issue is for a particular student. (For those of us who are more familiar with more precise terminology, "central issue" can be read as "primary reward class" accessed by the problem behavior(s).) Instructional themes, then, reflect a form of shorthand for organizing behaviors, responses to those behaviors, possible motivations, perceptions, memories, and predictions.

Each theme is developed based on an analysis of samples of problem behavior in many settings to determine the array of behavioral intents accessed by these behaviors. By focusing on behavioral intent as the unit of analysis in developing these themes, it is possible for a teacher to formulate broader instructional goals that address the specific needs of each student without developing an instructional system that is too complex to be used effectively.

For example, consider a student who, throughout the day engages in a series of behaviors that are viewed by others as problems. We analyze these behaviors using the procedures outlined in Chapter 6 of this monograph. Such an analysis indicates that the student most often used the behaviors to escape from difficult situations or events. Consequently, we

can identify *escape* as an instructional theme. The problem behaviors used to access this intent are then combined into an organizational unit or theme.

The instructional question becomes what behaviors to teach the student to enable him to access escape and renegotiation with others in ways that are judged acceptable. Instruction is set up to develop replacement behaviors and situations where the problem behaviors appear becomes opportunities to teach. The teacher frames each problem incident as "a lesson on how to escape and/or renegotiate." This filter of intent allows the teacher to select responses that will enhance the instructional objective, in this case teaching how to escape and/or negotiate appropriately. What were previously diverse sets of problem behaviors are now "grouped" instructionally. Instruction is evaluated by how well the student is learning to access escape skills and/or renegotiate situations in an appropriate manner throughout the day.

The use of a more general instructional theme that is linked to analyses of particular sets of behaviors can lessen the complexity problem while still meeting the criteria for good instruction (meeting the individual needs of students). This theme approach can be used to determine and evaluate formal instruction procedures and provide a teaching tool for how to respond in more informal unscheduled situations.

Instructional Types and Instructional Themes

Two types of instruction take place in every classroom: formal and informal. *Formal* instruction consists of planned sequential presentations of concepts, skills, and ideas. The bulk of academic teaching is formal. *Informal* instruction, on the other hand, is best conceptualized as a set of teachable moments when an idea, fact or lesson is addressed more spontaneously, with less predictability and direction. Thus, using a less structured presentation of stimuli, the teacher introduces a variety of ideas that are used to illustrate concepts or illuminate understanding.

For most of us, our social competency instruction was informal. Specifically, we were taught to get along, mind our manners, act our age, and "do the right thing" through a series of informal interactions with parents, teachers, siblings, and peers. In short, we learned how to get along by getting along. Not all our social instruction was informal, however. A small portion was formal in nature, such as discussions by parents after dating rules had been ignored, sermons delivered by teachers after school or in detention; and, in many schools today, social skill programs on how to get along with others are examples of our formal training. The ideas taught in the more formal interactions were clarified, strengthened, and refined during our informal interactions. We learned how to behave socially through an ongoing interaction between these formal lessons and practice in informal settings.

The instructional system we use to educate students with behavior problems must include both formal and informal instructional components. Because we did not experience a formal set of learning activities designed to teach us how to behave, it is often hard for us to visualize an instructional program that specifically teaches social competence. Most formal social skills programs parallel academic instruction in format and design. It is even more difficult to specifically describe what we are going to do in informal situations to strengthen the social skills formally taught. Just listing the number of interactions in a day would be an overwhelming task. Preparing specific instructional plans for each of these interactions would be impossible.

As a result, integrating instructional themes to organize the instructional procedures is essential if teachers are to be able to develop an effective system to teach socially competent behavior in students with behavior disorders. A brief discussion of each of these curricula and how they would interact follows. Each curriculum is separated in this discussion for clarity. In actual practice, however, they would be integrated into a total instructional plan.

Formal Instruction

Formal instruction is the easiest to design because it most closely resembles academic lessons. Content is organized in units, homework is often assigned.

instruction is usually provided in small groups, time of instruction is regularly scheduled, and all students are exposed to basically the same content. Several commercial programs provide good examples of this type of instruction (Goldstein, & Glick, 1987; Goldstein, Skprafkin, Gershaw, & Klein, 1980; Walker, McConnell, Holmes, Todis, Walker, & Golden, 1983).

This type of instruction offers the basic skills needed in a variety of social situations. As mentioned in an earlier chapter, the skills selected should be replacement behaviors that would allow the student to achieve the same or similar intent. Formal instruction is a useful way to develop the rudiments of a social skill. In and of itself, however, it rarely teaches children how to behave in a majority of social situations (Gresham, 1981; Schloss, Schloss, Wood, & Kiehl, 1986). Therefore, informal instruction is required to transfer the learned skills to the nontraining setting.

Informal Instruction

Although more difficult to design, informal instruction is crucial to teaching children with behavior problems. In fact, successful transfer of skills to informal situations is the true measure of success for all social competency instruction. Informal instruction begins whenever a student faces a social task, like dealing with criticism, or engages in a problem behavior, like talking back to the teacher. Each lessons can occur at any time depending on the student's behavior. In fact, the most troublesome behaviors are those that seem to occur and recur as unpredictable episodes, widely separated over time (Neel & Billingsley, 1989). Each of these incidents is an instructional opportunity. The teacher may need to prompt the use of a newly acquired replacement behavior, help the student recognize the social task presented, or simply reinforce a new behavior once it is used. From a teacher's point of view, the most important feature of informal instruction is that teaching can begin whenever a student, or group of students, interact socially. In other words, informal instruction is the set of activities and responses the teacher has planned to use in response to a social situation within the classroom.

In one sense, informal lessons can be viewed as dormant lessons lying in reserve to be accessed whenever the behavior of concern occurs. It is often a response instruction prompted by student behavior. Although an analysis of antecedents is useful for determining themes and understanding a series of behavior patterns, antecedents rarely come into play during informal instruction because instruction starts only when the problem behavior begins. To be sure, there are antecedents (some overt, some covert), but knowledge of them is only determined post hoc, after the instruction has occurred. If each behavior were considered as a different lesson, it would not take long before the number of lessons to be accessed on the spot would be overwhelming. Using behavioral intent as an organizing theme allows the teacher to respond to a variety of behaviors in a planned manner.

How does this process work? Problem behaviors can be analyzed to determine their probable behavioral intent. (The specifics of how to do this are outlined in Chapter 6.) Once determined, the intent becomes the theme of informal instruction. Let us return to our example of a student escaping an unpleasant situation. The student exhibited several behaviors that resulted in his/her exiting the learning situation. He/she might have started an argument, called the teacher a name, poked a fellow student, or run out of the room. Even though these behaviors seem different on the surface, analyzing them for behavioral intent shows that each resulted in the child leaving the classroom setting. These behaviors, then, may be classified as exemplars of the avoidance/escape intent. Avoidance/escape, therefore, becomes the instructional theme that guides the informal instruction. Replacement behaviors are subsequently developed to allow

for avoidance/escape in a more desired manner, and the teacher is prepared to respond to these behaviors in an instructional way.

Each time any of these behaviors appears or whenever a situation develops that requires the student to renegotiate the task, the teacher uses the theme as an instructional goal and to plan his/her response. Following the example, when the student begins to argue about an assignment, the teacher frames the task as "This is a situation where the student needs to learn to either renegotiate the task or exit the situation in a desired manner. What are the skills we have worked on that can be used in this situation? Do I need to prompt them? What tack should I take to facilitate the correct action and provide the needed reinforcement?"

All these questions will have been answered during the outcome analysis and will be stored in reserve until the behavior occurs. The teacher approaches the argument as an instructional stimulus, a switch-like cue to provide a set of planned procedures. If the student selects a poke or running away as a way of telling the teacher she wants to exit the situation, the same set of procedures is used. Thus, a set of problem behaviors has been simplified into an instructional strategy that reduces complexity while retaining the focus on the specific needs of the individual. The behavioral intent of the child is acknowledged and replacement behaviors that can be used to access that intent in a more socially acceptable way are developed and reinforced. Additionally, empirical events (behaviors) remain the basis of evaluating instruction. The only difference is that the unit of analysis becomes effective access to the intent (theme) rather than the specific behaviors themselves.

Environmental Shifts to Manage Intensity

It is possible (some would say probable!) that either the intensity or the frequency of certain behaviors makes informal instruction impossible. Certain forms of behavior, regardless of the intents they serve, can create havoc in a short period of time. Other behaviors are potentially dangerous and, therefore, cannot be ignored. Furthermore, it is also common to have a mix of students whose behaviors seem to spawn new variations at an alarming pace. A classroom out of control is not a classroom at all! Teachers must be able to control the majority of situations if they hope to provide effective instruction. Shifts in the instructional context within a classroom can be used to limit the intensity and reduce the frequency of undesired behaviors so that effective teaching can take place.

The general operating principle for programming with an emotional/behavioral focus is to strive to keep the classroom in balance or as close to equilibrium as possible for as much of the time as possible. It is only when the classroom is in a state of relative equilibrium that instruction in alternative behavior patterns is effective. An efficient way to keep the classroom in relative balance is to provide students with a reliable way to access their desired intents most of the time. This creates a child-centered curriculum that reduces the number and intensity of problem behaviors. We call these curricular changes "environmental shifts."

Environmental shifts are those changes made in the classroom to increase a student's use of certain behaviors while reducing the use of others. Such shifts include changes in management styles, curriculum choices (including content and activities), scheduling, physical arrangement, and the degree of autonomy allowed. Take for example a student who argues, throws things, and manipulates others to gain and maintain control over his life. Frequently our response is to meet these behaviors with strategies that emphasize power: *our* power to establish *our* control.

This approach invalidates the legitimacy of the student's claim: "I'm in need of more control." True, it may be that this particular student already has too much control. Nevertheless, the critical recognition here is that from the student's perspective, the need for control is, at this moment, paramount. If we want to effectively replace the problem behaviors in ways that will generalize to nontraining settings, we must develop instructional strategies that do not diminish the importance of presented intents. This can be done through environmental shifts.

Following our example, we start with the assumption that our response needs to recognize and acknowledge the presenting intent. To be sure, before we are through with the instructional process we will want to increase the student's ability to share control with others. At this point, however, this conflicting instructional goal will impede our ability to gain instructional control of the situation. To gain environmental control, we need to make shifts in the environment that will enable the student to have more control. Table 2 shows a list of instructional modifications for various outcomes. The first column lists the three intents identified as problems by teachers, administrators and support personnel (Neel, Cessna, Swize, & Borock, 1990). Columns 2 and 3 list formal and informal strategies that could be used with the different outcomes. The final column suggests several changes that might be made in the environment to reduce the intensity and frequency of the problem behaviors and, hence, return the classroom to a relative state of equilibrium. If the behaviors are particularly intense, a combination of techniques may need to be employed.

Table 2

INSTRUCTIONAL MODIFICATIONS FOR VARIOUS OUTCOMES

Outcome	Formal	Informal	Environmental
Power/ Control	Negotiation Self-control Accepting consequences Staying out of fights Dealing with accusation	Reflect questions and demands with questions; restatements Involve child in planning and setting up of activities Highlight control issue and temporal aspect(s) of control trade-offs Decentralize instruction	Increase choice opportunities Increase shared tasks Decrease number and length of highly supervised tasks or activities Limit power plays Arrange space so power interactions can be easily and quickly terminated
Protection/ Escape/ Avoidance	Asking questions Suggesting an activity Expressing feelings Making a complaint Accepting "no"	Strengthen (acknowledge) informal task negotiations and renegotiations Increase praise for effort Reinforce seeking peer help (networking)	Increase opportunity to negotiate task, activity, or rewards Increase ways to select, shift, or end activities Increase number and duration of predictable class activities Increase opportunities for group activities
Attention	Asking for help Asking questions/ permission Introducing yourself Beginning a conversation Suggesting an activity Sharing	Target several accomplishments, tasks, etc. You can acknowledge and/or praise Acknowledge publicly and privately unique contributions Increase attention on nonperformance events, features, activities, and/or talents Increase questioning for opportunities to "shine"	Increase ways to be noticed Increase ways to contact others Increase time, it is okay to contact others informally Increase number and types of activities in classroom Increase activities that utilize a broad spectrum of talents and skills

It is important to remember that each change must be faded from the instructional setting sometime in the future. Therefore, the least number of procedures needed to bring the behaviors back to a reasonable level of intensity or frequency is advised.

Once the problem behavior has been controlled by shifting the environment and using replacement behaviors to increase the child's ability to access desired intents, the process of expanding the replacement behaviors to naturally occurring settings through informal instruction begins. Simultaneously, as new behaviors are learned, the teacher begins to fade the structural shifts used to control the behavior. This parallel program of building replacement behaviors through formal and informal instruction while fading contextual supports continues until the need for control can be reliably achieved without recurrence of the problem behaviors.

Conclusion

Using this model, instruction begins by the determining behavioral intent through outcome analysis. Once the intents have been determined, replacement behaviors are chosen that can be taught formally and informally in diverse settings. To reduce the complexity of instructional programs derived from an analysis of individual behaviors, instructional themes are developed that group behaviors according to the outcomes they achieve for the child. Environmental shifts in management style, classroom design, and instructional techniques are used to reduce the intensity and frequency of behaviors that disrupt the classroom to such an extent that no effective teaching can take place. Finally, these supports are faded as more replacement behaviors are learned.

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Section III

Implementation

CHAPTER 6

Instructionally Differentiated Programming: Suggestions for Implementation

by K. Kay Cessna and Jaclyn Borock

Delivering effective programming for students with behavior problems often appears to be like the proverbial pot of gold at the end of the rainbow; tantalizingly close, yet forever out of reach. Countless hours are spent in assessment, team meetings and IEP development (Peterson, Zabel, Smith, & White, 1983; Zabel, Peterson, & Smith, 1987). Teachers design, instruct, reward, correct, consult, try again, redirect, and cajole, only to accomplish sporadic gains and minimal outcomes (Neel, Meadows, Levine, & Edgar, 1988; SRI International, 1991). When committed teachers turn to the professional literature for help, they find descriptions of interventions proven effective for a given behavior in a given situation. They find some comfort here: Apparently, the difficulty has arisen because the "right" technique has not been utilized. Armed with yet another idea, they return to their classrooms ready to try again only to have three or four additional behaviors or situations arise for which the new technique is not appropriate. In the face of such Herculean efforts, the well-documented teacher retent on problem (Deutsch, Smith, & Lovett, 1987; Huntze & Grosenick, 1980; McLauglin et al., 1986) may result in part from continued feelings of ineffectiveness.

There is a pressing need for an organizing mechanism to assist professionals in managing the complexity of interactive human behavior that occurs in the numerous and constantly shifting environments that constitute a school. Most importantly, such management needs to occur in ways that are instructional and achieve the desired outcomes for the student. The lack of clarity in how this is best achieved is dramatically demonstrated by analyzing behavior goals in IEPs. Typically, goals addressing behavior utilize one of the three formats shown in Figure 7. Each format implies a different programming thrust and offers varying degrees of assistance in designing instruction. While the majority of IEP goals focus on reducing problem behaviors, other goals address desired behaviors, but only in very general terms. Still others focus on academic-related behaviors. Goals written in this manner do not help teachers to deliberately plan for and teach the many behaviors a given student needs in order to function appropriately in various settings.

This chapter proposes instructionally differentiated programming as a framework for organization and decision making that in turn facilitate professionals' planning. Goals stated as critical outcomes (Figure 7) are a reflection of the focus of this approach: instructionally differentiated programming, which is based on several assumptions.

The first assumption behind an instructionally differentiated model is that it is more important to focus on students' instructional needs than on their disability. Therefore, it begins by considering the student and his/her needs. Identified student needs then drive all decisions for instruction and services which are then wrapped around the student in various configurations. (See Chapters 1 and 2 for a detailed discussion.)

A second assumption behind a needs-based approach is that the typical curriculum needs to be expanded to include instruction for social competency and life skills for students with behavior problems (see Chapter 3).

A third assumption is that meaningful behavioral curriculum is determined by the student. Within an instructional perspective, student outcomes are seen as legitimate and the focus is on teaching students more acceptable ways of reaching those outcomes. Consequently, problem behaviors are viewed as a diagnostic of needed instruction rather than as the focus of intervention (see Chapter 4). By grouping the functions or the intents reached through various behaviors into instructional themes, a teacher gains a mechanism for translating student needs into effective instruction that is manageable (see Chapter 5).

This chapter focuses on implementing these concepts. First, we consider the implications of these conceptual shifts for the teacher's role. Next, we will discuss a method for analyzing student behaviors to determine intended outcome, which leads to hypothesizing an instructional theme. This is followed by a discussion of the steps involved in altering the environment to support the theme and implementing an appropriate instructional sequence. Finally, implications for classroom organization will be addressed.

Figure 7

Comparison of I.E.P. Goals

Presenting problem: Johnny talks out, giggles, pokes, grabs papers, etc., during math and reading classes.

Reductionist Goals

Johnny will reduce the number of disturbing behaviors exhibited during reading and math class by 30% by the end of the semester.

Global Goals

Johnny will develop desirable behaviors (good manners, responsibility and self-discipline) such that he is able to interact appropriately with teachers and peers.

Academic Substitution Goals

Johnny will increase the number of problems completed during his math period.

Johnny will increase the number of stories read and comprehension questions answered during reading class.

Johnny will increase the amount of time "on-task" during his reading group.

Critical Outcome Goals

Johnny will increase his ability to gain attention appropriately during his math period.

Johnny will increase his ability to negotiate appropriately a period of attention following a period of delay while he completes his work.

Changing Teacher Roles

Instructionally differentiated programming focuses on instructing students in more acceptable behaviors as a means of reaching the outcomes they desire. It would seem obvious that the teacher's role is to teach. However, a continuing theme of frustration has emerged from the hundreds of hours of interviews we have conducted with teachers of students with behavior disorders. Most succinctly stated results show that: teachers are frustrated because they chose their profession because they wanted to teach and now find that students with behavior problems prevent them from teaching. Teachers report that they

repeatedly must stop their lesson to deal with a disruptive behavior. Further, it appears that a vast majority of teachers, including those trained in behavior disorders, do not view behavior as something that they actually teach. In fact, behavior is seen as interrupting "real" teaching (Neel & Cessna, 1990).

When behavior is regarded as an interruption a typical response is to focus on managing the behavior in order to limit disruptions. Considerable effort, therefore, is expended on designing environments and systems to contain and prevent student behaviors. When this occurs, the teacher often feels more like a police officer than a teacher. Police officers serve a valuable function, but their purpose is very different from that of teachers. That is, the goal of police officers is to protect and defend those they serve. They ensure safety by enforcing order. Their primary role is providing external control. A teacher's goal, on the other hand, is to facilitate learning and growth by planning, organizing and managing experiences. Their primary role is to influence, hence they strive to foster internal controls. It is not surprising that teachers who attempt to manage behavior become frustrated. The way they view behavior has led them to function in a role which, by definition, is in direct opposition to their purpose as a teacher.

Some teachers realize that controlling behaviors is not consistent with their beliefs about their professional role. Instead, they determine their approach from a teacher's perspective, whereby they view students' emotions and resulting behaviors as legitimate areas of responsibility. As a result, they apply the logic used in thinking about academic problems, such as reading to students' emotions and behaviors. This logic accepts students' reading levels as merely descriptive of their current level of functioning and as an indicator of where instruction needs to begin. Applying the same approach to behaviors would mean "accepting" all of the student's behaviors. Unfortunately, accepting behaviors is often construed to mean *allowing* behaviors, which results in behavior becoming the total focus of the class. A frustrating paradox results: as teachers attempt to respond to emotions and behaviors in ways they view as more consistent with being a teacher, they create an environment where no teaching can occur.

In order to assist students in becoming more socially competent, teachers must teach behaviors; not control or allow them. The role of the teacher shifts significantly when behavior instruction is viewed as a legitimate curriculum. Teachers committed to teaching behaviors must function as coaches: guiding, cheering and correcting as the student attempts new skills. These teachers also must be willing to allow students to take more responsibility for their own learning. This is partially accomplished by allowing the student to take the lead with regard to which skills he/she is ready to learn at what time. The following process provides a framework for organization and decision making within an instructional approach to behavior. The first step is to determine the instructional content through an outcome analysis. After altering the environment to allow a student direct access to his/her desired outcome, replacement behaviors are determined. This is followed by instructing the student, utilizing the instructional sequence for behavior within a classroom that has been organized in a manner that allows for continually shifting curricula.

Determining Instructional Content

Selecting the appropriate focus for instruction of students with behavior problems is the keystone to providing effective programming. Specifically, instruction must assist the student in acquiring a repertoire of behaviors necessary for functioning appropriately in a variety of settings. One would expect that selecting behaviors to be taught is fairly straightforward. However, as shown in Chapter 4 of this monograph, difficulties arise when the behaviors taught tend to be those that are desired by the teacher or society without acknowledging the student's social goal or intent.

Effective behavioral instruction, therefore, must address the student's intent. It is our premise that a student's behaviors have meaning for the student and are directed at achieving a desired outcome. Consequently, when a behavior to be taught is selected only for its social appropriateness, there is no guarantee that it will meet the outcome the student originally desired. Although the student will probably use the selected behavior effectively in situations

that reinforce the behavior, at another time under less controlled circumstances, this specific behavior may not meet the student's intent. Using this approach, therefore, leaves the student unprepared when the new behavior does not reach the desired outcome. As a result, students often revert to former undesirable behaviors that did meet the desired outcome. If new behaviors are to be generalized, replacement behaviors must meet students' desired outcomes. The focus of effective behavior instruction, then, is determined by the student's intended outcome rather than arbitrary social standards. In effect, curriculum is student selected.

There are several ways, each with differing degrees of effectiveness, to determine the desired outcome for a student's behavior. One strategy is to directly ask the student what outcome is intended. This approach presumes that the student is rational, verbal and self-aware, which is not always the case with students with behavior problems. Another strategy is to infer from current knowledge about the student, which is a very subjective approach often reflecting the values of those making the inference. A more objective strategy involves analyzing the student's behaviors to determine what outcomes were achieved. The various steps that make up such an analysis are discussed below.

Outcome Analysis

The worksheet shown in Figure 8 represents one way to conduct such an analysis. In completing the following steps, educators often find it helpful to work together as a team. This ensures both a more comprehensive picture of a student's behavioral repertoire and a greater degree of objectivity.

Figure 8

OUTCOME ANALYSIS WORKSHEET

Step 1: State the problems in your own words

_____

_____

_____

_____

Step 2: Circle (underline) the specific behaviors that are identified in Step 1.

Step 3: List the three behaviors that are of the most concern

_____

_____

_____

Step 4: Identify the situation that precedes each problem behavior

Behavior	Antecedent

Step 5: Identify what happens following each problem behavior. Describe all major events that follow the problem behavior until the incident ends.

Behavior	Consequence Sequence
_____	_____
	_____
	_____
_____	_____
	_____
	_____
_____	_____
	_____
	_____

Step 6: List the hypothesized outcomes achieved for the student for each behavior. Use the outcome description sheet as a guide.

Behavior	Hypothesized Student Outcomes
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Step 7: Select the priority or predominant outcome from Step 6. Write it below.

Theme: _____

_____ *Neel*

Step 1: Record the problems of concern the student is demonstrating. This may be expressed as a running narrative or a brief description. If several educators are involved, this step ensures that the concerns of all involved are included.

Step 2: Circle or underline all of the behaviors in Step 1. It is not unusual for teams to discover that much of what they have included is not actual behaviors, but rather descriptive information. While such information has definite uses, it typically concerns matters over which school personnel have little or no control (e.g., mother's marital history, involvement with other agencies, length of parole yet to be served, etc.). Identification of specific behaviors helps teams filter through volumes of information, focusing on those elements that are most amenable to intervention, and ultimately determining the focus of instruction.

Whenever summary words such as "immature" or "oppositional" are used it is signal that more analysis is needed. In these efforts, look for the behaviors that led the team to select the summary word.

Step 3: Record the three behaviors that are of the most concern. Select behaviors that are common rather than one-time major events as they tend to be most intrusive or occur with the greatest frequency. The result of this selection process is a working sample of a student's general unacceptable behavioral functioning.

Step 4: For each of the three behaviors, select a recent occurence. For each situation, identify events/behaviors that preceded the problem behavior (the antecedents). This is often a difficult step to complete. The reason may be that many educators fail to attend to an individual student's behavior until it has become of concern and, therefore, have little information about precipitating events. If this is the case, additional information must be gathered through more structured observations.

Occasionally, no meaningful antecedents can be readily determined. This may indicate either that the observation may need to be extended further back in the sequence of events (behavior chain) or that the behavior needs to be viewed in a broader context.

Step 5: Take each of the same three behaviors in turn and describe what the student and others did in sequence until each incident ended. Two factors need to be taken into account. First, the sequence must reflect the behaviors that actually occurred in the order in which they occurred. A natural tendency is to describe the behavioral intervention that has been designed to respond to the problem behavior. Unfortunately, these two are not always the same. Working with another professional helps accurately record the chain of actual behaviors.

Second, it is necessary to continue recording the behavioral sequence until the interaction ceases. One technique for determining the ending point is to keep asking the question, ". . .and then what happens?" In this manner, the concluding event typically becomes self-evident.

Step 6: Record the three problem behaviors and form a hypothesis regarding the probable outcome for the student in each of the three incidents analyzed. Table 1, p. 35 in Chapter 4, may be used as a guide for selecting possible outcomes. In forming the hypothesis, one helpful question to ask is, "At the end of the incident, what did the student achieve?"

It is important to view the hypothesized outcome of a behavior as a "best guess" rather than the definitive answer, as the accuracy of the hypothesis can only be validated by data on the effectiveness of the replacement behavior. This is not inherently different from instruction in an academic area such as reading. For example, teachers constantly hypothesize reasons for a given reading difficulty, deliver instruction designed to address that difficulty, and then assess student performance to determine if the difficulty has been remediated. If the difficulty continues, teachers merely examine the current data, form a different hypothesis, and repeat the cycle until the reading difficulty is ameliorated.

Step 7: Select the priority or predominant outcome from the three identified in Step 6. A priority should be determined based on implications for instruction. For example, it may be difficult to address a student's need to learn more appropriate ways to gain power while the student is escaping the discomfort of school by being truant. This priority or predominant outcome is referred to as the student's instructional theme and becomes the focus for his/her behavioral instruction. It becomes a true "student selected curriculum."

In practice, outcome analysis is not as linear as the process just described might suggest. The worksheet is intended only as an example and should in no way impede the process. Difficulty in completing any step should be seen simply as an indicator that more data are needed.

Objectivity

As mentioned, it is usually more effective to work with at least one other person when conducting an outcome analysis. This serves a dual function when striving for objectivity: (a) It allows for differences in perception, and (b) it provides a check for perception distortion. Perception distortion is directly linked to the educator's own emotions and occurs when these emotions become a filter that subsequently impacts the accuracy of the behavioral analysis.

As educators, our natural response following a difficult interaction is to assign our own resultant feelings to the student as the student's intended outcome or function. For example, after completing an analysis the educators involved were surprised to discover that the student's apparent intended outcome was to escape. Instead, they had expected the analysis to reveal that the student's outcome was to gain control. Students who constantly engage in power struggles are perceived very differently from those who are always trying "to get out of something."

How could educators possibly confuse the two? Their assumption of a power intent in these situations seems less incongruent when we recognize that few situations feel more controlling for a teacher than a student who will not work. In this specific case, the student was so adept at escaping from class work that the teachers felt they had no effective interventions and that the student, therefore, was in control.

While this is an accurate analysis of the teachers' experience it was not necessarily an accurate interpretation of the student's intent. To increase the probability of identifying an accurate behavioral intent using the outcome analysis, it is imperative that educators recognize the possible problematic nature of their own emotions. As mentioned, working with others in a team provides an automatic perception check in this regard.

Importance of In-depth Analysis

Faced with increasing time constraints, teachers may be tempted to eliminate the analysis and form a hypothesis by only reading through the Possible Outcome Guide (see Chapter 4). Experience has shown that this is risky, however. The whole purpose of determining the student's instructional theme is to provide a focus for instruction that is student selected. Because no one can ever truly know another's experience and because we tend to assign our own emotional experience to others (Bly, 1988; Lerner, 1985; Scarf, 1987), the only way we can approximate another's intent is through some more objective means such as the process just described.

Finally, it is important to avoid using a student's instructional theme as a new or additional label for the student. In this regard, behavior instruction is not significantly different from other instructional areas such as reading. For example, it would be unusual to hear a student with decoding difficulties referred to as a "decoding kid" simply because that was the instructional focus needed at that time. In a similar manner, an instructional theme for behavior provides a focus for responding educationally at a given point in time to a temporary and fluid situation. It is a working hypothesis only, whose sole value lies in assisting educators in providing more authentic instruction.

Altering the Environment

Once the instructional theme has been determined, the student's program can be developed in a manner that is driven by the student's needs. The second step, therefore, is to create a learning situation where behavior problems do not prevent instruction. This is accomplished by arranging the environment so that the student has easy and acceptable

access to the predominant or priority outcome he/she is seeking (the student's theme). Allowing direct access lowers the intensity of the student's need for the outcome, thereby reducing the use of disruptive behaviors.

For example, if a student's instructional theme was control, it would be important for him/her to feel some control of the situation. Strategies such as increasing opportunities for choice, increasing the number of activities where control is shared, and limiting the number and length of activities that require external control are ways to achieve this. Knowing this, the teacher would review the student's schedule using the identified instructional theme of control to guide decision making. Special note would also be taken of the places and times where power struggles had been of special concern.

Further, adjustments would be made throughout the school day to allow the student more control. Increasing choices could range from allowing the student to select preferred activities, to determining the order in which tasks are completed, to choosing where to sit. Also, control could be shared by introducing instructional strategies such as cooperative learning. Limiting time in a highly controlled setting might necessitate changing instructors or classes. Strategies for increasing a student's sense of control are limited only by educators' creativity and willingness to adapt.

Altering the environment to allow a student direct access to his/her desired outcome interrupts the conflict cycle (Wood & Long, 1991). The stage is now set for teaching-learning interactions. Specifically, the teacher can remain in an instructional mode when the frequency and timing of behavior problems are more predictable, and the student is more available for instruction when his/her most immediate emotional need has been addressed. The result is an environment in which behaviors can be taught, not just controlled.

Determining Replacement Behaviors

The third step in developing the student's program consists of selecting the replacement behaviors to be taught. Replacement behaviors are new behaviors the student can substitute for problem behaviors that will still reach the student's desired outcome. A new behavior functions as a replacement behavior *only* if it allows the student to achieve the *same* outcome the student initially desired.

The initial replacement behaviors selected may not always be the prosocial skill we wish a student to ultimately exhibit. Rather, they are those behaviors that are more desirable than the current ones because they are less disruptive while still allowing the student to reach the intended outcome. The replacement behaviors identified for an individual student can be regarded as examples of the class of behaviors that reflects the critical factors of the student's theme. (See Chapter 4 for a more complete discussion of replacement behaviors.)

In order to determine the replacement behaviors you wish to teach, review the student's schedule again. Identify specific times and situations that are especially problematic for the student and generate possible replacement behaviors for those situations. Usually, more than one replacement behavior needs to be identified as a single behavior is seldom sufficient to allow the student to reach desired outcomes appropriately in the multiple situations that compose a school day. However, attempt to limit the number of replacement behaviors while still ensuring the student can reach his/her identified outcome. The number of replacement behaviors identified will vary from student to student.

To be effective, a replacement behavior must meet a number of criteria. First, *it must be something the student is capable of doing.* In some cases it may be necessary to teach a series of replacement behaviors in a process of successive approximation before the final prosocial skill is achieved. This is typical practice in academic instruction and similar to Vygotsky's theory of the zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1986). Specifically, teachers identify what a student knows, complete a task analysis of the desired skill, and begin instruction at a point that is just above the student's frustration or independent learning level.

This instructional decision-making model is not always followed for behavioral instruction. Perhaps because behavior problems are so disruptive, we tend to focus on the final behavior

desired, skipping the intermediate skills that precede it. One indicator that the specific replacement behavior may be too difficult for the student is the student's resistance to the identified replacement behavior. If this occurs, task analyze the required skill and select a different replacement behavior that does not represent such a wide gap.

Second, *the replacement behavior selected must be immediately effective.* Obviously, the unacceptable behavior the student is using is very efficient at obtaining his/her desired outcome or the student would not continue to use it. Therefore, the student will adapt the new behavior only if it is perceived as a feasible alternative.

Third, *the new behavior must be tolerable to the teacher.* For example, one teacher might find daydreaming an acceptable replacement behavior for a student that has been meeting his desired outcome of escape by starting fights and getting sent to the office. Yet, another teacher might not be able to tolerate daydreaming, even though it is less disruptive than constant fighting. As a result, an alternative replacement behavior will need to be agreed on for the second teacher's class.

Finally, *behaviors chosen should be as close to those in the natural classroom environment as possible with the least amount of alteration.* Meeting this criterion makes it easier to fade artificial reinforcers and makes it more likely that the new behavior is naturally reinforced. Naturally reinforced behaviors are desirable because they have a higher probability of becoming part of the student's prosocial behavior repertoire.

Replacement behaviors selected become the instructional content, allowing IEP goals to be written in an instructional planning mode that more closely parallels other instruction in schools. Figure 7, "Critical Outcome Goals," lists examples of this type of goal. Once the replacement behaviors have been selected and recorded in the IEP, proceed to delivering instruction.

Instructional Sequence

With the creation of an instructional environment and selection of replacement behaviors, the focus shifts to the fourth step of developing the student's program: providing behavioral instruction. Instruction will need to be delivered in two modes: formal and informal. Formal instruction resembles academic lessons. That is, it is often organized in units, provided to groups of students, and it occurs at a scheduled time. When delivering formal instruction the teacher plans the content and selects the time the lesson will occur. In contrast, informal instruction is not scheduled by the teacher, but takes place during "teachable moments" (Bruner, 1983). Such times typically occur when the student's behavior is problematic, such as bullying another student, or when the student is faced with a difficult social task, such as accepting criticism. When delivering informal instruction the student's behavior or interaction triggers the timing and the content. In practice, both instructional modes occur concurrently and should be viewed as complementing and supporting one another. (See Chapter 5 for a more complete discussion of these instructional types.)

Direct Communication of Needs

The instructional sequence begins with instruction in two strands that are addressed simultaneously utilizing both formal and informal strategies for each. One strand focuses on teaching the student to communicate needs more directly. The primary objective here is the process of communicating, not the content of the communication. Consequently, it is important to recognize and reward any attempts to communicate needs in a less intrusive or manipulative manner Simple techniques such as developing a system for the student to use when communicating a given need might be used initially. With this technique, the teacher and student agree on a behavior or a phrase that serves as a signal. The student is reinforced for using this less intrusive manner of communicating needs. Over time the signal can be faded and more typical communication strategies can be taught.

Appropriate Replacement Behaviors

The second strand focuses on developing and using appropriate replacement behaviors. The primary objective here is for the student to learn more socially acceptable behaviors for reaching intended outcomes. Instruction in replacement behaviors should utilize both formal and informal modes. As the student's skill level increases, orchestrate learning simulations where the replacement behaviors can be applied. The purpose of a simulated event is to practice generalization with support in a seemingly natural, yet emotionally charged, situation. At one school, problem-solving and negotiation skills were taught to a group of students (formal instruction) as appropriate replacement behaviors. When a student's problematic situations arose, the teacher would direct the student back to the problem-solving steps and assist in applying them to the present situation in ways that helped meet that student's outcome (informal instruction).

After the students were fairly proficient in using problem solving and negotiation in these situations, the teacher arranged for the principal to arbitrarily rescind the hall privileges of all of the students after a relatively minor infraction by one of them. It was planned so that the teacher was available to assist the students first in dealing with their emotions and then to move to problem solving and eventually to negotiate with the principal to reestablish their hall privileges. In this instance, instruction in replacement behaviors was provided utilizing formal and informal modes whereupon the skill was applied. The application step occurred in what appeared to be a spontaneous situation where the new skills were applicable. Actually, as shown, the event was carefully orchestrated so that appropriate support could be available to ensure student success.

During the instructional process it is sometimes necessary to control the student's access to the desired outcome in a manner that keeps the replacement behavior competitive. This involves a delicate process of structuring the environment and behavior management systems so that the most direct way for the student to reach the intended outcome without becoming frustrated requires use of the new replacement behavior.

For instance, a student in one school consistently achieved his desired outcome of escaping work by initiating fights, which immediately resulted in his being sent to the office. Fighting was very efficient in achieving his desired outcome, and it was difficult for the teacher to identify a replacement behavior that was competitive. Eventually, the teacher identified moving to the couch in the free-time area for a rest break as an acceptable replacement behavior whenever the student needed to access escape. Within a week, the student would enter the classroom, move directly to the couch, and stay there for the entire day. When requested to rejoin the group and work, he would quickly initiate a fight. It was necessary for the teacher to restructure the situation in order to control access to the outcome so that the replacement behavior was competitive in an appropriate way. To do this, the teacher gave the student five tokens daily, each good for a 10-minute rest period on the couch. The student could use the token at any time, but could not move to the couch without a token. If the student started a fight, he was no longer sent to the office, but kept in the classroom. During the same time, the teacher was providing the student with formal instruction in techniques for self-monitoring to enable him to recognize when he needed a work break. None of these behaviors indicate the "finished product" of the instruction. Instead, they should be viewed as examples of how behavior and structure need to be adjusted and readjusted as learning progresses.

Some students may require an additional step in behavioral instruction. People who are considered socially competent must often delay meeting their desired

outcome in a given situation. For example, teachers at an excruciatingly boring inservice cannot escape by leaving the moment they realize they are bored. If they wish to keep their jobs, they need to delay their outcome of escape until the break when they can disappear less obviously! Similarly, students who are socially competent also need to be able to delay having their outcome met on occasion. Delay is not problematic for some students after they become more adept at communicating their needs directly and utilizing replacement behaviors. However, for other students this skill needs to be addressed directly.

One initial strategy for teaching delay involves reinforcing duration. The objective is to increase the amount of time a student can tolerate between the onset of the need and having that need met. Reinforcement is given after incidents where the student has been able to delay. The amount of time a student is expected to delay is increased incrementally over time. Start by reinforcing after a two-minute delay. Then move to reinforcing after four minutes, then after six. Continue in this manner until the student can delay meeting the need for an acceptable length of time.

The ability to delay is very difficult to learn. That is why it is the last step in the instructional sequence. Yet, it is the one many teachers attempt to teach first, which is understandable from the teacher's point of view. The teacher's primary concern is to maintain the instructional flow of the class (Shavelson & Stern, 1981). This flow would not be disrupted if students would only delay reaching their outcome until later. However, behavioral skills are learned in the same manner as academic skills; one step at a time, with skills gradually increasing in difficulty. Teaching the student to delay should occur after the student has learned replacement behaviors. Replacement behaviors can serve as an intermediate step because they allow the outcome to be obtained more immediately in a less intrusive manner.

Classroom Organization

With the instructional sequence firmly established, the next step is to organize the classroom. The classroom space, materials, and routines must provide structure and predictability while still allowing for constant refocusing and adjustment to meet changing student needs. Especially critical to facilitating the behavioral instructional sequence discussed above is the organization and delivery of the instruction.

Instruction is typically organized to address the academic curriculum. Therefore, for students with behavior problems, the curriculum needs to be expanded to include behavioral instruction (see Chapter 3). Formal behavioral instruction which involves the teacher determining the content and the learning activities can be scheduled in advance. For the most part, organizing the classroom to include this type of instruction is not difficult since it is treated as any other subject that is taught at a given time. However, some behavioral instruction cannot be scheduled by the teacher in advance, as it is dependent on the appropriate context to be meaningful. That context, in turn, is determined by the student and may be triggered by the student's emotional state at a given time, a specific situation that is difficult for the student, or some combination of the two. The student's behavior is merely the signal that the context is occurring and that the time for instruction has arrived. Clearly, organizing the classroom to allow for this type of instruction is much more difficult.

Traditionally, classrooms have been tightly organized and lessons carefully planned to keep everyone moving along together. As a result, teachers have been concerned with maintaining the flow of activity to prevent behavior management problems (Shavelson & Stern, 1981). However, the intermittent, student-scheduled informal instruction so necessary for students with behavior problems demands a classroom organization that is more fluid. For example, teachers must be able to shift the curriculum focus from academic to behavioral and back again as students' needs dictate. If all instruction emanates from the teacher, such shifts are very difficult. The teacher is faced with the impossible choice of losing the instructional flow for the rest of the students by shifting from the academic to the behavioral

curriculum or not shifting to the behavioral curriculum and thereby lose the context for meaningful behavioral instruction for the student with behavior disorders. Decentralizing instruction through organizational strategies such as work stations or cooperative learning groups helps. These strategies allow the teacher to provide informal behavior instruction when needed because the instructional flow of the class is not totally dependent on the teacher.

Because two different persons determine when different lessons will occur, there will be times when the teacher-planned curriculum and the student-scheduled curriculum compete. When this happens, it is important, whenever possible, to follow the student's lead and switch curricula. Sometimes it is difficult to recognize that the curriculum has shifted, however.

For example, a student who has been progressing nicely on a math assignment and suddenly wads up his paper and throws it while yelling loudly that he will do no more work has just shifted curricula. The curriculum is no longer "finishing math problems," but has shifted to "working willingly versus working unwillingly." It is critical that the teacher recognizes the curriculum switch and moves from the planned math-completion curriculum to the student-scheduled curriculum of "continuing to work when one is tired of a task." In essence, an effective teacher must organize instruction in the classroom to facilitate two sets of lesson plans: the formally scheduled lessons on both academic and behavioral topics and the informal student-scheduled lessons that are dependent on context.

Conclusion

The provision of programs for students with behavior disorders is a complex and demanding task requiring a clear purpose if we are to avoid being overwhelmed. Instructionally differentiated programming offers a focus for organization and decision-making based on the assumption that it is important to move beyond controlling students to focus on teaching them. When taking an instructional perspective, the most significant shift is that problem behaviors are no longer the focus of intervention, but rather serve as clues or indicators of needed instruction. Student outcomes are considered to be legitimate and the focus is on teaching students more acceptable ways of reaching those outcomes. After identification of the desired outcome through a behavior analysis, replacement behaviors are selected that allow the same outcome to be reached in a more acceptable way. Classroom organization, formal instruction, and informal interactions are structured to assist students in learning the curriculum which they selected with their problematic behaviors. The result is an instructional program based on student needs and differentiated along curricular lines.

However, the ultimate value of Instructionally Differentiated Programming may lie in its inherently respectful approach to programming. Respect is found in systems that recognize as valid the needs of all critical players. The concept of instructional themes acknowledges how difficult it is to provide authentic individualized instruction within a group setting and is, therefore, respectful of teachers. At the same time, the acceptance of students outcomes as valid and merely indicators of needed instruction dignifies student needs. When everyone's needs are acknowledged, energy can be directed to the primary goal: better outcomes for students with behavior disorders.

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