

Day Two

Sample Agenda

Morning

- Welcome
- Agenda for the day
- Questions from the day before
- Presentation: Focus questions
- Presentation: Instructional approaches
 - Review visual supports and structuring the environment
 - Introduce encouraging independence
 - Task analysis
 - Direct instruction
 - Discrete trial training
 - Shaping procedures
- Activity 10: Create a functional routine
- Presentation: Instructional approaches (continued)
 - Addressing sensory issues
- Activity 11: Develop sensory activities for the classroom
- Presentation: Enhance communication and social skills
- Activity 12: Creating a social story

Lunch break

Afternoon

- Presentation: Focus questions
- Presentation: Programming for challenging behaviour
 - Behaviour goals
 - Determine target behaviours
- Activity 13: Brainstorm possible functions of behaviour
- Presentation: Behaviour strategies
 - Conduct a functional behaviour assessment
 - Proactive strategies
 - Reinforcement techniques
- Activity 14: Reinforcers
- Presentation: Behaviour strategies (continued)
 - Decrease negative behaviours
 - Behaviour support plan
- Activity 15: IPP – Part Three
 - Complete IPP – developing strategies or
 - Complete a behaviour support plan
- Questions

Presentation Notes

Slide 73: Focus Questions, Part Three

This section will provide participants with general instructional approaches, environmental supports and strategies that are recommended for use with students with autism spectrum disorders (ASD). The participants will be asked to develop specific strategies and supports that could apply to the case studies they were working on the previous day. The questions should help the participants focus on the following elements that will be presented during the morning session: general instructional approaches for students with ASD, environmental supports and routines to promote independence and reduce anxiety, and specific communication and social strategies designed to enhance overall social functioning for students with ASD. The questions are:

- What general instructional approaches are recommended for students with ASD?
- What types of environmental supports and routines promote independence?
- How can communication and social functioning be enhanced for students with ASD?

Slide 74: Instructional Approaches

There are several general instructional approaches found effective with students with ASD. The last day participants discussed visual supports and structuring the environment. Throughout this day discuss the other approaches.

- Visual support
- Structuring the environment
- Encouraging independence
- Task analysis
- Addressing sensory issues
- Applied behaviour analysis

Slide 75: Encouraging Independence: A Goal for Every Student

Enhancing independence should be a goal for every student. Often students with ASD are supported constantly, for safety as well as educational reasons. Parents often want the support to ensure that their child can cope in the classroom. Teachers also want the support for the child to ensure protection and the best learning environment. It is easy to forget that if independence is not encouraged, the child may never develop the capacity to act independently. Students with ASD often become overreliant on teaching staff or other adults. Therefore, it is critical that independence is planned and programmed as with any other IPP goal. An effort should be made to fade adult support as the student develops specific skills and abilities. This involves two distinct steps.

Slide 76: Encouraging Independence: Hierarchy of Prompts

- Fading prompts
This is accomplished by utilizing a prompt hierarchy. An example of a prompt hierarchy is found in the resource on page 176 and this slide. For example, prompts could be verbal, visual or physical in nature. More intrusive levels of prompting should be used only after less intrusive prompts are proven to be ineffective. As the student experiences success, prompts should be consistently faded.
- Fading physical presence
Once a student possesses the skills necessary to complete a specific task or activity, teaching staff should attempt to fade their physical presence by giving attention to other students in the room. Constant shadowing of the student and unnecessary prompting and support can adversely impact the student's ability to function independently. Peers can also be enlisted to reduce dependence on adult support. Following the lead of peers is a critical skill for students with ASD to establish.

This slide illustrates the hierarchy of prompts that are included in the manual.

(I) Independent—natural cue or stimulus (bell rings to tell the student it is time for recess)

(G) Gestural prompt—a gesture or demonstration that provides information regarding the nature of the required response (head shake to indicate disapproval)

(IV) Indirect verbal prompt—the use of words to imply that some behaviour needs to occur (where do you need to go next?)

(V) Direct verbal prompt—clearly states the behaviour that needs to happen (verbal or some alternative mode of communication)

(M) Model—any visual or physical demonstration that directly shows the student the correct completion of the activity/task and encourages the student's imitation of that behaviour

(MP) Minimal physical prompts—light physical contact to guide a student toward a behaviour

(PP) Partial physical prompt—the teacher physically starts the student in the desired behaviour but then releases the student to complete the behaviour, or part of the student's physical movement is molded by the teacher

(F) Full physical prompt—the student is taken through correct completion of the activity/task. The physical movement of the student is completely molded by the teacher.

Slide 77: Task Analysis

- Another instructional approach that has been alluded to in this presentation is task analysis. Task analysis is breaking down a large task to into smaller, more teachable units.
- Any task can be broken down into simpler steps. The amount it is broken down is dependent on the specific needs of the targeted student.
- Each subskill should be taught and reinforced in sequence. (Briefly discuss reinforcements now, and go into more depth later in the afternoon.) Pages 177–181 of the resource have several examples of common classroom tasks and activities that were analyzed and broken down into component skills.

- When a student is taught a skill from step one to the last step, it is called *forward chaining*. For example, when taught to brush one's teeth, the first step might be getting out the toothbrush and toothpaste and the second step would be wetting the toothbrush.
- When a student is taught the last step in a sequence first, it is called *backwards chaining*. In the toothbrush example, the child would be actually stroking his teeth with the premoistened, pre-toothpasted toothbrush and then putting the toothbrush away. Backwards chaining allows the student to experience the natural reinforcement associated with task completion.

Slide 78: Task Analysis: Prompt Hierarchy

An example of a task analysis sheet can be found on page 182 of the resource.

Slide 79: Focus Question

How can direct instruction enhance learning and decrease problematic behaviours? During the last part of the afternoon, discuss methodology for applying some instructional approaches and behavioural techniques in a structured teaching method.

Slide 80: Direct Instruction

Direct instruction often involves the following characteristics:

- test-teach-test
- scripted lessons with clearly defined tasks
- sequenced tasks from simple to complex
- well-defined response expectations
- consistent instructional language
- carefully planned reinforcement
- rapid-paced lessons
- independent work provided after mastery.

Slide 81: Discrete Trial Training

One such direct instruction teaching method is called discrete trial training. It combines direct instruction and reinforcement. Each discrete trial usually has five components.

- *The stimulus* – The teacher presents a specific, previously identified stimulus to cue the student to display a desired behaviour (i.e., giving directions or instructions). The teacher can say, “Do this” or “What is it?” for the stimulus.
- *The prompt* – If a student needs prompts to respond correctly, the teacher will provide a planned prompt for the student. The prompt provides assistance to guide or perform the response. It may be a model to later be faded out or assistance to promote correct responding, to prevent response errors.
- *The response* – The student produces an observable and measurable response.
- *The consequence* – The teacher provides specific feedback to the student (e.g., praise or correction). The feedback or consequence provided will vary depending on the student's response. If the student responds correctly, the feedback will generally consist of praise and, if necessary (i.e., to motivate the child), other forms of reinforcement (e.g., tickles, high-fives, preferred materials or activities). If the student responds incorrectly or does not respond at all, the teacher should provide feedback (e.g., withholding praise, saying “try again,” “wrong,” or “no” and/or briefly withdrawing attention) and prompt the child to produce a correct response.

- *The inter-trial interval* – The teacher pauses between the consequence and a subsequent trial or instruction.

Discrete trial training usually requires one-to-one staff support and appropriate training. This type of instruction may not be consistent with the structure and routines associated with typical classroom. However, when one adopts a broader definition of a discrete trial (i.e., the delivery of specific, well-planned instruction, followed by a behavioural response and the implementation of predetermined consequences), the method is readily applicable in most educational environments. For instance, the following sequence of events would constitute a discrete trial if a broader definition is adopted:

- The teacher calls a student's name (the stimulus).
- The student turns and looks at the teacher (the response).
- The teacher praises him or her for terminating his or her current activity (the consequence).

Slide 82: Shaping Procedures

It may be necessary to shape many of the new behaviours teachers want students to learn. Shaping refers to teaching new skills through careful reinforcement of behaviours that are similar or perhaps part of what teachers want to eventually see the individual perform. In behavioural terms, shaping refers to differential reinforcement of successive approximations to a specified target behaviour. Teachers shape both academic and social skills all day long but sometimes forget to reflect on the need to plan the procedure with the end goal in mind. Steps must be reinforced carefully—and not too easily achieved. Teachers must remain at a given step long enough, but not too long and drop back if behaviour begins to disintegrate. The use of prompts and guided assistance may be required and should be planned carefully as part of comprehensive program planning.

- Shaping begins with a task analysis. The goal is for the student to work towards completion of the first step, for which he or she is reinforced. When he or she masters that step, the next step becomes the new goal and the student is differentially reinforced until he or she masters that goal, and so on.

Example

John can currently play independently for three minutes but needs three or four prompts to stay in play area.

Goal: John will play independently for ten minutes with two or fewer prompts.

Shaping procedures:

1. John will be reinforced when he plays for two minutes with two or fewer prompts.
2. John will be reinforced when he plays for four minutes with two or fewer prompts.
3. John will be reinforced when he plays for six minutes with two or fewer prompts.

Activity 10: Create a Functional Routine

Time

30 minutes

Grouping

Pairs

Resources

Slide 83: Planning a Routine

Slide 84: Visual Guide to Planning a Routine

Handout 16: Visual Guide to Planning a Routine

Process

1. Pairs decide what new routine or structure would be helpful for a student with ASD in their class. They may consider one of the students presented in the case studies or they may want to consider a particular student they have worked with or will be working with in an actual school setting. Both partners should decide on the student, discuss the student's needs and decide the routine to develop.

* For partners who are having difficulty deciding what routines to develop, the following are potential examples:

- Develop a routine for going to the library for child who is frequently aggressive during transitions.
 - Develop a routine for coming into school in the morning.
 - Develop a routine for using a vending machine in a secondary school setting.
2. Once partners decide on a particular routine, they describe the routine.
 3. Partners decide and describe the functional purpose of this routine.
 4. Partners break the routine into component parts, and develop a task analysis of the activity.
 5. Partners describe how they will teach the student the routine.
 - Will they use visuals?
 - Will they use written directions?
 - What type of chaining will they use? Why?
 6. Partners write or sketch the routine for the child in the manner they plan to present it to him or her.

Suggested sensory motor break (i.e., coffee break)

Process (continued)

7. After break time, partners spend a few minutes discussing the group routines that have been developed. Groups who want to share with the entire group can present their routine to the participants.

Presentation Notes

Another instructional approach to be discussed is accommodating sensory needs. On pages 54–55 of the resource, there is a list of questions that need to be considered to help determine what if any sensory factors may be impacting the student. Parents and others who have had experience with the student can offer invaluable insight concerning the student's sensory needs. Consulting with an occupational therapist who has specialized training in understanding sensory issues and developing sensory strategies is also recommended when possible.

Slide 85: Assessing Sensory Issues

This is an overview of some of the questions and topics to explore when assessing sensory issues.

- *Auditory* – Is the child extremely sensitive to sounds?
 - Consider the individual's comprehension of verbal information and the time typically required to process auditory information and shift attention between auditory stimuli. Is the oral stimulation frustrating to the child?
 - What are the general sound levels and the predictability and repetitiveness of sounds? Sometimes the anticipation of a sound or a potential sensory experience is enough to aggravate the student.
 - Consider whether there are any forms of auditory stimulation that the student particularly enjoys or finds calming.
- *Visual* – Are visual stimuli distracting the child?
 - Are there stimuli, such as light, movement, reflection or background patterns, that affect the student's ability to attend to the learning activity?
 - Consider the eye level of the student, the position of the teacher in relation to the student, and distracters that may interfere with attention.
 - Also consider the time required to shift visual attention. For example, the student may need extra processing time to shift his/her focus from one visual stimulus to another. Extra processing time may be required to shift from one modality (visual) to another modality (auditory).
 - Consider whether there are any forms of visual stimulation the student finds pleasurable or unpleasant.
- *Tactile* – Are certain textures aversive?
 - Often children with ASD are most sensitive to auditory stimuli and tactile stimuli. These children can be found to be wearing the same soft fleece or jogging clothes over and over again because they are comfortable with the feel of the material.
 - Does the student demonstrate a need to explore through touch and yet avoids being touched?
 - What is the level of ability or defensiveness in the use of certain objects intended to support instruction? For example, do they avoid touching certain materials (such as finger paint or play dough)?
- *Gustatory and olfactory* – Are there strong preferences in tastes and smells?
 - Does the student avoid certain experiences because of a response to the smell of materials?
 - Do eating habits aversely affect their table behaviour?

- *Vestibular and proprioceptive* – What is the child’s need to move and experience different types of pressure?
 - Vestibular sensitivities refers to the senses deriving from the inner ear structures that detect movement and changes in position. Students with vestibular sensitivities may exhibit differences in orienting themselves and either seek intense movement or exhibit fear of movement.
 - Proprioceptive sensitivities relate to information derived from muscles and joints. Students who have problems integrating the body’s information have odd posture and may appear clumsy or sloppy.
 - Consider the student’s need to move and exercise and reaction to movement.

Slide 86: Sensory Diet

Students with sensory challenges often have difficulty managing their anxiety and modulating their level of arousal. When they are anxious, it is difficult to attend to instructions and complete structured tasks. This may result in hyperreactions to the environment such as running and screaming. Alternately students who are hypoaroused need to be alerted to be able to attend and learn. It is often necessary to implement a sensory diet to maintain an optimal level of arousal.

This slide presents sensory diet activities that may be routinely implemented during the day to meet the student’s sensory needs. It is important to be aware of the impact of all interventions, being especially careful not to reward negative behaviour with positive sensory experiences. For example, providing a child with a preferred activity to calm him/her down following a bout of screaming can serve to strengthen the use of screaming behaviour to obtain preferred activity time. Having a clear outcome in mind, monitoring the use of these interventions and incorporating these activities in a routine during the day can prevent the sensory diet from having unintended consequences.

- Some alerting activities that can be incorporated during the day are:
 - gross motor activities (jumping on trampolines, running in gym)
 - fresh air (going outside, changing the environment)
 - cold water (playing with water tables, washing hands, etc.)
 - play activities with toys and bright lights
 - loud energetic music
 - sudden fast movement.
- Some relaxing/calming activities can be:
 - quiet music (using headphones)
 - deep pressure (squeeze on the shoulder – be careful to get parental permission and approval for these activities)
 - sucking activities (drinking from a juice box, sucking a straw, etc.)
 - deep breathing
 - repetitive behaviour (can often calm children down)
 - weighted vests or blankets (can offer a deep pressure experience)
 - tensing and relaxing muscles.

Slide 87: Sensory Diet for Older Children

- Alerting activities that can be used for older children are:
 - using bright lights
 - using a slant board
 - listening to loud music
 - holding fidget item
 - wearing cooler or lighter clothing
 - erasing the board or doing classroom task
 - chewing gum
 - drinking something cold.
- Calming activities that can be used for older children are:
 - using a study carrel
 - using a room divider
 - listening to calming music
 - holding fidget item
 - wearing warm clothing
 - sitting on an inflated cushion
 - chewing gum
 - sucking on straw, candy.

Slide 88: Adding a Sensory Break**Slide 89: Incorporating Movement in the Class****Slide 90: Hopscotch Can Be a Sensory Break**

These three slides show ways of incorporating movement in classroom activities as a sensory break.

Slide 91: Using Bean Bag Chairs for Deep Pressure**Slide 92: Carrying a Heavy Load Can Be a Sensory Break**

These two slides show ways of incorporating activities that provide deep pressure and calming strategies for children. A bean bag chair can encompass a child and help calm him or her down. Carrying paper from one room to another provides pressure to joints and muscles, and can therefore be calming and orienting to the child with proprioceptive difficulties.

Slide 93: Sensory Accommodations: Autism Modification Toys

Replace inappropriate sensation seeking with more appropriate sensory activities. When a child has a sensory need, it is important to acknowledge it and find a way of accommodating the need. Sometimes this can be done by delaying the activity to a more appropriate time (for example, recess would be a great time to get some gross motor and swinging activity). Other ways of accommodating these needs may be to allow the child to have certain toys or equipment. The teacher needs to structure how and when these toys and activities will be used. This slide presents some ideas of ideas of toys and equipment that can be helpful in substituting inappropriate sensory activities.

<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Mouthing, sucking, teething• Hand-flapping or finger-flicking• Yelling, making loud noises• Visual stimulation, fingers in front of eyes• Deep tactile, masturbation	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Cup with straw, plastic tubing, chewing items• Koosh toy, silicon gel ball, squishy ball, slinky toy• Walkman, stories, clickers• Kaleidoscope, pinwheel ribbon• Deep pressure, weighted vest, headband, cap, wristband
--	---

Activity 11: Develop Sensory Activities for the Classroom

Time

15 minutes

Grouping

Table groups

Resources

Slide 94: Substituting More Appropriate Sensory Activities

Slide 95: Substituting More Appropriate Sensory Activities

Handout 17: Substituting More Appropriate Sensory Activities

Process

1. Table groups brainstorm and share some ideas that might replace the inappropriate sensory seeking behaviours on Slide 94.

Present Slide 95 only if groups are having difficulty brainstorming alternate sensory activities. It provides some examples of sensory activities that can be used to replace more inappropriate behaviours.

Remind groups that it is important to assess the effectiveness of each of these strategies and activities. What can be calming for some children can be over arousing for others.

Presentation Notes

Five instructional approaches have been discussed. Before lunch break, go over two of the major challenging areas for most students with ASD, improving communication and social interaction skills. These two challenges should be included as goals for an IPP for most students with ASD.

Slide 96: Communication Goals

The first goal is to improve communication skills. As discussed previously, most individuals with any autism spectrum disorder, including those with Asperger's, have communication difficulties. The level of communicative competence attained by individuals with ASD has been shown to be an important predictor of functioning ability. Some general short-term objectives for this particular IPP goal can be found on this slide.

Before any targeted work on communication can begin in earnest, an updated language and communication assessment needs to take place by a speech and language therapist. It is from this assessment that specific goals and objectives can be developed.

- *To enhance use of forms of communication*
This refers to how the student communicates. Speech is just one form of communication. The use of visuals, signing and behaviour are other forms of communication.
- *To increase use of different communicative functions*
Ascertaining the purpose of students' communication is just one step to increasing their functional use of communication skills. Teaching students how to request and refuse helps the child be in control in a more appropriate way than by expressing these functions through the use of challenging behaviour.
- *To develop receptive and expressive skills*
Receptive and expressive communication skills refer to the way that students understand others and express themselves to others.
- *To acquire pivotal social language skills*
Communication skills are by nature social. There are some basic social language skills that are prerequisites for communicating with others.
- *To maintain two-way communication*
This is the actual long-term goal of any communication skill. Maintaining a brief conversation implies an interest, motivation to relate and the actual skills to be able to communicate back and forth with another person.

Slide 97: Assessing Forms of Communication

- *Speech/vocalization* – Speech and language are one form of communication, and, of course, are very effective communicative forms and the ones that are most highly desired to obtain. There are many documented methods of teaching speech and language from the use of behavioural methods, such as discrete trial, to more naturalistic approaches, such as incidental teaching and using natural reinforcers for vocalization. It is important to realize that speech is not the only way a student can learn to communicate. If speech is not developing, the student can be taught to utilize another system of communication. Often, speech and language therapists will work in developing speech in conjunction with using another form of communication.

- *Sign language* – Many students with ASD use sign to communicate. Sign can be very effective since it is a portable and always available method of communicating. Numerous studies have demonstrated that the use of a total communication system (speech and sign) resulted in faster and more complete receptive and expressive vocabulary acquisition for many children with ASD.
- *Body language* – Communicating through body language can be very powerful. For many individuals with ASD, looking at facial expressions and body language can communicate a lot about their thoughts and feelings. For other individuals with ASD, body language can be very misleading. Some children maintain the same expressions even though they may be quite agitated or upset. One really has to get to know the students well to understand their forms of communication.
- *Pictures* – Visual supports are a very important tool for supporting students with ASD. For children with little or no language, the use of a picture system can be a powerful way of starting to communicate. The child first has to understand that the picture just represents an object or person. There are many detailed programs that describe how to use pictures to facilitate communication. There has been no evidence in studies so far that the use of augmentative communication systems in conjunction with language instruction results in the delay of the acquisition of language.
- *Written language* – For many higher functioning children, written language can often replace pictures as a way of communicating. Written language eliminates the possibility of communicating emotion through tone of voice. Many students are more comfortable using writing than oral language to communicate.
- *Behaviour* – It is important to emphasize that all behaviour has a communicative function. When behaviour occurs, the first question that should be asked is “What is this behaviour trying to communicate?”

Slide 98: Assessing Functions of Communication

This slide illustrates some of the different functions or purposes of communication. It is important to assess what communicative functions the student is using, and then try to expand and develop the use of different functions. For example, if requesting is the only reason a child communicates, it is important to motivate him/her to use language or another form of communication to obtain attention, protest, express feelings or greet. Obtaining attention using words, not behaviour, can be much more palatable.

- *Requesting* can be one of the most powerful functions of communication for the beginning communicator. One uses a communication system to request and then receives the requested item as an intrinsic reward. For example, picture a child saying “cookie” and getting a cookie.
- *Obtaining attention* is another purpose of communication.
- *Protesting/refusing* is a function that is important to teach to individuals with ASD. Refusing or protesting with language or another communication system can eliminate the need for utilizing challenging behaviours.
- *Expressing feelings, commenting and gaining information* are other reasons to communicate.
- *Greetings* fulfill a social norm. People want to be acknowledged. Teaching students with ASD how to give and respond to greetings are first steps in communicating with others.

Slide 99: Receptive Language: Comprehensive Difficulties

Specific receptive language difficulties to be aware of are:

- *Expressive language may be more developed*
Often students are thought to understand more than they actually can because they have such a well-developed vocabulary concerning certain topics of interest. It is easy to overlook the possibility that their receptive language may be much less developed than their expressive language. On the other hand, the opposite may also be true. Individuals with ASD often have very uneven language development. A specific assessment and sharing of the results with teachers are highly recommended.
- *May only hear last word or most familiar word*
Student may be misguided in their comprehension of directions or language because they have only heard the last word in a sentence or a familiar word and attached their own meaning to the phrase. Be cautious to ensure that students have actually comprehended the information.
- *Difficulty with multi-step directions*
It is important to be aware of how many steps are embedded in a direction. Too many steps can cause the student to become frustrated.
- *Difficulty with abstract language*
Many students with ASD can comprehend concrete language but find abstract language a challenge. It is important to use concrete language as a bridge for more abstract concepts.
- *Limited vocabulary*
Students can often miss the gist of the interaction because their receptive vocabulary may be lacking certain basic words. It is important to be aware of the vocabulary that is being used. Check for comprehension.
- *Literal interpretation*
Students with ASD are often very literal and therefore have difficulty with slang or idioms.
- *Difficulty understanding social cues*
Difficulties with understanding social cues are one of the keystones of ASD. Helping the student index the environment can support the child's understanding of others' actions and verbalizations.

Slide 100: Ways to Index the Environment

This slide presents ways of indexing the environment. These cueing strategies enable adults and peers to point out important information that students with ASD might otherwise miss.

- Point out *social* information:
“Look, Tommy's waving at you. Can you wave back?”
- Point out *emotional* information:
“Mary got hurt. Look, she's crying.”
- Point out *anticipatory* information.
“Look, Joey's going to throw the ball. Put your hands up.”
- Structure the *commenting* function:
“Look at the bird eating the seed. He must be very hungry.”
- Code *feelings and reactions*:
“You are very angry that Joey took your ball. Say, ‘Joey, give me that ball!’”

Slide 101: Expressive Language Difficulties

This slide points out the difficulties in expressive language that students with ASD may experience.

- *Echolalia*
Echolalia (repetition of chunks of vocalizations) can serve the function of helping the child practice language. Young children use echolalia as part of normal language. With autism spectrum disorders, some children have difficulty moving beyond the echolalic stage. Echolalia can be immediate or delayed. Immediate echolalia, when the child repeats what was just heard, can be used as a teaching tool. The echolalic phrase can be shaped by using speech rules and by modeling an appropriate response. Many children learn to use echolalia purposefully and are eventually able to break down the echolalic chunks into smaller meaningful units as part of the process of developing language. A delayed echolalic phrase is when the student repeats a phrase that was heard some time before. It is harder to use delayed echolalia as a teaching tool because it has no meaning for the listener. Students with ASD may repeat chunks of language that they heard on TV without having any understanding of what they are saying.
- *May have a large vocabulary in a very limited subject area*
A well-developed vocabulary in one field can be misleading to the listener. The fact that a child can talk fluently in one area does not guarantee that the student can use the language as competently in other subject areas.
- *Two-way conversation may be difficult*
Maintaining a two-way interchange is one of the most critical difficulties facing many students with ASD.

Slide 102: Pivotal Social Language Skills

This slide illustrates some of the pivotal skills that students with ASD need to have to be able to begin to relate to others.

- *Tolerating other people* – A pivotal social language skill, which is a prerequisite for any other social or communication skill, is for children to be able to tolerate other people in their space. This is a skill that some children have to learn.
- *Attending to others* – Once children can tolerate individuals in their space, they have to learn to attend to them. Many children with ASD do not take note of other people. Learning to look, listen and to notice others are skills that also have to be in place before meaningful communication or interaction can take place.
- *Taking turns* – Turn-taking is another pivotal social communication skill. Turn-taking is necessary for having a conversation. One person talks at a time.
- *Waiting* – Waiting is another necessary skill for communication and interaction. When one person is talking or taking a turn, the other has to wait. Waiting is often a difficult skill for children with ASD to learn.
- *Initiating, responding and sustaining conversations* – These skills are the crux of communication and having a two-way interchange.

Slide 103: Strategies to Facilitate Communication

Some communication strategies to be aware of and utilize to enhance the student's communication skills are:

- *Ensure that a communication system is in place.*
Students with ASD may not develop traditional oral language but should develop some sort of communication. It is important that individuals involved with the student understand the student's form of expression and adjust their expectations for communication accordingly. It is important to accept verbal attempts and nonverbal behaviour as communicative.
- *Focus on developing interaction.*
It is important to remember that the goal of communication is to interact. Often teachers teach the child to comment or label to increase vocabulary, but forget to encourage two-way interactions.
- *Use clear, concise language.*
Ensure that the vocabulary and language that is being used is at the student's level.
- *Allow time to process information.*
Students with ASD often need more time to process verbal information, or to switch from one modality to another (e.g., changing the modality from looking at the board to listening to the teacher). Adequate processing is critical to both allowing the child to comprehend and planning an expressive response.
- *Teach listening skills and check comprehension.*
Students with ASD often need structured lessons on how to listen. Breaking down the steps of listening (face the speaker, look near the speaker, wait for the speaker to finish speaking, etc.) and reinforcing each component may be helpful. To ensure that the student was able to comprehend the material presented, it is important to check that they understood the language.
- *Use visual supports.*
Visual supports and cartooning aid comprehension and expression. Regard this as looking at personal notes or the speaker's notes during a presentation. Having a picture on hand can reduce a student's anxiety in trying to remember how to say something. Often, when the anxiety is reduced, word-finding difficulties become less of an issue.
- *Provide social scripts for spoken language.*
Social scripts can provide support for students to know what to say or how to respond in certain situations. Social scripts presented previously included greetings, for example, Slide 58 – "When someone says 'hi' to me, I say 'hi' back."
- *Teach subtleties of tone and intonation.*
Teaching students about the meaning that tone and intonation can play is often hard to do, but yet critical since tone of voice can actually change the meaning of a phrase. Kathleen Quill's example on Slide 104 illustrates this point.

Slide 104: Comprehension: Tone and Intonation of Language

Read this overhead with accents and intonation on the italicized words.

- I didn't say she stole my money (but *someone* said it).
- I *didn't* say she stole my money (I *definitely* didn't say it).
- I didn't *say* she stole my money (but I *implied* it).
- I didn't say *she* stole my money (but *someone* stole it).
- I didn't say she *stole* my money (but she did *something*).
- I didn't say she stole *my* money (but she stole *someone else's*).
- I didn't say she stole my *money* (but she took *something else*).

This example from Kathleen Quill demonstrates how tone and intonation can totally change the meaning of a phrase.

Slide 105: Social Interaction Goals

The second IPP goal that we will discuss this morning relates to improving social interaction skills. Social interaction difficulties form the core of any ASD.

- Some general ideas for social interaction goals can be found on this slide.
 - *To develop friendship skills*
Friendship skills can also be known as social skills. Developing social skills is critical in getting along with others in the world, gaining a measure of independence and in having good quality of life.
 - *To increase understanding of rules of social interaction*
This objective can be more specific.
 - *To increase number and quality of positive social interactions*

Slide 106: Social Skills Strategies

Some strategies for teaching social interaction skills are presented in this slide. Examples of each of these strategies follow.

- Direct instruction
- Puppets/role-playing
- Cartooning
- Peer support
- Social scripts
- Social stories

Slide 107: Direct Teaching

- The first step in a direct instruction is to decide what skill is necessary to teach. This decision can be made in many ways; most involve observation or consultation with a team.
- A task analysis is then completed.
- Then one must assess the student's ability to perform the different steps of the task and to observe the levels of prompting that are necessary.
- The direct instruction can be done using various strategies. More information on direct instruction will be provided later in the presentation.

Slide 108: Using Puppets, Role-playing and Videotapes to Teach Social Skills

- The use of puppets and role-playing can also be an effective way of teaching and practising social skills. Students with ASD often feel more comfortable when they are not the object of attention.
- The use of puppets in particular can relieve some of the anxiety that children may feel when they are learning a new skill.
- Role-playing can provide children with the opportunity to practise the newly acquired skills in a safe setting.
- Videotapes can also be used to help students identify appropriate and inappropriate social skills.

Slide 109: Cartooning Social Situations

Cartooning can also be a very safe way of learning about and discussing social interactions. Cartooning is a visual act which also takes the focus off the individual and places it on the cartoon. Cartooning can illustrate actions, thoughts and language. This is a powerful tool for demonstrating how thoughts influence actions and words. Cartooning situations can be used proactively to prepare students for a potentially challenging social encounter or following a situation as a debriefing session.

Slide 110: Peer Support

Interaction with peers becomes increasingly important for children. For some higher functioning students with ASD, the quality of peer interactions can affect the student's functioning in any other realm. For example, a student who feels teased at school may shut down completely and refuse to participate in any school activity. To support students with ASD, it is important to include peers in any socialization program. Therefore, it is necessary to provide peers with specific communication and social strategies for interacting with the student with ASD. Studies into the importance of including peers in a social program have demonstrated increased reciprocal social behaviour and social initiations as well as higher peer acceptance. Another outcome documented in these studies showed that peers maintained greatly increased rates of social initiations toward the children with ASD following the studies and the fading of adult prompts. Some of the peer skills that can be taught are:

- *Teaching peers to be persistent.* Often children with ASD want to avoid their peers. Having a peer pursue them to include them in a positive activity can be very helpful and rewarding for the child with ASD.
- *Teaching peers to give cues not answers.* Often peers want to help by giving the child with ASD the answer. Teaching them to help cue the student as opposed to answering for him/her is important.
- *Teaching peers communication skills.* If the child with ASD uses picture cues, teach peers how to use the picture cues. Many classes learn to use sign to support the child who uses sign in the class.
- *Provide cooperative learning activities* for students to relate. Often cooperative learning activities can be very successful if each individual knows their role and how to relate. The advantage of a cooperative learning activity is that the teacher can structure it in a way to support the social success of the students.

- *Provide support to the student* with ASD in various ways. Recess can often be a challenge for students with ASD. Having a circle of peers who are willing to be a recess buddy can be quite supportive to the child with ASD.
- *Encourage friendships.* If friendships seem to be occurring, support their development. Often, informing parents that a particular pair or group of children is getting along can be the catalyst for parents arranging play dates and extracurricular activities.

Slide 111: Social Scripts

Social scripts are tools or maps designed to help children know how to interact in a particular setting. This social script was designed for a child who took her clothes off in public. One way that this social script could have been worded would have been in the positive. *I should keep my shirt down. I should keep my dress down. I should keep my pants up.* However, this child responded better to the negative version, therefore this script was developed for her.

Slide 112: Creating Social Stories

Social stories are one of the most common methods for teaching social skills. Social stories can be used to:

- introduce changes and new routines
- explain reasons for others' behaviour
- teach situation-specific social skills
- assist in teaching new academic skills.

Slide 113: Social Story Process

The process of using social stories starts much the same as teaching any new skill.

- An assessment of a social need must take place. When does the student experience difficulty in a social setting?
- Once the need and situation is identified, observe the child carefully in that situation. What is going on?
- Social stories are written from the perspective of the child. Be sure to try and understand the situation from the child's perspective.
- Write the social story. Directions will be given on how to specifically write social stories.
- Read the story with the child. It is recommended that the adult read the social story twice with the child, having the child then read it back. The social story can be read on a daily basis following the initial session.
- Practising the skills described in the social story through modelling and role-playing can increase the effectiveness of the story.

Slide 114: Writing Social Stories

- Social stories include three different types of sentences.
 - The first type of sentence is a *descriptive sentence*. The descriptive sentence provides information on the setting, activity and people involved.
 - The second type of sentence is a *directive sentence*. This is a positive statement that outlines the desired response for a given situation.
 - The third type of sentence is a *perspective sentence*. This statement provides a description of the possible reaction of others and oneself to the behaviour.

- The formula for writing a social story is to have two to five descriptive and perspective sentences to every directive sentence.

The following two slides demonstrate some examples.

Slide 115: Social Story: When I Change My Mind

- Sometimes a person says, “I’ve changed my mind.” (*Descriptive*)
- That means he had one idea, but now he has a new idea. (*Descriptive*)
- I will work on staying calm when someone changes their mind. (*Directive*)
- I can think of someone writing something down, scratching it out and writing something new. (*Directive*)

This social story has a ratio of two descriptive sentences to one directive sentence.

Slide 116: Social Story: Eating Lunch at School

- Sometimes I eat lunch at school. (*Descriptive*)
- People feel comfortable when I eat my food nicely. (*Perspective*)
- Other kids will think I’m friendly when I wait for them to sit down and get their lunch before I start eating. (*Perspective*)
- I will try to chew my food slowly with my mouth closed. (*Directive*)
- When I eat slowly with my mouth closed, people will be happy to sit at the same table with me. (*Perspective*)

This social story has a ratio of three descriptive and perspective sentences to one directive sentence.

Activity 12: Creating a Social Story

Time

30 minutes

Grouping

Partners or groups of three

Resources

Slide 117: Write a Social Story

Handout 18: Write a Social Story

Process

1. In pairs or groups of three, participants write a social story, using the case studies or a particular student they know.
 - Where does the student encounter difficulty?
 - What are the particular situations in which the student has trouble coping?
2. Partners or group members do a task analysis of the social situation.
3. Partners or group members write the story.
 - Describe the situation with descriptive statements.
 - State the desired response in a directive statement.
 - Identify how people will feel when the child responds as desired. This is the perspective statement.

Ideas for those who are having difficulty thinking of a social situation are:

- making a transition from one class to another
- changing the topic in a conversation
- being quiet in the classroom
- sharing computer time
- class discussion time.

Once the social stories are read to the group, participants are welcome to go to lunch.

Lunch break

Presentation Notes

Slide 118: Focus Questions, Part 4

This section will provide participants with information on how to conduct a functional behaviour analysis and develop a behaviour support plan. Direct instruction methods, such as discrete trial training, will be presented to help participants apply instructional behaviour techniques useful for teaching positive behaviour and social skills and increasing academic learning. The focus questions should help the participants focus on the following elements to be presented during the PM section. These questions follow:

- How is a behaviour intervention plan developed and implemented?
- How can precision teaching enhance learning and decrease problematic behaviours?

Slide 119: Behaviour Goals

The goals outlined here may address some of these issues. However, with behaviour, as well as any other areas, it is important to individualize and base each short-term objective, strategy and instructional approach on specific behavioural data determined through a thorough, individualized assessment.

- *Develop self-control.*
The focus of the behaviour intervention should be on instruction rather than discipline. The goal is to increase the student's use of alternative, appropriate behaviours, which achieves the same purpose. The alternative behaviour must be a more effective way to communicate, have needs or wants met, and/or interact with other people. Developing self-control allows students to choose effective ways to communicate their feelings in a productive manner.
- *Increase positive behaviours.*
It is generally more effective for teachers to emphasize the development of positive behaviours via teaching and reinforcement, rather than to focus on the elimination of negative behaviours via negative consequences.
- *Decrease negative behaviours.*
There are many strategies and instructional approaches that are geared to help students decrease negative behaviours. It is important to emphasize that problem behaviours can also often be reduced or eliminated by making changes in the environment or classroom routines (i.e., modifying the triggers or setting events associated with the behaviour).
- *Reduce anxiety.*
Difficult and challenging behaviours experienced by students with ASD often are a result of anxiety. Helping students learn to reduce their own anxiety (as in the self-control objective) would be a goal for any student with anxiety issues. However, teachers and assistants can use strategies and approaches such as social scripts, visual supports, routines and incorporating a sensory diet, all of which can significantly decrease students' generalized anxiety responses.
- *Follow specific school routines.*
This is an objective that most students need to have in place in order to experience success in a school situation. The specific school routines to be emphasized need to be designed for the individual student with an understanding of their cognitive, language and social development levels.

Slide 120: Playing Behaviour Detective

- The methodologies to be discussed in order to meet these short-term goals are overviewed in this slide.
- One way to conceptualize planning a behaviour intervention program is to consider oneself a detective. The three critical parts of the detective story would be:
 - determining which behaviour to target
 - determining the function of the behaviour by conducting a behavioural assessment
 - implementing positive or proactive strategies.

Slide 121: Programming for Challenging Behaviour

The goal that would be on most IPPs for students with ASD would be to teach “appropriate behaviour.” Students with ASD often demonstrate unusual or challenging behaviours that may not change as a result of usual classroom discipline techniques. These behaviour problems can often be the primary concern of parents and teachers. Often these behaviours can interfere with teaching and learning in a school environment.

- *Determine which behaviour to target.*
Because there are often several behaviours that may be challenging or be interfering with the student’s learning, it is often necessary to prioritize the behaviours.
- *Assess function and contributing factors.*
Identifying the function of the behaviour involves conducting a functional behaviour assessment to identify what function or useful value the behaviour serves the individual and what is maintaining that behaviour.
- *Identify alternate or incompatible behaviours.*
Once the functions of the behaviour have been determined, the next step would be to identify specific behaviours that can take the place of the inappropriate behaviour and would serve the same function and be effective.
- *Develop strategies to increase positive behaviours.*
These strategies would consist of positive programming and proactive strategies, environmental adaptations and reinforcement techniques.
- *Develop strategies to decrease negative behaviours.*
Positive programming is always the first choice for intervention when decreasing negative behaviours. Other approaches, such as extinction procedures, can be introduced as well. These strategies will be discussed further later in the afternoon.
- *Create a behaviour support plan.*
This plan documents the results of the functional behaviour assessment and the strategies and approaches developed to support the student. This support plan contains summary statements that are useful for programming and communication of student progress. They can become an important part of the student’s IPP.

Slide 122: Determining Which Behaviour to Target

To help develop priorities, the following questions may be helpful:

- Is the behaviour life threatening?
- Does the behaviour pose a health risk?
- Does the behaviour interfere with learning?
- Is the behaviour likely to become more serious?
- Has the behaviour been a problem for some time?
- Does the behaviour interfere with acceptance?

Slide 123: Behaviour is Communication

Once the targeted behaviour has been decided, it is important to thoroughly investigate it to determine what purpose it is serving the student. The premise that is accepted in this process is that all behaviour is communicative in nature.

Slide 124: Determine the Functions of the Behaviour

Before developing a plan of interaction, one must determine what the behaviour is communicating.

Activity 13: Brainstorm Possible Functions of Behaviour

Time

10 minutes

Grouping

Table groups

Resources

Slide 125: Activity 13: Brainstorm Possible Functions of Behaviour

Handout 19: Brainstorm Possible Functions of Behaviour

Process

1. Participants take a few minutes to brainstorm the possible functions of challenging behaviour.
 - If behaviour is communicative in nature, what are the possible functions behaviour can serve?

In getting the mindset on this activity, consider a young toddler who is having tantrums and not able to verbalize what he or she wants. What are the possible communicative intents of a behaviour tantrum or another type of behaviour episode?
2. Each table calls out one or two possible functions.

Presentation Notes

Slide 126: Common Functions of Behaviour

Some common functions that behaviour serves are:

- *Attention*, if
 - it occurs when you are not paying attention to the student
 - it stops when you stop paying attention to the student.
- *Escape/avoidance*, if
 - it occurs when you ask the student to do something that he or she does not like to do
 - it stops after you stop making demands.
- *Getting something tangible*, if
 - it occurs when you take away a favourite toy, food or activity
 - it stops soon after you give the student a toy, food, or activity that he/she likes or requested
 - it occurs when the student can't have a toy, food or activity he or she requested.
- *Sensory/self-regulation*, if
 - it tends to be performed over and over again in a rhythmic or cyclical manner
 - it tends to happen when there is either a lot or very little going on in the area
 - the student can still do other things at the same time as he or she is performing the behaviour.
- *Other* functions or motivations of behaviour that, over time, have become habitual and automatic.

Slide 127: Functional Behaviour Assessment Data Collection

To determine why a behaviour is occurring, a functional behaviour assessment can be conducted. During a functional analysis, a manipulation of environmental conditions is done to assess the relationship between environmental conditions and specific behaviours. It involves a careful review of behaviour difficulties or deficits in terms of their functional or useful value to the individual with problem behaviour. There are many ways of collecting information about why a behaviour is occurring.

- One method is to observe the child in various settings.
- Another method is to interview parents, caregivers and other school staff.
- A third common way of gathering behavioural data is to complete a behavioural checklist.

Slide 128: ABC Observation

There are many methods of conducting a behavioural observation. One way is to observe and document a child in a specific setting.

- The *antecedents* describe events in the environment that occur immediately prior to the target behaviour and often reliably predict the behaviour. The antecedents immediately precede a behaviour.
 - Fast triggers are events with a particular onset and an endpoint.
 - Slow triggers are settings or events that are not associated with the immediate context (medical issues, changes in routine, etc.).
- *Behaviour* is the description of the specific problem observed.
 - Include the frequency, intensity and duration of the behaviour.
 - Be specific in description.

- The identification of *consequences* that follow the problem behaviour may be the reinforcement that is maintaining the behaviour. There are two different types of consequences.
 - Planned consequences are imposed after the negative behaviour.
 - Natural consequences are the actual events that took place after the behaviour was imposed, for example, other students laughing, etc.
- A copy of the ABC chart is found in the resource in Appendix I, page 186.

Slide 129: Motivation Assessment Scale

The Motivation Assessment Scale (MAS) by Durand and Crimmons (1988) is a checklist that can be given to a teacher, parent or caregiver to assist in assessing the possible motivations or functions of behaviour. The MAS helps determine whether a specific behaviour is displayed to gain specific sensory feedback, to gain attention, to escape/avoid nonpreferred tasks or to gain some type of tangible rewards.

Scores are derived for the following motivations: attention, avoidance, sensory, escape, tangibles. A careful analysis of the student's response to stimuli may reveal unexpected connections to seemingly small things in the environment. This assessment tool can be found in the resource in Appendix J, pages 187–188.

Slides 130–133

Once the functions of target behaviours have been determined, it is important to identify replacement behaviours and teaching approaches that are to be used. Some examples follow:

Slide 130: When the Behaviour is Motivated by Attention

When the behaviour is motivated by attention:

- reduce attention to the behaviour
- teach positive ways of getting attention
- teach appropriate communication.

Slide 131: When the Behaviour is Motivated by Tangibles

When the behaviour is motivated by tangibles:

- teach appropriate communication
- reinforce communication
- increase choices.

Slide 132: When the Behaviour is Motivated by Avoidance

When the behaviour is motivated by avoidance:

- teach, "I want a break"
- teach to communicate, "no"
- increase choices
- practise relaxation/anxiety reduction
- modify demands.

Slide 133: When the Behaviour is Motivated by a Sensory Need

When the behaviour is motivated by a sensory need:

- increase sensory supports
- replace with alternative activities
- teach student to make requests for sensory preferences.

It is important to remember that all interventions should be based on individual assessment and ongoing evaluation. The function(s) of a behaviour may appear obvious, however careful assessment frequently demonstrates that initial assumptions are often incorrect.

Slide 134: Increase Positive Behaviours

Identify strategies to increase positive behaviours.

- *Environmental adaptations* – Structuring the environment and the tasks that are presented can increase positive behaviours. Some examples are:
 - removing distracting stimuli
 - incorporating calming activities into the student’s daily routine
 - alternating more difficult and demanding tasks with those that are easier and more enjoyable for the student
 - providing choices.
- *Positive/proactive approaches* – Being proactive is more effective than reacting to student misbehaviour. Observing students with ASD for increased anxiety (warning signs) and eliminating the anxiety-producing factors can be more successful than dealing with an anxious episode later on. Some examples of proactive strategies of positive behaviour change are:
 - teaching functional communication skills using an appropriate form of communication, depending on the abilities of the student
 - teaching social skills that are not readily picked up from watching others
 - providing visual supports to clarify instructions, and teach new concepts and skills
 - using social stories to teach behaviour for situations that pose a problem
 - providing clear expectations for behaviour, using appropriate visual aids to help the student to understand what is expected
 - providing a clear schedule and using it to prepare the student for transitions between activities and to prepare for any changes that may occur
 - teaching the student to make choices and providing opportunities for choice within the schedule
 - providing instruction at a level appropriate to the student
 - monitoring the student’s response to the environment and adapting it to reduce the likelihood of anxiety responses before they happen
 - teaching relaxation techniques.
- *Reinforcements* – It is often necessary to develop an incentive or reinforcement system to motivate students to display appropriate behaviour and/or refrain from inappropriate behaviour. In order to be effective, the reinforcers or rewards must be a consequence that increases or maintains a behaviour it follows. Using the Likes and Dislikes Chart (Appendix F, page 183) and the Checklist of School Reinforcers (Appendix G, page 184) in the resource can help identify potential reinforcers for students with ASD.

Slide 135: Types of Reinforcers

There are several different types of reinforcers:

- *Material (or tangible) reinforcers* – This refers to providing the student with a desired item (stamps, stickers, toys, etc.).
- *Primary/edible reinforcers* – This refers to edible or sensory reinforcers.
- *Activity reinforcers* – This refers to allowing the student to engage in a preferred activity.
- *Social reinforcers* – This refers to providing the student with positive attention.
- *Exchangeable reinforcers – token economy* – This refers to providing the student with tokens for displaying appropriate behaviours and removing tokens when negative behaviours are displayed.

Social reinforcers are often considered to be the most natural reinforcement and easiest to deliver in a classroom setting. Food is often considered to be the least natural and the hardest to deliver in a classroom setting. In some cases, when no other effective reinforcers exist, it might be necessary to initially provide the student with ASD with an edible reinforcer. Praise should always be provided to students when activity, edible or material reinforcers are used. Pairing praise and motivating items are more effective as reinforcements.

Slide 136: Reinforcements

This slide illustrates a chart to plot the different types of reactions to different reinforcements. This is the Likes and Dislikes Chart, found in Appendix F, page 183 of the resource.

Activity 14: Reinforcers

Time

15 minutes

Grouping

Pairs

Resources

Slide 137: Identify Reinforcers

Handout 20: Identify Reinforcers

Process

1. In pairs, participants list five reinforcers in each of the following categories, using *Handout 20: Identify Reinforcers*:
 - Material
 - Primary/edible
 - Activity
 - Social
 - Sensory
 - Exchangeable – Token Economy.

Presentation Notes

Slide 138: Decrease Negative Behaviours

- *Try proactive strategies first.*
This has already been discussed.
- *Identify the least restrictive strategies.*
Interventions should always be designed and implemented in a manner that is safe for all parties, and which respects the dignity and basic rights of the student.
- *Develop planned response within the team.*
Responding to negative behaviour should always be well planned in advance.

Slide 139: Three Reactive Strategies

There are three major types of reactive techniques.

- *Reducing attention to the behaviour*
This may be appropriate for minor behaviours. For example, if the student is using a negative behaviour to get attention, the student needs to learn more appropriate ways of gaining attention. Reacting to attention-seeking behaviour may actually reinforce the behaviour. It is important to realize that some behaviours are difficult to ignore in a classroom setting.
- *Redirection*
This is a vital component of any behavioural intervention plan. If a behaviour is unacceptable, the student needs to know what is expected instead. Use of visuals is often helpful. The student needs to also be taught more appropriate alternative behaviours.
- *Removal from reinforcements or timeout*
This can sometimes be an effective strategy when it is used properly and incorporated into an overall plan to promote development of desirable behaviours. If a student is anxious or upset, it may be necessary to remove the child and calm him or her down before any redirection or teaching of alternative behaviours can occur. The purpose of timeout is that the child not receive reinforcement during a specified period. This approach should be combined with positive programming strategies, such as teaching students to recognize when they are becoming anxious and teaching them to independently remove themselves or use an anxiety-reducing strategy. Timeout is a restrictive strategy and should be used cautiously, developed collaboratively with the team and be approved by the responsible administrator. The process should always be documented and outlined in the IPP and behaviour support plan. There are several types of timeouts.
 - Timeout within the classroom. The student is removed from the activity and is allowed to observe but not participate in the activity.
 - Timeout outside the classroom. *It is critical that the student be supervised during that time.*
 - Seclusionary timeout. In some schools timeout rooms are used. Education staff must be aware that there are ethical and legal considerations to this type of timeout, which should be discussed with administration and parents before being implemented.

Remember that students with ASD often prefer to be isolated, so this may not be an effective strategy.

Slide 140: Helping Develop Self-control

Reduce negative behaviours by helping a student gain self-control.

- Identify the behaviour that needs to be reduced.
- Identify the antecedents to the behaviour.
- Identify reinforcers that follow the appropriate behaviour.
- Provide student with visual representation of the desired chain of events and give instructions using the pictures so he or she is familiar with the sequence of antecedent, behaviour and reinforcer.
- Rehearse the sequence before going into a stressful situation.
- Use the sequence whenever appropriate and keep pictures close by.

Slide 141: Developing Self-control in the Classroom

In this example, the student becomes upset and agitated when he walks by a group of other students. The desired behaviour is for the student to get to his desk and open his book to start reading quietly. If the student can do this successfully for 10 minutes, the reinforcement will be that he gets personal music time for a specified time period.

Slide 142: Behaviour Support Plan

Once a functional behavioural assessment has been conducted, it is advised that written documentation of the results of this assessment be prepared in the form of a behaviour support plan. The behaviour support plan can be included in the IPP and should be available to all staff and substitute teachers. This makes it possible to address student needs in a positive, consistent manner. This plan should be developed in consultation with the student's parents and educational team.

- *Key understandings*
- *Antecedent events*
- *Warning signs*
- *Immediate measures*
- *Positive behaviour supports*
 - Communication: functional, reliable ways to communicate
 - Anticipatory clues: give warnings of change
 - Presenting clear directions
 - Allowing for choice making
 - Desensitization and rehearsal strategies (for new places, procedures)
 - Others, such as relaxation training, identifying emotions, etc.
- *Assistance from peers*
 - This is a critical element of a behaviour support plan since peers are an important part of the student's school and social milieu.
- *Reactive plan*
 - Be proactive by responding to the first signs of escalation (whining, crying, pacing, etc.).
 - Plan to handle physical acting out to keep everyone safe.
 - All caregivers must be trained and consistent.
- *Signatures*

Go over the examples of Mike and/or Sonny's behaviour support plans (pages 104–109 in the resource). Discuss any questions/concerns.

Activity 15: IPP – Part Three

Time

45 minutes

Grouping

Pairs or groups of three

Resources

Slide 143: Activity 15: IPP – Part Three

Handout 21: IPP – Part Three

Process

Choice of activities: developing a behaviour support plan **or** completing the case study IPP.

Table groups can choose to develop a behaviour support plan for a real student or for one of the case studies. The groups may also choose to complete the IPP for their case study.

1. Participants sit with their case-study group.
2. Participants may want to review their cases using *Handouts 4A–4D: Case Studies* and *Handout 11: Observation Notes: IPP – Part One: Group Activity*.
3. Participants choose and write short-term objectives and strategies for communication, social interaction, behaviour and learning. The objectives need to be specific, observable and measurable.
4. Participants fill in strategies. These strategies can include instructional approaches already discussed in the morning or specific strategies geared to the specific objective.
5. If the group has time, they may want to practise using one of the learning strategies they recommend in the IPP (for example, they may want to practise a discrete trial or a shaping procedure).

Slide 144: Questions

Following Activity 15, there will be time for sharing and answering questions.