

THE EFFECTS OF CHECK-IN CHECK-OUT ON THE SOCIAL AND ACADEMIC
PLANNING AND OUTCOMES OF AFRICAN -AMERICAN MALES IN AN URBAN
SECONDARY SETTING

by

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ABSTRACT

OZALLE MARIE TOMS. The effects of check-in check-out on the social and academic planning and outcomes of African-American males in an urban secondary setting (Under the direction of DR. GLORIA CAMPBELL-WHATLEY)

According to Planty et al. (2009) in 2006, nearly 3.3 million students in the United States received out of school suspensions, demonstrating that exclusionary discipline is on the rise and a frequently used practice in schools across the country. Research shows that African Americans are suspended at higher rates and are more likely to receive multiple suspensions than students from other racial backgrounds and are in fact, two-to-three times more likely to be suspended than White students across all grade levels (Arcia, 2007; Children's Defense Fund, 1975; Wallace, Goodkind, Wallace, & Bachman, 2008). When examining gender, males are four times more likely than females to receive disciplinary actions (Mendez & Knoff, 2003; Skiba & Peterson, 2000; Imich, 1994). Studies have shown that behaviors such as disobedience, inappropriate language, disrespect, defiance, disruption and excessive noise are the most frequent reasons for office referrals (Imich 1994; McFadden, Marsh, Price, & Hwang, 1992). These studies also show the need for effective strategies to decrease disruptive behaviors. Mentoring programs have been found to be an effective academic and behavioral intervention for African American male youths. Furthermore, mentoring relationships that incorporate PBIS strategies are effective for a student who display disruptive behaviors in the classroom setting and decreases the need for more intensive levels of behavioral support. One specific mentoring intervention that has been used to decrease students' disruptive behavior is Check-in Check-out. Check-in Check-out (CICO) is a type of mentoring

program used at both the elementary and secondary levels. This research-based intervention is a component of positive behavior support and is a secondary level of support for the 5-15% of students who have not responded to instruction on school wide expectations and are at-risk of dropping out. This study utilized a multiple probe across participants design to evaluate participants' performance on the academic planning and social skills checklist, which was used during morning and afternoon mentoring sessions. Results indicated that participants were able to increase their completion of the checklist. In addition, two out of three participants showed an increase in class grades. All of the participants had significant decreases in school disciplinary actions. Recommendations for future research and implications for practice are also addressed.

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DEDICATION

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|---------|--|
| BEP | Behavior Education Program |
| CICO | Check in/Check out |
| DRC | Daily Report Card |
| EBD | Emotional and Behavioral Disturbance |
| FBA | Functional Behavior Assessment |
| ODR | Office Discipline Referrals |
| PBIS | Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports |
| SW-PBIS | School-Wide Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports |

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

School systems today are faced with the task of providing effective practices that enhance the success of all students, regardless of race, academic ability, or socio-economic background. According to Planty et al. (2009) in 2006, nearly 3.3 million students in the United States received out of school suspensions, demonstrating that exclusionary discipline is a frequently used practice in schools across the country.

McCurdy, Kunsch, and Reibstein (2007) found that schools located in urban communities face a greater challenge because of factors related to drug or alcohol abuse, lack of school resources, neighborhood decline, poverty, and a greater number of students with problem behavior and other community related issues in urban settings. In fact, urban schools are more likely to use out-of-school suspensions and other exclusionary punishment techniques, when compared to schools in rural and suburban communities (Adams, 1992). One definition of an urban school is: (a) the school is located in a urban neighborhood rather than a rural, small town, or suburban area, (b) the school has a relatively high rate of poverty (as measured by Free and Reduced Lunch data provided by that state's education department), (c) the school has a relatively high percentage of students of color (as reported by that state's education department), (d) the school has a relatively high percentage of students who are Limited English Proficient (as reported by

that state's education department), and (e) the school has been designated as "High Need" by that state's education department (Russo, 2004).

Urban schools are largely comprised of African American students (Tucker, Dixon, & Griddine, 2010). Research also shows that African Americans are suspended at higher rates and are more likely to receive multiple suspensions than students from other racial backgrounds and are in fact, two-to-three times more likely to be suspended than White students across all grade levels (Arcia, 2007; Children's Defense Fund, 1975; Wallace, Goodkind, Wallace, & Bachman, 2008). Research also indicates that students with behavioral disabilities have poor academic achievement, have more absences, are retained more often compared to students without disabilities, and have higher suspension/expulsion rates (e.g., Bullis & Cheney, 1999; Greenbaum et al., 1996; Wagner, 1995; Sutherland & Singh, 2004). According to Zhang, Katsiyannis, and Herbst (2004) approximately 20% of students suspended are students with exceptionalities. This alarming percentage is twice the national proportion of students with exceptionalities. Students' suspension and/or expulsion often results in a decrease in students' engagement in school, academic failure, and grade retention, which contributes to an increase in students dropping out of school. This dissertation sought to explore the effectiveness of a one to one mentoring program, in which students met with a mentor twice daily and received constant feedback from classroom teachers. The goal was to investigate the effects of Check-in Check-out on the social and academic planning and outcomes of African American males in an urban secondary setting.

Disproportionality of exclusionary practices of African American males. The problem of disproportionate rates of suspensions primarily affects African American

males as opposed to African American females. When examining gender, males are four times more likely than females to receive disciplinary actions (Imich, 1994; Mendez & Knoff, 2003; Skiba & Peterson, 2000). Further, it's important to note that African Americans are 2.5 times more likely to be expelled from suburban schools than White students (Rausch & Skiba, 2004). A study conducted by Mendez, Knoff, and Ferron (2002) revealed that African American males were suspended at a rate higher than any other group at the elementary, middle, and high school levels. The focus of this study included a high school in an urban setting.

Although exclusion is the most common disciplinary response to problem behavior in secondary schools (Skiba & Knesting, 2001; Skiba & Peterson, 2000), there are several concerns about its effectiveness. First, many times students are repeatedly suspended for the same violation, demonstrating that suspensions are not proactive and do not prevent future offenses (De Ridder, 1991; Mayer, 1995). Second, out-of-school suspensions cause students who are already academically challenged to have even less success. Third, as already noted, culturally and linguistically diverse students, especially male, minority, and academically and behaviorally challenged students, are suspended more often than their peers, which calls into question the objectivity and fairness of out-of-school suspensions (Foster, 1986; Kunjufu, 1986; Townsend, 2000). Finally, some researchers have been prompted to conclude that suspension may act more as a reward for students rather than a punisher (Atkins et al., 2002; Tobin, Sugai, & Colvin, 1996).

Suspension of students with disabilities. As previously stated, African American males are suspended at higher rates and are more likely to receive multiple suspensions than students from other racial backgrounds (Arcia, 2007; Children's Defense Fund,

1975). Likewise, research indicates that African American males are also overrepresented and over-identified with Emotional and Behavioral Disturbance (EBD) (Coutinho, Oswald, & Best, 2000; National Research Council, 2002; Skiba, Polini-Staudinger, Gallini, Simmons, & Feggins-Azziz, 2006). The findings of these studies would leave one to conclude that the impact of suspensions may be especially severe for African American male students with disabilities. According to the General Accounting Office (2001) students with disabilities were three times more likely than their non-disabled peers to be involved in violent behavior within schools (e.g. 50 incidents per 1,000 students for students with disabilities versus 15 incidents for same-aged peers). One major concern is the differential treatment of students with disabilities, which has been addressed in the 2004 reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act that granted school administrators increased flexibility in disciplining students with disabilities.

As mentioned, exclusionary practices significantly affect African Americans, particularly males. African American males with a disability are at an even greater risk. According to Zhang, Katsiyannis, and Herbst (2004), approximately 20% of students suspended are students receiving special education services. School exclusion has been associated with poor educational outcomes for individual students, including an increased threat of dropping out of school (Brooks, Schiraldi, & Ziedenberg, 2000; Civil Rights Project, 2000; Skiba, Peterson & Williams, 1997; Suh, Suh, & Houston, 2007). Students' suspension and/or expulsion often results in a decrease in students' engagement in school, academic failure, and grade retention, which contributes to an increase in students

dropping out of school. Collectively, these problems have a negative effect on the schooling experience of African Americans, particularly at the secondary level.

Negative Effects of Suspension

Christle et al. (2007) conducted a study using both quantitative and qualitative analyses to determine school characteristics that were related to the dropout rate and to identify characteristics of high schools with low dropout rates. Their research revealed that students, who had a prior history of suspension, had an increased likelihood of dropping out by 78%. They also found that schools with high dropout rates had significantly higher suspension rates, a higher percentage of students from low socioeconomic (SES) backgrounds, and higher retention rates than schools with low dropout rates.

In the same year Suh and Suh (2007), conducted a data analysis using data from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NLSY97) to investigate the most critical factors and predictors that contribute to the dropout rate. Examining 6,192 students, they found that 5,244 students completed high school with a diploma or GED and 948 dropped out of school prematurely. These numbers equate to a 15% percent dropout rate. The study revealed 16 statistically significant predictors of student dropouts. Of the 16 predictors, a previous history of suspension was the one that had the third highest effect on dropout rates as it increased the probability of that student dropping out by 78%. Number of days absent from school ranked sixth, which is an obvious correlation to out-of-school suspension.

In an earlier study, Bowditch (1993) examined disciplinary practices in a low-income, majority African American, urban high school and their effect on high school

retention and completion. After conducting observations and interviews of students, staff and personnel, he found that when students were sent to the office for a disciplinary problem, they were not questioned about the offense; rather they were questioned about their grades, previous suspensions, and attendance. If students had a prior suspension history, they were labeled as a “trouble maker.” This phenomenon sets the tone for negative school experiences and leads to dropping out.

North Carolina suspensions. North Carolina (NC) has the third highest suspension rate in the United States (Owen, 2010). More than 300,000 short-term suspensions (10 days or less) and approximately 4,000 long-term suspensions are issued yearly to students in NC public schools (School Discipline Report, 2010). State statistics revealed that for the 2008-2009 school year, the district enforced 5,225 long-term suspensions, leaving students without access to educational instruction for months at a time. The number of suspensions has doubled in the past 7 years. Nearly 100 students are permanently expelled from North Carolina’s public school system. It has been reported that 9th graders commit most of the reportable acts and receive the greatest number of short-term suspensions. Among racial groups in high school, American Indians have the highest crime rate, followed by African American students with males committing crimes more than three times the rate of females (DPI, 2010).

African American boys bear the brunt of the impact of the exclusions, exacerbating the achievement gap fueling what is known as the “school-to-prison channel” (Executive Summary, 2010). Bernburg, Krohn, and Rivera (2006) found that students who are repeatedly suspended can become stigmatized in the eyes of peers and thus be more likely to be associated with other students who indisputably engaged in

delinquent behavior. These students may also use the delinquent label when developing their self-identities, and subsequently behave to confirm the delinquent role that has been assigned to them (Heimer & Matsueda, 1994; Kaplan & Johnson, 1991; Klein, 1986). As a result, labeling theory suggests schools that discipline African American youth disproportionately create a self-fulfilling prophecy where they become delinquent at higher rates than their White counterparts. Nicholson-Crotty, Birchmeier, and Valentine (2009) conducted a study to explore the extent to which the disciplinary practices of schools explained the disproportionate minority contact with juvenile courts. The authors utilized a multivariate analysis of data collected on African American and Caucasian youth aged 10–17 in 53 Missouri counties. The findings revealed that racial disproportion in out-of-school suspensions was strongly associated with similar levels of disproportion in juvenile court referrals. One implication mentioned was the need for secondary school-based programs that offer alternatives to suspension and helps alleviate racial disproportion in the juvenile justice system.

While gender and race are important characteristics to consider when examining suspensions in North Carolina, it is also imperative to consider the students with disabilities who fall into this category. Children with exceptionalities represent 14% of the total school population of North Carolina (DPI, 2010). Students with disabilities received 65,089, or 22.2% of the total 308,107 short-term suspensions in 2008-09 (DPI, 2010).

Several factors contribute to out-of-school suspensions but most behaviors resulting in suspensions began with negative behaviors displayed in the classroom, resulting in one or more office referrals. Problem behavior can be a vital barrier to

academic achievement. Class disruptions cause distractions for both students and teachers from instructional time. According to Scott and Barrett (2004), for each discipline office referral received, a student spends 20 min outside of the classroom. Studies have shown that behaviors such as disobedience, inappropriate language, disrespect, defiance, disruption and excessive noise are the most frequent reasons for office referrals (Imich 1994; McFadden, Marsh, Price, & Hwang, 1992). These studies also show that there is need for effective strategies to decrease disruptive behaviors.

Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports

“Mattering to others in our lives is the experience of moving through life being noticed by and feeling special to others who also matter to us” (Tucker, Dixon, & Griddine, 2010, p.53). Mattering has been described as a central, vital, and continual human need based on strong biological and psychological processes (Dixon, 2006; Patrick, Knee, Canevello, & Lonsbary, 2007). The importance of mattering to others has as high of an importance as safety needs and basic physiological needs (Maslow, 1968). Based on the recent research concerning mattering, students' mattering to others at school perhaps relates to a key feature of healthy school climate, most often called school cohesion, which has been found to be strongly associated with increased academic achievement and behavioral outcomes (Balfanz & Byrnes, 2006; Chen, 2007; MacNeil, Prater, & Busch, 2009). When adolescences are questioned by researchers about reasons they left school, the common response is academic failure or lack of school connection (Swain-Bradway, 2009).

The use of positive behavior interventions and supports (PBIS) strategies may be one way of addressing the need of mattering, decreasing high suspension rates,

decreasing dropout rates, and increasing the academic achievement of African American students at the secondary level. Research has indicated that PBIS positively impacts and significantly lessens office discipline referrals and increases academic engagement and outcomes (i.e., standardized assessment scores and grades) of students in over 6,000 U.S. schools (public, preschool, alternative, and juvenile justice settings) in which PBIS is implemented (Danielson, Cobb, Sanchez, & Horner, 2007; Nelson et al., 2009).

According to Sugai and Horner (2009) “successful learning environments most often are characterized as preventative, predictable, positive, instructional, safe, and responsive for all students and staff across all school settings and activities” (p. 307).

Theory and PBIS. Applied Behavior Analysis (ABA) is a science that involves utilizing modern behavioral learning theory to modify behaviors (Cooper, Heron, & Heward, 2007). Behavior analysts focus on the observable relationship of behavior to the environment. By functionally assessing the relationship between a targeted behavior and the environment, the methods of ABA can be used to change that behavior. Researchers in ABA range from behavioral intervention methods to basic research which investigates the rules by which humans adapt and maintain behavior. PBIS has its roots in ABA. ABA contributed a conceptual framework relative to behavior change and a number of assessment and intervention strategies that are cornerstones of PBIS. There are additional features that are critical to PBIS. These include: (a) placing a high value on embracing person-centered planning approaches when addressing problem behaviors, (b) examining a broad range of variables affecting behavior, (c) making changes in natural life environments and multiple settings to influence behavior, (d) adopting non-aversive intervention techniques to help an individual change his/her behavior, and (e) focusing on

producing positive changes in quality of life for the individual with problem behavior and his/her family (U.S Department of Education, 2000).

In addition, PBIS is mandated by IDEA which requires that "in the case of a child whose behavior impedes his or her learning or the learning of others," a student's IEP team while developing an IEP (initial development, review, or revision), is required to "consider, when appropriate, strategies, including positive behavioral interventions, strategies, and supports to address that behavior" (20U.S.C. § 1414 (d)(3)(B)(i) (1999); see also 34 C.F.R. §§300.346, 300.121 (1999); 64 Fed. Reg. 12,618-12, 62 (1999)). PBIS is considered to be an applied science that uses educational methods to assist individuals increase more socially appropriate behavior while also facilitating change in the broader societal systems that influence the individual's behavior and general quality of life (Carr et al., 2002). PBIS is a three-tiered continuum of support that addresses students of varying needs (Walker et al., 1996).

The purpose of the first tier, referred to as primary, is to ensure that students experience a universal set of behaviors. At this level specific acceptable social behaviors are taught and positively reinforced across all school settings. Proactive measures are utilized and intended to prevent the development of problem behaviors. The second tier, the secondary or targeted level, is particularly for students who display behaviors who need more than primary interventions. More intensive interventions are used to support students at this level. These supports may include (a) check in/out systems, (b) behavioral contracting, and (c) targeted social skills instruction. The last tier, tertiary interventions, includes specialized interventions for those students whose behaviors are unresponsive to

primary and secondary-level interventions; highly individualized supports characterize this level. Each tier is briefly described below.

Primary prevention. Primary prevention is a universal level of support that includes district-wide, school-wide, and classroom-wide systems. Reducing the occurrences of new problem behavior displayed by students and academic difficulties is the purpose of this level. The goal is also to increase as many appropriate behaviors as possible. Primary prevention is intended for students without serious behaviors and is represented by 80% to 90% of the schools population (OSEP, 2005; Sugai, Horner et al., 2000). According to Gresham (2004), every student receives universal interventions on a weekly or daily base. Universal prevention techniques may include bully prevention programs, social skills training, school-wide discipline plans, and effective classroom rules and routines (Gresham, 2004; Martella & Nelson, 2003). Even with primary level of supports being properly implemented, some students require additional support.

Secondary prevention. Students who do not respond to primary level prevention efforts are those who are considered at-risk for problem behavior and/or academic skills deficits. These students represent 5% to 15% of a school's population (OSEP, 2005; Sugai, Horner et al., 2000; Sugai, Sprague, et al., 2000). The reduction of current cases of problem behavior and academic failure is the purpose of this secondary level of support. Secondary prevention practices include conflict resolution training, behavior contracts, self-management strategies, and remedial academic programs (Gresham, 2004; Martella & Nelson, 2003). Common strategies often used at this level are: (a) Check-in /Check-out or revised versions of it; such as Check and Connect or Check, Connect, and Expect, (b) behavior contracts, or (c) social skills training. There is still a group of students, 5% of a

school's population, who require and are best served with a more intensive, individualized level of support.

Tertiary prevention. The most intensive and individualized level of prevention is the tertiary level. It is intended for students who display chronic academic and/or behavioral difficulties. Most students who require this level of support are excluded from school because the behaviors they display impede learning and are dangerous or disruptive to others. According to Gresham (2004), these students account for 40% to 50% of behavioral disruptions. In addition to diminishing the frequency and intensity of this type of behavior, the goal of tertiary level prevention is also to increase the students' adaptive skills. Conducting a functional behavior assessment (FBA) and creating/implementing a behavior support plan for the individual student are the main strategies used at the tertiary level.

Check-In Check-Out as a Secondary Intervention

Mentoring programs have been found to be an effective academic and behavioral intervention for African American male youths (Campbell-Whatley, Algozzine, & Obiakor, 1997). Furthermore, mentoring relationships that incorporate PBIS strategies are effective for students who display disruptive behaviors in the classroom setting and decrease the need for more intensive levels of behavioral support (Crone, Horner & Hawken, 2004; Todd, Campbell, Meyer, & Horner, 2008). The literature demonstrates that this type of intervention is also effective at both the elementary (Cheney, Stage, Hawken, Lynass, Mielenz, & Waugh, 2009; Lehr, Sinclair, & Christenson, 2004) and secondary levels (Sinclair, Christenson, & Thurlow, 2005; Sinclair, Christenson, Evelo, & Hurley, 1998).

One specific mentoring intervention that has been used to decrease students' disruptive behavior is Check-in Check-out (Todd, Campbell, Meyer, & Horner, 2008). Check-in Check-out (CICO) is a type of mentoring program used at both the elementary and secondary levels. This research-based intervention is a component of positive behavior support and is a secondary level of support for the 5-15% of students who have not responded to instruction on school wide expectations and are at-risk of dropping out. According to Crone, Horner, and Hawken (2004).

The structural goals of the approach are to: (a) increase antecedent prompts for appropriate behavior, (b) increase contingent adult feedback, (c) improve the daily structure for students throughout their school day, and (d) improve feedback to families about student behavior (p.2).

CICO is also referred to as the Behavior Education Program (BEP) in the literature. Students who participate in the CICO program checks in or meets with a designated adult twice during the day for about 15 min each session. The first check-in occurs in the morning and involves developing behavioral goals. The student carries around a daily report card (DRC) that includes the behavioral goals and then checks-out with the same adult at the end of the school day (Crone et al., 2004). The system can be used to allow frequent opportunities for: (a) teachers to provide feedback about the student's behavior during the day, (b) students to review their behavioral goals with a designated adult at the end of the day, and (c) parents to be involved by reviewing and signing the DRC. Reinforcers are linked to points earned by using the DRC. The length of commitment to program is individualized and based on weekly review of data. The use of this intervention has shown positive results (Crone, Horner & Hawken, 2004).

Hawken, MacLeod, and Rawlings (2007) evaluated the effects of the BEP on problem behavior with 12 elementary school students. Results indicated that the BEP was implemented with high fidelity, led to a decrease in office discipline referrals for the majority of students who received the intervention, and had high social validity ratings.

In the same year using a case study, McCurdy, Kunch, and Reibstein (2007) implemented BEP with eight elementary students attending grades first through fifth. The primary dependent variable was the percentage of points earned each day on a daily behavior report. When defined 80% as meeting mastery, 50% of the students exhibited successful outcomes, 25% moderate successful outcomes, and 25% displayed undesirable unsuccessful outcomes. According to the authors, BEP represents a promising secondary strategy for urban schools with large numbers of students displaying at-risk behaviors. Although CICO has proven to be effective in addressing inappropriate behaviors displayed by students, the function of the behavior should be identified prior to developing behavior interventions.

Self-management. PBIS strategies are seen as precautionary secondary level interventions that specifically address two risk factors associated with suspensions and high school dropout: academic failure and problem behavior. Bowers (2002) conducted a non-experimental evaluation with 11 junior high school students and found that reductions in problem behavior were associated with improved academic performance for students receiving support. One way to incorporate academic supports with CICO implementation is to teach self-management strategies for organization. Self-management is defined as a person acting in some way in order to change subsequent behavior

(Cooper et al., 2007) and involves strategies used to manage and direct own behavior in settings where other controls are either not present or feasible (Gifford et al., 1984).

Students can be taught to manage a variety of social and academic behaviors with the use of self-management interventions. The behavior(s) that are selected for change with a specific intervention are known as the target behavior(s). Typically, when a student is taught how to use a self-management intervention, only one behavior or a set of related behaviors are targeted for remediation at a time. Some examples of target behaviors include, but are not limited to, attention to task (e.g., Reid, 1996), academic productivity (e.g., Harris, Friedlander, Saddler, Frizzelle, & Graham, 2005), academic accuracy (e.g., Maag, Reid, & DiGangi, 1993), homework completion (e.g., Gureasko-Moore et al., 2007), disruptive behavior (e.g., Lam, Cole, Shapiro, & Bambara, 1994), and various social behaviors such as peer communication and play (e.g., Marchant et al., 2007). Educators can teach their students self-management techniques to help them regulate a range of, or selection of their own, academic and/or social behaviors.

Many of the demands at the secondary level require self-management skills. For example, in order to meet classroom grading requirements students must be able to; (a) autonomously complete class and homework assignments correctly and in a timely manner, (b) efficiently plan for and take test, (c) organize and maintain materials, (d) monitor due dates, and (e) effectively seek assistance and feedback from their teacher. There are also non-academic self-management strategies that can be incorporated into the implementation of CICO, such as following class rules, arriving to class on time, and adhering to the expectations of the school. Teaching self-management skills is a valuable addition to the implementation of CICO at the secondary level.

Functional Behavior Assessments

Function-based approaches to behavior intervention planning are based on the practices and systems of positive behavior intervention support (PBIS; Sugai et al., 2000). PBIS have three general characteristics: They (a) utilize a person-centered approach, (b) meet students' needs by employing individualized supports, and (c) accomplish significant outcomes for students receiving support (Anderson & Freeman, 2000; Carr et al., 2002). To provide an individualized approach the function of the behavior must be identified; this can be accomplished by conducting a Functional Behavior Assessment (FBA).

Amendments to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), which were mandated in 1997, required that schools use function-based intervention plans that focus on positive behavior strategies. In fact, the use of FBAs have shown to be effective in reduction of problem behaviors and increasing inappropriate behaviors of students who come from diverse settings (Reid & Nelson, 2002; Ervin et al., 2001).

An FBA includes a four step process that involves: (a) conducting interviews and direction observations to obtain information about a student's behaviors and background, (b) developing a hypothesis about the functional relationship to determine if the student is trying to obtain something or escapes something, (c) conducting functional analysis to manipulate selected variables to test the hypothesis; and (d) creating, implementing, and assessing appropriate interventions to teach the student more socially acceptable alternate behaviors (Herzinger & Campbell, 2007).

According to Horner (1994) "the primary purpose of an FBA is to lead to comprehensive, effective, and efficient interventions that will enhance students' success

in their current environment" (p. 402). Studies have been conducted to determine the effectiveness of FBAs. First, Payne, Scott and Conroy (2007) conducted a study to investigate the efficiency and efficacy of function-based interventions as compared to traditional interventions that was not function-based. A multi-treatment, single subject design was used to compare interventions across four students. Results showed strong increases of problem behavior with each introduction of non-function-based intervention. When function-based interventions were introduced, there were clear and immediate decreases in problem behavior.

In an earlier study, Lo and Cartledge (2006) investigated the effects of conducting FBAs before creation and implementation of behavior intervention plans (BIP). Four urban, African American male, elementary students participated in the study. Based on the results of FBAs, interventions were developed that included self-management, differential reinforcement, and teaching an appropriate replacement behavior. Results indicated that there were reductions in the levels of off-task behavior for all students when function-based behavior intervention plans were used, and functional relationships were established between the function-based interventions and decreases in the participants' off-task behavior. There were also positive outcomes for replacement behaviors displayed by the participants.

Finally, Ingram, Palmer and Sugai (2005) examined if behavior intervention plans based on a FBA were more effective than behavior intervention plans not based on FBA. An ABCBC design was used to demonstrate a functional relationship between student responses and function-based and non-function based behavior intervention plans. The

results revealed that the use of FBA-based intervention plans showed a lower number of problem behaviors being displayed.

Limitations of Prior Research

Many of the studies investigating the effectiveness of CICO were performed at the elementary level (Fairbanks, Sugai, Guardino, & Lathrop, 2007; Hawken, MacLeod, Rawlings, 2007; Todd, Campbell, Meyer, & Horner, 2008). Although many of the studies included participants who were African American males, few specifically targeted African American males (McCurdy, Kunsch, & Reibstein, 2007; Sinclair, Christenson, & Thurlow, 2005). There are no studies at the secondary level that focus on specifically using CICO with African American males. In contrast, the ethnicity and gender of the participants and ethnicity and gender of the facilitators have not been identified in prior research and may be a factor in the success of an intervention.

Previously, researchers have utilized different primary dependent variables. Several have measured disruptive behavior by using direct observations or teacher rating scales (Todd, Campbell, Meyer, & Horner, 2008) or focused on office discipline referrals (Hawken, MacLeod, & Rawlings, 2007). The current study will contribute to the literature by focusing on the increase of students' academic achievement and the reduction of office discipline referrals, which will reflect disruptive behavior.

Only two studies found in the literature mentioned conducting a FBA prior to or during the implementation of CICO with the exception of one study (Anderson & Campbell, 2008). A study conducted by March and Horner (2002) incorporated FBAs but not until students were not responsive to the CICO intervention. Further, some studies have stated utilizing the FBA process but only used the interview portion of the FBA

(FACTS; March et al., 2004). The present study will respond to these limitations by combining a number of variables. First, the study will incorporate the FBA process which includes: (a) conducting interviews of students, teachers, and parents, (b) conducting observations in the classroom setting, and (c) completing the competing behavior model, prior to collecting baseline data.

There is a vital need for the selection criteria of participants to more specifically and consistently stated in the CICO literature. Selection criteria should include: (a) the type of behavior ratings used if any, (b) the range participants must fall within on behavior rating scales (c) the number of office discipline referrals received by students who are participating, and (d) if there are any PBIS strategies currently being implemented in the school (Fairbanks et al., 2007). It is essential to know more about participants in order to replicate studies appropriately. The limitations discussed above will be addressed in the current study.

Summary

School systems today are challenged with the overwhelming task of maintaining safe and orderly schools. This task is even greater in urban settings and many times resort in school systems using suspensions or exclusionary practices at high rates. African American males and students with disabilities are impacted by exclusionary practices more than other diverse group (Arcia, 2007, Children's Defense Fund, 1975). The use of suspension has not proven to be effective in preventing inappropriate behaviors or its reoccurrences. Negative effects of suspension include students developing poor academics, dropping out of school, and experiencing the crippling effects of being stigmatized. Positive behavioral intervention strategies can be used to

decrease students' disruptive behaviors; as a result, dropout and suspension rates are decreased. The Check-in Check-out method is one PBIS strategy, at the secondary level, that can be utilized within the PBIS framework. Research has indicated positive effects in decreasing students' disruptive behavior and office discipline referrals (Hawken et al., 2007; Todd, Campbell et al., 2008). A major limitation of previous research is not using FBAs to determine the function of students' disruptive behavior. It is imperative that functional behavioral assessments are conducted prior to creating and implementing behavioral interventions. This study will utilize FBAs by: (a) conducting interviews of students, teachers, and parents, (b) conducting observations in the classroom setting, and (c) completing the competing behavior model prior to collecting baseline data.

Purpose of Study and Research Questions

The components of the present study's treatment package (a combination of strategies that comprises the independent variable) is similar to the treatment packages used by other researchers (Hawken et al., 2007; McCurdy et al., 2007; Todd et al., 2008). Several components were incorporated: (a) daily mentoring with a facilitator, (b) goal setting, (c) constant feedback from classroom teachers, (d) consideration of behavioral functions of the African American participants, (e) mini social skills activities, (f) potential to earn tangible rewards, and (g) parent involvement. The purpose of this study was to extend the study conducted by Todd, Campbell, Meyer and Horner (2008) by investigating the effects of check-in check-out on the social and academic planning and outcomes of African American males in an urban secondary setting.

This study answered the following research questions:

1. To what extent did the Check-in Check-out mentoring program improve participant's execution of social skills as an alternative to noncompliant or disruptive behavior during mentoring session discussions?
2. To what extent did the Check-in Check-out mentoring program improve participant's execution of daily academic planning components during mentoring session discussions?
3. To what extent did the use of Check-in Check-out increase students' academic achievement?
4. To what extent did the use of Check-in Check-out decrease students' office discipline referrals?
5. To what extent did the use of Check-in Check-out decrease students' out of school suspensions?
6. What are the perceptions of teachers, students, parents, and facilitators of the Check-in Check-out implementation and outcomes?

Significance of the Study

This study added to the research base in multiple ways. First, this study added to the efficacy of using function-based interventions over more traditional methods of classroom discipline that do not address the function of an individual's behavior. Second, the study augmented the ability to generalize CICO to a new population of students by targeting secondary African American males, in an urban setting, who are at-risk for or identified as EBD. In particular, this study provided support for the use of CICO as a practical approach to addressing problem behavior and aiding in preventing

disproportional representation of these students in disciplinary referrals and suspension. Third, because the interventions were implemented by school faculty, this study provided support for the practicality of teachers and faculty acting as the primary interventionist using CICO. Furthermore, collecting procedural fidelity data across all phases of the CICO intervention offers additional support to the use of classroom teachers and faculty to implement CICO with high fidelity.

Limitations/Delimitations

This study sought to evaluate the effects of Check-in Check-out on disruptive behavior of African American male students at-risk for or with EBD. Findings are critical to define the limits or boundaries of the current study so that readers may infer results from this study correctly. First, the study was conducted using single-subject methodology. With these designs the ability to generalize findings to populations other than those examined in this study is limited. However, the internal validity of this study is strengthened through the use of quality indicators as outlined by Horner et al. (2005) for this type of research. Replications of the study with other populations also allow for broader generalizations. A second limitation is that the study was conducted only with high school students in general education classrooms, which affects the generalization of results to students in other settings.

Definitions

The terms defined below are used throughout the description of related literature and methodology of the study. Knowledge of these terms is critical in fully understanding the study's purpose and potential contributions to the research base.

African American students: This term describes a very diverse group of people in American society. They are made up of different ethnic backgrounds that consist of: (a) the Caribbean Culture, (b) the African Culture, and (c) the American Black Experience. (Cohen & Grace, 1992; Cohen, 1993)

The Check-In/Check-Out (CICO): intervention is a secondary intervention used within School-Wide Positive Behavior Support. The elements of CICO systems have been used in schools for many years under an array of names. CICO revolves around the use of a Daily Progress Report. Students check-in with school personnel in the morning, receive feedback throughout the day, and check out with school personnel in the afternoon. CICO is also referred to in the literature as The Behavior Education Program.

Disproportionality: in general, disproportionate representation, or disproportionality, refers to the over- or under-representation of a given population group. The term is often defined by racial and ethnic backgrounds, but can also include socioeconomic status, national origin, English proficiency, gender, and sexual orientation in a specific population category (Patton, 1998).

Disruptive behavior: behavior will be defined as: (a) paying attention to other stimuli such as, playing or attending to objects in desk or other instructional items Ponderosa; (b) annoying other students by making faces, giggling, touching, making noises, tapping or hitting on desk, throwing or manipulating objects; (c) talking or having a conversation during teacher instruction; (d) getting out of seat without permission or leaving the assigned area; (e) finger sucking; (f) spitting; (g) note writing; (h) scribbling or picture drawing; (i) tipping or moving chair to bring legs off floor; and

(j) calling out, which includes, not raising hand when teacher asks a question, before another student responds, or before teacher answers question; (Lambert et al., 2006).

Facilitator: an adult who assumes the primary responsibility for maintaining all records, managing the daily check-in/check-out procedure, and providing the reward at the end of the day.

Fidelity: the extent to which an intervention is applied exactly as planned and described and no other unplanned variables are administered inadvertently along with the planned intervention. Also called procedural fidelity or treatment integrity (Cooper et al., 2007).

Function: the purpose or the “why” behind an individual’s behavior rather than the topography or physical form of a behavior (Gresham et al., 2001).

Function-based: based on the results of information gathered and analyzed through conducting a functional behavioral assessment in which the function or purpose of behavior has been taken into account (e.g., function-based intervention)

Functional behavior assessment (FBA): a systematic and multi-dimension process for collecting information on environmental events that reliably predict and maintain problem behaviors across time (Scott, Nelson, & Zabala, 2003; Sugai et al., 2000)

Emotional behavioral disturbance (EBD): The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) amendments of 2004 defines the disability category of emotional behavioral disturbance as “a condition exhibiting one or more of the following characteristics over a long period of time and to a marked degree that adversely affects a child’s educational performance: (a) an inability to learn which cannot be explained by intellectual, sensory, or health factors, (b) an inability to build or maintain satisfactory

interpersonal relationships with peers and teachers, (c) inappropriate types of behavior or feelings under normal circumstances, (d) a general pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression, (e) a tendency to develop physical symptoms or fears associated with personal or school problems....includes schizophrenia....does not apply to children who are socially maladjusted, unless it is determined that they have an emotional behavioral disturbance” (IDEA, 2004, § 300.8 [a][4][i]).

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the literature relevant to the negative effects of the disproportionality of African American male students, the dilemmas that African American face in the context of school in the United States, mentoring supports that have been found to be effective for African American males and one specific program that will be utilized in this study. The first section examines African American students who are at-risk for emotional behavioral disturbance and disproportionality. This section also briefly reviews literature on the lack of connection at-risk students has with the school environment. The second section presents the literature on mentoring programs that have been found to be effective on academic achievement, problem behavior, and social skill deficits of students who are considered to be at-risk. The last section describes Check-in Check-out, a daily, one-to-one mentoring program. There are two other versions of this program that notes recognition and will also be discussed. This section also discusses the use of daily report cards.

African American Students at-risk for Emotional Disturbance and Disproportionality Definition of At-Risk

According to Gay (2000), the majority of students identified as at-risk are African American. The term at-risk was defined by Slavin and Madden (2004) as having one or more characteristics that include teen pregnancy, substance abuse, poor attendance, low SES or poverty, retention in grade level, or behavioral problems. These factors are also closely linked with dropping out of school. Students who were labeled at-risk often face

exceptional challenges, such as abuse, poverty, or lack of parental guidance, as young children. Generally, children are considered at-risk if they are likely to fail, either in school or in life (Frymier, & Gansneder, 2001).

Contextual Factors of Urban Learners

Students who come from high-poverty, urban communities often deal with contextual factors that inevitably create barriers that impede their ability to reach their full potential (Kozol, 1991; Payne, 2005). Some of these factors include: (a) rearing in a single parent home, (b) having a young, single mother, (c) high exposure to violent crime, prostitution, and abuse of drugs and alcohol, and (d) living near environmental contaminants (e.g., chemical plants, waste incineration facilities in poor communities). Attending school should place students on an "even playing field," but many times schools in urban communities have overcrowded classrooms, insufficient resources, computers without Internet access, or limited funds for teacher supplies (Haberman, 2005; Kozol, 1991; Kozol, 2007). Ultimately, the complicated conditions of urban schools and the challenging circumstances of the students lead to gaps in academic performance when compared to peers in more "privileged" schools such as middle class or suburban communities).

The Achievement Gap between Minority and White students

The achievement gap refers to the difference between the average performances of African Americans and that of Whites on standardized tests (NCES, 2011).

It is not acceptable for certain groups to continually underachieve on all measures of performance. Society has tried to blame the underperformance of African American and Latino students on the culture of these groups and their socioeconomic status. But the gap

can even be found between White students and Black students who come from similar socioeconomic backgrounds (Jordan, 2010). Perhaps the problem lies in the education that is offered to these students. The achievement gap serves as evidence that our society is systematically failing to serve minorities. In Perry, Steele, and Hilliard (2003) essay format book, *Young, Gifted, and Black*, Perry discusses the issue of the achievement gap, dilemmas that African American students encounter in the educational system, and what schools can do to bridge this gap.

In Part One, “Freedom for Literacy and Literacy for Freedom: The African American Philosophy of Education,” Perry reviews nine narratives in which people, ranging from Frederick Douglass to Maya Angelou, emphasize the importance of education and literacy in their lives. These narratives show the high value African Americans have placed on education throughout history, and the academic achievement that was made in spite of many societal constraints placed on them.

In Part Two, “Competing Theories of Group Achievement,” Perry examines two theories that attempt to explain and predict the school performance of African Americans. The two explanatory models are the cultural difference theory and the theory of social mobility. According to Perry (2003), “cultural difference theorists argue that the disproportionate school failure of African Americans and other racial minorities can be attributed at best to a mismatch and at worst to a conflict between a student’s home culture and the culture of the school” (P. 53). This theory emphasizes the difference between African American English, also known as Ebonics, and standard edited English and the problems this dichotomy creates for African Americans in our society. Teachers often do not understand Ebonics, and, as a result, they are seen as intellectually inferior.

This issue creates a strong argument for the use of culturally responsive teaching practices in order to promote high achievement (Campbell-Whatley, O’Farrow, & Booker, 2011). The social mobility model suggests that domestic minorities are classified as either an “immigrant minority” or a “castelike minority.” These categories affect their performance in school. African Americans are “castelike minorities” because they were brought here against their will and have been forced into a castelike position in American society. They believe that racial barriers will always keep them from getting ahead, regardless of education and ability. These two theories, despite their differences, explain the ideology of Black intellectual and cultural inferiority, which hinders achievement.

In the final section of her essay, Perry outlines a theory for achievement, “Achieving in Post- Civil Rights America: The Outline of a Theory.” She provides very specific directions for actions for achievement in school. The underlying theme is that schools must create a strong culture of achievement. This culture must be able to counter the ideology of Black intellectual incompetence. According to Perry (2003), "schools must hold all students to the same high standards as majority students" (p. 100). "They should also create an environment that positively affirms Black students’ identities as African Americans" (p.101). Perry also argues that “African American’s castelike status and the larger society’s ideology about their intellectual competence create a distinctive set of dilemmas for African American youth and even adults” (p. 105). She stated, African Americans have three social identities that they must overcome in order to achieve in school. These are their “identity as members of a castelike group, their identity as members of mainstream society, and their identity as members of a cultural group in

opposition to which whiteness historically and contemporarily continues to be defined” (Perry, 2003, p. 104).

African Americans must also have a firm grounding in their identity as a member of a racial caste group. This will allow them to interpret the injustices society deals them without internalizing them. Again, Perry (2003) emphasizes that “African American students will achieve in school environments that have a leveling culture, a culture of achievement that extends to all of its members and a strong sense of group membership, where the expectation that everyone achieve is explicit and is regularly communicated in public and group settings” (p.107).

Disproportionate Representation in Disciplinary Measures

Several researchers have found that African American students receive disproportionate referrals for disciplinary actions (Cartledge & Dukes, 2008; Skiba et al., 2002, 2005). Skiba et al. (2002), using disciplinary referrals, conducted descriptive and multivariate analyses to examine the potential disproportionate rates in disciplinary action of African American students. The discipline referral data of over 11,000 students in a large urban, Midwestern public school district were analyzed. Preliminary descriptive comparisons of the data indicated that African American students, especially males were overrepresented on all measures of school discipline (i.e., referrals, suspensions, and expulsions) when compared to Caucasian male students and both Caucasian and African American female students and that disproportionality of African Americans and males increased as one transitioned from suspension to expulsion. A more comprehensive examination revealed that African American males had the greatest occurrence of disciplinary referrals. Additionally, the authors used a two-factor ANCOVA to evaluate

the relationship between the disproportionality in discipline and socioeconomic status (SES) or race. Results indicated that SES had no effect on disproportionality and that racial differences remained. The authors also explored the differences among race and gender in administrative action (i.e., mean number of days suspended after referral). Results indicated there were no significant differences by race in the measures related to the administration of consequences at the office level. It was concluded that disproportionality occurred at the classroom level with the original referral to the office, rather than at the administrative level where disciplinary decisions were made.

Finally, the authors conducted two discriminate analyses to explore differences by race and gender regarding reasons for the office referrals. Although evidence emerged that males engaged more frequently in a broad range of disruptive behavior, the analysis for race provided no evidence that the group with the higher rates of discipline referrals (i.e., African American students) were referred for a greater variety of offenses or more serious offenses. Instead, a differential pattern of treatment emerged that demonstrated that African American students were referred to the office for infractions that were more subjective in interpretation than other ethnic groups. Specifically, Caucasian students were significantly more likely than African American students to be referred to the office for smoking, leaving without permission, vandalism, and obscene language. African American students were more likely to be referred for disrespect, excessive noise, threat, and loitering. This study added to the research base on racial disproportionality in school suspensions in that it originates primarily at the classroom level support and supports previous findings that the disproportionate discipline of minority students appears to be associated with an overuse of negative and punitive disciplinary tactics.

Krezmien et al. (2006) conducted a logistic regression analysis on the unduplicated suspensions of all Maryland public school students between 1995 and 2003 to examine changing trends in overall rates of suspension with regard to race and disability. The authors found that the number of overall suspensions increased from 85,071 in 1995 to 134,998 in 2003, an increase of 58.7% during the 9-year period. The number of students suspended increased by 24,439 (47.8%) from 1995 to 2003, but the total school enrollment increased by only 9.6% during the same period. Logistic regression analysis revealed that African Americans with no disability were suspended 2.53 times more than Caucasian students without disabilities. Additionally, African Americans with ED were 4.48 times more likely to be suspended than Caucasian students with ED. In fact, African American students within any disability category except the Other Health Impairment were more likely to be suspended than students without disabilities and students from the same disability category from any other racial group. African American students have time and time again been found to receive more out-of-school suspensions, school expulsions, and office referrals at disproportionately higher rates than other students (Mendez & Knoff, 2003; Skiba et al., 2002).

In an earlier study, Mendez and Knoff (2003) also conducted a study to examine racial and gender disparities in the amount of out-of-school suspension and type of infractions. Their study investigated the 12th largest school district in the nation serving 146,000 students, located within the state of Florida. During the time of data collection, 56% of the students were Caucasian, 23% were African American (e.g., African American, Haitian, or Caribbean), 18% were Latino, and 3% were from other minority groups. Results revealed that African American students were the most likely recipients

of suspensions. African American males were twice more likely to receive suspensions than Caucasian males, and African American females were three times more likely to receive suspensions than Caucasian females. At the middle school level in particular; one half of all African American male students and one third of all African American female students had received at least one suspension. African American students received more than one-third of all suspensions in the areas of threat, battery, fighting, disruptive behavior, inappropriate behavior, sexual harassment, and leaving class or school without permission. When classified into incident categories, it was determined that suspensions for Violence Against Persons increased about 70% from the elementary to middle school levels, although it dropped by two-thirds at the high school level. Even though the reasons for suspension are diverse for African American students within this study, results substantiate previous research indicating that African Americans youth are given more suspensions as a group than do their Caucasian peers (Skiba et al., 2002).

Research suggests that there are racial differences between Caucasian and African American student populations regardless of whether or not they have recognized disabilities. It is no surprise then that when it comes to the implementation of disciplinary measures under the provisions outlined in IDEA (2004), differences exist here too. Rausch and Skiba (2006) investigated whether IDEA (2004) disciplinary removals differed by race within the state of Indiana. The researchers concluded that African American students with disabilities have higher rates of receiving IDEA (2004) disciplinary action than other students with disabilities. During the 2004-2005 school year, it was determined that almost 3% of African American students with disabilities received IDEA (2004) disciplinary provisions 2.8 times more often than students with

other racial backgrounds and disabilities, in addition to receiving suspensions/expulsions over 10 days at a rate 3.4 times higher.

Lack of School Connection May Be a Contributing Factor

Research validates nurturing school climates as important to students' academic and personal success at school, and researchers have recognized its importance for minority groups such as African American students (Brown, Anfara, & Roney, 2004; Stewart, 2007). Although African American males are often viewed as being uninterested in or disengaged from the education process (Ogbu, 1991), later studies have indicated that for the most part African American students desire to do well both academically and behaviorally (Conchas & Clark, 2002; Noguera, 2001).

According to Jackson (2005), alienation from school administrators, classmates, and teachers were also a common characteristic of at-risk youth. He also found at-risk adolescents to have greater feelings of being marginalized and powerless, accompanied by overall negative attitudes. Cavazos (1999) found that at-risk children characteristically had not received the support needed to be successful in school. As a result many left school before graduating. Many students who drop out of school are unable to identify with an adult in the school setting who they feel supports them (Bridgeland, Dilulio, & Morison, 2006).

In a 1993 case study, Freedman found circumstances, such as negative attitudes toward school, students' perceptions about teachers, and perceptions about school achievement, were associated with student success in school. Students who were failing one or more subjects considered school to be a place of dread and disliked attending.

A study conducted by Balfanz, Herzog, and MacIver (2007) investigated the magnitude of student disengagement in high-poverty middle-grades schools and its

impact on student achievement. Using prior research on behavioral disengagement and dropout prediction, the authors created four sets of predictor variables. These variables included academic performance variables, indicators of misbehavior, attendance, and status variables such as special education status, English as a Second Language (ESL) status, and being one or more years overage for grade.

Engagement and community in urban high schools. One initiative that increased students' feeling of acceptance in the school environment was the creation of smaller learning communities called small schools. Characteristics of these schools include a smaller numbers of students, a more intimate and personalized learning environment, and a cohesive vision among teachers. With no more than 350 students in an elementary and 500 students in high school, small schools foster environments in which parents, teachers, and students bond and are more familiar with each other (Conchas & Rodriguez, 2008). Small school structure provides opportunities for enhancing school culture while building relationship and personalization that set the foundation for high achievement (Conchas & Rodriguez, 2008).

New York City was one of the first cities to implement the smaller learning community approach about 18 years ago in order to improve students' engagement and achievement at the high school level (Anness & Allen, 2006). A review of literature found that compared to large inclusive urban high schools, smaller learning communities were associated with a several affirming effects on student such as: (a) positive attitudes toward schooling, (b) lower levels of antisocial behavior, (c) greater degrees of extracurricular participation, (d) higher attendance rates, (e) fewer dropouts, (f) greater feelings of belonging, (g) better interpersonal relationships, (h) healthier self identities,

and (i) higher standardized test scores (Cotton, 1996; 2001). To date there are 43 states using smaller learning communities as a high school improvement initiative and positive effects, such as decreases in dropout and increases in school attendance, are still occurring (National High School Center, 2010). Because of the numerous variables mentioned in this section, it is safe to conclude that African American male students can greatly benefit from a smaller learning environment, mentors, educators, and administrators who will encourage and promote their academic progress and success (Cotton, 1996; 2001; Freeman, 1999; Gordon, Iwamoto, Ward, Potts, & Boyd, 2009).

Mentoring

Effectiveness of Mentoring Programs and Limitations within Mentoring Literature

Mentoring has been proposed as a viable method for assisting and supporting at-risk students succeed in life. Mentoring is a practice in which a student would meet with an adult for a predetermined amount of time during the week and discuss academic and personal issues with the student. The mentor would encourage and motivate the student with making positive decisions. With mentoring, a positive effect on the student's decision making skills is expected to occur, and could even prevent and reverse some of the negative influences that pervade in the at-risk student's environment. The mentor's role in these programs is to guide the student in relating to his or her environment effectively and in developing his or her own individuality and self-esteem (Campbell-Whatley, 1993).

Research supports the implementation of mentoring programs as potentially successful approaches to meeting the individual needs of at-risk students (Johnson, 2006; Lampley, 2010). Researchers in this area also found that students achieved better grades,

established obtainable goals, and enhanced their self-esteem when partnered with caring, supportive adults (Clasen & Clasen, 1997; Flaxman, 1998; 2001; Smink, 2000). Daloz (2004) also found that adult mentors provided at-risk students with a positive and influential person in their lives and also positively impacted academic achievement. According to mentor advocate Riley (1998), effective mentoring programs steered teenagers away from trouble (e.g., dropping out, suspension, and academic failure), gave extra encouragement to students, and provided a role model for more positive types of behaviors. Riley also found that students who had mentors (i.e., Big Brothers/Big Sisters) experienced an increase in GPAs by an average of .37 points and improved attendance by 5%. The most common characteristic of a mentoring program was a one-on-one relationship between an older adult and a younger person. According to Lund (2002), the purpose of a mentoring relationship was to provide guidance, pass on knowledge, share experience, provide a background for more sound judgment, and establish friendships. The research has consistently shown mentoring to be a beneficial and cost-effective approach to assisting at-risk students (Clasen & Clasen, 1997; Daloz, 2004; Flaxman, 1998; 2001; McPartland & Nettles, 1991; Smink, 2000).

Primary objectives of successful mentorship programs include, but are not limited to, improvement of academic achievement, increased attendance, reduced suspension, and increased participation in extracurricular activities (Berry, 1992; Gill, 1992; Lee, 1990; Preyer, 1990). These programs have been successful in positively affecting not only grades, behavior, and attendance of participating students, but also their self-knowledge and self-esteem (Preyer, 1990).

Review of Mentoring Literature

The mentoring of at-risk students has been studied at length by various researchers and authors. These studies have found that mentoring positively affects the lives of students at both the academic and the personal level (Anderson, 2007; Grossman & Tierney, 1998; Howard & Williams, 2003; Lampley & Johnson, 2010; Lee, 1999; Slicker & Palmer, 1993; Utsey, Howard, & Williams, 2003; Whiting & Mallory, 2007). The following studies analyzed the effects of mentors on the at-risk students in regard to educational success by increasing a positive outlook on the future, decreasing self-destructive tendencies, and other areas necessary for success in school and in ones environment.

Lee (1999) investigated the effects of a formal mentoring program on economically disadvantaged students' self efficacy, aspirations, and hope for a bright future. The length of contact time to produce positive results was investigated. Mentoring was defined as the mentor and mentee spending at least 2 hour per month together on the school premises. The sessions focused on adapting positive goals varying from improving attendance at school and better in class behavior, to various extra-curricular activities. The 130 participants represented both elementary and secondary African American students from low socioeconomic backgrounds. Students who received intervention were divided into three subgroups: (a) students mentored for 6 months or less, (b) those mentored for 7 to 12 months, and (c) those mentored for more than one year. Students on a waiting list were used as the comparison group. Three self-report questionnaires based on measures of self-efficacy, aspiration, and hope for a bright future, were given to students. According to results, there was a significant mean difference for aspiration at

the .05 level in group contrast between control group students and those provided mentoring as an intervention. Findings also revealed that the mentoring relationship must continue at least a year to see significant improvements.

In a more recent study, Anderson (2007) examined the effectiveness of the Helping Hands mentoring program on African American males overall achievement at a school in a large North Carolina district. The variables of interest to researchers included end-of-grade test scores, socioeconomic levels, and special education status. Mentoring was defined as a mentor meeting with five to ten mentees after school for 2 hour per week. Weekly contact was required for the full academic year. Mentors were also required to attend 2 hours training prior to beginning mentoring sessions. The standardized test data of African American males from 26 elementary and middle schools was examined over a 3 year period. For each of the 3 years, there was an experimental and a control group; thus a quasi experimental design was used. Results indicated that African American males with a documented disability who met with a mentor demonstrated significant improvements on standardized test. These results were consistent during all 3 years of the study. The study did not find any significant interactions for socioeconomic (SES) or exceptional status.

Most recently, Lampley and Johnson (2010) investigated the effects of a mentoring program, on the academic achievement of at-risk youth, implemented for 2 years in one school system. The Linking Individual Students to Educational Needs Program (LISTEN) included 54 participants who were encouraged to use positive behaviors, strong study habits, focused interpersonal relationships, good problem solving techniques, and favored oral communication skills. The researchers used an ex post facto

design that was descriptive in nature. Academic records of students were analyzed for students' GPAs, attendance rates, and discipline referrals. The results revealed, (a) students' post intervention GPAs were significantly higher than the same students' GPAs the previous year, (b) discipline referrals for the post-intervention period were significantly lower than preintervention, and (c) 52 of the 54 students participating in LISTEN showed improved attendance.

In the 1993, Slicker and Palmer investigated the effects of mentoring on the dropout rates, self-concept, and academic achievement of at-risk high school students. In this study mentoring was defined as the mentor and mentee meeting at least 3 times per week for a six month period. The mentor served as a role-model for conflict resolution, dependable behavior, positive attitude, and academic achievement. The sample was composed of 86 at-risk 10th-grade students from one of two high schools in a large suburban Texas school district. The researchers used an exploratory post-hoc analysis design by examining 2 years of school data. Results revealed that mentoring had an influence on students who had previously dropped out of school but had decided to return back to school. These students also demonstrated improvements in academic achievement.

In a later study, Grossman and Tierney (1998) examined the effects of several Big Brothers Big Sisters mentoring programs on several areas of the lives of at-risk youth; (a) antisocial activities, (b) academic performance, (c) attitudes and behaviors, (d) family relationships, (e) friendships relationships with family, relationships with friends, self-concept, and social and cultural enrichment. Mentoring was defined as mentor/mentee meetings three or four times a month for roughly one year. Mentors were cautiously

screened and required to attend training prior to the initial session. The researchers used a random assignment evaluation design assigning 959 participants, whose ages ranged from 10 to 16, to one of two groups: a mentoring group or a control group. Results revealed that after an 18-month follow up period, participants who had mentors were significantly less likely to: (a) use illegal drugs or alcohol, (b) commit acts of physical violence, and (c) be truant at school. They were also more confident about their school performance and had better relationships with their families.

In a similar study, Utsey, Howard, and Williams (2003) investigated the effectiveness of therapeutic group mentoring on the self-destructive behaviors of urban, African American adolescence. Self-destructive behaviors were defined as drug use, gang activity, sexual promiscuity, and other self-directed violence. Mentoring was defined as group therapy sessions conducted on a weekly basis that engaged youth in discussions about sexuality, substance use, foster care placements, and family of origin. Mentors were required to complete training prior to the first session. All of the participants; (a) were currently in foster care, (b) had displayed serious emotional and behavioral problems in their foster homes, schools, and community, and (c) had previously received some type of mental health services. Results indicated that the therapeutic mentoring group effectively reduced the episodes of maladaptive behaviors displayed by the participants.

Finally, Whiting, and Mallory (2007) investigated the effects of mentoring on the outcomes of behavior and attitude of high-risk middle school students over a 5-year period. Mentoring was defined as weekly sessions between mentors and mentees. Mentors were also required to attend training prior to the first mentoring session and

attend weekly follow up sessions. The researchers used a quasi-experimental design by assigning 79 fifth and six graders to either a treatment or control group. Participants were assessed with multiple instruments and school data were reviewed to identify behavioral and attitudinal outcomes. The statistical analyses were conducted with the use of chi-square and ANOVA. According to the results, only academically challenged males in the treatment group demonstrated significant change across all measures.

The previous seven studies in this section demonstrate that mentoring had a positive effect on at-risk students. With mentoring, grade point averages (GPA) were increased and the need for disciplinary methods was reduced. Mentoring also resulted in an increase in independence and the desire to set goals for the future. Effects seemed to be most prevalent with at least one year of mentoring. With the support of a mentor, there was a noted decrease in students' drop-out rates, anti-social and self-destructive behaviors. The intervention of a mentor in the lives of at-risk students, particularly African American males, has been shown to be effective in not only the educational aspects, but also in the personal lives of the students. Seemingly, in order for the mentoring program to work, the students must meet with the mentor weekly or monthly and cooperation of the school district officials is highly desired.

Check-in Check-out

Check-in Check-out (CICO) is a type of mentoring program used at both the elementary and secondary levels. This research-based intervention is a component of PBS and is a secondary level of support for students who are at-risk for displaying more challenging behaviors and have not been responsive to the primary level of support. There are variations of CICO such as Check and Connect and Check, Connect, and

Expect, in addition to discussing CICO, the differences and similarities of other versions of this program will also be discussed

Defining Check-in Check-out

The Check-in Check-out program is referred to as a secondary level of support and has been found to be effective for reducing problem behavior. According to Crone, Horner and Hawken (2004):

The structural goals of the approach are to (a) increase antecedent prompts for appropriate behavior, (b) increase contingent adult feedback, (c) improve the daily structure for students throughout their school day, and (d) improve feedback to families about student behavior. CICO is also referred to as the Behavior Education Program (BEP) in the literature (p.2).

Students who participate in the CICO program meet with a designated adult twice during the day. The first meeting occurs in the morning and involves discussion about the day and developing behavioral goals; this is called the check-in phase. The student carries a daily report card (DRC) that includes the behavioral goals. The second daily meeting occurs when the student meets with the facilitator at the end of the day and involves a summary of the day and totaling points from the DRC; this is called the check-out phase (Crone, Horner & Hawken, 2004). The implementation of CICO provides opportunities for: (a) teachers to provide feedback about the student's behavior during the day, (b) students to review their behavioral goals with a designated adult at the end of the day, and (c) parents to be involved by reviewing and signing the DRC. Reinforcers are linked to points earned using the DRC. The length of commitment to program is individualized and based on a weekly review of data.

Check-in Check-Out Literature Review

Todd, Campbell, Meyer, and Horner (2008) utilized a multiple baseline across subjects design consisting of ten weeks, two weeks baseline and eight weeks of CICO intervention. The authors examined the effectiveness of the CICO program on problem behaviors defined as being in the wrong location, talking without the teacher's permission, not following directions, talking to peers, disturbing others, and engaging in negative and physical altercations with teachers and peers. Observations of the problem behavior were conducted 3 or 4 days per week using a 20-min partial interval recording system. According to the authors all students displayed intolerable and inconsistent levels of problem behavior during baseline ranging from 30% to 100% of intervals with problem behavior. Results indicated that all four students demonstrated a decrease in problem behavior with an average reduction of 17.5%. During baseline the average number of office discipline referrals was 0.14% per day across participants. The average office discipline referrals per day across participants during intervention decreased to 0.04%. The researchers measured social validity by asking teachers and staff members involved with the CICO program to complete the Acceptability Questionnaire developed by Hawken and Horner (2003). Results of the questionnaire indicated that 50% of the responders agreed that CICO was effective in both decreasing inappropriate behaviors and increasing appropriate behaviors. Six of the 10 agreed that CICO was fairly easy to put into practice and 9 of the 10 stated they would suggest using CICO.

Using a multiple baseline across four groups which included three students in each group, Hawken, MacLeod, and Rawlings (2007) examined the effectiveness of the Behavior Education Program on office discipline referrals (ODR) with 1 elementary

student. A comparison between baseline and intervention of the ODRs per month for each group was conducted. Baseline data indicated that four out of five group's averaged 3.6% total ODRs per month with one group having an average total of 7.5 ODRs per month. Nine of the 12 students showed a significant reduction in office referrals for the month. Results also indicated that BEP was related to the reduction of the average total ODRs per month. Because of the implementation of BEP, there was a decrease in the need for additional exhaustive behavior support services for most students.

In a case study, McCurdy, Kunch, and Reibstein (2007) implemented BEP with eight elementary students attending grades first through fifth. The primary dependent variable was the percentage of points earned each day on a daily behavior report; with 80% being defined as successful. Results revealed that 50% of the students exhibited successful outcomes, 25% moderately successful outcomes, and 25% displayed undesirable unsuccessful outcomes. According to the authors, BEP represents a promising secondary prevention strategy for urban schools with large numbers of students displaying at-risk behaviors.

In summary, CICO has proven to be an effective intervention for decreasing students' inappropriate behavior. The student checks in with an adult twice a day to discuss behavior goals. A DRC is carried by the student to each class period so they can receive constant feedback from teachers throughout the day. One variation of CICO is Check & Connect; there are both similarities and differences between these two programs.

Check and Connect

Check and Connect (C&C) is a dropout prevention and intervention model. Originally the program was designed to support secondary students with disabilities who were most likely to dropout. The check component addresses student disengagement and educational performance by monitoring students' academic progress, behaviors, and attendance. The connect component provides the student with a mentor/monitor who encourages communication and collaboration with the student and their families by making a connection between home and school (Sinclair, Christenson, & Thurlow, 2004). The student checks in with an adult mentor one time a month for basic intervention. For students needing more intensive support, check-ins may be more often. Explicit instruction of a problem-solving process and self-monitoring of personal risk factors is provided during check -in sessions. There is a 2- year commitment to the program. The C&C model is theoretically grounded in research on student engagement and has been used effectively with students who are disabled and nondisabled across all schools levels (i.e., elementary, middle, and high) and in both urban and rural communities.

Sinclair, Christenson, and Thurlow (2005) investigated the effects of C&C on dropout rates, mobility rates, attendance, enrollment status, and inclusive transition plans. All of their participants were secondary students who had an active IEP with behavior goals and objectives. Some of the students were identified as emotionally or behaviorally disabled and some were not. Utilizing a longitudinal experimental design, the authors used stratified sampling to assign students to treatment (i.e., Check and Connect) or control groups to measure attendance patterns, mobility, dropout rates, and transition goals. When dropout rates and mobility were analyzed, the results indicated that it was

less likely for students in the treatment group to drop out of school. These students were more prone to remain in the same school, and had higher levels of engagement. Results on attendance and enrollment status indicated students in the treatment group were more likely to: (a) have regular attendance and remain in school the entire school year, (b) have completed high school, or (c) be enrolled in an educational program.

Lehr, Sinclair, and Christenson (2004) combined a quasi-experimental and survey design to explore the effectiveness of C&C on students' unexcused tardiness and absences and to explore staff perceptions of the effectiveness of the program on students' engagement. The study included 264 participants from 11 elementary schools in five suburban districts with 40% in the program for at least 2 years, 27% in the program 3 years or more, and 35% in the program for less than 1 full school year. Results indicated: (a) a 76% reduction in tardiness, (b) an 86% rate of students engaged in classroom activities, and (c) a 28% decrease of student absences. It was reported that 63% of students who were in the C&C for at least 2 years showed an improvement in their overall attendance with the average percentage of time absent being reported at 6%.

In a study conducted by Sinclair, Christenson, Evelo, and Hurley (1998), the authors examined the effectiveness of C&C with urban secondary students with disabilities. Ninety-four students were randomly assigned to either a treatment (i.e., Check & Connect) or control group to measure the effectiveness of the intervention on two independent variables; (a) involvement in school identified as enrollment status at the end of the year, attendance patterns, and completion of assignments, and (b) school performance identified as credits, academic competence, problem behaviors, and identification with school. All students received the C&C intervention through grades 7

and 8 and half the students received the intervention through the 9th grade. The authors indicate for the independent variable participation in school that, the treatment group was significantly more likely to: (a) be positively engaged in school, (b) be enrolled in school at the end of the year, and (c) be more persist in school by completing course assignments. The authors indicated for the independent variable, school performance, that the treatment group were: (a) considerably more engaged in school, (b) earned significantly more course credits, (c) more likely graduated in four years, (d) rated as being more academically proficient by special education teachers, and (e) demonstrated fewer behavioral problems by general education teachers.

In comparison to CICO, C&C requires a 2 year program commitment but the length of CICO program participation is based on a review of data and individual needs. With C&C the student checks-in with a mentor one or two times per month, but those who participate in CICO checks-in twice daily. Finally, C&C focuses on providing instruction on problem-solving, academics, and behavior management. The primary focus of CICO is personal, daily behavioral goals.

Check, Connect, and Expect

Another Tier 2 intervention is Check, Connect, and Expect (CCE), this intervention is also considered a component of the school-wide positive behavior support model. There is a 15 year history of research on CCE from Check and Connect (Sinclair, Christenson, Evelo, & Hurley, 1998), the Behavior Education Program (Crone, Horner, & Hawken, 2004), and literature on using daily progress reports (DPRs) to improve students' behavior (e.g., Davies & McLaughlin, 1989; Fairchild, 1987; Long & Edwards, 1994). The foundations of C&C and the BEP are built upon dependable, supportive and

caring adults to provide daily communications and constant supervision with students who have behavioral problems. These vital adults are identified as coaches in the CCE program. The coach checks in with the student on a regular basis to provide them with feedback on their educational and social progress. Another function of the coach is to help students set social goals for the day and to provide reinforcement when the goals are met. In addition to monitoring students' daily progress, the coach provides social skills instruction to help students be successful in school. Before students are allowed to graduate from the program, they must be proficient in self monitoring. As with CICO, the student is given a DRC to carry throughout the day but in this instance goals are related to the school wide expectations. Likewise, the coach serves as a positive role model for students with behavioral challenges that hinder their school success. A caseload of 20-25 students is normal for a coach. Students usually are involved in this program for about 8 weeks, the least amount of time allowed for students to benefit from the CCE program's instruction, supervision, and reinforcement of social expectations. This intervention has also been shown to be effective for decreasing inappropriate behaviors displayed by students.

First, Cheney, Flower, and Templeton (2008) found that after using the CCE program for 2 years with students who were at-risk for behavioral problems; only 19% of students were either referred or certified for a special education placement. A later study found that, 237 students in grades first through fifth who were at-risk for severe behavior problems participated in a 2-year study to investigate the effects of the CCE program on decreasing negative behaviors displayed by students. The CCE program combines the critical intervention procedures of the C&C and the BEP. Cheney, Stage, Hawken,

Lynass, Mielenz, and Waugh (2009), compared the outcomes of 121 students who participated in the CCE program to 86 students who did not participate. A stratified random sample of students based on school assignment was used to select students. Results indicated that 68% of the students successfully graduated from the CCE program. Also, graduates from the CCE program improved their social skills and experienced decreases on measures of problem behaviors when compared with non graduates or with students in the non treatment group.

Finally, Cheney, Lynass, Flower, Waugh, and Iwaszuk (2010) also investigated the use of the CCE program with elementary-aged students who were in jeopardy of school failure because of their behavior. The researchers examined its use in 18 schools that had urban and diverse populations. They found it to be successful with more than 84% of students across a 2-year period. They also concluded that CCE was a promising Tier 2 intervention that could be considered as a Response to Intervention (RTI) for students with behavioral problems. On average, development of social behavior was achieved by 70% of students in the intervention and many did not develop emotional and behavioral disabilities.

Comparing CCE to CICO and C&C. When compared to CICO and C&C, the coach who is involved in CCE program is responsible for a larger number of students. Academics are usually the primary purpose of the program, the coach is also a predetermined person and this may be their full time job. CCE uses a combination of the vital components of the CICO and C&C. A DRC is used with both the BEP and CCE. What distinguishes them is the type of goals that are included on the DRC.

Each of the intervention strategies described above attempt to foster positive relationships between students and adults in the school environment by: (a) providing mentors, (b) setting goals with students, (c) giving frequent feedback to students, and (d) creating smaller learning environments.

Daily Report Cards. Regulations now require states to develop strategies to monitor students' progress and communicate this progress effectively. One such strategy that monitors both a student's academic progress and disruptive behaviors is a DRC. According to previous research (e.g., Fairchild, 1987; Schumaker, Hovell & Sherman, 1977; Witt & Elliott, 1985) daily behavior record cards (DBRCs) are a method of communicating academic and behavior progress through the use of a home reinforcement system contingent upon teacher feedback (Davies & McLaughlin, 1989).

Drew, Evans, Bostow, Geiger, and Drash (1982) constructed a multiple baseline across subject to examine the effects of DRC on the percentage of completed math problems and the percentage of accuracy problems completed. Participants included two third grade boys attending separate elementary schools whose parents were contacted for permission and cooperation in the implementation of a home-based reinforcement system. A list of desirable privileges and rewards (reinforcers) were constructed by the parents who, after receiving instructions regarding the DRC, were asked to select from the list of reinforcers, obtain reinforcers, and make them available contingent upon an acceptable (positive) DRC. During baseline, one student's percentage of assignments completed ranged from 0 to 10%, after implementation of the DRC the assignment completion rate increased to 100% and remained consistent. The other student's baseline data for percentage of assignment complete ranged from 0 to 56% immediately

increasing to 100% once the DRC was implemented. A 24% error rate was allowed on the accuracy of math problems completed and the data collected demonstrated greater variability than completion percentage. Results indicate that the DRC increased both completion and accuracy rates for both participants. The authors state that the results also suggest that parents can consistently and effectively implement the DRC procedures without specialized behavioral training.

In a later study, Davies and McLaughlin (1989) investigated the effects of a DRC on three male students in an elementary school served in the resource setting. Using a multiple-baseline across subjects design, the authors sought to measure the effectiveness of a DRC on disruptive behaviors and assignment completion. The home component implemented during the study included asking parents to praise satisfactory scores on the report card and to ignore and/or not show negative feelings if the report was unsatisfactory. The researchers made weekly contact with parents to ensure the reports were being received by the parents and reinforcements were provided. Results indicate that this study demonstrated effectiveness of the use of the DRC based upon the mean number of inappropriate behaviors demonstrated being significantly lower than during baseline. Data were collected and analyzed for only one student regarding the percent of assignments completed indicates a dramatic increase from 0 at baseline to 80% during intervention to 100% during follow-up 1 and 2. Parents indicated that the usage of DRC increased home-school communication with positive results being demonstrated by the student.

From a national database of 5,000 teachers, Chafouleas, Riley-Tillman and Sassu (2006) randomly selected 1,000 to participate in a survey to investigate the acceptability

and current usage of Daily Behavior Report Cards (DBRC). Of the 1,000 surveys sent, the authors had a 12.3% return rate from 39 states. In order to examine the acceptability and current usage of DBRCs the authors constructed a survey packet which included questions from four categories: general information, sharing of information, type of rating systems, and consequences. Survey questions included terms used for the DBRC, reasons for using, types of behaviors rated, population, frequency of use, with whom as results communicated, and how often behaviors. Results indicate 64% of the respondents used some form of a DBRC, 60% used a DBRC to change student behaviors, and 62% used them to communicate with others about behaviors. When communicating with others about behaviors, 91% of the participants reported they used the DBRCs to communicate with parents in a written format. In regards to questions regarding the types of positive consequences used 87% responded they used verbal praise with 62% using tangible (stickers), and 6% reported using no type of positive consequences. Overall, participants found DBRC were highly adaptive with variability being reported as to the type of behavior, frequency of use, frequency of recording, and targeting various behaviors.

Self-management.

In addition to DRCs, self-management strategies can also be incorporated into the CICO intervention. Self-management interventions are among the most flexible, functional, and efficient strategies for students with academic and behavioral difficulties (Mitchum, Young, West, & Benyo, 2001). They have established effectiveness for targeting a variety of academic abilities (Rock, 2005), behavioral problems (Todd, Horner, & Sugai, 1999), and social behaviors (Strain & Kohler, 1994). Self-management

strategies are beneficial for students at all grades and levels of cognitive functioning.

Self-management can also be used for academic planning.

Advantages of CICO

Although all of the variations of CICO have proven to be effective, there are a number of advantages of using CICO as originally designed for: (a) students who may only need intervention for a limited amount of time, (b) students who need individualized goal setting, (c) who are on varying grade levels, and (d) who are indentified as needing mentoring type relationship. One advantage of CICO is that unlike C&C, there is no commitment time required for participation; the decision to end participation is driven by data. The second advantage of CICO is that, the goals included on the DRC are specific to the student's needs. The goals used with C&C are not individualized but are focused on the overall school's improvement. The third advantage of CICO is that the daily check-ins are focused on students' specific needs and are required with the CICO implementation; the focus being individualized goal setting and personal relationship building. For the reasons mentioned, CICO may be more effective in decreasing the problem behaviors of African American males and more practical to implement at the secondary level. As previously stated, mentoring programs have positive effects on the behavior and academics of African American males. A major component of CICO program is the process of building relationships. CICO may be more practical to implement at the secondary level because these types of bonding relationships tend not to occur naturally.

Summary

It has been noted in research that mentoring relationships is an effective intervention for students who display disruptive behaviors in the classroom setting (Crone et al., 2004; Todd et al., 2008). This type of intervention is also effective at both the elementary (Cheney et al., 2009); Lehr et al., 2004) and secondary levels (Sinclair et al., 2005; Sinclair et al., 1998). Currently, there are few studies focused on the secondary level. Many of the studies, investigating the effectiveness of CICO, were at the elementary level. A small number of the studies specifically targeted urban populations and several studies included at least one African American male; currently there are no studies at the secondary level that focus on specifically using CICO with African American males. In addition to the ethnicity and gender of the participants, the ethnicity and gender of the mentors will also be considered.

Summary of Literature Review

African American students, especially males, are overrepresented in special education identification and placement, as well as measures of school discipline (i.e., referrals, suspensions, and expulsions) when compared to Caucasian and female students (Mendez & Knoff, 2003; National Research Council, 2002; Rausch & Skiba, 2004; Skiba et al., 2006). A lack of support from the school in the lives of at-risk students could be a contributing factor to the lack of academic success. Students who feel as if they are alienated from teachers and school administration are less likely to have a positive outlook on education and positive academic experiences in school (Jackson, 2005). Support from administration and other school personnel is critical for the academic success of at-risk students (Potts, & Boyd, 2009). Mentoring programs is one strategy

used to support students who are considered to be at-risk (Crone, Horner & Hawken, 2004; Todd, Campbell, Meyer, & Horner, 2008).

There is evidence of a positive correlation between mentoring, positive behavior, and the academic outcomes of at-risk students (Crone et al., 2004; Lampley & Johnson, 2010; Todd et al., 2008). Students need consistent and long term mentoring for the strategy to be effective (Grossman & Tierney, 1998; Lee, 1999). It is imperative that local administration be involved and supportive in the mentoring activities for successful implementation. With support, studies show that students have demonstrated marked increases in GPA, long term goals, and decreases in self-destructive behavior (Anderson, 2007; Grossman & Tierney, 1998 Howard & Williams, 2003; Lampley & Johnson; Lee, 1999; Slicker and Palmer, 1993; Utsey, Howard, & Williams; 2003; Whiting & Mallory; 2007).

DRC is an attainable method of evaluating the student's progress and behavior during the day. With daily monitoring, student progress and challenges can be adequately addressed while receiving encouragement. According to the aforementioned studies, students had higher success rates and exhibited positive desired behavior more so than students who did not have DRC (Davies & McLaughlin, 1989; Fairchild, 1987; Schumaker, Hovell & Sherman, 1977; Witt & Elliott, 1985).

CHAPTER 3: METHODS

This chapter describes the methodology used for the current study. Information is provided on the participants, settings, materials, experimental design, intervention, dependent variables, interobserver agreement, procedural fidelity, and social validity.

Participant Selection Criteria

Participants in the present study were three African American male high school students in the 9th grade. African American male students were purposely targeted for this study because of the disproportionality of this population in the special education referrals (particularly in the EBD category), disciplinary referrals, and out of school suspensions received. Participants were selected based on teachers' recommendations. After teacher recommendations were given, the researcher held parent meetings to obtain informed consent and student assent. Eligibility was based on criteria and was verified through teacher interviews and school records. All students in the study: (a) were classified by the school system as at-risk or EBD, (b) had a minimum of five office referrals for disruptive behavior the current or previous year, (c) were self-identified as African American male, and (d) had the parents' signed informed consent and students' assent (see appendices A and B).

After students were identified according to the criteria, two teachers of each participant were asked to complete the Social Skills Improvement System Rating Scales Teacher Form (SSIS; Gresham & Elliott, 2008) and to verify each student's "at-risk"

status . The SSIS is an individually administered, standardized procedure measuring three subscales: Social Skills, Problem Behaviors, and Academic Competence. For the purpose of this study, only ratings on the Social Skills and Problem Behaviors subscales were used. There are 46 items for the Social Skills subscale measuring the following seven domains: communication, cooperation, assertion, responsibility, empathy, engagement, and self-control. For each item, the rater indicated the importance of each social skill using a 3-point scale 1=Not Important, 2=Important, 3=Critical and the perceived occurrence frequency using a 4-point scale 1=Never, 2=Seldom, 3=Often, 4=Almost Always. There are 30 items for the Problem Behavior subscale addressing behaviors related to four categories: (a) externalizing, (b) bullying, (c) hyperactivity/inattention, and (d) internalizing. For each item on the Problem Behavior subscale, the rater indicates a student's behavioral frequency using the same 4-point scale described above. According to these authors, normative results from the SSIS were compared to scores developed by a nationwide standardization sample of 4,700 children aged 3 through 18 years who represent the population of the United States across gender, race, socioeconomic status, and geographic location. The median scale and subscale internal consistency reliability coefficients of the SSIS teacher form for students aged 13 to 18 years are .96, .96, and .95, respectively. Median test-retest reliability coefficients of the scales for the Teacher form for students aged 3 to 18 are .83 and .86 respectively. This measure is used to determine teachers' perceptions on the participants' social behaviors by checking the degree to which a certain social skill or problem behavior is observed during a certain period of time. Only students receiving "Below Average" levels or lower on two or more of the Social Skills subscales (indicating that they exhibit fewer than the average number

of social skills for individuals in their norm group) or “Above Average” level or higher on two or more of the Problem Behaviors subscales were eligible for participation in this study.

Initially, six students were recommended by the special education coordinator and classroom teachers for participation in this study; however, only three students participated in the study. One student was excluded because his foster mother refused to allow him to participate. A second student was excluded because he did not want to participate, although his mother signed the parental permission form. The third student was excluded because he was not able to enter the baseline phase with the other participants because he received a 10 day suspension the day before the first baseline probe was collected.

Que. Que (pseudonyms are used to identify students) was a 15-year-old, 9th-grade African American male student who was initially referred for special education services because of his disruptive behavior (i.e., inability to focus in class, talking in class, using a controlled substance, displaying aggressive behavior, displaying disruptive behavior, using inappropriate language) and for numerous out of school suspensions. Que lived with his biological mother, step-father, and two younger brothers in a single family home. He was identified with a mild intellectual disability, based on educational testing. There were also documented behavioral issues, based on classroom observations and teacher reports. On the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children – Fourth Edition (WISC-IV), completed by a school psychologist in 2011, Que’s Full Scale Intelligence Quotient (IQ) was 70, his Verbal Comprehension Index was 73, his Composite Intelligence Index was 71, and his Nonverbal Intelligence Index was 77. On the Woodcock-Johnson III Tests of

Achievement (WJ-III), Que had subscale standard scores of 65 in Broad Math, 53 in Written Language, 89 in Basic Reading, and 80 in Reading Comprehension. On the WJ-III, a standard score from 90 to 110 is within the average range, 80 to 89 is within the low average range, 70 to 79 is within the low range, and 69 and below is considered to be within the very low range.

According to Que's current Individualized Education Program (IEP) 11/21/11, he had a good attendance record but was having academic difficulties. At the time he was performing in the low range in all of his core classes, earning low F's on his last report. His work samples from classes supported that this performance was consistent with previous testing. In the 2008-2009 school year, Que earned a level I out of a level IV on his reading End of Grade (EOG) exam and a level I on his math EOG, placing him in the low range. A level III or IV is considered proficient. Although Que was displaying disruptive behaviors at the time of the IEP development, there were no goals included to address these behavioral issues.

Results from the SSIS completed by Mrs. Coffee, his Algebra teacher, indicated that Que scored in the "Average" range on Communication, "Below Average" on Cooperation, "Average" on Engagement, and "Below Average" on the Self-Control Social Skill subscales. His overall standard score of 91 (average range) on the Social Skills Scale indicated a rank at the 27th percentile. This means that 73 percent of students in his age norm exhibited higher social skills than Que. He scored within the "Above Average" range on Hyperactivity/Inattention and Externalizing subscales, this means that he displayed these negative behaviors above his average peers. His overall standard score

of 87 (average range) on the Problem Behaviors Scale indicated a rank at the 19th percentile when compared to the norm sample of his same-age peers.

Results from the SSIS completed by Mrs. Donut, his creative writing teacher, indicated that Que scored in the "Average" range on Communication, "Below" on Cooperation, "Average" on Engagement, and "Average" on the Self-Control Social Skill subscales. His overall standard score of 102 (average range) on the Social Skills Scale indicated a rank at the 56th percentile. This means that 44 percent of students in his age norm exhibited higher social skills than Que. He scored within the "Above Average" range on Hyperactivity/Inattention and Externalizing subscales; therefore, he displayed these negative behaviors more than his peers. His overall standard score of 112 on the Problem Behaviors Scale indicated a rank in the 79th percentile when compared to the norm sample of his same-age peers.

For the purpose of this study indirect functional behavior assessment was used. This was done by interviewing teachers, administrators, and the student. Office discipline referrals and anecdotal records were also reviewed. According to his FBA, the function of Que's disruptive classroom behavior was to avoid completing classroom assignments, and was more likely to occur when he did not understand how to complete the assignment. This information was used to teach mini social skills lessons during the morning check-ins. The lessons focused on "How to Ask for Help."

Max. Max was a 15-year-old, 9th-grade African American male student who was initially referred for special education services because of his aggressive classroom behavior (i.e., displaying aggressive behavior, displaying disruptive behavior, physical altercations), low academic performance, and out of school suspensions. Max lived with

his biological mother and older sister (who also attends his present school) in a single family home. He was identified with a mild intellectual disability in addition to documented behavioral issues. On the Educational Differential Ability Scale (DAB-3) conducted by a school psychologist in 2006, Max's Standard Reading score was 73, Math Standard score was 63, and Writing Standard score was 79. On the Psychological Differential Ability scale Max scored 82 (low average) for the non-verbal reasoning composite. This composite involved inductive reasoning such as the ability to identify rules that govern features or visual problems. In addition, it involved an understanding of simple verbal instructions and verbal cues.

According to Max's current Individualized Education Program (IEP) 11/04/11, he scored a level III on his 8th grade math EOG and a level I on his 8th grade reading EOG. He was currently failing three out of four classes and not making progress towards his IEP goals. His IEP team also noted that Max could not consistently remain on task while completing independent assignments without teacher prompting. Max could not consistently organize himself in order to keep up with daily class and homework assignments. IEP goals were included to address these issues. But to date; no one had followed up on the IEP to implement the plan. He was recommended for this study for this reason.

Results from the SSIS completed by Mrs. Barnes, Max's English teacher, indicated that Max scored in the "Average" range on the Communication, Cooperation, Engagement, and "Below Average" on Self-Control Social Skill subscales. His overall standard score of 102 on the Social Skills Scale, indicating a rank in the 63rd percentile. This means that 37 percent of students in his age norm exhibited higher social skills than

Todd. He scored within the “Above Average” range on Externalizing, Hyperactivity/Inattention, and Bullying problem behavior subscales, and his overall standard score of 102 on the Problem Behaviors Scale indicated a rank in the 60th percentile when compared to the norm sample of his same-age peers.

Results from the SSIS completed by Mr. Adams, Max’s Algebra teacher, indicated that Max scored in the “Below Average” range on the Communication, Cooperation, Engagement, and Self-Control Social Skill subscales. His overall standard score of 108 on the Social Skills Scale, indicating a rank in the 72nd percentile. This means that 28 percent of students in his age norm exhibited higher social skills than Max. He scored within the "Above Average" range on all problem behavior subscales, and his overall standard score of 50 on the Problem Behaviors Scale indicated a rank of <1 percentile when compared to the norm sample of his same-age peers.

According the information obtained from conducting the FBA, the function of Max’s off-task/non-compliant behavior was to avoid completing classroom assignments, and was more likely to occur when he was required to complete a non preferred task. This information was used to teach mini social skills lessons during the morning check-ins. The lessons focused on “Following Instructions.”

Nate. Nate was a 15-year-old, 9th-grade African American male student who was initially certified Behaviorally/Emotionally Disturbed in May of 2005 for his off-task behavior, withdrawal behaviors, and refusal to complete classroom assignments. Nate lived with his biological mother and younger sibling in a single family home. His parents were divorced 2 years ago and according to his mother, had negative effects on his behavior both and home and school. Based on the results of the Behavioral Assessment

System for Children (Clinical Scales), it was found that Nate demonstrated clinical significance (70 or above) for Depression, Attention Problems, Hyperactivity, School Problems Composite, Atypicality, Withdrawal, and Behavioral Symptom Index. Based on the results of the Behavioral Assessment System for Children (Adaptive Scales), it was found that Nate demonstrated clinical significance for Adaptability, Social Skills, Study Skills, and Functional Communication.

According to Nate's current Individualized Education Program (IEP) 08/25/11, the team noted his difficulty planning and organizing for longer assignments such as projects and in independent assignments. He has these types of problems even doing assignments in class. The team goes on to further note that Nate had difficulty relating to peers and does not participate in group activities. Even when prompted, Nate had difficulty beginning an assignment. These weaknesses in Nate's behavior were negatively impacting his ability to apply knowledge to the general curriculum. There were IEP goals to address these issues, but there was no formulated plan.

Results from the SSIS completed by Mr. Lame, his Biology teacher, indicated that Nate scored in the "Average" range on Communication, "Below Average" on Cooperation, "Average" on Engagement, and "Below Average" on the Self-Control Social Skill subscales. His overall standard score of 91 (average range) on the Social Skills Scale indicated a rank at the 27th percentile. This means that 73 percent of students in his age norm exhibited higher social skills than Nate. He scored within the "Above Average" range on Hyperactivity/Inattention, Externalizing, and Internalizing subscales; this means he displayed these negative behaviors as a greater rate than his peers. His

overall standard score of 87 (average range) on the Problem Behaviors Scale indicated a rank at the 19th percentile when compared to the norm sample of his same-age peers.

Results from the SSIS completed by Mr. Gordon, his Geometry teacher, indicated that Nate scored in the “Below Average” range on the Communication and Engagement and scored in the "Average" range on Cooperation and Self-Control Social Skill subscales. His overall standard score of 85 (below average range) on the Social Skills Scale indicated a rank of 16th percentile. This means that 84 percent of students in his age norm exhibited higher social skills than Nate. He scored within the “Average" range on Hyperactivity/Inattention, Externalizing subscales, and internalizing behavior scales; this means he displays these negative behaviors at about the same level of his peers. His overall standard score of 102 on the Problem Behaviors Scale indicated a rank at the 60th percentile when compared to the norm sample of his same-age peers.

According the information obtained from conducting the FBA, the function of Nate's noncompliant behavior was to avoid completing classroom assignments, and was more likely to occur when he was required to work in a group. This information was used to teach mini social skills lessons during the morning check-ins. The lessons focused on “Joining In.”

Setting

The current study was implemented in a large, urban, Southeastern school district. The school selected had an enrollment of 2,050 students, with 48.4% African American, 38.4% Caucasian, 15.5% Hispanic, 2.5% Asian, 0.9 % American Indian, and 1.2% multi-racial. This school had 21.3% of its students receiving special education (i.e., students who were academically gifted and students who had disabilities). Approximately, 58.2 %

of all students at the school received free or reduced lunch. The intervention took place in the classroom occupied by the facilitator. Facilitator training will also take place in this location.

Materials

Materials used for the FBA process were taken from the Functional Assessment and Program Development for Problem Behavior handbook developed by O'Neill and colleagues (1997). Specifically, copies of the teacher-directed functional assessment interview (FAI) form, functional assessment observation (FAO) form, and competing behavior model forms were used. Copies of the SSIS (Gresham & Elliott, 2008) for teachers were also provided. Additionally, materials needed for CICO included blank daily progress reports (DRCs) with varying schedules and goals based on the student's needs (see appendix C). The bottom of the DRC contained a space for the student's name, student's signature, and the date. A procedural fidelity checklist was used by the facilitator during check-ins and check-outs (see appendix B). Skill-Streaming The Adolescent: New Strategies and Perspectives for Teaching Prosocial Skills handbook developed by Goldstein and McGinnis (1997) were also used as a resource to develop activities used during the sessions. When the intervention began for each student, where were provided a folder that had a form for them to write the class assignments and materials needed for all four periods of classes. Finally, an audio recorder was used to record the daily check-in and check-out sessions and the social validity interviews.

Researcher and Data Collectors

The primary researcher for this study was a full-time doctoral student in special education with 8 years teaching experience with students with mild to moderate

disabilities in public school systems. She had a Bachelor of Arts degree in Mental Disabilities and a Master of Education degree with a focus on learning Disabilities. She obtained certification in North Carolina of generic special education across grades K-12. In addition, she is national board certified as an exceptional needs specialist.

The researcher has received previous training on FBA and behavioral interventions while working as a special education teacher. She also attended workshops and participated in professional development activities specifically related to classroom management. She taught students with EBD and other mild to moderate disabilities and conducted FBAs on a continual basis during her 8 years of teaching. As a doctoral student, she took courses that allowed her to gain expertise in Applied Behavior Analysis (ABA) and co-taught two graduate level courses on classroom management, FBA, and behavior related interventions.

The interventionist, who functioned as the facilitator was a U.S. History teacher and girl's basketball coach at the school where the study took place. This was his fourth year teaching at the school but had previously taught several years in another state. He also self-identified as an African American male but was not chosen for this reason. The assistant principal recommended him because of his excellent attendance, classroom management, teaching skills, and excellent rapport and relationships with students of all races and genders. The principal reported that he was usually early for work in the morning. Because of scheduling, he did not have teaching responsibilities at the crucial time he was needed in the study. Participants were therefore able to check-in with him before class and to check-out with him before the end of the school day. All of the

participants were well acquainted with him and were willing to accept him as their facilitator.

Dependent Variables

The primary dependent variable were points earned by the participants for completing task during the mentoring sessions. A task analysis was used to identify the step-by-step procedures they must each follow(see appendix A). When asked by the facilitator during the morning check-in, participants were required to: (a) state what assignments they had to complete for each of their four courses, (b) produce the handouts or materials required to complete the assignment(s), (c) state a behavior problem they are having in their class(es), and (d) provide strategies to address these problems (based on FBA results). When asked by the facilitator during the afternoon check-out, participants were required to: (a) state what problems with behavior they had that day, (b) state what strategy they used to address the problem, (c) show their written assignment(s) for each class in their planner and, (d) provide materials needed to complete the assignment(s).

A second dependent variable was be the number of office disciplinary referrals received by students because of disruptive behavior. This data were generated by the computerized data management system utilized by the school district. The researcher requested this information from the school's data secretary every Friday for the duration of the study.

A third dependent variable was report card and interim grades earned by participants in all of their classes. Teachers were asked to provide these grades for each participant.

The last dependent variables were points earned by the participants on their DRC. Goals on the DRC were based on students' need and FBA results. Students had to earn 80% (144) of 180 possible points to receive a reward at the end of the day. Classroom teachers were asked to rate students' behavior on a daily bases for each class.

Collection of Interobserver Agreements and Procedural Fidelity

Interobserver agreement. Interobserver agreement (IOA) for the dependent measure of completing the task on the task analysis checklist (academic planning and stating the appropriate social skill steps) were collected for 33% of the sessions across all conditions using the same "Student's Checklist for Check-in Check-out" form for recording across all students in the school environment. Two trained observers, who were doctoral students in special education, listened to a total of 30 digitally audio-recorded sessions and scored participants' responses using the checklist (Appendix A). The researcher trained the observers by explaining the process for collecting participant data during the mentoring session for both the morning and afternoon mentoring sessions. The outside observer practiced scoring a mentoring session for each participant. Since interobserver agreement for the practice mentoring sessions was 100%, no more practice sessions were necessary. After each observer listened to an audio-recorded session, an item-by-item (26 items) analysis was used to calculate percentage of agreement by dividing number of agreed items by total number of applicable items on the checklist and multiplying by 100.

Procedural fidelity. Treatment fidelity data were collected using a 14-item Procedural Checklist for Check-in Check-out to measure the degree to which the interventions were implemented as planned. A trained observer, who was a 3rd year

doctoral student in special education, listened to 33% of the audio-recorded mentoring sessions (total of six). The observer then circled either a “YES” or “NO” for each item on the checklist to determine the fidelity to which the facilitator implemented the components of CICO. The items that were on the CICO implementation checklist are listed below.

Check-in (AM)

1. Facilitator collects daily report card signed by the parent
2. Facilitator ask the student what assignments they have due in their classes
3. Facilitator ask the student if they have the assignments and materials that are needed for the day
4. Facilitator provides the daily report card for the current day
5. Facilitator asks student what behavior problems they are currently having in their classes
6. Facilitator engages student in a brief chat about the coming day (Being able to state the intervention strategy that is related to the results of their FBA and the steps that should be completed were included in the chat). (e.g., practice or role-play)
7. Reminding students to write down their assignments and materials they need on the form that was provided.

Check-out (PM)

1. Facilitator engages the student in a review of the goals for that day
(e.g., What problems with behavior did you have today?)
2. Facilitator asks student, what strategy they used to deal with their behavior.

3. Facilitator asks students what homework assignments they have for each class

Facilitator totals the points earned with the student

4. Facilitator ask if they have the needed materials to complete their homework assignments for each class

5. Facilitator totals the points earned with the student

6. Rewards are given for meeting goal of 80%

7. Facilitator sends daily report card home for parent's signature

See Appendix B for the procedural fidelity checklist. The percentage of procedural fidelity were calculated by dividing the number of correctly performed steps by the number of total steps (14) and multiplied by 100. Besides the interobserver reliability data collected on the dependent variable, interobserver agreement was also calculated for 50% of the instructional sessions (total of three) that procedural fidelity data were collected.

Social Validity

Teachers' perceptions. Social validity data were collected at the conclusion of the study to measure teachers', parents', students', and facilitators' satisfaction regarding the acceptability, practicality, and effectiveness of the interventions. The same classroom teachers who completed the SSIS ratings were asked to complete a social validity questionnaire. Teachers were asked to complete a 6 item questionnaire (see appendix G) using a 4-point Likert rating scale (e.g., 1 = Not at all to 4= Very important) that addressed the following: (a) degree of improvement in the target behaviors; (b) appropriateness, effectiveness, and practicality of the interventions used; and (c) changes

in perceptions and likelihood of continued uses. It took teachers approximately 5 min to complete the questionnaire.

Participants, parents, and facilitator perceptions. Participants, parents, and the facilitator were asked to participate in a social validity interview. The interviews included 5-7 open ended questions (see appendices D-F) that focused on; (a) degree of improvement in the target behaviors, (b) appropriateness, effectiveness, and practicality of the interventions used, and (c) changes in perceptions, likelihood of continued use, and potential changes that would be made in the development or implementation of one or more of the interventions. The interviews were approximately 20-30 min for participants, teachers, and the facilitator to complete. The interventionist summarized these data by analyzing themes in a qualitative manner.

Experimental Design

The experimental design was a multiple probe across participants design (Horner & Baer, 1978) to evaluate the effects of using CICO on students' academic planning and disruptive behavior in an urban secondary setting. With using a multiple probe across participants design, baseline data were collected initially on all participants, and the participant with the lowest, most stable baseline data entered intervention first. For the other participants, probes were conducted intermittently providing the basis for behavior change.

General Procedures

Facilitator Training. The school's administrator was asked to recommend several faculty members who could serve as facilitators. The researcher discussed with participants those who volunteered and gave them a choice of those with whom they

wanted to work. Participants were also allowed to nominate someone they would like to work. Prior to intervention the facilitator was trained on implementing the CICO program with fidelity, which included: (a) appropriately following the steps of the checklist, (b) assisting students with setting daily goals, and (c) completing the DRC, and (d) conducting mini social skills activities based on FBA data. The researcher conducted the training by using role-play scenarios, discussions, and modeling. The facilitator was also trained on how to operate the audio recorder to record the mentoring sessions, across the two phases and three participants.

Baseline. Prior to beginning the baseline conditions, FBAs were conducted for all participants, there was no mentoring sessions during this time. The researcher was responsible for conducting the FBAs. Classroom teachers were asked for assistance in completing this process because of their knowledge of the students. Participants were asked to perform daily tasks that are important to the classroom environment (e.g., checking their binder for assignments that are due, making sure they have the materials needed to complete the assignments, discussing behavioral issues they have in their regular classes, and appropriately addressing their behavioral issues). Participants were not given any instruction on how to perform these daily tasks. Based on baseline probes, the participant with the lowest and most stable level of performance entered the intervention phase first. The second and third participants entered the intervention phase using the same method as the first participant. There was no mentoring, social skills instruction, or academic planning during baseline.

CICO intervention. The students participated in the intervention for ten, 15-min check-in check-out sessions per week (at the beginning and at the end of the day). The

facilitator explained the CICO procedure during the first morning check-in. Check-ins were daily and designed to create a positive beginning to the student's day. This included; (a) engaging the student in a brief chat, (b) checking to see if homework has been completed, (c) giving the DRC to the student, (d) checking for necessary supplies, (e) collected the DRC that had been signed by the parent, and (f) positively affirming the student (e.g., have a good day). Using the DRC, general education classroom teachers rated the behavior of the students throughout the day. Prior to intervention, teachers were informed by the facilitator and researcher, that the interactions were to be positive which should include praise for a job well done or for trying. Teachers were also encouraged to remind student of alternatives to disruptive or inappropriate behavior. Students checked out with the facilitator at the end of each day. At check-out time the facilitator; (a) engaged the student to provide a review of their day, (b) inquired about homework assignments and the materials needed to complete them, (c) discussed any behavior issues that may have occurred that day and the strategies used, and d) finally totaled points earned and gave appropriate rewards. Students were provided with a planner to write down their assignments for each class and to keep needed materials for their classes. Once the first participant showed an increase in completing the daily task three consecutive sessions during intervention; another baseline data probe was administered to the remaining participants to determine if their levels of performance have remained stable and low before the next participant was brought into the intervention. Once all participants reached a criteria of 80% the intervention was terminated.

Use of FBA data. Data obtained from conducting FBAs was analyzed by the researcher and used to aid the facilitator with social skill activities and goals to address

during mentoring sessions. This data also helped to determine the function of the disruptive behaviors. The researcher created social skill activities with the facilitator to be used during the daily sessions. Activities were modified from *The Skill-Streaming The Adolescent: New Strategies and Perspectives for Teaching Prosocial Skills* handbook developed by Goldstein and McGinnis (1997). For example, after analyzing FBA data it was determined that Que displayed disruptive behaviors (e.g. talking, laughing, and playing) in the classroom as an attempt to avoid completing assignments. The behavior was mostly likely to occur during independent assignments that he did not understand. The disruptive behavior often resulted in being kicked out of class. The facilitator used the “Asking for Help” activity from the *Skill-Streaming the Adolescent: New Strategies and Perspectives for Teaching Prosocial Skills* handbook that was modified by the researcher. This particular activity included four steps that the interventionist and the student worked on together: (a) decide the problem, (b) decide if you want help for the problem, (c) think about different people who may help you and pick one (e.g., classroom teacher, classroom assistant, or peer), and (d) tell the person about the problem and ask that person to help you. This activity included discussion, role-playing, and a comprehension check. During a later session the pair discussed if the steps had been used and if the results were successful. This allowed sessions to build on one another.

After analyzing FBA data it was determined that Max’s off-task/non-compliant behavior was to avoid completing classroom assignments, and was more likely to occur when he was required to complete a non preferred task. The facilitator used the “Following Instructions” activity from the *Skill-streaming the adolescent: New strategies and perspectives for teaching prosocial skills* handbook that was modified by the

researcher. This particular activity included four steps: (a) listen carefully while you are being told what to do, (b) ask questions about anything you do not understand, (c) repeat the instructions to yourself, and (d) do what you have been asked.

After analyzing Nate's FBA data, it was determined that his noncompliance behavior (refusal to complete classroom assignments) was to avoid the work. The behavior was most likely to occur when he was required to work in a group. The facilitator used the "Joining In" activity from the Skills-streaming the adolescent: New strategies and perspectives for teaching prosocial skills handbook that was modified by the researcher. The particular activity included four steps that the facilitator and students worked together: (a) decide if you need to join the activity others are doing, (b) decide the best way to join in, (c) choose the best time to join in, and then (d) join the activity.

Maintenance. Maintenance data were collected to determine if participants keep gains from the intervention. The number of days that Que met with the facilitator was decreased to 3 days. Even after 2 days without CICO, he was able to maintain 80% of the skills that were taught. Maintenance data were collected 2 weeks after the intervention ended. This data were very interesting because it was collected after Christmas break, which means students, had not been in school for two weeks.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

In this chapter, reports of the study results include: (a) the interobserver agreement and procedural fidelity measures, (b) each participant's performance on the task analysis checklist during the mentoring sessions across the experimental conditions, (c) anecdotal information pertaining to each participant's use of social skills learned outside of the instructional setting, and (d) social validity outcomes presented as pre/post office referral data, pre/post course grades, pre/post DRC ratings, and teacher questionnaires, and parent, student, facilitator interviews.

Interobserver Agreement and Procedural Fidelity

Students' Performance on Task Analysis Checklist

The researcher was the primary coder for all the behavioral observations for the dependent variable, performance of academic planning and social skills, on the task analysis checklist for Que, Max, and Nate. Two other trained observers collected interobserver reliability data for 33% of the behavioral observations for the dependent variable for Que, Max, and Nate. The observers, who were doctoral students in special education, listened to a total of 30 digitally audio-recorded sessions and scored participants' responses using the "Student's Checklist for Check-in Check-out" form (Appendix A). An item-by-item (26 items) analysis was used to calculate percentage of agreement by dividing number of agreed items by total number of applicable items on the checklist and multiplying by 100. Overall interobserver reliability ranged from 92% to 100% with a mean of 94.6% during baseline. During the CICO intervention,

interobserver reliability ranged from 85% to 100% with a mean of 94.3%. Table 1 below shows mean interobserver reliability results separated by student.

Table 1: Mean Interobserver Reliability Results by Student

| Student | Baseline Phases | Intervention Phases |
|---------|----------------------|----------------------|
| Que | 94% (range 92%-96%) | 92% (range *85%-96%) |
| Max | 95% (range 92%-100%) | 95% (range 92%-96%) |
| Nate | 95% (range 92%-100%) | 96% (range 92%-100%) |

* Below 90% (occurred once)

Facilitator's Fidelity of Implementation

In addition to interobserver reliability of students' performance on the task analysis checklist, a second observer also collected procedural fidelity data on the facilitator's ability to implement all the components of the CICO intervention. A trained outside observer, a 3rd year doctoral student in special education, listened to 33% of the audio-recorded instructional sessions (i.e., total of sixteen sessions). The observer circled either a "Yes, No, or Not Sure" for each item on the checklist to determine the fidelity to which the interventionist implemented the CICO interventions as purported. The percentage of procedural fidelity was calculated by dividing the number of correctly performed steps by the number of total steps (14) and multiplying by 100. Overall, procedural fidelity ranged from 85% to 100% with a mean of 92%. An item-by-item analysis was used to calculate percentage of agreement by dividing number of agreed items by total number of applicable items on the checklist (14 items) and multiplying by

100. The items most disagreed upon were: (a) the facilitator totaled the points earned, (b) the facilitator asked for the signed DRC, and (c) the facilitator provided the reward if earned. The three were disagreed upon because the sessions were audio taped and the facilitator did not consistently state what he was actually doing. The researcher was in the classroom and witnessed what the observer could not see. Also, if the student walked into the classroom and handed him the DRC from the previous day, there was no need for the facilitator to ask for it again.

Overview of Major Findings

Upon visual inspection of the graph (Figure 1) an obvious increase in level and trend can be seen. The increase in participants' performance on the checklist occurred after the implementation of CICO intervention package. The present study revealed a functional relationship between the implementation of CICO and participants' performance on the CICO task analysis, which included social skills instruction and academic planning. Two out of three students showed an increase in semester grades (Tables 2 and 4). There was also a significant decrease in the amount of disciplinary actions each participant received before and after intervention. There was also an increase in student DRC scores, see Figure 2 for DRC data. A summary of suspension data can be seen in Figure 3. Each participant's findings are described in detail, in the next section.

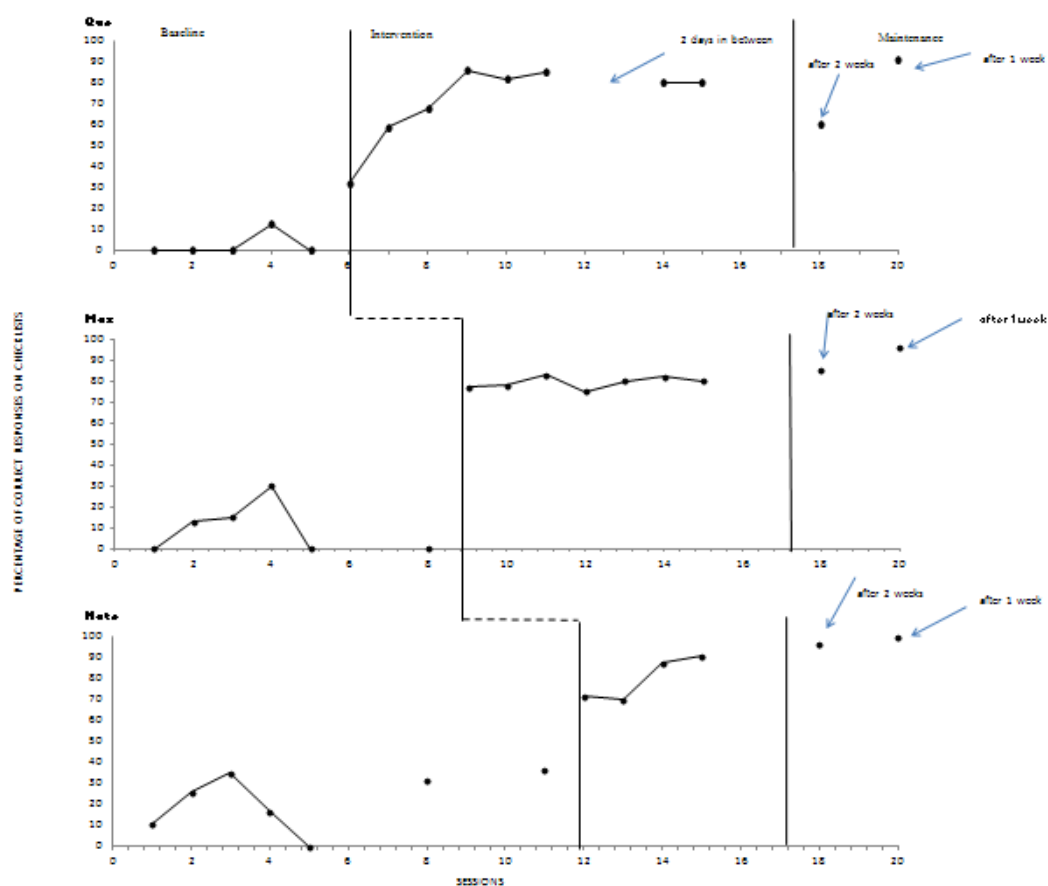


Figure 1. Percentage of Participants Correct Responses During Task Analysis Completion

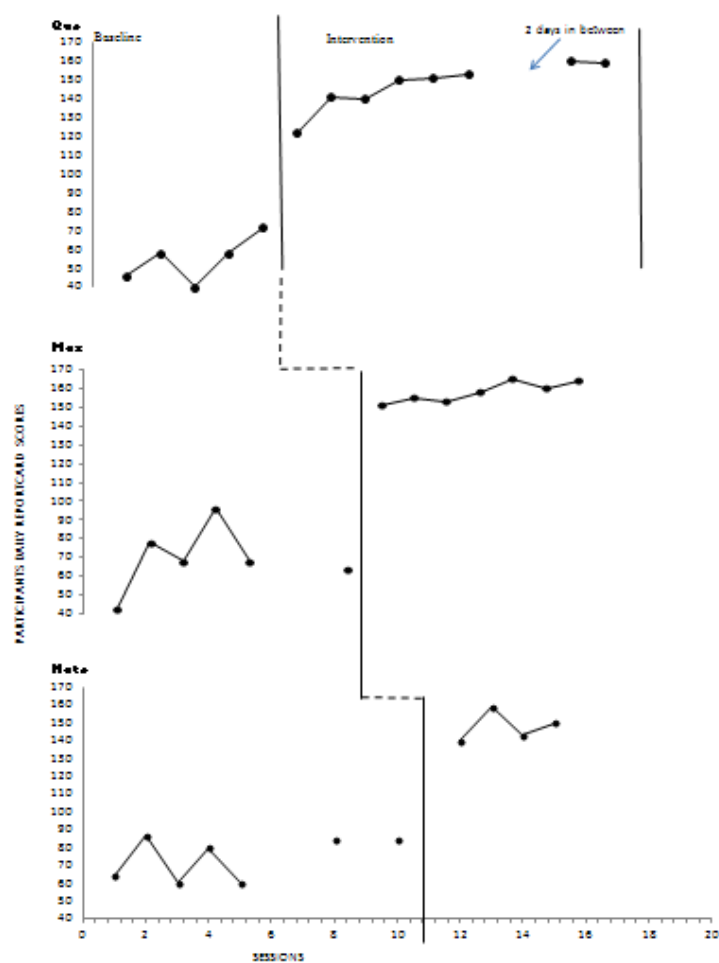


Figure 2. Daily Report Card Data

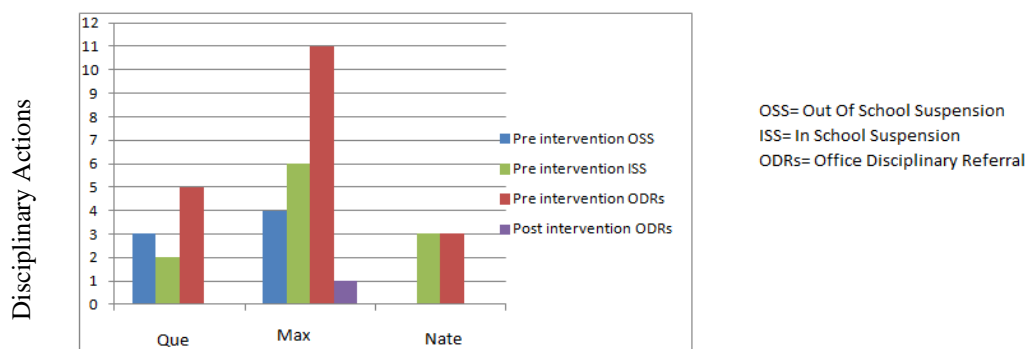


Figure 3. Suspension and Referral Date Pre/Post Intervention.

Que

All components of the CICO intervention were fully implemented with Que. The primary researcher maintained weekly contact with Que's mother throughout the intervention via phone calls and text messages.

Completion of the Task Analysis

During baseline, Que's ability to complete the academic planning and social skills task analysis ranged from .04% to 12% and averaged 2.7%. During intervention, Que's performance on task analysis probes immediately increased in level and trend. His performance ranged from 32% to 86% and averaged 71.5%. After the eighth day of intervention, Que entered the maintenance condition where his ability to complete the task analysis ranged from 60% to 91% with an average performance of 75.5%. The facilitator provided Que with two booster sessions before the second maintenance probe was collected (see Figure 1).

Course Grades

Prior to the implementation of the study Que was failing all four of his courses. The comments included on his report card were: (a) "Que needs to refrain from talking at

inappropriate times”, (b) “Que needs to study more at home”, (c) “Que needs to pay more attention in class”, and (d) “Que’s conduct needs improvement”. Throughout the course of the intervention Que's grades improved. Table 2 shows a summary of Que's grades. Card marking 1 was prior to intervention and both the interim report and card marking 2 occurred during intervention.

Table 2: Grades Earned by Que

| Course | Card Marking 1 | Interim Report | Card Marking 2 |
|------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| English | F | D | F |
| Algebra | F | D | D |
| Creative Writing | F | F | D |
| Biology | F | F | D |

Anecdotal Information

During initial implementation of the intervention, the facilitator discussed information with Que that was gathered during the FBA interviews and observations completed by his teachers. One problem behavior that was brought to his attention was talking and playing during independent seat work. It was hypothesized that the function of his behavior was to avoid completing classroom assignments because he did not understand the task. Therefore, an "Asking for Help" skill was taught during intervention. When Que was questioned about any behavior problems that he had in any class, he stated that on one occasion he refused to move his seat when asked. When he was questioned, he could not think of a possible alternative behavior. Que was able to state

several times and was aware of the problem behavior of talking during seat work. He was also able to state the four steps related to the “Asking for Help” skill. The academic component of CICO required Que to write down assignments due for each of his classes and the materials that were needed to complete the assignments. If there were no assignments due in his class, he was instructed to write, "No Homework" in that block. Que did not consistently use the planner to write down his assignments but after several days of intervention, was able to consistently state what was due and what was not due in his classes.

Social Validity

Office referral and suspension data. Prior to Que’s participation in this study, he was given three 10 day, out-of-school suspensions for: (a) use of a controlled substance (marijuana), (b) aggressive behavior towards another student, and (c) insubordination and disruption. He was also given two in-school suspensions for the use of inappropriate language and being disrespectful towards staff. These infractions were inclusive of the current and previous school year and included: one for insubordination, two for inappropriate language/disrespect, one for use of controlled substance, and one for aggressive behavior. Over the course of the 5 week study and following its completion, Que received no additional office referrals.

DRC ratings. During baseline Que was rated by his teachers each period on a daily basis for a total of 5 days. Que was not aware that he was being rated by his teachers. The most points a participant could earn in a day were 180 points, 144 points was considered 80%. During baseline Que's daily ratings ranged from 46 points to 72 points and averaged 54.8 points. During the intervention phase, which included mini

social skills steps, Que's daily ratings ranged from 122 points to 160 points and averaged 147 points.

Perception interviews. Que and his mother both completed a perception interview at the end of the study. Results of the perception interview completed by Que indicated that he felt comfortable meeting with the facilitator daily. He recalled getting kicked out of class one day during the intervention and how “Talking with the facilitator made him feel better.” He felt that the daily feedback given by his classroom teachers on the DRC was helpful because it let him know how he was doing in his classes. When asked if the mentoring program helped him behave better in class he stated, “Yeah because I don’t get along with my 4th period teacher, I was able to look at the clock and know I was leaving at 2:00 PM to meet with Mr. Brown.” Que, stated that he liked the social skill activities but was not always able to remember all of the steps. I asked Que what he liked most about CICO and his response was, “The snacks (what he wanted as a daily reward) and meeting with Mr. Brown.” I also asked him what he liked least about CICO or what should be changed, he responded, “Can’t think of anything.” Results of the perception interview completed by Que’s mother indicated that he appeared to feel comfortable meeting with the facilitator. She stated, “I had to ask him about the mentoring. He really didn’t come home and tell me anything.” Que’s mother also felt that the program had somewhat of a positive effect on his classroom behavior. During the interview she expressed her excitement about the improvement of his grades.

Max

All components of the CICO intervention were fully implemented with Max. The primary researcher maintained weekly contact with Max's mother throughout the intervention, via phone calls and emails.

Completion of the Task Analysis

During baseline, Max's ability to complete the academic planning and social skill task analysis ranged from .04% to 30% and averaged 11.6%. During intervention, Max's performance on task analysis probes increased in level and trend. His performance ranged from 77% to 83% and averaged 79.2%. After the seventh day of intervention, Max entered the maintenance condition where his ability to complete the task analysis ranged from 85% to 96% with an average performance of 90.5% (see Figure 1).

Course Grades

Prior to the implementation of the study Max was failing two out of four of his courses, he was passing one course with a D and the other with a C. One comment listed on his report card was, "Conduct is unsatisfactory". Throughout the course of the intervention there was a slight improvement in Max's grades from card marking 1 to the interim report but not for card marking 2. Table 3 shows a summary of Max's grades. Card marking 1 was prior to intervention and both the interim report and card marking 2 occurred during intervention.

Table 3: Grades Earned by Max

| Course | Card Marking 1 | Interim Report | Card Marking 2 |
|-------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| Band | D | C | D |
| Science | C | B | C |
| Pre-Algebra | F | F | F |
| English | F | F | F |

Anecdotal Information

During the initial implementation of the intervention, the facilitator discussed information with Max that was gathered during the FBA interviews and observations completed by his teachers. One problem behavior discussed was his inability to follow directions when given by the teachers. It was hypothesized that the function of his behavior was avoidance of completing classroom assignments, especially one she didn't like. A "Following Instructions" skill was taught during intervention. When Max was asked about behavior problems he was having in any class, he stated, "Talking when I shouldn't." He stated that he could avoid talking in class if he listened to the teacher. Max recognized and was able to state several times the behavior problem he was displaying in class, which was not following directions. He was also able to state the four steps for following instructions. The academic component of CICO required Max to write down assignments due for each of his classes and the materials that were needed to complete the assignments. If there were no assignments due in his classes, he was instructed to

write, "No Homework" in that block. Max consistently used the planner to write down his assignments during intervention.

Social Validity

Office referral and suspension data. Prior to Max's participation in this study, he was given four 10 day, out of school suspensions for: (a) fighting, (b) being disrespectful towards staff, and (c) displaying aggressive behavior. He was also given six in school suspensions for: (a) excessive tardiness, (b) skipping class, and (c) touching a female student inappropriately, (d) being disrespectful towards staff/ disruptive behavior. These infractions were inclusive of the current and previous school year and included: three for fighting, three for disruption/disrespect, four for tardiness/skipping class, and one for aggressive behavior. Over the course of the 5 week study and following its completion, Max was given two additional office referrals. The first offense was pushing a female student, which occurred during baseline. The second referral was given for name calling, which occurred the first day of intervention. When Max was asked why he pushed the female student, he said that he was just playing around. When asked why he called the other student a name, he said the other student was "Running his mouth". On the last day of intervention Max was found standing outside the boy's bathroom as the lookout for boys who were in the bathroom smoking. When asked about his involvement, he was honest and gave the names of the boys who ran out of the bathroom to security. He did not receive an office referral for this incident.

DRC ratings. During baseline Max was rated by his teachers each period on a daily bases for a total of 5 days. Max was not aware that he was being rated by his teachers. The most points a participant could earn in a day were 180 points, 144 points

was considered 80%. During baseline Max's daily ratings ranged from a total of 43 points to 96 points which averaged to 69.5 points. During the intervention phase, which included mini social skills steps, Max's daily ratings ranged from a total of 151 points to 165 points, averaging at 158 points.

Perception interviews. Max and his mother both completed a perceptions interview at the end of the study. Results of the perception interview completed by Max indicated that he felt comfortable meeting with the facilitator daily. Max recalled a time when he was upset about other students talking about him, he said, "Talking to Mr. Brown helped me forget about what others were saying about me." He felt that the daily feedback given by his classroom teachers on the DRC was helpful because it let him know how he was doing in his classes and he was able to use the information to complete make-up assignments. When asked if the mentoring program helped him behave better in class he stated, "It helped some days but sometimes it didn't matter. It just went in one ear and out the other." I asked Max what he liked most about CICO and his response was, "The snacks and rewards." I also asked him what he like least about CICO or what should be changed, he responded, "can't think of anything." Results of the perception interview completed by Max's mother indicated that he appeared to feel comfortable meeting with the facilitator. She stated, "Max was shown how to be a little more organized with his school work and mindful when his work needed to be turned in on time." Max's mother also believed the program helped him remember what he needed to complete. She also expressed the program helped her know what was going on in his class on a daily basis.

Nate

All components of the CICO intervention were implemented in entirety with Nate. The primary researcher maintained weekly contact with his mother throughout the intervention by contacting her via phone calls and text messages.

Completion of the Task Analysis

During baseline, Nate's ability to complete the academic planning and social skill task analysis ranged from .0% to 37% and averaged 22.6%. During intervention, Nate's performance on task analysis probes immediately increased in level and trend. His performance ranged from 70% to 91% and averaged 80.6%. After the fourth day of intervention, Nate entered the maintenance condition where his ability to complete the task analysis ranged from 97% to 100% with an average performance of 98.5% (see Figure 1).

Course Grades

Prior to the implementation of the study Nate was failing two out of four of his courses. He had a C in the other two courses he was actually passing. The comments included on his report card were, "Nate needs to pay more attention in class" and "Nate does not complete homework assignments". Throughout the course of the intervention Nate's grades improved and he passed all of his classes at the end of the semester. Table 4 shows a summary of Nate's grades. Card marking 1 and interim reports were both prior to intervention, marking 2 occurred during intervention.

Table 4: Grades Earned by Nate

| Course | Card Marking 1 | Interim Report | Card Marking 2 |
|-------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| Band | C | B | D |
| Science | F | F | D |
| Pre-Algebra | C | F | C |
| English | F | F | D |

Anecdotal Information

During initial implementation of the intervention, the facilitator discussed information gathered during the FBA interviews and observations completed by his teachers with Nate. One problem behavior discussed was the refusal to complete group classroom activities. It was hypothesized that the function of his behavior was avoidance of working with others. A "Joining In" skill was taught during intervention. When Nate was asked about any behavior problems that he had in any class, he stated on two occasions that he had missing assignments in his class because he was not completing them. When asked about a possible way to solve this issue he talked about making up these missing assignments. He was also able to state the four steps for asking others for joining in a group activity. The academic component of CICO required Nate to write down assignments due for each of his classes and the materials that were needed to complete the assignments. If there were no assignments due in his class, he was instructed to write, "No Homework" in that block. Nate consistently used the planner to write down his assignments.

Social Validity

Office referral and suspension data. Prior to Nate's participation in this study, he was given three in school suspensions for: (a) being disrespectful towards staff (refusal to complete work or make up and class assignments), (b) skipping class, and (c) skipping school. These infractions were inclusive of the current and previous school year and included: two for skipping class/truancy and one for disrespect. Over the course of the 5 week study and following its completion, Nate received no additional office referrals.

DRC Ratings. During baseline Nate was rated by his teachers each period on a daily bases for a total of 5 days. Nate was not aware that he was being rated by his teachers. The most points a participant could earn in a day were 180 points, 144 points is considered 80%. During baseline Nate's daily ratings ranged from a total of 60 points to 87 points and averaged 74.2 points. During the intervention phase, which included mini social skills steps, Nate's daily ratings ranged from a total of 140 points to 159 points and averaged 148 points.

Perception interviews. Nate and his mother both completed a perception interview at the end of the study. Results of the perception interview completed by Nate indicated that he felt comfortable meeting with the facilitator daily. He felt that the daily feedback given by his classroom teachers on the DRC was helpful because it let him know how he was doing in his classes and he was able to use that information to do better. When asked if the mentoring program helped him behave better in class he stated, "Yeah, I guess you can say that. It helped me to accomplish more work than I have before." Nate expressed liking the social skill activities because they "helped him prepare for next semester." I asked Nate what he liked most about CICO and his response was, "The money you

offered at the end.” I also asked him what he liked least about CICO or what should be changed, he responded, “Can’t think of anything.” Results of the perception interview completed by Nate’s mother indicated that he mentioned the program a few times and said it was going well. She stated, “The program was motivating for him and she liked the fact he was completing make-up work.” Nate’s mother expressed her appreciation for the daily feedback given by teachers and plans to ask that it be incorporated as a strategy in his next IEP.

Mr. Brown (Facilitator)

Social validity interview. I asked Mr. Brown if he felt the facilitator training and checklist was helpful and prepared him to implement the CICO program. He stated, “The checklist was very helpful in me understanding what to do. The checklist allowed me to know what we were looking for and what the goals were.” He believed the program had a positive impact on the participants because there was someone to meet with them daily. He stated, “Even if they did get into trouble, this program created some accountability, because many times the parents have no idea what's going on at the school.” Mr. Brown hypothesized that possibly meeting with him at the end of the day deterred some of the behavior issues because they didn't want to report any trouble. He expressed what he liked most about the program was, “Getting to see the kids and getting to know them, watching them start out shaky and then improve.” What Mr. Brown liked least about the program was the limited time with the students. He also expressed a desire to work with them on other skills and perhaps accompany them on some field trips in the community. Additionally, he believed that that the program could have had more of an impact if more personal activities were incorporated. At the end of

the discussion he commented that the 10 or 15 min for program implementation was appropriate but constricting and at times. He sometimes felt rushed because of his teacher responsibilities. Overall Mr. Brown expressed enjoyment for being part of the program and was thankful for the opportunity.

Teachers

Social validity questionnaires. As stated previously, I asked two teachers of each participant (six teachers) to complete a questionnaire about the effectiveness and practicality of the CICO program. According to the Likert section of the questionnaire, 3 out of 6 teachers observed "A lot of Improvement" regarding a decrease in disruptive behavior for the target student and 1 out of 6 teachers observed "Moderate Improvement." As far as an increase in academic achievement, 1 out of 6 teachers observed "Moderate Improvement" and 3 out of 6 teachers observed "Slight Improvement". When asked to rate the question, "How effective do you believe this mentoring program was in helping your target students to be more successful in the classroom environment?", 3 out of 6 teachers said the program was "Effective" and 2 out of 6 teachers said it was "Slightly Effective". When asked to rate, "To what extent they would recommend this program to students who have similar behavioral and social issues", 4 out of 6 teachers said they would "Recommend" the program and 1 out of 6 teachers said they would "Possibly Recommend" the program. The final question was, "If your school was given the instructional materials used for this study and training, to what extent do you think this intervention would be practical for a teacher, an instructional assistant, or a general education peer to implement within the school

setting?" Half of the teachers (3 out of 6) said it was either "Practical" of "Very Practical" and 2 out of 6 teachers said it was "Slightly Practical".

Open ended responses. There was one open ended question that allowed teachers to make comments. One teacher expressed that her student did improve in behavior but still have a hard time understanding the class content. A second teacher expressed that the student was willing to participant in class more than they had before. The teacher believed the program was the variable that changed the behavior. Another, teacher noted that the extra attention was helpful to the student and that she wish the program would have been implemented earlier in the semester. Table 5 displays the teachers' responses related to each participant.

Table 5: Teacher's Responses to Questionnaire

| | | | | |
|--|----------------------------------|--|----------------------------------|---|
| 1. How much improvement did you observe for target students regarding a decrease of disruptive behavior in your class? | No Improvement Que | Slight Improvement Max | Moderate Improvement Que | A lot of Improvement Max Nate Nate |
| 2. How much improvement did you observe for target students regarding an increase in academic achievement? | No Improvement Que Max | Slight Improvement Max Nate Que | Moderate Improvement Nate | A lot of Improvement |

| | | | | |
|---|---------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|----------------------------|
| 3. Overall, how effective do you believe this mentoring program was in helping your target students to be more successful in the classroom environment? | Not Effective Que | Slightly Effective Max Nate | Effective Max Nate Que | Very Effective |
| 4. To what extent would you recommend this program to students who have similar social and/or behavioral needs? | Not Recommend Que | Possibly Recommend Max | Recommend Max Nate Nate Que | Definitely Recommend |
| 5. If your school was given the instructional materials used for this study and training, to what extent do you think this intervention would be practical for a teacher, an instructional assistant, or a general education peer to implement within the school setting? | Not Practical Nate | Slightly Practical Que Max | Practical Max Que | Very Practical Nate |

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to extend the research conducted by Todd et al. (2008) by investigating the Effects of Check-in Check-out (a mentoring program) on the social and academic planning and outcomes of African American males in an urban secondary setting. A multiple probe across participants design was used. The Check-in Check-out mentoring intervention package included several components such as: (a) daily mentoring with a facilitator, (b) goal setting, (c) constant feedback from classroom teachers, (d) consideration of behavioral functions of the African American participants, (e) mini social skills activities, (f) potential to earn tangible rewards, and (g) parent involvement. The participants were three 9th-grade African American male students with mild intellectual disabilities and challenging behaviors. Results indicated a functional relationship between the mentoring intervention package, the percentage of steps performed, and questions answered correctly on the task analysis, by all participants during mentoring sessions. There was also a significant decrease in disciplinary actions received by participants. Findings and discussion points are presented in this chapter organized by the six research questions. Limitations of the study, suggestions for future research, and implications for practice are discussed.

Effects of Interventions on Dependent Variables

Research Question 1: To what extent did the Check-in Check-out mentoring program improve participant's execution of social skills as an alternative to noncompliant or disruptive behavior during mentoring session discussions?

Research Question 2: To what extent did the Check-in Check-out mentoring program improve participant's execution of daily academic planning components during mentoring session discussions?

Findings from this study indicated a functional relationship between the mentoring intervention package and the percentage of steps performed correctly by all participants during the mentoring sessions, with the facilitator in the school setting. Specifically, participants' percentage of correct responses during mentoring sessions with the facilitator for the individualized targeted social skills (e.g., asking for help, following directions, and joining in) and the components of academic planning (Figures 1) demonstrate that all three participants performed better during the mentoring condition than during the baseline condition. Participants' percentage of correct responses during mentoring sessions averaged 12.3% during the baseline condition and 77.1% during intervention. The implementation of Check-in Check-out which included academic planning and mini social skills instructions, showed an increase of 64.8%. This study supports previous research that mentoring related interventions have been found to be effective academic and behavioral interventions for African American male youths. (Campbell-Whatley et al., 1997). Furthermore, mentoring relationships that incorporate PBIS strategies are effective for students who display disruptive behaviors in the classroom setting and decrease the need for more intensive levels of behavioral support (Crone et al., 2004; Todd et al., 2008). This study also made three unique contributions to the research using CICO. First, this study supports the use of an adapted version of a

social skills instruction program. This program is an effective way to improve participants' alternative behaviors and to decrease disruptive and noncompliant behaviors in the classroom and school setting. Two previous studies (Goldstein & Glick, 1994; Tse et al., 2007) also incorporated the Skillstreaming the Adolescent social skills program into their intervention package to teach alternative behaviors.

Second, another component that contributes to the intervention effectiveness and supports previous research may be that the social skills instruction was developed from a functional perspective. Instruction not only addressed why students might be exhibiting certain social behaviors, but also the expected consequences or outcomes of such behavior, and more appropriate ways to achieve the same outcomes (Anderson & Freeman, 2000; Carr et al., 2002).

Third, this study contributes to the notion of incorporating academic planning and social skills instruction into the daily check-ins of CICO for students. Each of the participants was able to complete the checklist for planning their day and state the steps of social skills that would benefit them in the classroom and school environment. These findings support previous research in that mentoring has positive effects on both behavior and academics (Gureasko-Moore et al., 2007; Hawken et al., 2007).

Research Question 3: Did the use of Check-in Check-out increase students' academic achievement?

Prior to implementation of the Check-in, Check-out mentoring program: (a) Que was failing all four of his classes, (b) Max was failing two out of four classes, and (c) Nate was also failing two out of four classes. After implementation of Check-in, Check-out two out of three participants showed an increase in at least one of their end of semester grades (Tables 2 and 4). This study supports previous research which indicated

that mentoring programs, implemented with caring, supportive adults, aids students in setting obtainable goals and as a result, better grades (Clasen & Clasen, 1997; Flaxman, 1998; 2001; Smink, 2000). A study by Daloz (2004) also found that adult mentors provided at-risk students with a positive and influential person in their lives and positively impacted academic achievement.

Furthermore, this study supports the use of Check and Connect (a version of CICO) to increase the academic achievement of urban, secondary students. Sinclair et al. (1998) found that the use of Check and Connect had positive effects on students' completion of assignments, academic competence, and course credits earned.

Finally, this study supports the use of a task analysis that includes an academic planning component. Additionally, the present study lends credence to the use of self-management to increase students' academic skills by targeting behaviors such as: (a) attention to task (Reid, 1996), (b) academic productivity (Harris et al., 2005), (c) academic accuracy (Maag, Reid, & DiGangi, 1993), and (d) homework completion (Gureasko-Moore et al., 2007).

Research Question 4: Did the use of Check-in Check-out decrease students' office discipline referrals?

Research Question 5: Did the use of Check-in Check-out decrease students' out of school suspensions?

Prior to the implementation of the current study, all of the participants had been given office discipline referrals that resulted in out-of- school suspensions. All of the suspension and referral data were inclusive of the current and previous school years. Que's infractions included insubordination, inappropriate language, disrespect, use of controlled substance, and aggressive behavior. Over the course of the 5 week study and

following its completion, Que received no additional office referrals. Max's infractions included fighting, disruption, disrespect, tardiness/skipping, and aggressive behavior. Over the course of the 5 week study and following its completion, Max received two additional office referrals. The first referral was given during baseline and the second referral was given the first day of intervention. Nate's infractions included skipping school/truancy and disrespect. Over the course of the 5 weeks study and following its completion, Nate received no additional office referrals.

The use of a task analysis that included a social skills component, supported the use of self-management to decrease inappropriate behaviors displayed by students (Todd et al., 1999) and teach alternative behaviors, therefore decreasing disruptive behaviors displayed in the classroom. Previous researchers have achieved effectiveness by targeting behaviors such as: (a) social behaviors (Strain & Kohler, 1994), (b) disruptive behavior (Lam, Cole, Shapiro, & Bambara, 1994), and (c) various social behaviors such as peer communication and play (Marchant et al., 2007).

Additionally, the results of this study are consistent with the results of previous studies (Todd et al, 2008) found that the implementation of CICO decreased problem behaviors displayed by students such as: (a) being in the wrong location, (b) talking without the teacher's permission, (c) not following directions, (d) talking to peers, (e) disturbing others, and (f) engaging in negative and physical altercations with teachers and peers. Likewise, Hawken et al., (2007) examined the effectiveness of the Behavior Education Program on office discipline referrals (ODR) with twelve elementary students. Results indicated that the use of BEP correlated to a reduction in the amount of ODRs received by participants each month.

Discussion of Social Validity Findings

Research Question 6: What are the perceptions of teachers, students, parents, and facilitators of the Check-in Check-out implementation and outcomes?

Based on social validity outcomes from students, parents, and classroom teachers in this study, CICO aided students in decreasing their disruptive behavior and was easy to implement. CICO also resulted in positive student outcomes, including increased academics and use of social skills strategies. Students indicated that they found the daily mentoring sessions helpful and receiving assistance was beneficial. These findings are similar to social validations of teachers' perceptions in previous studies (McCurdy et al., 2007) and facilitators (Hawken et al., 2007). Based on student perceptions and performance, the mentoring and teacher feedback components of CICO were effective in reducing disruptive behavior of African American males at the secondary level. This study also found that incorporating social skills instruction and academic planning can result in positive outcomes. The facilitator's interview provided crucial information about the implementation of the CICO program. Mr. Brown expressed that he was rushed at times because of his teacher responsibilities. He also believed the program would have been even more effective if he just served as a facilitator, incorporating more character education into the sessions and taking the participants into the community.

Specific Contributions of this Study

This study contributes to the literature in multiple ways. First, it adds to the efficacy of using function-based interventions over more traditional methods of classroom discipline only address discipline and not the function of an individual's behavior. Secondly, it expands the generalizability of CICO to a new population of students by targeting secondary African American males, in an urban setting, who are at-

risk for or identified as EBD. Third, the study also lends credence to the practicality of teachers and faculty acting as the primary persons responsible for the implementation of CICO. These contributions are discussed in detail in the following paragraphs.

Foremost, this study extends the research base on the effectiveness of functional-based interventions. Only two other studies found in the literature mentioned conducting a FBA prior to or during the implementation of CICO (Anderson & Campbell, 2008). A study conducted by March and Horner, (2002) incorporated FBAs but not until students were not responsive to the CICO intervention. Functional analysis is the only method for validating a functional relationship between the targeted behavior and the variables manipulated, so it is the most precise way of determining the true function of a student's behavior (O'Neill et al., 1997). By conducting interviews of students, teachers, and parents and conducting observations in the classroom setting, the researcher was able to determine the function of participants' inappropriate behavior and aid the facilitator in appropriately choosing the social skills that needed to be taught during mentoring sessions.

Most importantly, the study adds to the sparse literature targeting secondary African American males, in an urban setting, who are at-risk for or identified as EBD. Previous studies included participants who were African American males but few studies specifically targeted them as the primary participants (McCurdy et al., 2007; Sinclair et al., 2005). It should be noted that there are no studies at the secondary level that focus on specifically using CICO with African American males. African American male students were purposely targeted for this study because of the disproportionality of this population in the special education referrals, particularly in the EBD category, disciplinary referrals,

and out of school suspensions received. Therefore, the present study added to the generalizability of CICO to a new population of students.

Finally, this study lends support to the idea of training school faculty (e.g., teachers or teacher assistants) about the CICO mentoring program and having them as primary interventionists. Swain-Bradway (2009) found that when adolescents were questioned by researchers about reasons they left school, the common response was academic failure or lack of school connection. One recommendation given was to utilize adults in the school setting to make these connections. This study addressed this recommendation and results indicated that school personnel can be primary change agents when implementing the components of the CICO mentoring program.

Limitations and Implications for Future Research

This study has several limitations and specific implications for future research. First, this study was conducted with high school students in general education classrooms, which affects the ability to generalize results to other students in other settings. The study was also conducted in an urban setting, therefore replications of the study with other populations would also allow for broader generalizations. Future studies should also investigate different service level settings (e.g., self-contained or resource) and different geographical settings (e.g., suburban or rural).

Secondly, the facilitator was compensated for participation in this study. It seemed reasonable to compensate school personnel for their participation in a study requiring additional time and effort as an extension of typical school expectations. A conversation with the facilitator revealed that he was unaware of the compensation but was still willing to work with participants; however, the question remains as to whether

or not the facilitator would have been willing to participate without compensation. Future research studies should investigate school personnel's' willingness to go beyond typical school involvement to prevent/intervene in order to improve students' classroom behavior and academic planning.

This study did not isolate the mentoring component from the social skill instruction or academic planning components of the intervention package. Another limitation of the study was that it involved several related interventions and therefore it is not easily identifiable which part(s) of the intervention was necessary to produce positive results. Therefore it cannot be determined which combinations of the intervention, mentoring, social skills, or academic planning that increased participants' use of targeted social skills and achievement. Future research may address this limitation by comparing teacher-led social skills versus academic planning. Task analysis instruction and mentor-led social skill instruction, or different combination of any of the program components to determine which, is most effective.

Another limitation is that two of the participants were still failing classes at the end of the study. There is a need for future research to combine CICO with some academic strategy training. Future research may also consider incorporating tutoring into the implementation of CICO.

Finally, this study employed a single-case methodology. While the internal validity of the study was strengthened by the use of quality indicators (Horner et al., 2005), studies using this design need further replications to generalize it to different participants and settings. Therefore, it is important for future research to include systematic replications of this study with other populations across multiple geographic

locations. These changes will allow for broader generalizations of the effects of the CICO intervention on disruptive behavior and academic planning.

Implications for Practice

Based on the findings from this study, several implications for practice can be suggested. First, the present study adds to the efficacy of using school personnel to serve in a mentoring role. Because mentoring is a secondary role for the teacher and may add to their responsibilities, creating community partnerships and soliciting volunteers to serve as mentors may lessen some of these difficulties.

Secondly, the present study focused on the need to educate the facilitator serving in the mentor role. Providing professional development on the implementation of CICO is critical.

Third, the present study has important implications for the field of education because it recognizes the use of CICO for general education teachers. Most special education strategies are reactive, but CICO is proactive because it assist students before they enroll in special education. Possibly this approach can limit student's placement in special education. Therefore, it can be used as a response to intervention in Tier programs. The study also has important implications for the field of education in providing a possible means to decrease office referrals and suspensions for African American students with disabilities, while increasing their academic achievement.

Summary

The present study focused on providing social skills instruction to African American male students who exhibited difficulty in the general education setting as an alternative to disruptive behavior. Additionally, the present study included many facets of instruction (Gresham et al., 2001) which investigated the function or the “why” behind a student’s behavior that utilized a mentoring intervention treatment package that included social skills instruction and academic planning. The intervention included: (a) daily mentoring with a facilitator, (b) goal setting, (c) constant feedback from classroom teachers, (d) consideration of behavioral functions, (e) mini social skills activities, (f) the potential to earn tangible rewards, and (g) parent involvement. The content of social skills instruction was adjusted daily to address the needs of participants. In addition, the current study measured the percentage of steps performed correctly on the social skills and academic planning task analysis during mentoring sessions. The present study revealed a functional relationship between the implementation of CICO and participant’s performance on the CICO task analysis. Two out of three students demonstrated an increase in semester grades. There was also a significant decrease in the amount of disciplinary actions the participants received before and after intervention.

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APPENDIX A: Que's CHECKLIST FOR CHECK-IN CHECK-OUT

Circle a "0" "1" or "2" for each of the following questions:

*** Collected the DRP from yesterday***

| | 0 | 1 | 2 |
|--|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| Facilitator: <i>What assignments do you have due in your classes?</i> 1. Student is able to state what assignments are due for his class (4pts) Class 1 Class 2 Class 3 Class 4 | 0 0 0 0 | 1 1 1 1 | 2 2 2 2 |
| Facilitator: <i>Do you have the assignment? Materials?</i> 2. Student is able to provide needed materials to complete the assignment (4pts) Class1 Class 2 Class 3 Class 4 | 0 0 0 0 | 1 1 1 1 | 2 2 2 2 |
| Facilitator: <i>What behavior problem are you having in your classes right now? Do you have a goal?</i> Not asking for help 3. Student is able to state a problem behavior (2pt) | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| Facilitator: <i>What is a possible way to solve the problem?</i> 4. Student will state the skill steps needed to respond to the given situation. Skill Steps: (Asking for help) 1 <u>Decide what the problem is.</u> 2 <u>Decide if you want help for the problem.</u> 3 <u>Think about different people who may be able to help you and pick one</u> (4) <u>Tell that person about the problem and ask that person to help you. (4pts)</u> <u>Do you need any paper or a pencil?</u> | 0 0 0 0 | 1 1 1 1 | 2 2 2 2 |

| | | | |
|--|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Facilitator: <i>What problem behaviors did you have today?</i> 5. Student will be able to state the problem behavior he had that day (2pt) | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| Facilitator: <i>What strategy did you use today?</i> 6. Student is able to state the strategy that used that day (2pt) | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| Facilitator: <i>What assignments do you have due in your classes tomorrow?</i> 7. Student is able to state what assignments are due for his class (4pts) Class 1 Class 2 Class 3 Class 4 | 0 0 0 0 | 1 1 1 1 | 2 2 2 2 |
| Facilitator: <i>Do you have the assignment? Materials?</i> 8. Student is able to provide needed materials to complete the assignment (4pts) Class 1 Class 2 Class 3 Class 4 | 0 0 0 0 | 1 1 1 1 | 2 2 2 2 |

Scoring: #s of YES = _____ Total #s of responses = _____ Percent = _____

0=irrelevant and incomplete or inaccurate response, 1= relevant but incomplete and/or inaccurate response, 2= relevant, complete and accurate response

APPENDIX A (continued): Max's CHECKLIST FOR CHECK-IN CHECK-OUT

Circle a "0" "1" or "2" for each of the following questions:

*** Collected the DRP from yesterday***

| | 0 | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Facilitator: <i>What assignments do you have due in your classes?</i> 1. Student is able to state what assignments are due for his class (4pts) | | | |
| Class 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| Class 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| Class 3 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| Class 4 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| Facilitator: <i>Do you have the assignment? Materials?</i> 2. Student is able to provide needed materials to complete the assignment (4pts) | | | |
| Class 1 | | | |
| Class 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| Class 3 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| Class 4 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| Facilitator: <i>What behavior problem are you having in your classes right now? Do you have a goal?</i> Not following directions 3. Student is able to state a problem behavior (2pt) | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| Facilitator: <i>What steps should you take when you are asked to do something?</i> 4. Student will state the skill steps needed to respond to the given situation. | | | |
| Skill Steps: (Asking for help) | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| 1. <u>Listen carefully while you are being told what to do.</u> | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| 2. <u>Ask questions about anything you don't understand</u> | | | |
| 3. <u>Repeat the instructions to yourself</u> | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| 4. <u>Do what you have been asked. (4pts)</u> | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| <u>Do you need any paper or a pencil?</u> | | | |

| | | | |
|--|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Facilitator: <i>What problem behaviors did you have today?</i> 5. Student will be able to state the problem behavior he had that day (2pt) | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| Facilitator: <i>What strategy did you use today?</i> 6. Student is able to state the strategy that used that day (2pt) | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| Facilitator: <i>What assignments do you have due in your classes tomorrow?</i> 7. Student is able to state what assignments are due for his class (4pts) Class 1 Class 2 Class 3 Class 4 | 0 0 0 0 | 1 1 1 1 | 2 2 2 2 |
| Facilitator: <i>Do you have the assignment? Materials?</i> 8. Student is able to provide needed materials to complete the assignment (4pts) Class 1 Class 2 Class 3 Class 4 | 0 0 0 0 | 1 1 1 1 | 2 2 2 2 |

Scoring: #s of YES = _____ Total #s of responses = _____ Percent = _____

0=irrelevant and incomplete or inaccurate response, **1**= relevant but incomplete and/or inaccurate response, **2**= relevant, complete and accurate response

APPENDIX A (continued): Nate's CHECKLIST FOR CHECK-IN CHECK-OUT

Circle a "0" "1" or "2" for each of the following questions:

*** Collected the DRP from yesterday***

| | 0 | 1 | 2 |
|---|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| Facilitator: <i>What assignments do you have due in your classes?</i> 1. Student is able to state what assignments are due for his class (4pts) Class 1 Class 2 Class 3 Class 4 | 0 0 0 0 | 1 1 1 1 | 2 2 2 2 |
| Facilitator: <i>Do you have the assignment? Materials?</i> 2. Student is able to provide needed materials to complete the assignment (4pts) Class1 Class 2 Class 3 Class 4 | 0 0 0 0 | 1 1 1 1 | 2 2 2 2 |
| Facilitator: <i>What behavior problem are you having in your classes right now? Do you have a goal?</i> Not joining a group 3. Student is able to state a problem behavior (2pt) | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| Facilitator: <i>What is a possible way to solve the problem?</i> 4. Student will state the skill steps needed to respond to the given situation. Skill Steps: (Joining In) 1 <u>Decide if you need to join the activity others are doing.</u> 2 <u>Decide the best way to join in.</u> 3 <u>Choose the best time to join in.</u> 4 <u>Join the activity. (4pts)</u> | 0 0 0 0 | 1 1 1 1 | 2 2 2 2 |
| <u>Do you need any paper or a pencil?</u> | | | |

| | | | |
|--|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Facilitator: <i>What problem behaviors did you have today?</i> 5. Student will be able to state the problem behavior he had that day (2pt) | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| Facilitator: <i>What strategy did you use today?</i> 6. Student is able to state the strategy that used that day (2pt) | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| Facilitator: <i>What assignments do you have due in your classes tomorrow?</i> 7. Student is able to state what assignments are due for his class (4pts) Class 1 Class 2 Class 3 Class 4 | 0 0 0 0 | 1 1 1 1 | 2 2 2 2 |
| Facilitator: <i>Do you have the assignment? Materials?</i> 8. Student is able to provide needed materials to complete the assignment (4pts) Class 1 Class 2 Class 3 Class 4 | 0 0 0 0 | 1 1 1 1 | 2 2 2 2 |

Scoring: #s of YES = _____ Total #s of responses = _____ Percent = _____

0=irrelevant and incomplete or inaccurate response, **1**= relevant but incomplete and/or inaccurate response, **2**= relevant, complete and accurate response

APPENDIX B: PROCEDURAL CHECKLIST FOR CHECK-IN CHECK-OUT

Date: _____ Time: _____ Check-in _____

Teacher: _____

| Step | Completed Yes | Completed No | Unsure |
|--|---------------|--------------|--------|
| 1. Facilitator collects daily report card signed by the parent | | | |
| 2. Facilitator asks student what assignments they have due in their classes | | | |
| 3. Facilitator ask student if they have the assignments and materials that are needed for the day | | | |
| 4. Facilitator provides the daily report card for the current day | | | |
| 5. Facilitator ask student what behavior problems they are currently having in their classes | | | |
| Facilitator ask if they have a goal | | | |
| 6. Facilitator engages student in a brief chat about the coming day. (Being able to state the intervention strategy that is related to the results of their FBA and the steps that should be completed was included in the chat). (e.g., practice or role-play) | | | |
| 7. Reminding students to write down their assignments and materials they need on the form that was provided. | | | |

Other observations:

Date: _____ Time: _____ Check-out _____

| Step | Completed Yes | Completed No | Unsure |
|--|---------------|--------------|--------|
| 1. Facilitator asks student what problems they had with behavior today. | | | |
| 2. Facilitator asks student, what strategy they used to deal with the behavior today. | | | |
| 3. Facilitator asks students what homework assignments they have for each class | | | |
| 4. Facilitator ask if they have the needed materials to complete their homework assignments for each class | | | |
| 5. Facilitator totals the points earned with the student | | | |
| 6. Rewards are given for meeting goal of 80% | | | |
| 7. Facilitator sends daily report card home for parent's signature | | | |

Other observations:

APPENDIX C: DAILY BEHAVIOR REPORT CARD (Example)

Student: _____

Date: _____

Directions: review each of the Daily Behavior Report Card items below. For each item, provide either the percentage or rate the degree to which the student demonstrated the behavior or met the behavior goal. **TEACHERS YOU DO NOT HAVE TO TOTAL THE POINTS!!! Thanks :-)**

| Goal | Period 1 | Period 2 |
|---|---|---|
| Followed teacher directions | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9 Never/Seldom Sometimes Usually/Always | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9 Never/Seldom Sometimes Usually/Always |
| Worked consistently on class assignment/ projects | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9 Never/Seldom Sometimes Usually/Always | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9 Never/Seldom Sometimes Usually/Always |
| Spoke respectfully to adults and peers | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9 Never/Seldom Sometimes Usually/Always | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9 Never/Seldom Sometimes Usually/Always |
| Refrained from conversations with peers during academic activities and independent seatwork | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9 Never/Seldom Sometimes Usually/Always | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9 Never/Seldom Sometimes Usually/Always |
| Refrained from repetitive motor behaviors (e.g., table-tapping), vocalizations, and did not play with objects during academic or work time. | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9 Never/Seldom Sometimes Usually/Always | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9 Never/Seldom Sometimes Usually/Always |

APPENDIX C: (continued) DAILY BEHAVIOR REPORT CARD (Example)

Student: _____

Date: _____

Directions: review each of the Daily Behavior Report Card items below. For each item, provide either the percentage or rate the degree to which the student demonstrated the behavior or met the behavior goal. **TEACHERS YOU DO NOT HAVE TO TOTAL THE POINTS!!! Thanks :-)**

| Goal | Period 3 | Period 4 |
|---|---|---|
| Followed teacher directions | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9 Never/Seldom Sometimes Usually/Always | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9 Never/Seldom Sometimes Usually/Always |
| Worked consistently on class assignment/ projects | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9 Never/Seldom Sometimes Usually/Always | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9 Never/Seldom Sometimes Usually/Always |
| Spoke respectfully to adults and peers | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9 Never/Seldom Sometimes Usually/Always | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9 Never/Seldom Sometimes Usually/Always |
| Refrained from conversations with peers during academic activities and independent seatwork | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9 Never/Seldom Sometimes Usually/Always | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9 Never/Seldom Sometimes Usually/Always |
| Refrained from repetitive motor behaviors (e.g., table-tapping), vocalizations, and did not play with objects during academic or work time. | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9 Never/Seldom Sometimes Usually/Always | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9 Never/Seldom Sometimes Usually/Always |

Total Daily Points: _____ Comments: _____

Student Signature: _____

Parent Signature: _____

APPENDIX D: SOCIAL VALIDITY INTERVIEW (STUDENT)

Student: _____ Interviewer: _____ Date: _____

1. Did you feel comfortable meeting with an adult in the morning and afternoon?
2. Can you remember an instance when meeting with the facilitator had a positive impact on your day? (e.g., helped to change your mood, calmed you down, prepared you for class)
3. How was receiving feedback at the end of every period helpful or not helpful?
4. Do you think this mentoring program helped you behave better in class? Why or why not?
5. Did you like the social skills activities? Why? or Why not?
6. What did you like most about CICO?
7. What did you like least about CICO?
8. Any other comments?

APPENDIX E: SOCIAL VALIDITY INTERVIEW (PARENT)

1. Did you child appear to be comfortable about meeting with the facilitator at the beginning and end of the day?
2. Can you remember an instance when meeting with the facilitator had a positive impact on your child's day? (e.g., helped to change their mood, calmed them down, prepared them for class)
3. Why do you think it was beneficial or not beneficial receiving daily feedback from all of your child's teachers?
4. Why do you feel the program did or didn't have a positive impact on your child's classroom behavior?
5. Any other comments?

APPENDIX F: SOCIAL VALIDITY INTERVIEW (FACILITATOR)

1. Do you feel the facilitator training and checklist prepared you to implement the CICO program? Why or why not?
2. Why do you feel the program did or didn't have a positive impact on the student's classroom behavior?
3. What did you like most about CICO?
4. What did you like least about CICO?
5. What would you change about the implementation of the program?
6. Do you feel this program is practical to implement in other settings?
7. How much time did it take to complete the sessions?
8. Do you think the time it took was appropriate?
9. Any other comments?

APPENDIX G: SOCIAL VALIDITY QUESTIONNAIRE (TEACHER)

Teacher's name: _____ Student's name: _____

| | | | | |
|---|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|---|
| 1. How much improvement did you observe for target students regarding a decrease of disruptive behavior in your class? | No Improvement 1 | Slight Improvement 2 | Moderate Improvement 3 | A lot of Improvement 4 |
| 2. How much improvement did you observe for target students regarding an increase in academic achievement? | No Improvement 1 | Slight Improvement 2 | Moderate Improvement 3 | A lot of Improvement 4 |
| 3. Overall, how effective do you believe this mentoring program was in helping your target students to be more successful in the classroom environment? | Not Effective 1 | Slightly Effective 2 | Effective 3 | Very Effective 4 |
| 4. To what extent would you recommend this program to students who have similar social and/or behavioral needs? | Not Recommend 1 | Possibly Recommend 2 | Recommend 3 | Defiantly Recommend 4 |
| 5. If your school was given the instructional materials used for this study and training, to what extent do you think this intervention would be practical for a teacher, an instructional assistant, or a general education peer to implement within the school setting? | Not Practical 1 | Slightly Practical 2 | Practical 3 | Very Practical 4 |

6. Please provide any written comments regarding the usefulness, effectiveness, and/or importance of this mentoring program for your target students to decrease their disruptive behaviors.