



# Assessing progress and outcome of early intensive behavioral intervention for toddlers with autism



Rebecca MacDonald<sup>\*</sup>, Diana Parry-Cruwys, Sally Dupere, William Ahearn

*The New England Center for Children, Southborough, USA*

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## ABSTRACT

Intensive behavioral intervention for young children diagnosed with autism can produce large gains in social, cognitive, and language development. Although several studies have identified behaviors that are possible indicators of best outcome, changes in performance are typically measured using norm-referenced standardized scores referencing overall functioning level rather than via repeated observational measures of autism-specific deficits (i.e., social behavior). In the current study, 83 children with autism (CWA), aged 1, 2 and 3 years, and 58 same-aged typically developing children (TDC) were directly observed in the areas of cognitive skills, joint attention (JA), play, and stereotypic behavior using a measure called the Early Skills Assessment Tool (ESAT; MacDonald et al., 2006). CWA were assessed at entry into an EIBI program and again after 1 year of treatment. Changes in performance were compared pre- and post-treatment as well as to the normative data by age. Results indicate significant gains on the ESAT across all age groups with the greatest gains seen in the children who entered treatment prior to their second birthday. Increases were seen on direct measures of JA, play, imitation and language while decreases were seen in stereotypy regardless of level of performance at entry into EIBI. The ESAT, a direct measurement tool, served as a sensitive tool to measure changes in autism symptomatology following EIBI treatment.

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## 1. Introduction

Early intensive behavioral intervention (EIBI) for young children diagnosed with autism (CWA) can produce large gains in cognitive, language, and social development (Howlin, Magiati, & Charman, 2009). EIBI uses the principles of behavior analysis (ABA) to increase behavior in the areas of imitation, receptive and expressive language, gross and fine motor skills, play, and JA, as well as decrease behavioral excesses, such as tantruming, aggression, self-injury, and vocal and motor stereotypic behavior (see Howard, Sparkman, Cohen, Green, & Stanislaw, 2005 for a detailed description of EIBI implementation). When compared to other groups of CWA receiving eclectic intervention or minimal treatment, groups receiving EIBI achieved significantly larger gains (e.g., Eldevik, Hastings, Jahr, & Hughes, 2012).

In individual studies examining the efficacy of EIBI, standardized measures such as IQ and adaptive behavior composite (ABC) scores are often used to determine outcome. Common examples include tests of IQ (e.g., from the *Stanford-Binet*, the

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author at: New England Center for Children, 33 Turnpike Road, Southborough, MA 01772, USA. Tel.: +1 508 658 7526.  
E-mail address: bmacdonald@necc.org (R. MacDonald).

Bayley, the *Cattal*, the *WISC* and *WPPSI*, the *Merrill-Palmer*) and measures of overall functioning (e.g., the *Vineland Adaptive Behavior Scale*). Although these tests can identify improvements in functioning for CWA, changes in these scores are indicative of more global changes in functioning. Smaller-scale changes in the behavior of CWA, particularly changes in social behavior, may be more difficult to detect using a test of overall functioning level. The current study provides an important addition to the EIBI literature by using a measurement tool that examines changes in behavior on a micro-analytic scale, where response classes of behavior of most importance to the social functioning of CWA can be examined for changes over time. The focus of the current study is CWA who began EIBI services by the age of 3.

A small number of studies have examined or included a direct observation measure in their analysis of EIBI treatment. These measures are characterized by direct observation of specific, operationally defined behavior, with the data remaining in per-opportunity or percentage correct form versus being compiled or extrapolated into an overall score. These measures are also not standardized to the TDC population. [Smith, Buch, and Gamby \(2000\)](#) used a direct observation tool titled the Early Learning Measure (ELM) to measure skill acquisition for six CWA receiving home-based EIBI. The ELM included following directions, gross motor imitation, verbal imitation, and answering social questions. Researchers measured the number of correct responses and rate of skill acquisition through direct observation over the first five months of treatment. Vocal imitation skills on the ELM at intake were a predictor of best outcome. [MacDonald et al. \(2006\)](#) developed a direct observation tool called the ESAT to measure change in cognitive, as well as autism-specific behaviors in CWA receiving EIBI. This assessment is a variation on the ELM and incorporates adapted items from [Seibert, Hogan, and Mundy's \(1982\)](#) Early Social Communication Scales (ESCS, used to measure JA). Direct measures such as this, which examine autism-specific behavior change, may aid in painting a more complete picture of the types of change EIBI produces for this population.

Additional types of behavioral change, such as changes in interpersonal social skills, play behavior, or a reduction in socially stigmatizing behavior, may be harder to categorize with a test predominantly measuring changes in developmental functioning (e.g., [Dawson et al., 2010](#); *MSEL*, *VABS*). For this, pairing a repeated-measures analysis of operationally defined and observationally measured autism-specific deficits, such as eye contact, JA, imitation, and play, may be useful in determining what type of behavior corresponds to a change in developmental functioning. The *Autism Diagnostic Observation Schedule (ADOS-2)*; [Lord, Luyster, Gotham, & Guthrie, 2012](#); [Lord, Rutter, et al., 2012](#)) is currently the most widely used assessment of social behavior for children with autism. The *ADOS-2* is a semi structured assessment designed to assess communication and play skills, as well as repetitive behaviors. Examiners use a 3-point rating scale to evaluate overall performance. These ratings are then applied to an algorithm which contributes to a diagnosis of autism spectrum disorder (ASD). The ESAT contributes to the overall profile of a child by providing a direct measure of a wide range of skills across social, cognitive, and play domains, resulting in a sensitive and objective assessment of treatment effects.

### 1.1. Potential autism-specific measures of performance

Behavioral deficits that categorize an autism diagnosis include deficits in social behavior (e.g., eye contact, JA), and play when compared to TDC and developmentally disabled populations ([Adamson, Bakeman, Deckner, & Romski, 2009](#)). Careful examination of these variables may benefit researchers in determining whether gains made by CWA reflect a reduction in symptom severity.

Deficits in JA are noted in CWA ([Adamson et al., 2009](#); [Carpenter, Pennington, & Rogers, 2002](#)) and have been correlated with delays in language development ([Mundy, Sigman, & Kasari, 1990](#)). [Mundy, Sigman, and Kasari \(1994\)](#) discuss JA as the initiation of a gaze shift or gesture on the part of the child to share an experience or object with an adult. JA can also refer to the responding of a child to a bid (either a gaze shift or a gesture) for JA by the adult. [MacDonald et al. \(2006\)](#) used the ESAT to examine responding to and initiating JA bids. When compared to TDC, CWA showed decreased levels of responding to joint attention (RJA), specifically following a point. CWA also showed substantial deficits in initiating joint attention (IJA; including initiating gaze shifts, gestures, and/or vocalizations) when compared with TDC.

Appropriate play is an important variable in the social development of CWA, but one that is rarely included in analyses of EIBI ([Wolery & Garfinkle, 2002](#)). CWA often do not develop play skills beyond the repetitive manipulation of objects. This deficit in functional toy manipulation prohibits them from engaging in more complex pretend play, alone or with other children ([Lifter, 2000](#); [Rutherford, Young, Hepburn, & Rogers, 2007](#)). A standard teaching target of EIBI for preschool-aged CWA is increasing the repertoire of play skills, both alone and with peers. Changes in play behavior have rarely been analyzed in relation to EIBI outcome, although increasing measurable play behavior is a socially valid outcome of treatment ([Wolery & Garfinkle, 2002](#)).

An important area of continued research is response to treatment for CWA younger than age 3. In comparison to preschool-aged CWA, studies examining the response of CWA under 3 to EIBI have been sparse ([Ben Itzchak & Zachor, 2009, 2011](#); [Dawson et al., 2010](#)). The limited research focusing exclusively on EIBI for children entering treatment before 3 years of age has shown positive results similar to those seen for groups of children over 3 years. Examining the effects of EIBI on this extremely young population is an important area for continued research.

When analyzing factors at intake that were correlated with functioning at follow-up, increased IQ and adaptive score at entry are the most common predictors of best outcome, as well as younger age at entry ([Helt et al., 2008](#)). Increased performance across imitation, social, and language skills at the onset of treatment, as measured by standardized tests to determine age equivalence, were also found to be predictive of positive post-treatment outcome (e.g., [Fewell & Glick, 1996](#); [Liss et al., 2001](#)). Higher language scores at follow-up have been linked to both higher RJA scores ([Siller & Sigman, 2008](#)) and

IJA scores at intake (Bono, Daley, & Sigman, 2004). Few studies have examined toy play or stereotypic behavior as an indicator of outcome (e.g., Toth, Munson, Meltzoff, & Dawson, 2006). Both of these behaviors are included in Lovaas's (1987) checklist for estimated pathology, and the presence of stereotypic behavior was included in profile criteria for Sherer and Schreibman (2005), but examination of these variables individually as predictors of outcome for CWA has been very limited in the EIBI literature.

The purpose of this research is to examine the utility of a direct observational assessment in measuring change over time for CWA receiving EIBI treatment. This assessment focuses on measuring change in social behavior specific to an autism diagnosis, notably JA, imitation, language, and play behavior, as well as cognitive skills and repetitive behaviors. Assessment and outcome data are collected for 1-, 2-, and 3-year-olds diagnosed with autism, a group for whom limited outcome research has been collected (Wise, Little, Holliman, Wise, & Wang, 2010). Comparisons were made between performance for CWA and their typically developing age-matched peers. Additionally, contributions were made to establishing an optimal learner profile, with the addition of these data for a large sample of CWA performance on common EIBI teaching targets.

## 2. Methods

### 2.1. Participants

Data were collected for 83 children diagnosed with an ASD and 58 TDC using the ESAT (MacDonald et al., 2006). CWA ranged in age from 17 to 48 months at entry into the New England Center for Children (NECC) program and TDC ranged in age from 18 to 59 months at the time of testing (see Table 1 for sample characteristics by age). The CWA aged 17–36 months were enrolled in a Home-based program that provided 20–30 h per week of early intensive behavioral intervention (EIBI) services, while CWA aged 36–48 months were enrolled in a Preschool program that provided 28–30 h per week of EIBI. Assessments of CWA included both initial assessments upon entry into the EIBI program and follow-up assessments, after treatment (range, 7–15 months). All CWA receiving EIBI services at NECC during the investigation period were included in this study, unless their pre-post-tests were less than 7 months apart. All CWA received a diagnosis of an ASD using the DSM-IV criteria by a qualified independent psychologist from the community prior to entry into EIBI. These children had no prior exposure to EIBI programming, and did not receive outside services during their enrollment in the study. The TDC were assessed once and their data were added to a normative data pool for age groups by year. The TDC were enrolled in an on-site day care, community daycare, or an on-site integrated preschool classroom. As part of the day care and preschool programs all children received a developmental evaluation two times a year. The children who participated in this study performed within the normal range for their ages.

### 2.2. Setting

#### 2.2.1. Setting and materials

Assessments took place in a 3 m × 5 m room equipped with two child-sized tables, two child-sized chairs and one toy shelf with various toys on it. These toys were age appropriate and designed to promote play for children at a variety of developmental levels. All sessions were videotaped for later scoring, with the video camera in view of the child and manned by a second experimenter. Materials present at various points throughout the assessment were books, laminated pictures placed on the wall around the child, and toys, some of which were activated by the experimenter using a foot switch placed on the floor. During the play assessment, a variety of toys, including a pretend play toy (e.g., a farm with animals), a cause-and-effect toy (e.g., a jack-in-the box), a simple play toy (e.g., an inset puzzle or a shape sorter), were presented on the floor. Available on the toy shelf were additional puzzles, books, cars, and simple cause-and-effect toys like a ball spinner or pop-up toy.

### 2.3. EIBI treatment

All children with ASD were enrolled in an EIBI treatment program, based on the principles of behavior analysis (see Green, Brennan, & Fein, 2002, for a detailed description of similar EIBI services as those received by the participants). Instruction was

**Table 1**  
Sample characteristics.

Age range (in months)	Age in months Mean/SD		N	
	CWA	TDC	CWA	TDC
18–23	20.82 (2.25)	20.67 (1.89)	12	17
24–29	26.68 (1.73)	26.36 (1.82)	36	11
30–36	30.94 (1.30)	32.7 (1.35)	18	10
37–48	41.00 (3.79)	42.3 (3.27)	17	20
48–59		53.73 (3.65)		22

provided through discrete trial and naturalistic teaching in both individual and group settings (supported by a 1:1 therapist). The teaching procedures included systematic prompting and reinforcement along with best clinical practices for children with autism as defined by Maurice, Green, and Luce (1996) which are consistent with the recommendations in the literature resulting in best outcomes for children with autism (Howard et al., 2005; Lovaas, 1987). Individualized educational plans were developed for the children by a team of clinicians including a Board Certified Behavior Analyst (BCBA), a Speech and Language Pathologist, and an Occupational Therapist. Learning objectives were established across skill domains, including targets for functional language and other communication skills (e.g., receptive and expressive language, following instructions), discrimination skills (e.g., session behavior, attending, matching, higher order reading and math skills), social skills (e.g., eye contact in response to name, greetings, waiting, imitation, joint attention, play skills, peer interaction), self-help skills (e.g., hand washing, dressing, safety skills), and occupational therapy (e.g., gross and fine motor skills, utensil and cup use). These skills are common teaching targets in an EIBI program, follow typical child development and are recommended by several sources (e.g., Leaf & McEachin, 1999; Maurice et al., 1996). These skills also largely mirror those on the NECC Core Skills Assessment, a sequence of basic skills considered critical for independence. The skills on the Core Skills Assessment were socially validated as relevant skills for CWA to learn by a group of parents and educators of children with autism (Dickson et al., 2013).

Targeted skills were taught using the Autism Curriculum Encyclopedia<sup>®</sup>, a computer-based curriculum developed at NECC. Individual curricula prescribed the teaching procedures and daily data were used to evaluate learning. Common prompting and reinforcement strategies as described in the behavioral literature were used to promote acquisition, generalization, and maintenance of skills, including the fading of physical, verbal, and visual prompts and the use of direct and conditioned reinforcers determined through a variety of preference assessments. A generalization criterion of the performance of skills across teachers and settings was included in acquisition, and incidental teaching was used to address skill acquisition across the day. Data were reviewed weekly by supervisors and modifications were made in programming as needed.

Each child received instruction from a team of 3–4 bachelor's or master's level professionals with 1–3 years of training in ABA. These therapists were supervised daily by a master's level BCBA (or the equivalent prior to 2003) who was supervised weekly by a doctoral level BCBA-D. Speech and Language and Occupational Therapy services were delivered through a consultative model. These specialty service providers trained therapists to provide instruction in communication and motor skills. Parents of children in the center-based preschool program participated in a 2-h per week home training session to promote generalization of skills to home. In addition, families met with their BCBA and therapist for 1 h per month to discuss progress on behavioral and academic programming and to discuss home concerns.

#### 2.4. ESAT protocol

All participants were assessed using the ESAT as described in part in MacDonald et al. (2006). This direct observational assessment measures performance on several core developmental skills using skill acquisition, eye contact, and JA subtests. Portions of the assessment battery related to RJA and IJA were modeled on the ESCS (Seibert, Hogan, & Mundy, 1982). Assessment items related to cognitive skills included imitation and expressive language similar to the ELM (Lovaas & Smith, 1988).

Subtests consisted of four skill acquisition blocks (10 trials each), one 6-trial test of eye contact in response to name, three tests of joint attention initiation, three tests of responding to a point or gaze shift, and one 5-min free play sample. The order of these tests is shown in Table 2. Three additional 3-min play breaks were offered throughout the assessment at scheduled times. With these breaks, the assessment took approximately 40 min to complete. At the start of each subtest, the experimenter conducted a mini-preference assessment with three preferred food items or toys to determine a likely reinforcer for responding. During acquisition skill trials, correct responding was reinforced on an FR-1 schedule. Correct responding was defined as the child exhibiting the response independently and within 5 s of the cue. If the child responded

**Table 2**  
Subtests of the ESAT.

Subtest order	Type of subtest			
	IJA	RJA	Social	Cognitive
1	Toy activation			
2	Book			
3			Eye contact	
4			Free play	
5				Motor imitation
6		Respond to gaze shift		
7				Vocal imitation
8	Toy activation			
9				Answering social questions
10		Respond to point		
11				Following directions

incorrectly, appropriate session behavior (i.e. bottom in chair, oriented toward examiner) was reinforced on an FR-2 schedule. During JA probes, a preferred item was offered at the end of the probe independent of performance.

#### 2.4.1. Joint attention initiation

Joint attention initiation was assessed across three subtests. The child was given the opportunity to initiate joint attention with the experimenter in response to two activation toys and a book. In subtest 1, a mechanical toy that made noise was presented on a table approximately 3 feet in front of the child but out of reach. The toy was activated by a foot switch for 15 s. Joint attention responses were recorded during the 15 s of activation and the 5 s following. During initiating joint attention subtests, the experimenter oriented her gaze toward the child and maintained a neutral expression. If the child initiated any joint attention behavior, the adult looked at the toy or picture, smiled, looked back at the child, and briefly commented (“Oh yeah, look at that elephant!”). In subtest 2, the child was presented with a children’s book opened to a page with animals. The experimenter presented the question, “What do you see?” and joint attention responses occurring in the 20 s following this cue were recorded. Subtest 8 was identical to subtest 1; however, a different mechanical toy was presented on the floor next to the child and activated for 15 s. The behaviors measured during these subtests were eye gaze shifting from the toy to the examiner, gesturing and commenting (see [MacDonald et al., 2006](#)).

#### 2.4.2. Responding to joint attention

Three joint attention subtests targeted RJA bids from an adult. In the first of these JA subtests, the experimenter pointed to pictures in a simple book (one picture per page, six pages total). Responses were scored for following a point with their eyes to each picture within 5 s of the point cue. In the second joint attention responding subtest, six stimuli were placed around the room: a toy on the floor near the child, a toy on a shelf near the child, a picture placed on the wall next to the child, a picture placed on the wall behind the child, and an item was suspended from the ceiling above the child. The second experimenter in the room (sitting behind the video camera) served as the sixth stimulus. The experimenter established eye contact with the child, said “look,” and shifted her eye gaze toward one of the stimuli. The trial was scored as correct if the child followed the eye gaze shift to each stimulus within 5 s of the cue. In the third joint attention subtest the six stimuli were placed in the same position as in the second joint attention subtest. The experimenter established eye contact with the child, said “look,” pointed and shifted her eye gaze toward one of the stimuli. The trial was scored as correct if the child followed the point and gaze shift to each stimulus with his or her eyes within 5 s of the point cue.

#### 2.4.3. Social

Social behavior was measured by assessing eye contact and levels of play. In the eye contact subtest, six trials of responding to name with eye contact were presented. In three trials, the experimenter called the child’s name, and in three trials, the experimenter stated “(Child’s name), look at me.” Two common methods of gaining eye contact were presented in order to maximize the child’s opportunities to respond correctly. The trial was scored as correct if the child oriented his or her eyes to the experimenter within 5 s for a duration of 2 s.

A 5-min free play session followed the eye contact subtest. During the free-play sample, several toys were presented on the floor and the child was given free access to play or interact with them. This test was designed to measure a child’s solitary play, without any interaction from the experimenter. Experimenter interaction was held to a minimal and standardized level across participants in order to limit accidental prompting of play by experimenters. Developmentally-appropriate toys designed to promote play of varying complexity were presented, including a pretend play toy (e.g., a farm with figurines), a cause and effect toy (e.g. a race track with cars), and structured play materials (e.g., a shape sorter and puzzles). A shelf with additional toys such as small cars, puzzles, and simple board books was present next to the play area as well. To begin the play session, the experimenter initially gave the cue, “We’re all done, you can go play.” If the child did not independently go to the play area, the experimenter led the child to the play area and sat him or her down in front of the toys. The child was neither encouraged nor discouraged from playing with toys on the floor or on the shelf. If the child attempted to interact with the experimenter, the experimenter acknowledged the child’s presence or request (i.e., “You can have more chips in a minute, right now it’s time to play”) and led them back to the play space if necessary. During the play sample, the second experimenter filmed the session from a short distance away, focusing on keeping the child’s face and hands within frame for later scoring of play and stereotypy.

#### 2.4.4. Cognitive

The four cognitive subtests included motor imitation, answering social questions, vocal imitation, and following directions. Children were given 10 response opportunities within each subtest. All subtest questions were standardized across participants. In the first of these subtests, children were asked to imitate the experimenter when given the direction “do this” and the actions of clapping hands, standing up, and touching the table, among others. The second skill assessed answering social questions. The experimenter presented questions such as “What’s your name?,” “How old are you?,” and “What’s your favorite TV show?” The third subtest measured vocal imitation, in which the experimenter presented sounds and words for vocal imitation with the instruction “Say. . .” such as “Say *buh*,” “Say *dog*,” and “Say *bicycle*.” The final cognitive subtest assessed following 1-step instructions. The experimenter presented instructions including “stomp feet,” “jump,” and “arms up.”

## 2.5. ESAT dependent measures

The participant's responses to the skill acquisition subtests were scored in vivo by the experimenter and the second experimenter/observer during the assessment. Correct answers were summarized as a number correct out of total trials for these subtests. Participants' responding on IJA, play and stereotypy was scored from videotapes because these behaviors were measured using complex observation codes which assessed multiple behaviors simultaneously.

### 2.5.1. Joint attention initiation

Joint attention initiation subtests were scored from videotapes. Participants were scored on the occurrence or nonoccurrence of a gaze shift, gesture, or vocalization for each subtest. Gaze shift was defined as orienting their head and eyes from the activated toy or book to the examiner during the toy activation period and 5 s after the toy was turned off. Regardless of how many times the child may have exhibited a gaze shift, only one gaze shift was scored per toy. Gestures were scored if the child exhibited an isolated point toward the activated toy or book. Again, only one gesture was scored per toy. Verbalizations were scored as intelligible comments or question about the toy or book. A composite score was calculated by adding the number of topographies of joint attention (gaze shift, gesture and verbalizations) across the 3 subtests. A score of 9 was the maximum score that a child could receive (each of the 3 topographies across each of the three subtests) (see MacDonald et al., 2006).

### 2.5.2. Joint attention responding

Joint attention responding subtests were scored in vivo. Data were scored as occurrence or nonoccurrence of responding and were summarized as number correct out of the total number of trials for these subtests. Following a point was scored as correct if the child oriented their head and eyes in the direction of the examiner's pointed finger within 5 s and following a gaze was scored as correct if the child oriented their head in the direction of the examiner's gaze within 5 s (see MacDonald et al., 2006).

### 2.5.3. Play

Play samples were scored from videotapes. Play was measured using a play code adapted from Lifter (2000). The first 4 min of the 5-min play sample were used. A 10-s partial interval recording measurement system was used to categorize play. For each 10-s bin, play was categorized as the highest level that occurred during that block of time. Categories were (1) no play, (2) indiscriminate actions, (3) discriminate actions, and (4) pretend play, which was broken down into four categories: (a) pretend play figurines, (b) pretend play self, (c) pretend play with substitutions, and (d) socio-dramatic play. Experimenters also recorded stereotypic play (repetitive actions occurring with the same object in two or more consecutive intervals) and vocalizations that occurred throughout the sample. Only the highest level of play seen in a category was recorded. A weighted score was then extrapolated from these data, where 3 points were given for each bin in which pretend play occurred, 2 points were given for each bin in which discriminate actions occurred, 1 point was given for each bin in which indiscriminate actions occurred, and 0 points were given for each bin in which no play or repetitive play occurred. Seventy-two was the maximum score a child could receive using this play coding system.

### 2.5.4. Stereotypy

Stereotypy was also scored from videotapes. Operational definitions established by Gardenier, MacDonald, and Green (2004) and MacDonald et al. (2007) were used to identify and categorize stereotypic behavior. A 10-min sample consisting of 5 min of work and 5 min of play was scored for each participant. Responses were recorded using real-time measurement in which each second was coded to determine the total duration of stereotypy within the sample (Miltenberger, Rapp, & Long, 1999). Stereotypy was measured as percent of the session in which either vocal or motor stereotypy was present. Any instance in which vocal or motor stereotypy occurred simultaneously was recorded as an occurrence for that second but did not count twice toward the session total.

## 2.6. Reliability

Interobserver agreement (IOA) was collected for a sample of participants across all measures. Responding to JA, eye contact, and cognitive subtests were scored in vivo by a second experimenter and these scores were combined into one IOA measure. This in vivo IOA was determined by dividing the number of agreements by the total number of agreements plus disagreements and multiplying by 100. In vivo IOA was collected in 75% of samples and averaged 98% (range, 90–100%).

Additional IOA for other measures (IJA, Stereotypy, and Play) was scored from videotaped samples. Joint attention initiation IOA was determined by dividing the number of agreements on occurrence of a JA behavior (e.g., pointing in Test 1) by the total number of agreements plus disagreements and multiplying by 100. IJA IOA was collected in 24% of samples and averaged 96% (range, 67–100%). Play IOA was determined by dividing the number of agreements by the number of agreements plus disagreements for each category of play. Play IOA was collected in 40% of samples and averaged 96% for the *no play* category (range, 83–100%), 91% for the *indiscriminate action* category (range, 58–100%), 86% for the *discriminate action* category (range, 58–100%), and 97% for the *pretend play* category (range, 67–100%). Stereotypy IOA was determined by dividing the total number of agreements by the number of agreements plus disagreements and multiplying by 100. Stereotypy IOA was collected in 16% of samples and averaged 96% (range, 89–100%).

Procedural integrity of the experimenters running the ESAT was also collected in 1–2 samples for each of the experimenters. To determine procedural integrity, each experimenter action (e.g., establishing child's attending, delivering discriminative stimulus, reinforcing on the appropriate schedule) was outlined for the entire ESAT. When watching the ESAT session from videotape, each experimenter action was scored as "+" if the experimenter completed the action correctly or "-" if the action was omitted or performed incorrectly. A procedural integrity score was then determined by dividing the number of correct actions by the total number of actions and multiplying by 100. The mean procedural integrity score was 97.0% (range, 95–100%).

### 3. Results

Table 3 displays statistics for each outcome measure (RJA Point, RJA Gaze, IJA, Cognitive, Play and Stereotypy) for all CWA. Mean scores and standard deviations at entry and follow-up were calculated separately for each age group. Percent change was calculated for each outcome measure by dividing the difference between entry and follow-up means by the entry mean. The data indicate that children in the 18–23 month age group showed the greatest percent change across all outcome measures. Repeated measures *t*-tests were used to determine if scores on the outcome measures changed significantly from entry to follow-up. Among 18–23 month-olds, results indicated that scores on all outcomes except stereotypy improved significantly from entry to follow-up. Among 24–29-month-olds, scores significantly improved on all outcomes except play and stereotypy. For 30–36-month-olds, scores improved on RJA Point, Eye Contact, and Cognitive Performance. Among 37–48-month-olds, scores significantly improved for RJA Point, IJA, Eye Contact, and Cognitive Performance. Table 4 displays mean scores and standard deviations for the typically developing children on each outcome measure by age group. These data serve as a normative reference for each outcome measure across the four targeted age groups. The TDC data showed consistently higher performance ( $P < .01$ ) on all measures except RJA Point when compared to the performance of CWA at entry.

#### 3.1. Age and treatment effect

A mixed-design 2 (Time)  $\times$  4 (Age at Entry) ANOVA was performed to determine if there were age differences in the effect of treatment on each of the outcome measures, as shown in Table 5. The effect of time between assessment 1 and assessment 2 was controlled to account for the minor differences in elapsed time between assessments. An Alpha level of .01 was used to account for the number of statistical tests that were run. For RJA Point, IJA, Cognitive, and Play, the significant main effects of time and/or age were qualified by a significant time by age interaction. Follow-up tests indicated that for RJA Point, IJA, and Play, 18–23-month-olds improved more than all other age groups and that there were no differences between the other age groups. For Cognitive, 18–23-month-olds improved more than all other age groups, and 24–30-month-olds improved more than the 2.5–3-year-olds. For RJA Gaze, only the main effect of time was significant, indicating that scores improved from time 1 to time 2 regardless of age.

#### 3.2. Level of change

To evaluate the overall level of change from entry to follow up, cognitive, eye contact and IJA scores were combined for each age group. These measures were selected because they have been identified as predictors of outcome for CWA (Helt et al., 2008). Fig. 1 shows boxplots of overall score at entry and follow up for each age group. Five values are shown for each age group, at entry (gray plots) and at exit (black plots) from EIBI programming. The 25th percentile, median, and the 75th percentile, are shown as the horizontal lines of the boxes, the minimum and maximum are shown by the horizontal lines of the whiskers. Children 18–23 months old entered treatment with a mean of 10 and increased to a mean of 38 at follow up (average 13.8 months later). Children ages 24–29 months old entered treatment with a mean of 13 and increased to 31 at follow up (average 9.72 months later), with children ages 30–36 month old group showing similar results. Children in the 37–48-month-old group entered with a mean of 23 and increased to 33 at follow up (average 12.9 months later). While all groups improved, 1-year-olds showed the most dramatic change between entry and follow up.

#### 3.3. High responders vs. low responders

To compare CWA performance to those of typically developing peers, cognitive, eye contact and IJA scores were combined and standard deviations (SD) were calculated for each age group. Follow-up scores were compared to TDC means for the CWA's current age, meaning a CWA who was 1 when he entered would be compared at follow-up (1 year later) not to 1-year-old TDC, but to 2-year-old TDC. CWA performance was categorized based on these normative data. High responders were within 1 SD from their peers, middle responders were between 1 and 2 SD below the normative mean, and low responders were greater than 2 SD below the normative mean. Table 5 summarizes high, middle and low scores by age group.

Using this analysis, the percent of participants who responded to treatment, which included performing within 2 SD of typical mean scores, was calculated for each age group (see Table 6). One-sample binomial tests were conducted to determine if the likelihood of responding within each age group was different than chance (i.e., 50%). Results indicated that 18–23-month-olds and 24–29-month-olds were significantly more likely than chance to respond to treatment. Participants

**Table 3**  
Subtest mean, standard deviation and outcome by age group for CWA.

Subtest (total opp.)	18–23 month-olds (n = 12)			24–29 month-olds (n = 36)			30–36 month-olds (n = 18)			37–48 month-olds (n = 17)		
	Entry	Follow-up	t-Test % change	Entry	Follow-up	t-Test % change	Entry	Follow-up	t-Test % change	Entry	Follow-up	t-Test % change
	M (SD)	M (SD)		M (SD)	M (SD)		M (SD)	M (SD)		M (SD)	M (SD)	
RJA point (12)	8.52 (3.56)	11.90 (1.30)	3.11 <sup>†</sup> 39.6%	8.11 (2.82)	10.33 (2.53)	4.85 <sup>†</sup> 27.7%	7.26 (3.21)	9.42 (2.79)	2.92 <sup>†</sup> 29.7%	8.87 (3.07)	10.81 (1.51)	2.90 <sup>†</sup> 21.8%
RJA gaze (6)	1.90 (1.70)	3.72 (1.95)	3.50 <sup>†</sup> 95.8%	2.23 (1.97)	3.05 (2.28)	2.69 <sup>†</sup> 36.8%	1.57 (1.70)	2.52 (1.54)	1.99 60.5%	2.62 (1.62)	3.75 (1.98)	2.02 43.1%
IJA (9)	1.36 (1.03)	4.09 (1.87)	5.04 <sup>†</sup> 200.7%	2.00 (1.92)	3.38 (2.74)	2.97 <sup>†</sup> 69.0%	1.84 (2.08)	2.73 (2.55)	1.92 48.4%	2.18 (2.42)	3.06 (2.37)	2.33 <sup>†</sup> 40.7%
Eye contact (6)	1.54 (1.57)	5.09 (1.14)	4.93 <sup>†</sup> 230.5%	2.11 (2.02)	4.11 (1.73)	4.93 <sup>†</sup> 94.8%	1.84 (1.70)	4.21 (2.04)	6.29 <sup>†</sup> 128.8%	2.87 (2.27)	4.25 (1.98)	3.37 <sup>†</sup> 40.1%
Cognitive (40)	8.72 (9.41)	36.09 (7.21)	9.93 <sup>†</sup> 313.9%	11.52 (9.80)	27.85 (11.22)	10.55 <sup>†</sup> 141.8%	10.94 (10.26)	23.74 (12.83)	6.05 <sup>†</sup> 117.0%	20.25 (12.58)	27.87 (12.60)	5.92 <sup>†</sup> 37.6%
Play (72)	21.91 (13.31)	40.36 (14.64)	2.92 <sup>†</sup> 84.2%	27.85 (13.86)	27.87 (14.31)	0.01 0.1%	24.74 (12.23)	30.89 (11.72)	1.89 24.9%	33.93 (13.92)	31.75 (16.03)	1.02 6.4%
Stereotypy (%)	14.80 (10.29)	16.29 (16.70)	0.20 -8.0%	14.18 (11.29)	15.82 (17.20)	0.54 11.6%	16.57 (14.94)	15.10 (13.17)	0.44 -8.9%	17.44 (15.19)	16.53 (14.83)	0.72 -5.4%

\*  $p < .01$ .

**Table 4**  
Performance for TDC by age and outcome measure.

Subtest	18–23 month-olds (n = 17)	24–29 month-olds (n = 11)	30–36 month-olds (n = 10)	37–48 month-olds (n = 20)
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)
RJA point	9.93 (1.88)	11.82 (0.39)	11.90 (0.30)	11.70 (0.56)
RJA gaze	4.27 (1.44)	5.09 (0.90)	4.80 (1.17)	5.70 (0.56)
IJA	3.87 (1.89)	4.45 (1.30)	4.10 (1.87)	5.85 (1.93)
Eye contact	3.00 (2.61)	4.45 (1.83)	3.80 (1.87)	5.45 (0.97)
Cognitive	15.33 (7.60)	23.37 (6.97)	27.70 (7.67)	35.35 (2.69)
Play	34.40 (7.60)	40.18 (9.41)	36.5 (10.18)	44.95 (10.26)
Stereotypy	6.16 (4.34)	7.00 (4.11)	6.00 (5.71)	8.00 (5.39)

between 30 and 36 months old were not more likely than chance to respond to treatment. Finally, 36–48-month-olds were significantly more likely than chance to be categorized as non-responders (Table 7).

For the 1-year-olds at entry, the TDC SD was very large, and inclusion in the High category was therefore easier to achieve than for older groups. As TDC age increased, the SD became much smaller, such that inclusion in the Middle or High categories for CWA entering at age 3 or older required a score of 29 or greater (72% correct). This may have masked increases in score that did occur for CWA who, despite increases in Cognitive score over time, remained in the Low categorization. This being said, all the 1-year olds except one performed at or above the TDC mean upon exit.

When arranged by High/Medium and Low categorization at follow-up and collapsed across age groups as shown in Table 8, factors that point toward inclusion in the High/Medium categorization at follow-up were increased IJA and cognitive scores at entry and lower levels of stereotypic behavior at entry. However, these factors were not statistically significant as predictive variables.

#### 4. Discussion

This research provides a comprehensive look at CWA performance on an observational measure from pre-test to post-test following EIBI intervention. Results from the ESAT show an increase in mean score for all CWA age groups (1-, 2-, 2.5-, and 3-year-olds at entry) on measures of JA, eye contact, and a cognitive battery testing imitation and language skills. Decreases in stereotypy and increases in play were also seen for most groups. A statistical analysis revealed that children who began treatment between 18 and 23 months of age improved significantly more than the other three groups. In addition, some changes were seen for participants who demonstrated little to no independent responding at entry to the program, allowing even small-scale changes in performance to be measured over time.

##### 4.1. Joint attention

The JA tests included in the ESAT have been used to measure changes in JA behavior in other published research (Isaksen & Holth, 2009; MacDonald et al., 2006). The current findings add to the existing literature on this portion of the ESAT as a measure of JA sensitive enough to detect changes over time in CWA performance as well as graded performance by age for TDC, with older TDC scoring higher than younger TDC. Examination of performance on these skills for CWA is critical to a more complete understanding of behavioral changes that may relate to a CWA's prognosis over time. Because a lack of JA and social behavior such as eye contact in response to name are deficits specifically linked to autism, increases in these skills should reflect a decrease in symptom severity.

**Table 5**  
Statistical comparisons across outcome measures and age groups.

	RJA point	RJA gaze	IJA	Cognitive	Play
Main effect (time)	$F(1, 91) = 15.14, p < .01$	$F(1, 91) = 25.14, p < .01$	$F(1, 91) = 4.06, p < .01$	$F(1, 91) = 24.57, p < .01$	$F(1, 91) = 7.92, p < .01$
Main effect (age)	$F(1, 91) = 23.12, p < .01$	$F(3, 91) = 3.66, p > .01$	$F(3, 91) = 8.50, p < .01$	$F(3, 91) = 1.66, p > .01$	$F(3, 91) = 4.36, p > .01$
Interaction	$F(1, 91) = 12.14, p < .01$	$F(3, 91) = 2.54, p > .01$	$F(3, 91) = 7.50, p < .01$	$F(3, 91) = 12.87, p < .01$	$F(3, 91) = 14.36, p < .01$
Post hoc tests	18–23-month-olds improved more than all other age groups; no differences between other age groups	N/A (Scores increased from Time 1 to Time 2)	18–23-month-olds improved more than all other age groups; no differences between other age groups	18–23-month-olds improved more than all other age groups, 24–30-month-olds group improved more than 2.5 and 3-year-olds	18–23-month-olds improved more than all other age groups; no differences between other age groups

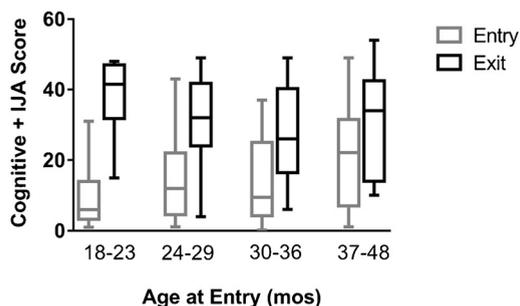


Fig. 1. Boxplots of overall combined scores including cognitive and JA at entry and a follow up for each age group.

#### 4.2. Cognitive measures

This cognitive skill measure parallels common testing areas on traditional IQ testing. It also provides a record of CWA performance on behavior that is classified as predictive of outcome in the research literature, including imitation (e.g., Lovaas & Smith, 1988), vocal imitation (e.g., Sallows & Graupner, 2005), and language (e.g., Eldevik, Eikeseth, Jahr, & Smith, 2006). These findings confirmed previous research that CWA receiving EIBI make gains on these commonly tested skills, and additionally identified that those changes are captured using this type of micro-analytic measurement. Although these cognitive skills were common teaching targets in the EIBI curriculum, exact correspondence between on-the-floor curricula and ESAT questions was not programmed for.

#### 4.3. Play

Changes in play scores for CWA were the least robust of all measures. While some age groups saw mean increases in play score, (1- and 2.5-year-olds), the remaining groups saw no change in mean play score or decreases in the mean over time. This finding may be due to several factors. First, the play opportunity presented in the ESAT is a solitary play opportunity, meaning the experimenter did not participate with the child in any way during the play sample other than to initially bring him to the toys and, if necessary, redirect him away from dangerous behavior such as attempting to climb on the table. The child was not prompted to play with the toys beyond an initial prompt of “It’s time to play” and the adult did not play with toys in an effort to entice the child’s participation. This preparation did not impede TDC from playing appropriately, other than two instances of reactivity in 2.5-year-olds. For CWA, however, this arrangement may not have provided enough prompting or direction for the CWA to remain engaged with the toys for 5 min. Difficulties in producing generative or spontaneous pretend play in CWA are well documented (Jarrold, Boucher, & Smith, 1993; Luckett, Bundy, & Roberts, 2007), and when changes in play have occurred for CWA it has been under more controlled and adult-mediated conditions (e.g., Ingersoll & Schreibman, 2006) or with only marginal success (Wong & Kwan, 2010). For CWA, moving from trained, prompted play sequences to unprompted, generative sequences of pretend play appears to be the most challenging aspect of increasing play behavior (Charman & Baron-Cohen, 1997).

#### 4.4. Stereotypy

Results of changes in stereotypy scores in the ESAT probe are variable. Depending on the level and success of stereotypy redirection procedures during the student’s typical classroom day, decreases in stereotypy during ESAT probes could be viewed as successful generalization of classroom findings to a probe setting. Alternatively, increases in stereotypy during the ESAT probes could result from the lack of teacher proximity as a discriminative stimulus for the availability of non-redirected stereotypy.

Although pre- and post-tests for the ESAT clearly demonstrate change in the testing areas, it is also important to determine if these changes are discernible on other measures. Inclusion of a standardized measure would help to ensure results seen on the ESAT are reflective of changes in overall functioning or autism symptom severity. Another limitation of the current data set is the lack of a comparison group receiving limited or eclectic treatment. The inclusion of this comparison would strengthen these findings by providing the opportunity to demonstrate that changes in performance for the EIBI group

**Table 6**  
TDC score ranges used to evaluate high, middle and low responders.

Age group	Mean/SD	High	Middle	Low
18–23 months	23.1 (10.9)	12+	2–11	1 and below
24–29 months	32.36 (7.6)	25+	17–24	16 and below
30–36 months	35.6 (8.48)	27+	18–26	17 and below
37–47 months	46.6 (3.8)	43+	40–42	39 and below

**Table 7**  
Statistical summary of responsiveness to treatment across age groups.

Age (months)	N	Months between assessments	% Responders (high and middle)	% Non-responders (low)	Significance of one-sample binomial test
18–23	12	13.08	91	8	0.02
24–29	36	9.72	71	29	0.043
30–36	18	9.80	34	66	0.064
36–48	17	12.90	30	70	0.004

Note: Overall chi-square test examining if there was an overall difference in the likelihood of responding among the age groups was also significant,  $\chi^2 = 25.12$ ,  $p < .001$ .

could be attributed to the treatment, rather than maturation over time. Additionally, although a TDC sample has been collected and presented as a point of comparison to typical performance, this sample is not standardized and may be too small in size to account for typical variance in TDC performance, particularly for TDC under 3 where greater variance in scores was seen.

Although the scope and size of this study are broad, measuring change for CWA on a micro-analytic scale may complement traditional measures in fully capturing changes resulting from EIBI treatment. Increases in score were seen for all age groups of CWA on important developmental and social measures that are commonly included in an EIBI treatment package. Many of the skills tested using the ESAT are learning deficits characteristic of and specific to autism. Changes in these scores for CWA receiving EIBI should therefore be socially relevant for decreasing symptom severity and increasing independent functioning for individuals in this population (Grindle et al., 2009; Matson & Wilkins, 2007).

The largest gains in all areas tested were made by the youngest participants (those starting EIBI before age 3). In particular, CWA entering EIBI at age 1 showed striking gains, often bringing them into (or surpassing) the performance range of their typically developing peers. Some children from this very early cohort were able to return to a typical educational setting with no additional support. Large gains were seen for this group in length and complexity of play, and consistent decreases were seen in stereotypic behavior. These two areas, a deficit in appropriate play and an excess of stereotypic behavior, are socially stigmatizing and often prohibitive of a CWA fully participating in an inclusive setting. Seeing these changes in 1-year-olds at entry is very encouraging and points to the importance of CWA receiving EIBI at the earliest age possible.

The fact that the 1-year-olds showed the greatest changes in performance suggests that better outcomes are achieved when children with autism enter treatment at a younger age. This phenomenon is substantiated by only a few studies in the literature. Ben Itzchak and Zachor (2009) followed a group of CWAs aged 18–35 months for one year during treatment and found that 22% moved to a less severe diagnostic classification with 2% moving off the autism spectrum. Ben Itzchak and Zachor (2011) found that one of the predictive factors of greater cognitive gains was younger age at entry. Dawson et al. (2010) completed a randomized controlled trial in which children with autism ages 18–30 months at entry and found that children receiving EIBI showed statistically significant improvement over the control group at a 1-year follow up. One explanation for this responsiveness in the youngest children with ASD is that EIBI may mitigate the effects of environmental risk factors on brain development (Dawson, 2008). Infants at risk for ASD spend less time engaging socially with adults. Evidence suggests that environmental enrichment can play a critical role in shaping the brain. While human models for these changes in brain development are in their infancy, research has shown that environmental discrimination learning can change the brain structures in animals (Loupe, Schroeder, & Tessel, 1995). Dawson suggests that future research should focus on demonstrating the relationship between EIBI and brain development by incorporating brain-based measures to evaluate outcome in young children with autism. Until that time, the data clearly indicate that earlier the intervention is started the better the likelihood of long lasting gains in children with ASD.

Although guidance has been put forward citing ABA as the empirically recommended treatment for CWA aged 0–3 (New York State Department of Health, EI Program, 1999), participation in an intensive, 28-h-per-week ABA-based program is not the norm for this age group, and it may be difficult for parents seeking intensive ABA services to find them (Stahmer, Collings,

**Table 8**  
Mean entry and exit scores for high/medium and low categorizations at exit, collapsed across age groups.

	High/medium at exit		Low at exit	
	Entry	Exit	Entry	Exit
Months at entry	29.71		32.92	
Months between assessments	10.88		11.84	
RJA point	7.99	10.36	6.73	9.08
RJA gaze	2.07	3.13	1.91	2.23
IJA	1.89	3.24	0.97	2.19
Eye contact	2.13	4.38	1.72	3.82
Cognitive	12.73	28.02	9.51	19.51
Play	28.05	31.52	26.87	26.65
Stereotypy	18.10%	16.44%	21.70%	21.21%

& Palinkas, 2005). Information on CWA response to EIBI treatment and comparisons across treatment types are still very limited for this age group (Corsello, 2005). Findings such as these in the current study, demonstrating substantial gains and positive outcome for very young children in Early Intervention using EIBI, could help to improve the availability of EIBI services, acceptance of these services by EI providers and parents, and improved training for ABA providers in the nuances of using ABA with a younger population (Eikeseth, 2010).

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