POSITIVE BEHAVIORAL SUPPORTS FOR THE CLASSROOM

FOURTH EDITION

BRENDA K. SCHEUERMANN GLENNA M. BILLINGSLEY JUDY A. HALL

Fourth Edition

Positive Behavioral Supports for the Classroom

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Dedication

For Colin, Ben, and Leah, who continue to teach me every day.

Brenda Scheuermann

To my always patient wife, Betty, who endured my countless hours at a computer; to my 26 years of public school students who continue to remind me why I do this work; and to my mentor, friend, co-author, and hero, Dr. Brenda Scheuermann, I dedicate my work.

Glenna Billingsley

I would like to dedicate my work to Wynette Barton. Her unfailing belief in my ability has always inspired me. I also want to give a special thank you to Brenda Scheuermann for asking me to coauthor this text. I want to acknowledge all of my supervisors, professional peers, and students for their part in my career. Last, but certainly not least, I want to thank my parents, Roland and Frances Hall, and my brother, James Hall, for teaching me the importance of lifelong learning.

Judy Ann Hall

Preface

Virtually every educator takes classes on behavior management or classroom management, yet teachers consistently cite student discipline and classroom management as primary areas of concern. It is clear that many teachers are not sufficiently prepared to manage even the most minor behavioral challenges posed by today's students. The good news, however, is that the fields of applied behavior analysis and positive behavior interventions and supports offer powerful, evidence-based tools to help teachers create effective, engaging, predictable classroom environments that focus on helping students succeed academically, behaviorally, and socially. These tools enable educators to prevent most student behavioral problems and to intervene effectively and efficiently when behavioral difficulties develop.

In this book, we draw on this body of research as it has culminated in the field of positive behavior supports. *Positive behavior interventions and supports*, or *PBIS*, is an umbrella term that refers to a wide array of individual and systemic strategies to teach and strengthen appropriate behavior and to reduce challenging behavior. Abundant research supports the effectiveness of these techniques with all types and ages of students in all types of situations. For the most part, these techniques are relatively easy to use, mesh seamlessly with instruction, can be used with minimal training, and can be expected to produce desirable outcomes when used correctly.

To best prepare readers of this text to be able to apply the concepts and techniques presented, we focus on the theoretical foundations of behavior and behavioral interventions as well as the actual day-to-day application of strategies. Our goal is to help educators and educators-to-be bridge the gap between theory and practice. We believe that it is critical for educators to understand the theoretical explanations for behavioral problems and the many teacher-controlled factors that contribute to those problems, and then be able to design research-based interventions that reflect those theoretical underpinnings. Thus, the book not only describes *what to do* for behavior management purposes but also explains *why*. This will help teachers and others be better prepared to assess challenging classroom and individual student behavioral problems, select evidence-based interventions, and problem-solve if those interventions fail to produce the desired effects.

The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001 placed unprecedented emphasis on the use of scientifically based educational practices, and that emphasis continued in the 2015 NCLB reauthorization, the Every Student Succeeds Act. School discipline and behavior management, perhaps more than any other area in education, has often suffered from a lack of reliance on evidence-based practices. To change that, educators must understand evidence-based practices and how to apply them in real-life situations. To that end, the positive behavior support strategies described in this book are based on extensive research that has evaluated their effectiveness for improving student behavior at the schoolwide, classroom, and individual student levels. We carefully explain the practices supported by this research base, but we also rely on our extensive experience in schools to give many real-life examples of PBIS concepts and strategies. Our personal experience enables us to provide realistic examples of how to apply the skills that we describe in this text, as well as deal with potential problems in their application.

The book explains how both undesirable behavior and desirable behavior are directly related to contexts in which they occur. In addition, we also explain the functions, or purposes, that undesirable behaviors serve for students, and why those are important for educators to understand. And, most importantly for the classroom teacher, we focus on how to use this information to design effective preventive and management interventions.

To the extent that we can prevent inappropriate behavior in the first place, we can direct more of our energies to classroom instruction. For this reason, we devote several chapters in this text to antecedent strategies, or strategies for preventing challenging behavior and encouraging appropriate behavior. However, despite the wealth of preventive strategies available, teachers can rarely establish a classroom where no behavioral problems ever occur. Consequently, we must also be proficient in planning and implementing effective responses to those behavioral problems. These are not difficult skills to master, but they may require that educators learn to think differently about behavioral problems and perhaps change how they respond to student behavior. These efforts will ultimately result in saving many hours of teacher time, because the ineffective strategies that many teachers use to respond to challenging behavior often fail to work and, in fact, frequently exacerbate the very behavior they are trying to manage.

We were motivated to develop this book because, in our opinion, many classroom management books are insufficient for several reasons. Some texts describe effective strategies but do not provide the theoretical foundation needed to enable teachers to develop problem-solving skills for when those strategies do not produce expected outcomes. Other books provide descriptions of effective strategies but do not provide sufficient implementation details for readers to generalize to actual classroom use. Many texts present a wide range of strategies without distinguishing which strategies have strong research support for schoolwide, classroom, or individual student behavioral interventions. Few books address the critical relationship between student learning and behavior and the role of the instructional environment in classroom behavior. And, although many classroom management texts describe functional behavioral assessment as a behavioral assessment tool, few texts extensively explain how to use functional assessment data to develop hypotheses and how to develop interventions that directly reflect these hypotheses. This book is our attempt to help remedy the problem of why teachers *still* cite discipline as a major concern, despite all that is known about keeping schools and classrooms safe, orderly, positive, and productive.

New to This Edition

- The field of positive behavior interventions and supports has expanded exponentially since its beginnings in the mid-1990s. In this edition, we **highlight some of the newer extensions of PBIS, as well as the interconnection between PBIS and school climate and safety**. Throughout the text, we strive to convey to readers that PBIS concepts and practices are not necessarily new, but rather are foundational practices that have been refined and expanded over decades of research.
- Throughout the text, we have **expanded our focus on application of concepts and practices across students of all ages and abilities and across educational settings**.
- We have **expanded the discussion of school safety research and policies related to school discipline** (Chapters 1 and 3). This provides readers with a current and comprehensive perspective about school discipline challenges and how public policy related to school discipline is shifting to focus on emphasizing positive, proactive approaches as well as threat assessment, identification, and intervention techniques.
- We have **updated the discussion of the biophysical model (Chapter 2) to include research on the impact of trauma** on children's development and long-term outcomes, and the implications of exposure to trauma for children's performance at school.
- The **majority of the chapters provide Video Examples** that further explain or illustrate the concepts and techniques presented in the text.

- Throughout the text, we **refer readers to several websites that provide high-quality, evidence-based information that is applicable for teachers and other educators**. Two of those websites include the IRIS Center of Vanderbilt University, which provides multimedia learning modules across a wide range of topics; and the PBIS Technical Assistance Center, which provides a wealth of information related to the application of PBIS across tiers, settings, and areas of concern.
- This edition includes **application exercises that are more in-depth and interactive for readers**. These expanded application exercises allow readers to practice making the connection between the concepts and skills presented in each chapter and real-life school and classroom situations. They provide an opportunity for readers to evaluate situations based on what they have learned and to generate potential solutions for classroom and individual student behavior concerns.
- **All Chapters now include a *Putting It into Practice* section at the end of the chapter**. These case study–type activities provide in-depth scenarios, followed by questions to guide application of the chapter concepts. Each question includes model responses to help readers self-evaluate their answers.
- Significant updates have been made throughout the book to present **current research, policies, and issues and to improve organization and clarity**.
- The **Toolkits and Demonstrations** introduced in the previous edition as marginal pop-ups are now in-text features. Toolboxes provide step-by-step instructions for implementing the techniques presented in the text. Demonstrations are features that provide applied examples or illustrations of techniques discussed in the text.

Organization of the Book

This book is organized in a logical, sequential manner that mirrors how we approach classroom management and individual student behavior management. **Part I** provides introductory and background information that is relevant to positive behavior interventions and supports and theoretical models to explain behavior. In this section, Chapter 1 delineates the types of student behavioral problems that teachers will likely encounter and describes the diversity of today's classrooms, the implications for teachers, and the problems associated with traditional approaches to school discipline. We also provide introductory explanations of positive behavior interventions and supports (PBIS) and compare PBIS and response to intervention (RtI). Finally, we describe nine assumptions about student behavior that reflect PBIS and that serve as the foundation for the remainder of the book. Chapter 2 explains theoretical models of behavior. Focusing on biophysical and behavioral models, we explain the theoretical assumptions, describe the intervention methods associated with these models, and summarize research that is pertinent to the models. We also discuss the relevance and usefulness of the theories and associated interventions for educators.

Key content updates in the chapters of Part I include the following:

Chapter 1—We have expanded discussion of student diversity, and how traditional approaches to school discipline consistently and disproportionately affect certain subgroups. Because of that disparate impact, we discuss the importance of greater attention to and planning for equity in all school discipline practices.

Chapter 2—Consistent with this text's emphasis on evidence-based practices, we have provided resources to help educators identify evidence-based practices. These resources are designed to help educators become informed consumers; some of the resources provide succinct overviews of research support for popular practices, curricula, or programs. Another major addition to Chapter 2 is a new

discussion of trauma and the potential effects of trauma on children's short- and long-term well-being and successful functioning. Finally, we have expanded our discussion of the biophysical model to make clear the role of educators with respect to this theoretical model. That is, we describe the implications of the biophysical model for educators and provide examples on how teachers might address student needs from biophysically related conditions or interventions as part of classroom management.

Part II focuses on creating proactive learning environments through universal-level interventions, including schoolwide positive behavior supports, and the critical elements of classroom management (i.e., structure, relationships, and instruction). Throughout this section, we provide many examples that reflect application of the skills and concepts in elementary and secondary schools. Chapter 3 explains the application of PBIS at the schoolwide level. PBIS is an evidence-based approach to improving the effectiveness, efficiency, and equity of schools by focusing on desired social, emotional, and academic outcomes for all students (National Center on PBIS, 2019). We define schoolwide positive behavior interventions and supports (SW-PBIS), explain the essential components and specific practices of SW-PBIS, and discuss SW-PBIS research. We also describe steps in planning and implementing SW-PBIS and provide many examples from schools that have been successful in implementing SW-PBIS. Chapters 4 through 6 focus on the critical elements of classroom management as based in PBIS concepts and practices. Chapter 4 explains the importance of rules and procedures and how to develop and teach rules and procedures. In Chapter 5, we explain how to design the classroom schedule and how to organize the classroom to prevent behavioral difficulties. We also describe the classroom climate and give examples of the elements of classroom climate that contribute to a positive learning environment. This discussion addresses the important element of teacher–student relationships and the potential for positive relationships to serve as a protective factor for students who are at risk. The last chapter in this section, Chapter 6, describes the correlation between instruction and student behavior. We describe the characteristics of successful learners in comparison with students who have learning and behavioral difficulties. We also provide an overview of the stages of learning and the types of instructional arrangements and activities. Finally, we describe instructional strategies that are associated with academic achievement for students with learning and behavioral difficulties.

Updated content in Part II includes the following:

Chapter 3—We have increased our discussion of the research and practical implications that have emerged from incidents of school and community violence, and we make the connections between recommendations from that research and the proactive, evidence-based approaches presented throughout the text. In addition, we have updated and expanded our discussion of positive behavior interventions and supports to reflect the rapidly growing body of research and recommendations for practice in this field.

Chapter 4—We more closely align the concepts presented in this chapter with the discussion of PBIS from Chapter 3. Throughout the chapter, we provide updated examples and applications.

Chapter 5—The discussion of climate has been expanded to emphasize how PBIS aligns with the concepts described in this chapter, specifically climate and organization. In addition, throughout the chapter we have provided updated research support for the importance of the classroom management practices discussed.

Chapter 6—In this chapter, we have added discussion of high-leverage practices, the set of practices curated through a partnership between the Council for

Exceptional Children and the Collaboration for Effective Educator Development, Accountability, and Reform. High-leverage practices are evidence-based, general practices that apply across grade levels and content areas, and are associated with improvements in learning and behavior. Throughout this chapter, we explain how the instructional strategies presented reflect or include high-leverage practices.

In **Part III** (Chapters 7 and 8), we focus on monitoring and assessment of behavior. Chapter 7 describes data collection techniques for assessing and monitoring student behavior. We explain behavioral data collection systems and how to use them in the context of busy classrooms. Chapter 8 explains functional behavioral assessment (FBA), including the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEIA; 2004) mandates regarding FBA, the differences between functional behavioral assessment and functional analysis, and step-by-step instructions for how to conduct a functional assessment. We provide many forms for this purpose. In addition, this chapter describes how to use FBA data to develop hypotheses about challenging behavior and then how to use those hypotheses to develop behavioral intervention plans (BIPs). We provide several sample FBAs and BIPs in the form of case studies based on actual students.

Updated content in Part III includes the following:

Chapter 7—Chapter 7 has been reorganized to provide clearer step-by-step instructions for developing and implementing behavior monitoring systems. As part of this goal, we offer an expanded section on how to choose target and replacement behaviors that should be monitored, and define those behaviors for better accuracy in measurement.

Chapter 8—We have updated our discussion of functional behavioral assessment (FBA), including added explanation for several steps in the FBA process. Most significantly, we have provided a discussion about the role of FBA and behavior support plans as part of Tier 3 supports.

Part IV of the text addresses targeted and tertiary-tier interventions and supports to increase appropriate behavior and reduce inappropriate behavior in students who are not sufficiently responsive to universal supports. Chapter 9 explains social-emotional skills instruction, including types of socialization problems, how to teach social and emotional skills, and how to choose curricula for this purpose. Chapter 10 presents a discussion of reinforcement theory, including definitions, types of reinforcers, how to choose reinforcers, reinforcement schedules, and how to develop and implement reinforcement systems. Chapter 11 describes specific reinforcement applications and systems, including the Premack Principle, praise, token systems, contracts, and group reinforcement systems. We also explain self-management systems (i.e., self-monitoring, self-evaluation, self-instruction, and self-reinforcement) and how to use them to increase students' self-control and independence. Finally, Chapter 12 describes behavior reductive and punishment systems to reduce or eliminate challenging behavior. In this chapter, we emphasize that a PBIS approach minimizes the need for punishment. We provide definitions of behavior reduction and punishment, and we explain how to determine when a behavior reductive intervention is needed, citing IDEIA disciplinary requirements and guidelines for the ethical use of behavior reductive procedures. Finally, we describe a hierarchy of interventions to reduce challenging behavior, including differential reinforcement, extinction, response cost, time-out, and presentation of aversive stimuli. Although we explain response cost and time-out, we advise readers about limitations and ethical use of these practices. We also describe aversive consequences that readers may observe used in school and other settings. We explain problems associated with these approaches and caution

readers to avoid these techniques. Research suggests that the rich array of PBIS-based interventions, chosen to match needs and applied with fidelity, should be sufficient for most behavior management needs.

Updated content in Part IV includes the following:

Chapter 9—We have incorporated the concept of social skills within the broader array of social and emotional learning skills (SEL). We have added chapter Learning Outcomes to address the importance of SEL skills and how SEL interventions can be organized across tiers of support within the PBIS framework.

Chapter 10—This chapter expands instructions for implementing reinforcement systems and features updated application examples.

Chapter 11—This chapter features updated research and expanded explanations for many of the reinforcement procedures presented. We have also added many more examples and applications for each reinforcement procedure.

Chapter 12—We have updated terminology and concepts throughout the chapter, and have expanded descriptions of and implementation guidance for many of the procedures.

Features of the Book

To create a text that is user friendly and that readers are able to apply in the classroom, we have incorporated a variety of pedagogical features that are based on effective instruction. These features are designed to help readers organize material, translate theory into application, and get ideas for behavioral interventions for a wide range of purposes. Each chapter includes the following features designed for this purpose:

- ***Big ideas*** to introduce each chapter.
- **Chapter Learning Outcomes** to guide the reader.
- **Margin notes** that summarize important concepts.
- **Multiple vignettes** in each chapter to illustrate the concepts being described. The vignettes include primary, intermediate, middle school, and high school applications.
- Application exercises, called ***Putting It into Practice***, in which classroom, schoolwide, instructional, or other behavior management problems are described, along with how teachers address those problems using strategies presented in this text.
- The **Toolkits, Demonstrations**, and **Video Examples** and **IRIS Center modules** described previously.
- **Tables and figures** to illustrate and expand on content.
- **End-of-chapter summaries** that review how each chapter Learning Outcome was addressed.
- **End-of-chapter learning activities** so that readers can extend and apply the concepts presented in each chapter.
- **Resources** for each chapter.
- A **self-assessment** for readers to evaluate their own skills and knowledge level pertinent to the concepts presented in each chapter.

Pearson eText, Learning Management System (LMS)-Compatible Assessment Bank, and Other Instructor Resources

Pearson eText

The Pearson eText is a simple-to-use, mobile-optimized, personalized reading experience. It allows you to easily highlight, take notes, and review key vocabulary all in one place—even when offline. Seamlessly integrated videos and other rich media will engage you and give you access to the help you need, when you need it. To gain access or to sign in to your Pearson eText, visit https://www.pearson.com/pearson-etext. Features include:

- **Video Examples** Each chapter includes Video Examples that illustrate principles or concepts aligned pedagogically with the chapter.
- **IRIS Center Modules** Headquartered at Vanderbilt University, these interactive online learning modules describe strategies shown to be effective in teaching students with disabilities. Various modules have been selected by the authors and are linked in the Pearson eText.

LMS-Compatible Assessment Bank

With this new edition, all assessment types—quizzes, application exercises, and chapter tests—are included in LMS-compatible banks for the following learning management systems: Blackboard (9780137359127), Canvas (9780137359189), D2L (9780137359233), and Moodle (9780137359141). These packaged files allow maximum flexibility to instructors when it comes to importing, assigning, and grading. Assessment types include:

- **Learning Outcome Quizzes** Each chapter learning outcome is the focus of a Learning Outcome Quiz that is available for instructors to assign through their Learning Management System. Learning outcomes identify chapter content that is most important for learners and serve as the organizational framework for each chapter. The higher-order, multiple-choice questions in each quiz will measure your understanding of chapter content, guide the expectations for your learning, and inform the accountability and the applications of your new knowledge. When used in the LMS environment, these multiple-choice questions are automatically graded and include feedback for the correct answer and for each distractor to help guide students' learning.
- **Application Exercises** Each chapter provides opportunities to apply what you have learned through Application Exercises. These exercises are usually short-answer format and can be based on Pearson eText Video Examples, written cases, or scenarios modeled by pedagogical text features. When used in the LMS environment, a model response written by experts is provided after you submit the exercise. This feedback helps guide your learning and can assist your instructor in grading.
- **Chapter Tests** Suggested test items are provided for each chapter and include questions in the following formats: true/false, multiple choice, and short answer. When used in the LMS environment, true/false and multiple-choice questions are automatically graded.

Instructor's Manual (9780135948941)

The Instructor's Manual is provided as a Word document and includes resources to assist instructors in planning their course. These resources consist of chapter overviews, learning outcomes, guidance for using available PowerPoint slides to promote concept development, questions for discussion, supplemental teaching suggestions, and worksheets. In addition, this manual includes all assessment items-quizzes, application exercises, and chapter tests-that are provided in the LMS-compatible bank. If you

do not use an LMS, or if you prefer to administer assessments on paper, you can copy and paste items from this manual to create your own quizzes, assignments, or tests.

PowerPoint Slides (9780135948958)

PowerPoint slides are provided for each chapter that highlight key concepts and summarize the content of the text. The slides also include questions and problems designed to stimulate discussion and to encourage students to elaborate on and deepen their understanding of chapter topics. The slides will help instructors structure the content of each chapter to make it meaningful for students.

A Final Note

We are passionate about using effective, positive behavioral intervention strategies and teaching others to use better strategies. Too many children suffer because their teachers and administrators are not fluent in using the best tools available to prevent challenging behavior or to efficiently manage it in its earliest stages. It is a joy to visit a classroom taught by a skilled teacher. Such teachers make behavior management look easy! We believe that behavior management *is* easy, but effective behavior management requires knowledge of evidence-based concepts and techniques, and practice applying these concepts and techniques in the complex environments of classrooms and other areas of schools. We hope that this book will provide readers with sufficient knowledge of these evidence-based practices to begin using them in their own teaching situations. Furthermore, we encourage readers to share their successes with others, in an effort to help expose more educators to effective classroom management practices.

Acknowledgments

Writing a book is a journey filled with both rewards and challenges. The most exciting professional benefits are the requisite careful examination of a broad literature base and learning from many other experts. The challenges are the incredible time commitment required and the seemingly endless details. In our case, many people helped us meet those challenges. Our editor, Rebecca Fox-Gieg, quite artfully and creatively guided our planning for this fourth edition, through a process that was interrupted by multiple events beyond our control. Throughout the sometimes chaotic times during which this edition was written, Rebecca provided thoughtful, focused guidance. Thank you, Rebecca, for your enthusiasm for this project, for helping us stay focused on the end goals, and for your patience as we managed life demands while trying to honor our writing timeline.

In addition to Rebecca, many other professionals contributed to bringing this project to fruition. We are indebted to the following individuals for their consummate professionalism, careful attention to detail, and mastery of their respective crafts. We recognize the extent to which their work elevates and enhances our work. Also, we are grateful for their unfailing patience with our schedules and questions. These individuals include Janelle Rogers, Curtis Vickers, and Gowthaman Sadhanandham.

The work of many outstanding teachers also contributed to this text. Through their knowledge and expertise, they have provided us with a wealth of effective practices that we are happy to be able to share with readers. Although there are too many to name, we wish to acknowledge their influence. We have learned much from these master teachers.

The book benefited from invaluable feedback from many reviewers who undoubtedly spent long hours to help improve our book. Our reviewers gave us excellent suggestions, and our book is significantly better for their assistance. They are Paula Travers, George Mason University; Jerome J. Ammer, University of San Diego; and Michael Humphrey, Boise State University.

Brief Contents

Contents

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Part I

Foundations of Behavior Management and Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports

Chapter 1

Introduction to Behavior Management and Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports

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Learning Outcomes

1.1. Summarize the relationships among teacher characteristics, student diversity, and traditional discipline practices.

1.2. Describe traditional disciplinary methods and the concerns associated with those methods.

1.3. Define and explain *positive behavior interventions and supports*.

1.4. Explain the nine Behavior Assumptions that form the foundation for managing behavior in school settings.

Big ideas in behavior management and positive behavior interventions and supports:

- All children exhibit undesirable behavior at times. Most children learn quickly what is and what is not allowed in particular settings; other children need more assistance to learn to exhibit appropriate, rule-following behaviors.
- A graduated framework of increasingly more intensive supports, as needed, is an effective and efficient approach to increasing appropriate behavior and reducing challenging behaviors across all students in schools or other settings.
- Years of psychotherapy—for students or the teacher—are not the best way to manage unacceptable classroom behaviors! The most effective behavior management approaches are those that emphasize teaching and supporting desired behaviors.
- Teachers' beliefs about student behavior may influence effectiveness in classroom management.
- Classroom management problems and challenging behaviors exhibited by individual students may result from teachers' practices rather than students' problems (i.e., something about the teacher's behavior may be contributing to the situation). This is actually good news!
- Positive behavior interventions and supports represent behavioral science as applied to individual students, to classrooms, and schoolwide.
- The extent to which all educators understand positive behavior interventions and supports and know how to use them in all types of school situations will make behavior interventions for all students more effective and efficient.

All children exhibit inappropriate behavior at times. Most undesirable behavior is a normal, expected part of growing up. Fortunately, most children learn fairly quickly which types of behaviors are tolerated and which are not, and when to stop inappropriate behaviors. They also learn that behavioral expectations vary among people, places, and circumstances, meaning that they know with whom and where they can be more rambunctious, silly, or noncompliant. By the time most children enter school, undesirable behavior is more or less controlled by traditional means: reminders to behave, relatively infrequent reinforcement, reprimands, time-outs, and parental contacts. Most children need to experience minor consequences once in a while throughout their school years, but for the most part, their behavior is appropriate and acceptable.

These strategies work for most children. However, anywhere from 10% to 30% of school-age children may not respond to methods that work for other children (Martella & Nelson, 2003; Office of Special Education Programs, 2010a). When faced with the behaviors of these children, educators often tend to view the child as the problem rather than view the behavior management system as failing to meet the needs of that child (Martella et al., 2003). It is true that some children are less prepared than their peers to meet both the behavioral and academic demands of school. Multiple individual, family, and societal factors, which we discuss in Chapter 2, play a role in children's behavior. However, educators have control over many other school-based factors that

affect behavior, including the design of school discipline systems, as well as classroom management and instructional systems. In fact, most teachers and parents believe that teachers have the power to positively influence student behavior (Public Agenda, 2004; Tillery et al., 2012). This perception is supported by research indicating that teachers' actions in their classrooms are highly influential on student achievement—as much as or more than school administrative and leadership policies (Marzano, 2003b). To achieve this positive influence, teachers need to plan classroom and individual behavior management systems with the goal of creating a meaningful, active instructional environment where rules and expectations are clear; where more attention is given to desired behavior than to inappropriate behavior; and where inappropriate behavior is dealt with systematically, consistently, and equitably. Furthermore, a positive and proactive schoolwide climate and discipline system based on behavioral principles is associated with better outcomes for students (U.S. Department of Education, 2017). Administrators, teachers, and other school staff (e.g., counselors, school social workers, nurses, school police officers, bus drivers) and community stakeholders (e.g., parents, community members) must work collaboratively to develop schoolwide discipline policies and practices that are proactive and designed to support students in displaying rule-following behaviors. Those collaborations also must develop practices to identify and help students who are struggling academically, behaviorally, socially, or emotionally.

A variety of factors can interfere with a child's school success. Educators have control over many school-based factors that influence student behavior.

Most of this text is devoted to explaining how to develop positive, proactive behavior intervention systems and plan instruction in ways that are most likely to produce the desired outcomes. The majority of the techniques we describe for these purposes are based on the philosophy and practices of **positive behavior interventions and supports (PBIS)**. Horner and Sugai (2015) define PBIS as "… a framework for delivering both the whole-school social culture and additional tiers of behavior support intensity needed to improve educational and social outcomes for all students" (p. 80).

PBIS is a proactive, instructional, preventive approach for improving outcomes for all students.

PBIS represents a fundamental shift in managing unacceptable behavior from reactive, punitive responses to challenging behavior to a proactive emphasis on the prevention of behavioral problems by using positive, instructional, research-based behavioral strategies to teach and encourage appropriate behavior and manage the learning environment. PBIS is the integrated application of (a) behavioral science, (b) practical interventions, (c) social values, and (d) a systems perspective (Office of Special Education Programs, 2010a) to design interventions at the individual, classroom, and schoolwide levels for the purpose of increasing success for all students. The techniques presented in this text reflect PBIS methods for preventing inappropriate behavior, teaching and encouraging appropriate behavior, and managing challenging behavior in all students, but particularly in students with mild to moderate disabilities, at the individual, classroom, and schoolwide levels.

The goal of encouraging appropriate behavior and preventing and managing inappropriate behavior is a demanding task because teachers are expected to successfully teach a wide range of students, including those who are not well prepared for the demands of school and those who are not highly motivated to behave appropriately and learn. The task is complicated by the fact that schools serve a diverse population of students from varied cultural, ethnic, and religious backgrounds who have a range of abilities and learning histories. But the good news is that teachers have the power to meet this challenge by using a wide array of research-based tools to support appropriate behavior, to prevent and manage behavioral problems, and to deliver instruction. We describe these tools, as well as the research to support their use with diverse populations of students, in the remaining chapters of this text.

To illustrate the many concepts and skills presented throughout this text, each chapter includes one or more vignettes. The fictitious teachers and students featured in these scenarios illustrate common classroom management issues and concerns and provide a real-world, research-to-practice application of the presented material.

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Video Example 1.1

In this clip, a Florida news station features positive behavior support. In what ways did the positive behavior interventions and supports effect positive change for students and staff at the school featured in this video? What are your initial thoughts about making changes from traditional approaches to discipline mentioned at the beginning of the video by the news anchors?
https://youtu.be/TUA__X4Uzz4

Behaviors That Teachers May Encounter

Learning Outcome 1.1. Summarize the relationships among teacher characteristics, student diversity, and traditional discipline practices.

During their training, future teachers envision their classrooms as happy, productive environments where students are interested in learning and where they eagerly participate in lively discussions and exciting activities. Seldom do preservice teachers imagine classrooms that include students who do not do the assigned work, who show no interest in what is being taught, who talk back to teachers or defy teachers' instructions, who have difficulty making friends or who are the target of peers' taunts and derisive comments, who talk or move too much, who come to school every day without the necessary supplies, or who come from home environments where there is little support for the types of behaviors expected at school. Such students abound, however, and every teacher will encounter them. Failure to anticipate and prepare for such students' behaviors may leave teachers underprepared for the challenges of real-life classrooms.

The most common behavioral concerns reported by teachers reflect relatively minor inappropriate classroom behaviors.

The students just described are present in almost every classroom in every school in the nation. In a 2009 survey of almost 900 teachers by the nonprofit group Public Agenda, 50% of respondents indicated that "too many kids with discipline and behavior issues" was a major drawback to the teaching profession, yet 55% of respondents described the working conditions of their school as "very good" in terms of order, safety, and respect (Yarrow, 2009). We are particularly encouraged by the fact that 59% of respondents indicated that student motivation is determined by teachers' instruction.

A number of approaches have been used to attempt to quantify behavior problems in American public schools. One comprehensive study compiled survey and incident data from a number of sources and reported that, in the 2009–2010 school year, the most frequently reported school discipline problems occurring in U.S. public schools at least once per week were bullying (23% of schools), student acts of disrespect (8.6%), and student verbal abuse of teachers (4.8%) (Robers et al., 2013). Gang activity (16.4% of schools) and cult activities (1.7% of schools) were reported as occurring, but less frequently than once per week. Other studies that have analyzed office discipline referrals have found generally consistent patterns: Disruptive or aggressive behaviors are the most common reasons for office referrals in elementary schools, and disrespect and attendance issues (tardies, truancy) were most common in secondary schools (Kaufman et al., 2010; Spaulding et al., 2010). Harrison et al. (2012) surveyed a demographically representative sample of teachers to determine student behavior problems commonly reported by those teachers, and then analyzed results according to age (children versus adolescents) and topography of the behavior problem (**internalizing**, **externalizing**, academic). Table 1.1 lists these results. The good news for teachers is that minor misbehavior is easily preventable and manageable using the techniques described throughout this text; more serious behaviors will need more

Table 1.1 Most Commonly Reported Disciplinary Problems

	Children	Adolescents
Internalizing	Anxiety (worrying about mistakes, general worrying)	Anxiety (self-doubt, perfectionism, worrying about what others think)
Externalizing	Distractibility, poor concentration	Distractibility
	Hyperactivity (excessive movement, rushing through tasks)	Hyperactivity (overactivity, rushing through tasks)
	Disruptive behaviors (not following directions)	Silly or immature behavior
Academic	Deficits in reading, math, spelling	Not following task directions
		Careless errors

SOURCE: Harrison et al. (2012).

intensive interventions, such as those described in Chapters 8 through 12 of this text. All students can benefit from the schoolwide or systems-level preventive techniques discussed in Chapter 3.

Of course, not all school misbehavior is minor. Serious problems that threaten student and staff safety can and do occur, and although these incidents are not widespread, they must be considered in any discussion of school discipline. According to the 2012 *Indicators of School Crime and Safety* report (Robers et al., 2013), during the 2009–2010 school year, 1396 youth age 5 to 18 were victims of homicide; 19 of these homicides occurred at school. Nonfatal victimizations are more common. In 2011, there were 1,246,000 reports of nonfatal victimizations of students age 12 to 18 that occurred at school. These incidents included thefts and threats or injury with a weapon of some type. Other major discipline problems described in this report include fighting, use of illegal substances, bringing a weapon to school, and bullying. During 2009–2010, 85% of public schools indicated that one or more crimes had occurred at school, or a rate of approximately 40 crimes per 1000 students. During that same period, 60% of public schools reported a crime to the police (15 reported crimes per 1000 students). As a result of real and perceived threats to school safety, schools now commonly employ multiple measures to enhance school security. The most common safety precautions reported in schools (elementary and secondary) are restricting access to the building, prohibiting student use of cell phones, limiting access to Internet social networking sites, requiring staff to wear IDs, having an electronic warning system for schoolwide emergencies, and using security cameras (Robers et al., 2013). Approximately 60% of high schools also report using dogs to detect drugs.

Emotional/Behavioral Disorders in Children and Youth. Most student behavioral problems present relatively minor challenges for educators. However, in 1999, U.S. Surgeon General David Satcher released a report estimating that as many as 20% of children age 9 to 17 may have diagnosable mental or addictive disorders (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1999). More recent estimates of the prevalence of mental health disorders in young people support the figures reported by the Surgeon General (National Advisory Mental Health Council Workgroup on Child and Adolescent Mental Health Intervention Development and Deployment, 2001). For example, the National Alliance on Mental Illness (NAMI) reports that 3 to 5 million children age 5 to 17 (or 5% to 9% of this population) in the United States are affected by serious mental disorders (National Alliance on Mental Illness, n.d.). Researchers from the National Institute of Mental Health report that 20% of children and youth are affected by a mental disorder that interferes with functioning, and 40% of those young people have more than one disorder (Merikangas et al., 2010). Many reports on the prevalence of childhood behavioral disorders state that 12% to 22% of children under age 18 are in need of services for emotional, mental, or behavioral problems (Center for Mental Health in Schools, 2003). A 2009 report from the National Research Council and Institute of Medicine states that most mental, emotional, and behavioral disorders of adults begin in childhood or adolescence, and that in any given year, 20% to 40% of children and youth have a mental, emotional, or behavioral disorder (National Research Council and Institute of Medicine, 2009). These disorders include diagnosable disorders, such as anxiety disorders or depressive disorders, as well as behavioral difficulties that may not meet formal diagnostic criteria.

Children of all ages appear to be equally affected by mental health disorders, including preschool-age children (U.S. Public Health Service, 2000). Furthermore, **comorbidity** (two conditions present simultaneously) is common, particularly within the two categories of externalizing disorders and internalizing disorders. Table 1.2 lists mental health disorders that affect children and the prevalence of each as reported in the 2009 analysis from the National Research Council and Institute of Medicine, as well as the corresponding behavioral characteristics that may interfere with school performance.

Table 1.2 Mental Health Disorders in Children, Including Prevalence and Behavioral Characteristics

Disorder	Prevalence (Percentage of the School-Age Population)	Behavioral Characteristics
Anxiety disorders	8%*	• Excessive worry • Perfectionism • Constantly seeking approval or reassurance
Unipolar depression	5.2%*	• Extreme and pervasive sadness • Self-critical • Pessimistic • Problems concentrating • Lethargic • Irritable or hostile
Disruptive behavioral disorders	6.1%*	• Persistent disobedience, defiance, or hostility toward authority figures • Argumentativeness • Temper easily lost
Attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder	11%†	• High level of physical or verbal activity, excessive fidgeting • Difficulty concentrating or focusing attention • Easily distracted • High level of impulsivity

SOURCES:*Disorders and prevalence figures from National Research Council and Institute of Medicine (2009). *Preventing Mental, Emotional, and Behavioral Disorders Among Young People: Progress and Possibilities*. Committee on the Prevention of Mental Disorders and Substance Abuse Among Children, Youth, and Young Adults: Research Advances and Promising Interventions. Mary Ellen O'Connell, Thomas Boat, and Kenneth E. Warner (Eds.). Board on Children, Youth, and Families, Division of Behavioral and Social Sciences and Education. Washington, DC: The National Academies Press.

†National Institute of Mental Health. (2017). *Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder*. https://www.nimh.nih.gov/health/statistics/attention-deficit-hyperactivity-disorder-adhd.shtml

The mental health disorders presented in Table 1.2 may manifest in a variety of symptoms, as the table indicates. Significant atypical behaviors such as threats, intimidation, fighting, talking back or defiance, noncompliance with rules and adult requests, excessive worrying or anxiousness, excessive activity levels, or observed patterns of victimization by other students should prompt educators to consider that the student may have a mental health disorder, especially when those behaviors occur more frequently or intensely than in the majority of the student population. If a mental health disorder is suspected, educators should take appropriate steps, including consulting with school-based support personnel (behavior specialists, counselors, school psychologists) or initiating a referral for evaluation for special education services.

One particular disability that virtually all teachers will encounter is autism. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) estimates that approximately 1 in 68 children now have some form of autism (Baio, 2014). In the CDC's sample, approximately one third of children with a diagnosis of autism spectrum disorder (ASD) were reported to have an IQ of 70 or less (intellectual disability range), 23% were in the borderline range (IQ of 71 to 85), and 46% had a reported IQ of average or above average (IQ above 85). The range of intellectual ability and severity of autism symptoms (Venker et al., 2014) indicate that children with this disorder will be served in virtually every type of educational setting, including general education classes.

Teachers must have a good understanding of their students' varied cultures and life experiences.

Although the behaviors just described pose significant challenges to educators, the techniques presented in this text will positively affect these student behaviors as well (Kerr & Nelson, 2006; National Research Council and the Institute of Medicine, 2009). In fact, the best hope for students with behavioral difficulties may well be a consistent, proactive, positive school environment that maximizes students' academic and social success.

Diversity in the Classroom

Schools serve richly diverse student populations from varied ethnic, cultural, religious, linguistic, and socioeconomic backgrounds. As of fall 2017, over 50% of the students in public schools (traditional and charter schools) are members of minority groups and approximately 10.1% are English language learners (Hussar et al., 2020). Furthermore, 45% each of Black and Hispanic students attended a high poverty school (e.g., more than 75% of students are eligible for free or reduced-price lunch), followed by 41% of American Indian/Alaska Native students, 24% of Pacific Islander students, 18% of students of two or more races, 15% of Asian students, and 8% of White students (Hussar et al., 2020). During the 2018–2019 school year, 14% of America's public school students age 3 to 21 received services for a disability under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA; Hussar et al., 2020).

The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), a division of the U.S. Department of Education, publishes statistical data on public and private schools. Although student populations are diverse, only about 20% of public school teachers are from cultural or ethnic minority groups, and 42% of our nation's schools have no minority teachers at all (Strizek et al., 2006; U.S. Department of Education, NCES, 2017). Approximately 77% of public school teachers are female (U.S. Department of Education, NCES, 2017). Minorities are also underrepresented among school principals, who typically provide leadership in school disciplinary policy and decision making. In the 2015–2016 school year, 22.2% of school principals were members of minority groups (U.S. Department of Education, NCES, 2017).

Furthermore, evidence suggests inequities in access to qualified teachers. The U.S. Department of Education's civil rights data (U.S. Department of Education Office for Civil Rights, March, 2014) shows that students of color are more likely to have teachers who are underqualified for the subjects they are teaching, new to teaching, or paid less than colleagues in schools that serve predominantly White student populations. These trends tend to be most evident in schools where Black students make up a significant percentage of the student population.

This means that most students from diverse racial, ethnic, or cultural backgrounds will be taught by a teacher from a different cultural or ethnic group. This fact has implications for teacher–student relationships, teacher–family relationships, academic instruction, and behavior management. As we discuss later in this chapter, minority students, male students, and students with disabilities are disproportionately represented in school discipline practices, especially with respect to exclusionary discipline actions (McIntosh et al., 2008).

With respect to school discipline, educators must engage in critical assessment and planning to develop schoolwide and classroom systems that are equitable for all students. Recommendations for addressing these inequities include designing school behavior systems with stronger attention to the sociocultural experiences of all students in the school, integrating students' cultural values within behavior intervention systems, using disaggregated discipline data (see Chapter 3), and establishing policies that address accountability for equity in discipline practices (McIntosh et al., 2008; Skiba et al., 2014). In classrooms, teachers must take special care to understand the values, priorities, beliefs, and behavioral styles of all the diverse groups represented in their classrooms (Skiba et al., 2000; Townsend, 2000). They must also know and use engaging instructional strategies that increase all students' access to effective instruction, and employ classroom management practices that are equitable and address the needs of all students. As part of this process, all teachers must understand their own perceptions about the diverse student groups in their classroom, and how those perceptions can subtly affect a teacher's behavior. The Iris Center module on Classroom Diversity (Iris Center, n.d.) describes various

Pearson eText

IRIS Module: Classroom Diversity: An Introduction to Student Differences

This module offers an overview of how diversity (i.e., culture, language, exceptionality, and socioeconomic status) affects students' classroom performance and how teachers can better meet the needs of all students in their classes.
https://iris.peabody.vanderbilt.edu/module/div/

types of diversity that teachers will encounter, how teachers' perceptions of those areas of diversity can affect student outcomes, and strategies for enhancing student outcomes through responsive instructional supports and strategies. We encourage readers to study this module: Read the text, view the videos, and complete the activities. We believe that doing so will increase your effectiveness in working with diverse student populations.

To be effective with students from all backgrounds, teachers must understand their students' lives. In terms of behavior management, teachers must use evidence-based instructional and classroom management strategies that are responsive to the abilities and needs of all students. The concepts and practices you will learn in this text will help you develop classroom systems that are engaging and equitable, and ensure all students have access to effective instruction and classroom management.

Pearson eText

IRIS Module: Classroom Diversity: An Introduction to Student Differences

The IRIS Center at Vanderbilt University develops training enhancement materials for preservice and practicing teachers. This **module** on "Classroom Diversity: An Introduction to Student Differences" describes various types of diversity that teachers will encounter, how teachers' perceptions of those areas of diversity can affect student outcomes, and methods for enhancing student outcomes through responsive instructional supports and strategies. To access this module, go to https://iris.peabody.vanderbilt.edu/module/div/

The Critical Role of the Teacher

Polls of teachers, parents, and the public consistently cite discipline as a major concern (e.g., Rose & Gallup, 2002, 2004). A 2013 nationwide survey of new teachers reported that students who are behaviorally challenging was tied for the top concern, with approximately 40% of new teachers citing this issue (Coggshall et al., 2012). Fortunately, as discussed in the previous section, most classroom behavior problems are not serious and can be prevented or easily managed with relatively simple approaches to classroom management. A substantial body of research on classroom management has produced widespread agreement on basic effective practices (Epstein et al., 2008; Oliver et al., 2011; Simonsen et al., 2008; U.S. Department of Education, 2014). We describe those basic effective practices in detail in Chapters 3 through 6 and 10 through 12.

Unfortunately, most teachers receive insufficient training in research-based behavioral strategies that help prevent inappropriate behaviors or that allow educators to respond to challenging behaviors using positive educational approaches (American Federation of Teachers, 2003; Public Agenda, 2004). In a 2007 survey of first-year teachers, only 34% of the respondents reported that their teacher training coursework covered positive behavior interventions as a method for classroom management (Public Agenda, 2007). Secondary teachers, in particular, report that their teacher training did not prepare them for the realities of adolescent behavior (Public Agenda, 2007). Reports in the popular media echo these findings, often highlighting teachers' lack of preparation for the day-to-day demands of classroom management (e.g., Wingert, 2010).

Educators need basic, evidence-based tools to prevent and manage minor disciplinary issues. They also need advanced interventions for managing chronic or serious behavioral challenges. As you will learn from reading this text, research has documented effective and efficient technologies for each of these goals. In addition to classroom management strategies and individual behavior interventions, effective academic instruction is an important component of classroom management. As you will learn in Chapter 6, effective instruction leads to better classroom management, and effective classroom management allows more time for instruction. Thus, the teacher's role in classroom management is critical. Other factors may make the task more demanding, such as students who have learning and behavioral disabilities or students who live in home environments marked with abuse, extreme poverty, substance abuse, or other risk factors. Still, the teacher remains the most critical element in the overall management and organization of the classroom. Simply put, a teacher who is fluent in classroom and behavior management techniques will encounter fewer behavioral problems than one who is not.

Behavioral Science as a Foundation for Effective Classroom Management

Today's teachers are faced with myriad challenges, but the good news is that teachers have the power to structure the classroom in ways that lead to academic and social success in school. Decades of rigorous research have produced and examined both advanced basic classroom management and individual behavior management practices. Those practices are based on the powerful principles of behavioral science. The practices are considered "evidence based" because of the numerous scientific studies that have developed the techniques and that have examined their utility across populations and settings. Educators who implement these techniques as intended can expect that they will produce desired results more often than not. As you will see throughout this book, those principles are not simplistic formulas or "recipe books" for behavior management, nor are they effective only for the most surface-level behavior problems. Rather, like the most useful tools of construction, cooking, medicine, or any other field, they are effective across all types of behaviors, regardless of nature, severity, characteristics of the student, and many other factors. As you will see in Chapter 2, other approaches to classroom and behavior management are far more limited and less useful for educators.

The foundations of behavioral science will be explained in Chapter 2. Like any science, behavioral science is complex and richly nuanced in both concepts and practices. However, behavioral science is rooted in two basic ideas:

- Focus should be on observable behavior, or what individuals do. Advanced behavioral practices can extend to internal events, such as thoughts, but in general, behavioral practitioners give little attention to psychological explanations for behaviors (e.g., urges, drives, emotions). For example, consider a teacher who tries to help a student who cries frequently. When the student cries, the teacher tries to comfort her by sitting with her, asking her why she is so sad, and talking about her favorite things. The teacher might take her for a short walk or get her a cup of water in an effort to help her "regain control." But nothing the teacher does seems to make a difference: The student still cries frequently. As you will learn in Chapter 8, this teacher will be better able to reduce the frequency and intensity of the student's crying by determining specifically when and where the student engages in crying, the teacher's responses when the student cries, and the teacher's responses when the student is *not* crying.
- Behavior is inextricably connected to and affected by the immediate environment, by events related temporally (e.g., close in time) to the behavior. Events that occur shortly before and after a particular behavior determine the likelikhood that the behavior will—or will not—occur again. This is true for both desired behaviors (following directions, completing assignments, participating in class, etc.) and undesirable behaviors. In our example above, a behavior scientist would hypothesize that the student cries to get positive teacher attention. Using observational data of the student's crying behavior, the scientist might also hypothesize that the crying is unlikely to occur during activities that the student prefers, and more likely to occur during less preferred activities. The scientist would develop interventions to provide more teacher attention when the student engages in the less preferred activities without crying, and less teacher attention when the student cries. And then the scientist would monitor the frequency and intensity of crying as those interventions are implemented. Fortunately, all of these scientific practices can be relatively easily applied by teachers in their own classes.

A number of comprehensive reviews of classroom management research have been conducted as part of efforts to definitely identify core evidence-based practices for classroom management. These reviews consistently identify a similar array of practices that are essential to classroom management, regardless of grade level or setting. These core practices are described in depth throughout this text, along with examples and case studies to illustrate their applications across grade levels, student characteristics, and

types of instructional environments. These techniques are so important that it is safe to say that developing fluency in these techniques will make you a more effective teacher.

Behavioral Science and PBIS as Foundational Practices for Preventing Challenging Behavior

Perhaps the most important component of any behavior management program is prevention. It is critical for educators to know and to be able to implement proactive strategies to prevent misbehavior, as it is far easier to prevent challenging behaviors than to manage them once they develop. The importance and efficiency of preventing problems is well known in virtually every discipline in our society. For example, consider the following areas and how the practices listed for each area serve a preventive function:

Public Health

- Prenatal care for expectant mothers
- Well-baby checkups
- Vaccinations
- Annual physicals for adults
- Healthy diet and exercise

Sports

- Helmets, pads, and other protective gear
- Training and diet
- Clear rules and procedures for group sports

Restaurants

- Laws governing food storage and handling
- Regular inspections

Construction

- Safety laws requiring protective clothing (goggles, helmets, high-visibility colors and reflective markings, etc.)
- Permits required before building
- Inspections for each aspect of the construction process
- Industry standards for design, materials, and construction practices
- Laws requiring licenses for certain high-risk jobs (e.g., operating heavy equipment)

Airports

- Public address system announcements about rules and consequences for violating those rules
- Clearly designated areas for lining up for security inspection and flight check-in
- Clear procedures, posted and announced (e.g., for moving through security, for arriving at the gate prior to departure, for retrieving luggage)

When teachers know and use positive, preventive behavior management strategies, many commonly reported minor inappropriate classroom behaviors can be avoided.

Prevention is important for classroom management in a couple of ways. First, the less time teachers spend on disciplinary problems, the more time they have to teach (Public Agenda, 2004). Second, sometimes "untreated" minor disciplinary problems escalate to more serious forms. The works of Alan Kazdin (e.g., Kazdin, 1987), Hill Walker (e.g., Walker et al., 2004), Kenneth Dodge (e.g., Dodge, 1993), Shep Kellam (e.g., Kellam, 2002), Gerald Patterson (e.g., Patterson et al., 1989; Patterson et al., 1992), and many others have provided a clear picture of the development of antisocial behavior. Serious antisocial behavior in teenagers (e.g., chronic truancy, academic underachievement,

chronic problem behavior) usually begins with low-level rule breaking (e.g., noncompliance). Left untreated or treated with ineffective interventions, these low-level challenges may gradually escalate over time to more problematic behaviors.

The Good Behavior Game shows the importance of effective classroom management for young children.

One particularly persuasive series of studies examined the effects of well-managed versus weakly managed first- and second-grade classrooms on a variety of long-term undesirable behaviors (Dolan et al., 1993; Kellam et al., 1998). First-graders in the 18 schools involved in the Baltimore Prevention Program studies were rated in terms of several behavioral characteristics, including aggressiveness and shyness. Next, students were randomly assigned to one of two types of classrooms: either (a) those where teachers implemented a systematic management system called the Good Behavior Game (we describe the Good Behavior Game in Chapter 10), or (b) classrooms where no systematic classroom management system was in place. Students from these classrooms were then followed into middle school, where they were again evaluated in terms of aggression, shyness, and antisocial behaviors (e.g., smoking, substance abuse).

Children who ranked in the top 25% of the group in terms of aggression fared poorly as they got older if their first-grade classrooms were disorderly. Aggressive children from disorderly first-grade classrooms were *59 times more likely to exhibit aggressive behavior* than the average child by the sixth grade! In comparison, other students from that top quartile who began school in first-grade classrooms where the Good Behavior Game was used were only 2.7 times more likely than other children to act out in the sixth grade. Other long-term benefits of the structured first- and second-grade classrooms were evident as well. Students from these classrooms who originally were rated as shy, based on social interactions, were significantly less shy in middle school and were significantly less likely to show symptoms of depression than their peers (Kellam et al., 1994), and they had reduced mental health problems in early adulthood (Petras et al., 2008). In addition, students from the Good Behavior Game classes had reduced risk for tobacco, alcohol, and illicit drug use (Ialongo et al., 1999; Kellam & Anthony, 1998). All of these studies show that early exposure to positive, proactive classroom management plays an important role in preventing and managing immediate problem behaviors and has a positive effect on long-term outcomes as well. The results of this study are astounding and clearly underscore the power of teachers and schools in preventing serious behavioral problems.

Also, as you will learn in Chapter 3, approximately 80% to 90% of all students will respond successfully to a positive, proactive school environment that emphasizes teaching students how to behave and ensuring that attention is paid to appropriate behaviors rather than simply punishing inappropriate behavior (Office of Special Education Programs, 2015). Another 5% to 15% of students will need more intensive, individualized interventions, such as those described in Chapters 8 through 12. Finally, approximately 1% to 7% of all students will need individualized, integrated services from multiple agencies. These compelling statistics should convince you of the teacher's importance in preventing minor misbehaviors from becoming significant problems and managing behaviors effectively so that they do not escalate or become chronic problems.

Concerns Regarding Traditional Approaches to Discipline

Learning Outcome 1.2. Describe traditional disciplinary methods and the concerns associated with those methods.

Traditionally, educators have dealt with student misbehavior by responding to instances of challenging behavior with punishment (Gushee, 1984; Sugai & Horner, 2002). The term *discipline* has acquired the connotation of "punishment" because punishment

has traditionally been the primary component of discipline. In fact, punishment and exclusion are the most common responses to challenging behavior, despite the fact that reactive responses such as reprimands, detention, and exclusion are unproductive behavioral change methods (Heumann & Warlick, 2001) and may even reinforce undesirable behaviors, as you will see in Chapter 8. Of course, traditional approaches also include a few proactive measures. Teachers are expected to establish classroom rules, most schools have designated consequences for breaking classroom or schoolwide rules, and most schools clearly define prohibited behaviors and consequences for those behaviors. However, a system consisting simply of rules and consequences for breaking those rules is apparently insufficient, given the widespread concerns about discipline and the fact that a relatively minor problem such as talking out during class is one of the most often cited disciplinary problems (see Table 1.1). Unfortunately, not only are traditional methods largely ineffective for the students who exhibit chronic behavioral problems, but these methods pose other problems as well, including the following issues:

There are concerns related to traditional approaches to school disciplinary methods.

1. ***Traditional disciplinary methods are disproportionately applied to certain minority students.*** One of the most pressing concerns with traditional, reactive approaches to discipline is that research has documented significant gender, racial, ability, and socioeconomic disparities in school discipline. Of particular interest is the fact that exclusionary disciplinary consequences are applied more often to minority students, especially Black students, than to any other students. In 1975, a landmark study conducted by the Children's Defense Fund produced several important findings. First, rates of suspension for Black students were two to three times higher than for White students at all grade levels. Second, a majority of the states suspended more than 5% of their Black student population, but only four states suspended an equivalent percentage of White students. Finally, Black students were more likely than White students to be suspended more than once (Children's Defense Fund, 1975).

   These findings have remained consistent in the decades following that 1975 study, documented in a report issued in 2014 by the U.S. Department of Education's Office for Civil Rights. This exhaustive report presented results of school discipline collected from every public school in the United States during the 2011–2012 school year. The report documents disparities in school discipline practices, with students of color and students with disabilities being disproportionately involved in disciplinary actions across all grade levels. Some of the key findings from this report are as follows:

   - Black students represented only 16% of the total enrollment, yet they represented 32% of students who received in-school suspensions, 33% of students who received out-of-school suspensions, and 34% of expelled students.
   - Black students were also overrepresented in encounters with law enforcement, representing 27% of students referred to law enforcement and 31% of students who were subjected to school-related arrests at school.
   - Black children make up 18% of the overall preschool enrollment, but almost half (48%) of the preschool children who have been suspended more than once.

   Other groups are also disproportionately affected by traditional disciplinary policies. Research shows that, in addition to minority students, low-income students and students with disabilities are more likely to receive exclusionary and more punitive consequences (e.g., corporal punishment, public reprimands) than are White, middle-class, or upper-class students (Leone et al., 2003; Skiba et al., 2000). Furthermore, within low-income subgroups, students of color still

face more disciplinary consequences than do White students (Darensbourg et al., 2010; Skiba et al., 2000), although the problems of disproportionality in discipline persist even when socioeconomic status is controlled for (Morris & Perry, 2016). In 2011, the Council of State Governments' Justice Center published a groundbreaking report on discipline in Texas public schools, "Breaking Schools' Rules" (Fabelo et al., 2011). In this study, researchers examined school discipline and academic records of nearly 1 million Texas secondary students (all seventh-grade students in 2000–2002) over a 6-year period. The study revealed that Black students were 31% more likely to receive discretionary disciplinary actions (e.g., discipline for locally determined misbehavior, not in response to conduct addressed by state law) than White or Hispanic students who were otherwise identical on over 83 variables. The report also documented the fact that over 75% of students receiving special education services were suspended or expelled at least once; the special education label of "Emotionally Disturbed" was associated with a greater likelihood of suspension or expulsion.

Despite the disproportionate number of suspensions for minority students, no objective evidence suggests that students of color act out more or are more disruptive than other students. In fact, some evidence suggests that Black students are referred to the principal's office for more minor infractions than White students, are punished more severely for the same offenses, and receive more office referrals for subjectively determined behaviors (e.g., disrespect; see Advancement Project and the Harvard Civil Rights Project, 2000; Fabelo et al., 2011; Leone et al., 2003; Skiba et al., 2000).

2. ***Traditional school discipline practices place students at risk for involvement in the juvenile or criminal justice systems.*** The term "**school-to-prison pipeline**" is used to describe the patterns and ramifications of "get tough" school discipline practices based on a philosophy of zero tolerance for certain misbehaviors, or the use of law enforcement for school discipline purposes. **Zero tolerance** originally referred to applying uniform suspension and expulsion policies for serious school-based disciplinary infractions involving weapons, drugs, or violence (National Association of School Psychologists [NASP], 2001). However, over the years, zero-tolerance policies have been expanded to mandate harsh punishments (e.g., suspension or expulsion) for a wide range of rule infractions, sometimes even encompassing minor behaviors that are clearly not dangerous (Fabelo et al., 2011; NASP, 2001). Zero-tolerance laws and policies require educators to administer these prescribed consequences, without allowing for administrators' discretion in evaluating the incident, the student's intent, or other mitigating factors. This type of policy rigidity has led to much-publicized incidents, such as a kindergarten student who was suspended for 30 days for bringing a broken plastic gun to school ("Girl Expelled," January 31, 2013), or a high school girl who was expelled for taking an over-the-counter pain medication for a headache, which according to school officials, violated the school's zero-tolerance drug policy ("ACLU Files Lawsuit," February 1, 2001).

Traditional disciplinary methods tend to be disproportionately applied to certain minority students.

Another pathway into the school-to-prison pipeline occurs when students are referred to law enforcement for school discipline problems, such as truancy, tardies, or even in-school misbehavior. In many states, school or community police officers can arrest youth, even place them in handcuffs and transport them to youth detention facilities, for misbehavior at school (Aull, 2012). Some states also allow school police officers to issue students misdemeanor citations for low-level misbehavior such as disruptive behavior, disorderly conduct, and truancy (Fowler, 2011a, 2011b). Students who receive those citations are typically required to appear before a judge in a juvenile or adult court. Sanctions can include fines and community service and can result in a criminal record for students (Fowler,

2010). As with other disciplinary actions, minority students and students with disabilities are disproportionately represented in disciplinary actions involving law enforcement (Fowler, 2011a, 2011b).

Still another, less obvious pathway into the pipeline develops when students are repeatedly suspended from school, often for minor misbehavior. The 2011 Council of State Governments' Justice Center's 2011 groundbreaking report on discipline in Texas public schools, "Breaking Schools' Rules" (Fabelo et al., 2011), also documented this trajectory. The study's researchers had access to youth juvenile justice records, allowing the researchers to trace the school history of youth who entered the juvenile justice system. The report documented the widespread use of in-school suspension, out-of-school suspension, and expulsion, primarily for minor misbehaviors, and disproportionately applied to minority students, male students, and students with disabilities (Fabelo et al., 2011). Students who received disciplinary actions were more likely to be retained or to drop out of school. Furthermore, a suspension or expulsion predicted involvement in the juvenile justice system within 1 year.

The goals of these types of discipline policies are school order and safety. However, the evidence does not indicate that simplistic, "push-out" discipline policies that remove students from school achieve those goals effectively. On the contrary, such policies actually appear to do more harm than good, and more substantial evidence suggests that focusing on school climate, preventive strategies, and student engagement are more effective and efficient approaches to creating safe and orderly schools.

3. ***Most traditional disciplinary methods are reactive.*** Most traditional approaches to discipline, such as office referrals, detention, or calls to parents, are applied only after a problem behavior occurs. This means that the problem behavior must occur before an intervention is used to address that behavior. It is preferable to prevent misbehavior from occurring in the first place. Of course, some might argue that the threat of detention, office referral, or other interventions is preventive. This assumption, however, is not supported with data. In fact, most students who are the recipients of these disciplinary measures are "repeat offenders" (Public Agenda, 2004), indicating that, for these students, the discipline they received did not prevent future occurrences of misbehavior. Consider this analogy: Drivers who exceed the speed limit do so, in part, because the *potential* for receiving a speeding ticket is an insufficient consequence to control their speed. Once they receive a ticket, people generally slow down for a while, but then they gradually resume their previous driving patterns. Likewise, the *potential* for receiving a jail sentence or hefty fines is insufficient to prevent some individuals from committing crimes.

4. ***Reactive measures are often time—and resource—intensive.*** Teachers and administrators spend an inordinate amount of time dealing with problems related to student behavior (Heumann & Warlick, 2001; Public Agenda, 2004). Such resources would be better spent providing positive, supportive environments and effective instruction.

   Consider the time spent on office referrals alone. According to one source, each office disciplinary referral requires approximately 10 minutes of an administrator's time and 20 minutes of a student's time (Illinois PBIS Network, 2005). The teacher must first write the referral, often during class time. Then the assistant principal, or the designated administrator who handles disciplinary matters, must call the student to the office, wait for the student to arrive, talk with the student, determine a consequence (e.g., detention, home call), and then inform the teacher of the action taken. Then paperwork must be completed to document the referral and the outcome. Finally, the actual consequence must be

carried out, which may involve time from other school personnel (e.g., a detention teacher) and more paperwork. Multiply this process by the number of students who receive office referrals, and you can see the excessive amount of time spent responding to behavioral problems. Again, this time could be spent more productively on instruction and implementation of proactive, preventive behavior management strategies.

5. ***Many disciplinary methods put educators in a position with students that is contrary to their reasons for entering the profession.*** Educators enter the field to teach, guide, and mentor students. These are very positive and optimistic goals. The ineffective aspects of traditional disciplinary methods, at best, create an environment that is unpleasant for all involved and is, at worst, hostile and adversarial (Public Agenda, 2004).

6. ***Studies show that the disciplining of students continues to be at the forefront of teachers' concerns and is one of the major reasons that teachers leave the profession.*** Teachers often cite lack of training in dealing with the realities of teaching as a factor that influences their decision to leave teaching (McCreight, 2000; Public Agenda, 2004). When well-trained, experienced teachers leave the field, it is not only a significant loss for the field but also a waste of valuable resources.

Concerns related to classroom management are often cited as a reason that teachers leave the teaching profession.

The concepts and skills presented throughout this text are based on research related to effective behavioral interventions. To set the stage for these concepts and skills, in the next section we describe Guiding Principles, or ways of thinking about behavior. These Guiding Principles provide an important foundation for preventing and managing disciplinary problems.

Making Schools More Effective for All Students

Learning Outcome 1.3. Define and explain *positive behavior interventions and supports*.

Mounting evidence indicates that traditional discipline strategies such as suspension and expulsion are overused, are disproportionately applied to certain groups of students, and place youth at risk for involvement in the juvenile or adult criminal justice system. In January 2014, as a response to the problems associated with traditional discipline methods, the U.S. Department of Education issued a school discipline resource package for educators, "Guiding Principles: A Resource Guide for Improving School Climate and Discipline." Components of the discipline package are the following:

- a "Dear Colleague" letter, describing schools' obligations to apply school disciplinary actions without discriminating on the basis of race, color, or national origin;
- "Guiding Principles," which describe best practices for creating safe, effective, and orderly schools;
- a "Directory of Federal School Climate and Discipline Resources," listing federal resources for technical assistance in school discipline and school climate;
- an online "Compendium of School Discipline Laws and Regulations" related to school discipline in each state, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico; and
- an "Overview of the Supportive School Discipline Initiative" that describes federal efforts to improve school discipline and school climate practices.

The "Guiding Principles" document describes three overarching principles for improving school discipline practices: (1) Create positive *climates and focus on prevention*; (2) develop *clear, appropriate,* and *consistent expectations and consequences* to address

disruptive student behaviors; and (3) ensure *fairness, equity*, and *continuous improvement* (U.S. Department of Education, 2014). Each principle is explained and includes detailed action steps for achieving the practice described in the principle. One of the action steps for achieving positive school climate and emphasizing prevention is to implement tiered systems of student support, such as the framework known as positive behavior interventions and supports (PBIS).

PBIS refers to both a philosophy and an array of research-based practices that emerged as a result of concerns about aversive, punitive approaches for coping with challenging behaviors. The term *positive behavior support* was originally used in reference to practices that rely on "educational and systems change methods (environmental redesign) to enhance quality of life and minimize problem behavior" (Carr et al., 2002, p. 4). Positive behavior support eventually became known as PBIS, which is conceptualized as a continuum of supports that range from proactive, preventive strategies applied throughout a school or facility to comprehensive, intensive interventions developed for and applied to individuals who have significant behavioral needs (Walker et al., 1996). The overarching goal is prevention: preventing behavioral problems from developing, and preventing negative outcomes from those problems that do develop.

Walker and his colleagues (1996) proposed a three-tiered approach to prevention/intervention that reflects a public health model of prevention and intervention. In the public health model, **primary-level prevention** refers to universal strategies designed to prevent health problems (e.g., fluoridation of the public water supply to prevent cavities, recommendations to exercise and maintain a healthy diet to avoid heart problems). **Targeted-level prevention** strategies are designed to quickly and effectively respond to problems that develop despite primary prevention efforts. The goal is to catch problems early to prevent more severe problems. Public health examples include filling cavities to prevent further tooth decay and treating high blood pressure or high cholesterol levels to prevent heart disease. Finally, despite our best efforts at prevention, some serious health problems will occur. Treatment for such cases involves *tertiary interventions* that are designed to minimize the negative effects of problems. In the health field, tertiary treatments include root canals and other extensive dental repairs, and bypass and other surgeries to repair heart damage.

Educational applications of this three-tiered concept (see Figure 1.1) address both academic and behavioral systems. Primary prevention, also called **universal-level** academic approaches, includes reliance on evidence-based instructional methods and curricula for teaching reading, mathematics, and other academic subjects, as well as periodic screening to identify students who are not making the expected academic progress. Universal-level behavioral approaches include establishing and teaching schoolwide expectations for positive behavior, acknowledging rule-following behavior, and monitoring behavioral indicators to quickly identify students who are not responding to the universal-level strategies. Evidence suggests that when we implement comprehensive universal-level interventions, we can expect that about 80% to 90% of the students will be successful. This means that we can expect universal interventions to result in about 80% to 90% of any student population—elementary or secondary—meeting social/behavioral expectations.

Targeted-level academic supports, also called **secondary-level** prevention, might include small-group instruction in areas of deficit (e.g., reading fluency or writing), along with more frequent progress monitoring. Targeted-level behavioral supports might include social skills instruction targeted to students' social/emotional/behavioral needs, and frequent reminders and feedback about expected positive behaviors. When implemented consistently, approximately 10% to 15% of the students should be successful with these additional targeted interventions.

The remaining 1% to 5% of any given student population may need additional, more intensive, individualized supports, which are called **tertiary-level** interventions.

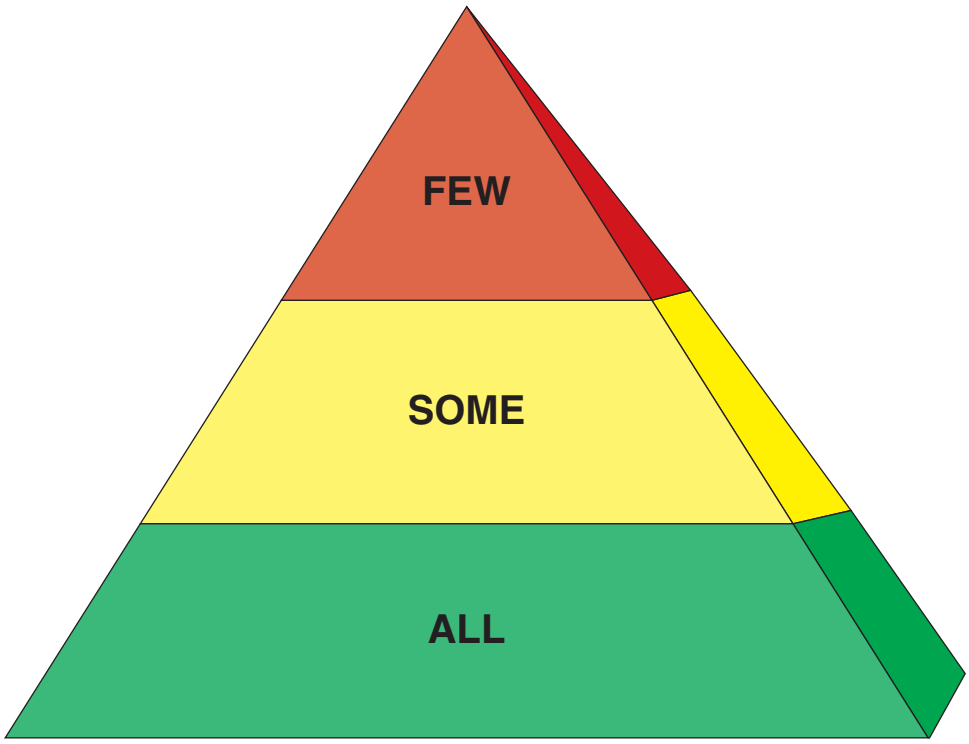

Figure 1.1 Three-Tiered PBIS Framework

SOURCE: Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports. Reprinted with permission.

Tertiary-level academic interventions might involve individualized reading or mathematics instruction using a separate curriculum and specialized instructional methods. Tertiary-level behavioral interventions involve behavioral assessment, as well as comprehensive, individualized, multidisciplinary interventions that may include social services and/or mental health services in addition to school-based interventions.

Schools throughout the United States, and in other countries as well, are implementing academic and behavioral systems reflective of this tiered prevention approach. Various terms are used to refer to these systems. As applied to academic interventions, they are generally referred to as **multi-tiered systems of supports (MTSS), or response to intervention (RtI)**. When applied to behavior, the three-tiered prevention framework is often referred to simply as positive behavior interventions and supports (PBIS), **positive behavior supports (PBS)**, **schoolwide PBIS (SW-PBIS)**, and more recently, **response to intervention for behavior, or behavior RtI**. While all generally refer to the same principles and practices, the term PBIS is most consistent with language used in research, policy, and technical support.

Glen Dunlap and his colleagues recently provided a succinct historical perspective of positive behavior support, along with a discussion of PBS-related terminology (Dunlap et al., 2014). In the 1980s, researchers began using the term "positive behavior support" to emphasize a preference for nonaversive intervention techniques, particularly for children and youth with significant intellectual and behavioral disabilities, and to shift from a "behavior management" perspective to a "support for positive behavior" perspective. About the same time as early research in PBS-based techniques was occurring, other research efforts focused on expanding the principles of behavior support and applied behavior analysis from individuals to systems (Lewis & Sugai, 1999; Sugai & Horner, 1999). In the 1997 and 2004 reauthorizations of the Individuals with Disabilities Act, Congress included language that encouraged educators to consider positive behavioral interventions and supports to address student behavior that impeded the student's learning or the learning of others. Over the years, the term "positive behavior support" has evolved into multiple permutations, including positive behavioral support and positive behavior (or behavioral) interventions and

YouTube

Pearson eText

Video Example 1.2

This video describes a school district's implementation of PBIS. What are some of the ways this school's PBIS initiative differs from what you know of traditional, schoolwide approaches to student behavior?
www.youtube.com/watch?v=sX2ENw_Atp0

supports. PBIS became synonymous with school-based applications of positive behavior support principles. As this text is focused primarily on school-based applications of positive behavior supports, we will use the phrases *positive behavior interventions and supports*, or *positive behavior support*, or the acronym *PBIS*, interchangeably. Kincaid et al. (2016) offer the following definition of positive behavior support:

> PBS is an approach to behavior support that includes an ongoing process of research-based assessment, intervention, and data-based decision making focused on building social and other functional competencies, creating supportive contexts, and preventing the occurrence of problem behaviors. PBS relies on strategies that are respectful of a person's dignity and overall well-being and that are drawn primarily from behavioral, educational, and social sciences, although other evidence-based procedures may be incorporated. PBS may be applied within a multi-tiered framework at the level of the individual and at the level of larger systems (e.g., families, classrooms, schools, social service programs, and facilities). (p. 71)

As the title implies, this text focuses on behavioral principles and practices and will center primarily on the application of PBIS principles and practices to groups (small and large) and individual student behavior. The organization of the text generally reflects the three tiers of prevention and support: Part 2 reflects universal-level supports; Part 3, assessment and monitoring techniques typically associated with targeted and tertiary levels of support; and Part 4, targeted- and tertiary-level interventions.

Assumptions About Student Behavior

Learning Outcome 1.4. Explain the nine Behavior Assumptions that form the foundation for managing behavior in school settings.

Understanding the Behavior Assumptions will help teachers become more independent problem solvers when faced with behavioral challenges.

The material in this text is based on several basic assumptions about student behavior that we have found useful for helping educators adopt more positive and preventive behavior management practices. These assumptions are provided in Table 1.3 and are based on the large body of behavioral research (discussed throughout the text), as well as drawn from our own experiences as teachers of children with challenging behaviors.

Behavior Assumption 1: Changing Inappropriate Student Behavior Requires Changing Teachers' Behavior. Typically, teachers respond to challenging behaviors by blaming the student or looking for student-centered explanations (Walker, 1995). For example, teachers may attribute a student's noncompliance to the student's family not enforcing limits or the family not teaching the student to follow teachers' instructions. Given this attitude, it may be sobering to many of us to realize that we are often the catalyst for the escalation of undesirable classroom behavior. Of course, the opposite is also true: The behavior of teachers facilitates appropriate behavior as well. The little things we say to our students (or do not say), what we acknowledge (or ignore), the behaviors we smile at (or frown at), how we encourage (or discourage), and so on—all of these things have an impact on student behavior. A central premise of PBIS is that teachers' behavior plays a central role in shaping students' responses: To achieve the goal of increasing appropriate student behavior, we must change aspects of our own behavior in the classroom.

Sometimes, even small changes in a teacher's behavior will have a positive effect on student behavior.

This is both good news and bad news. The bad news is that it is likely that a teacher's actions are contributing directly in some way to student misbehavior. That is, teachers often do things, typically with good intentions, that actually serve to foster and reinforce undesirable behavior. But the good news is that knowing the undesirable behavior is related to something we are doing is far preferable to learning that the misbehavior lies somewhere outside our control. Perhaps most significant is

Table 1.3 Behavior Assumptions

Behavior Assumption 1: Changing inappropriate student behavior requires changing teachers' behavior.
Behavior Assumption 2: Some students require more time, attention, and structure than others.
Behavior Assumption 3: Students exhibit both desirable and undesirable behaviors for a reason.
Behavior Assumption 4: Many behavioral challenges reflect learning difficulties.
Behavior Assumption 5: Most inappropriate behavior is predictably linked to specific contexts and activities.
Behavior Assumption 6: It is more efficient and more effective to change student behavior by using positive strategies rather than punitive strategies.
Behavior Assumption 7: It is more efficient and effective to use proactive, preventive strategies rather than relying on reactive strategies after a behavioral problem has already developed.
Behavior Assumption 8: Students benefit when general educators and special educators work together to meet the needs of all students.
Behavior Assumption 9: Students benefit when educators maintain close communication with parents to share information and collaboratively plan educational and home programs.

the understanding that if we can identify our behaviors that contribute to the escalation of problem behavior, we can change them—and that is good news.

Behavior Assumption 2: Some Students Require More Time, Attention, and Structure Than Others. Every child is unique and has unique needs! Because of this, some children require considerably more resources than others. Some students need more time and attention from their teacher than their peers. Some students need more in the way of external control and support, more structure, or more frequent feedback about their behavior to regulate it. What this all means is really quite simple: What works for most students is often not effective or is insufficient for students who exhibit chronic behavioral challenges.

We define students with behavioral challenges as those who require differential behavior management techniques, more structure, and possibly more individualized instruction—above and beyond what is effective for the majority of students—in order to bring their behavior into compliance with school or classroom rules and in order for them to achieve academic and social success. In the three-tiered framework of positive behavior interventions and supports described previously, these would be the students who need targeted or tertiary supports and interventions. Of course, within that group, some students may need very little in the way of additional support to be successful, whereas others will need more intensive supports. To minimize the number of students who need the most intensive supports, educators are well advised to rely on the research-based practices described in this text.

At this point, we wish to differentiate between classroom management and behavioral interventions for individual students. Effective teachers need to understand and know how to use both types of management systems. For most situations, especially for students with high-incidence disabilities, positive, proactive classroom management systems will be sufficient for maintaining an orderly, safe, and productive classroom environment. The strategies that we describe in Chapters 3 through 6 address behavior management of groups of students. However, some students need more intensive, individualized interventions above and beyond what is used for the group. For these students, the group system is insufficient to encourage appropriate behavior and discourage inappropriate behavior. For these situations, we describe strategies that are most appropriate for individual students, such as those presented in Chapters 8 through 12.

Behavior Assumption 3: Students Exhibit Both Desirable and Undesirable Behaviors for a Reason. Usually one or more reasons account for a child's undesirable behavior (Martella et al., 2003). If you are able to ascertain the reason(s) for the behavior, you are more likely to design intervention strategies to address

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Video Example 1.3

This video features several clips of classroom misbehavior. What do you think may be the reason the little girl leaves her group to sit alone at 00:45? Why do you think the young man created the disruption by grabbing a peer's paper at 01:01? How will knowing why these students are misbehaving help the teacher in intervening?

Both desirable and undesirable behaviors occur for a reason.

that reason, increasing the likelihood of an effective intervention. This concept is a basic premise of positive behavior support. In Chapter 2, we describe how factors in a child's immediate environment contribute to most challenging behaviors, and in Chapter 8, we explain how to determine those environmental factors that exacerbate challenging behaviors, as well as other causes of unacceptable behaviors.

When faced with a student who exhibits high rates of misbehavior, educators should determine whether academic skill deficits might be a contributing factor to that misbehavior.

Behavior Assumption 4: Many Behavioral Challenges Reflect Learning Difficulties. Most students want to please, and they generally do the best they can. Research has clearly shown that students who exhibit high levels of challenging behavior respond positively when provided with appropriate interventions, including interventions designed to aggressively remedy deficits in basic academic skills and interventions to teach students more appropriate alternatives to misbehavior (Kauffman et al., 2002; Walker et al., 2004). It is important for educators to understand that the more academic failure that exists in any given classroom, the greater the likelihood of undesirable behavior in that class (Kerr & Nelson, 2006; Martella et al., 2003; Scott et al., 2001). Of course, the reverse typically is also true: The greater the level of academic success, the fewer undesirable behaviors will appear. A PBIS approach to managing behavioral problems requires that we consider all possible contributing factors to a student's behavioral difficulties, including curricular and instructional variables. This is why we devote an entire chapter in this text to the discussion of effective instructional methods.

Being alert to the environmental variables that may be contributing to a student's misbehavior can be an important first step in designing interventions to change that misbehavior.

Behavior Assumption 5: Most Inappropriate Behavior Is Predictably Linked to Specific Contexts and Activities. Students seldom misbehave "out of the blue." Challenging behavior is not a random act that just happens: It typically occurs in the presence of certain predictable environmental events. These events may be external to students (e.g., working in small groups, transitions, working independently) or internal to students (e.g., hunger, fatigue, illness). Like Guiding Principle 3, the concept that behavior is influenced by the context in which it occurs constitutes a critical element of PBIS. In Chapter 2, we explain this concept more thoroughly, and in Chapter 8, we describe data collection procedures to help identify when and where problem behavior is likely to occur and why. These data then assume a major role in the subsequent development of preventive behavior management strategies.

Positive strategies are more effective and efficient than punishment.

Behavior Assumption 6: It Is More Efficient and More Effective to Change Student Behavior by Using Positive Strategies Rather Than Punitive Strategies. The results of research indicate that focusing on school and classroom management strategies that promote positive social behavior and academic success for all students is essential to preventing disciplinary problems (Nelson, 1996; Nelson et al., 2002). As we have indicated, responding to inappropriate behavior requires much teacher time. The extent to which inappropriate behavior can be prevented gives teachers more time to teach and students more time to learn.

SW-PBIS is the application of PBIS principles and practices to whole-school environments.

As discussed earlier, given the ever-increasing knowledge base about the efficacy of positive, proactive approaches, a trend is steadily developing toward greater reliance on PBIS as the preferred method for school discipline. The 1997 reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA '97) increased awareness of the concept of positive behavioral interventions and supports by requiring that behavioral intervention plans based on positive behavioral supports be developed for students who exhibit behaviors that interfere with their own learning or the learning of others. Before IDEA '97, PBIS was primarily viewed as a comprehensive array of interventions for individuals with developmental disabilities and severe behavioral challenges (Carr, Horner, et al., 1999; Sugai & Horner, 2002). As discussed previously, PBIS has moved beyond its original concept as a tool for individual student application to use with entire schools—even entire school districts—in the form of schoolwide positive behavioral supports.

Research has demonstrated the efficacy of PBIS for students of all ages and ability levels, and for schoolwide use as well as individual student applications. We describe schoolwide PBIS in Chapter 3.

Over the past two decades, much attention has been paid to the concept of **resiliency**, or the mediating effect of protective traits on risk factors (Garmezy, 1985; Leone et al., 2003). Resiliency may explain why some children prevail over difficult life circumstances (e.g., poverty, abuse, poor parenting practices, family alcohol or drug abuse) that place them at high risk for developing antisocial behaviors. Interest in resiliency factors has led to an emphasis on the assessment of strengths to identify student traits that may help to reduce the risk factors in a child's life (Epstein & Sharma, 1998; Leone et al., 2003). Inherent protective traits may be targets for interventions designed to enhance and strengthen those traits, in addition to reducing and remediating maladaptive behaviors. We believe that the strong personalities of many children with challenging behaviors can be a protective factor; interventions should teach students how to use their strong personalities in positive ways, perhaps even in leadership roles. This approach, focusing on the positive, protective behavioral traits of students as opposed to simply trying to eliminate the behaviors that cause problems in school, reflects PBIS philosophies and practices.

Preventing a problem is generally easier than dealing with the problem once it appears.

Behavior Assumption 7: It Is More Efficient and Effective to Use Proactive, Preventive Strategies Rather Than Relying on Reactive Strategies After a Behavioral Problem Has Already Developed. As you learned in our discussion earlier, most of our classroom and behavior management efforts should be geared toward preventing behavioral problems. Some educators may think that they shouldn't have to do anything special to prevent disciplinary problems; they may think that a teacher's job is simply to teach and not worry about behavior management, and that students who do not behave should be removed from the classroom.

Although this may be a tempting attitude, it is nonetheless an unrealistic and ineffective one. As you have learned from our discussion of disciplinary concerns reported by teachers, all teachers must be prepared to deal with disciplinary problems. Teachers and other educators have two choices: They can wait until those problems develop and then use traditional, reactive, usually punitive responses, or they can anticipate problems and implement proactive strategies in an effort to prevent those problems. The former approach is seldom effective for students who exhibit chronic or challenging behaviors. The latter approach not only is effective for most students but also is associated with higher levels of teacher satisfaction, teacher perceptions of efficacy, and improved school climate (Center for Positive Behavioral Support at the University of Missouri–Columbia, 2009; Rentz, 2007).

The schoolwide framework of PBIS—and, by extension, the application of this approach to classroom management—is based on a preventive approach to discipline. As you have learned, this approach can prevent significant behavioral difficulties in the majority of the student population.

Collaboration among special educators and general educators leads to more effective educational programs for students who exhibit challenging behaviors.

Behavior Assumption 8: Students Benefit When General Educators and Special Educators Work Together to Meet the Needs of All Students. By definition, special education teachers are expected to work with other educators on individualized educational program (IEP) teams to conduct functional behavioral assessments (FBAs), develop behavior intervention plans (BIPs) (see Chapter 8), and plan and implement inclusive educational programs for students. Special education teachers who teach in isolation will not be as effective for their students as teachers who are part of the mainstream of the school setting and who interact regularly with other teachers and students in the school. Research shows that all students, both those with disabilities and their peers without disabilities, benefit when special and general education teachers collaborate (Mattatall & Power, 2014). Special education teachers are professionals who have much to offer general education teachers

and other educators (e.g., administrators, counselors, social workers); they also can learn much from these individuals. To be effective in collaboration with other professionals, we offer the suggestions listed in Toolkit 1-1.

Parental involvement is important for students' school success.

Behavior Assumption 9: Students Benefit When Educators Maintain Close Communication with Parents to Share Information and Collaboratively Plan Educational and Home Programs. Individuals who are preparing for a career as a teacher undoubtedly give much thought to the appeal of working in the school environment, helping students succeed academically and socially, acting as a mentor and role model for youngsters, and simply being a part of one of the most significant aspects of children's development—education. However, being a teacher, especially a special education teacher, also involves another important role that new teachers are often underprepared for—that is, working collaboratively with families. Both IDEA and Every Student Succeeds Act of 2015 mandate specific types of family involvement in their children's school experiences. So, it could be said that knowing how to facilitate collaborative relationships with families is important because it is required by law. However, family involvement is also important because having parents work closely with school personnel increases the effectiveness of educational programs for children with disabilities. For example, parental involvement has been shown to positively affect grades, attendance, and behavior (Center for Comprehensive School Reform and Improvement, 2005). Attaining these positive outcomes requires careful attention to developing relationships with parents and other primary caregivers to involve them in every aspect of their child's education. Attendance at the annual IEP meeting is important, but close

Toolkit 1-1

Strategies for Effective Collaboration

- *Embrace the belief that you can learn from other professionals.*

  When talking with other professionals, think about areas of common philosophies, practices, and needs.

- *Develop behavioral interventions collaboratively with the general education teachers who will be implementing the interventions*.

  Special education teachers may have more knowledge about behavioral interventions, but general education teachers will be able to help develop systems that are manageable within a busy general education classroom. In the process of designing behavioral or academic interventions, special education teachers should ensure that general educators fully understand the interventions and how they are to be implemented. For example, a BIP intervention to "provide frequent praise" might mean something very different to a high school English teacher than it does to a special education teacher. The special education teacher should be very specific about how frequently praise should be provided, for what types of behaviors, and how that praise should be given. As part of developing interventions, the team should also discuss how the special education teacher will provide support for the general education teacher with regard to implementing academic and behavioral interventions in the general education classroom.

- *Listen carefully to general educators' concerns and then take steps to address those concerns.*

- Remember that general education teachers are under pressure to cover required content. When developing behavioral interventions that will be implemented in general education classes, try to streamline those interventions as much as possible to make them easy for general education teachers to manage. Collaboration in developing interventions will help to accomplish this.

- *Sometimes special educators may have to take extra steps to ensure that they are viewed as part of the mainstream school faculty.* To accomplish this, we recommend that special education teachers do the following:

  - Be an active member of any school group or committee to which you are assigned. Follow through on tasks that you are given or for which you volunteer, attend meetings unless you have a conflict, and be a positive contributor in those meetings (as opposed to complaining or griping).

  - Be willing to step outside your assigned duties to experience new groups and school activities. For example, volunteer to be a chaperone at school dances or a sponsor for school clubs. Attend grade-level team meetings as much as possible for the grades of the students you teach; you will learn much about the curriculum, teacher expectations, and student behavior in those meetings. Go to the teachers' lounge regularly. Visit other teachers' classrooms. Attend extracurricular activities.

  - Volunteer to share behavior management ideas with your peers, perhaps during faculty meetings or at other professional development venues. Offer your services to teachers who are experiencing classroom management problems; for these teachers, you will want to observe, ask the teacher about specific problems, make suggestions for specific strategies to address those problems, and possibly even volunteer to model some of the strategies that you describe.

collaboration with parents should also involve more frequent contact. In this section, we provide ideas for maintaining close contact with parents and focusing on strategies for collaborating with parents in areas related to behavior management.

It is important for teachers and future teachers to understand the impact of a child with special needs on the family, and the many roles that parents of children with disabilities play. Although a thorough discussion of this topic is beyond the scope of this text, many excellent publications are devoted to that subject (see Resources at the end of this chapter). However, without a basic understanding of the factors that impact families of children with disabilities, teachers may find it difficult to have empathy, and possibly even respect, in their relationship with parents. For this reason, we present a brief overview of the important dynamics of families of children with disabilities, particularly as these dynamics potentially affect behavior management in the classroom.

Pearson eText

Video Example 1.4

In this video, 00:46–03:04, Deja's mother explains why she disagreed with part of the IEP. How was the coordinator able to facilitate an ultimate resolution with the parent? What are your thoughts about how the coordinator included Deja?

Many parents of children with disabilities describe having experienced various stages of emotional reaction to having a child with a disability, stages similar to those of mourning associated with death (Blacher, 1984; Ferguson, 2003). The stages most commonly reported are listed in Table 1.4, along with possible behaviors that may be indicative of each. Please note that these stages are simply what parents have reported experiencing and are not intended to be used by teachers to "diagnose" parents. Furthermore, it is not a given that all parents will experience these stages as listed; they may experience these stages at different times, with different intensity, or not at all.

Effective collaboration with families requires awareness of the diversity represented by students and their families. Antunez (2000) describes possible barriers that teachers may face in attempts to collaborate with families from diverse backgrounds, including language skills, work schedules, lack of trust in the school system, and the belief that educators are the experts and do not need parental involvement. Teachers must understand potential barriers and take steps to ensure that they do not prevent collaboration with families.

Not only do strong parent–teacher relationships contribute to more positive outcomes for students, but also collaborative relationships with parents can make

Table 1.4 Emotional Responses to Having a Child with a Disability

Stage	Characteristics
Shock, denial, disbelief on learning that the child has a disability—For many children with disabilities (e.g., learning disabilities, behavioral disorders), the disability may not be identified until middle childhood. At first, parents may deny that a problem exists or feel that the problem stems from something that can be fixed (e.g., giving the child more attention, identifying a medical problem).	Searching for a definitive answer to questions about the child's problems; visiting many different types of professionals in search of answers and help. Parents may decline services because, in their mind, no problem exists.
Guilt, anger, depression, rejection, or overprotectiveness of the child—Parents believe that they are responsible for their child's problems (e.g., mother drank a few glasses of wine during pregnancy), and/or if they work hard enough, they can fix the problem.	Parents may take extreme measures to correct the "mistakes" they believe they've made. They may spend inordinate amounts of time and money to "fix" their child, sometimes to the point of neglecting other family members or family obligations.
They want someone to be held responsible for their child's problems; anger or blame may be directed at family members (perhaps at a spouse), doctors, or teachers. They may experience immense sadness over the realization that the child is not going to be cured and may be pessimistic about the future.	Ongoing dissatisfaction with the child's educational program; multiple complaints about the school and teacher that seem to have no solution; nonspecific complaints; inability to come to agreement on IEPs or BIPs. Lack of involvement with the school; apparent disinterest in the child's program.
Acceptance or coping—Parents have a realistic understanding of their child's disability, strengths, needs, and future.	Actively involved in the child's educational program; works collaboratively with educators.

your job as a teacher easier and more pleasant. Like most aspects of classroom and behavior management, your relationships with parents should not be left to chance. Rather, you should actively implement strategies designed to encourage strong, collaborative relationships with parents. We present some of these strategies in Toolkit 1-2. Of course, certain teacher behaviors potentially interfere with productive relationships with families. Some of these are as follows:

- Acting authoritatively with parents, always providing information and recommendations without listening or soliciting information or the parents' ideas.
- Avoiding contacting parents because of lack of time, a dislike for parents, a dislike for parent–teacher conferences, or other reasons.

Toolkit 1-2

Strategies for Facilitating Positive, Collaborative Teacher–Parent Relationships

- Initiate early contact with parents before the first day of school, if possible. Introduce yourself and provide information about your classroom (e.g., rules, expectations, procedures), behavior management system, how you will communicate with parents, how and when to reach you, and so on.
- Provide daily or weekly reports about behavior when that behavior is of concern. These reports will keep parents informed about the student's performance and will help the teacher and parents stay focused on important issues. This information can be in the form of behavior charts, notes, home–school notebooks, e-mails, or telephone calls.
- Take steps to ensure that parents feel welcome in the educational setting. Schedule meetings at times that are convenient to parents, allow sufficient time for meetings so that you can provide parents with your undivided attention, provide toys or activities for siblings while you talk with parents, provide adult-size furniture, hold conferences at a table rather than at your desk, and welcome other family members who wish to attend school functions.
- Use active listening to address parents' concerns. Our first response when parents voice concerns is often to either act reassuringly or become defensive. Neither response is productive. However, if you listen carefully and ask questions to be sure that you understand the parents' real concerns, you are more likely to be able to address those concerns objectively.
- Use lay terminology rather than educational jargon. Parents who hear, "Your child met the criterion in Phase Two of our differential reinforcement of zero levels of behavioral intervention" are probably not going to be inclined to ask too many questions!
- Rather than feeling intimidated by parents who are knowledgeable about special education law and practices, view these parents as a great resource for you! Take advantage of parents' expertise.
- Ask for parents' help when needed, but be specific in your requests. For example, you might provide parents with specific suggestions about how to most effectively review the child's weekly behavior folder with the child. Or you might ask parents for information about the youngster's social relationships—whom he plays with, how frequently, how well they get along, and so on.
- Model effective practices. Explain your behavioral systems in simple terms. If you wish for parents to reinforce a particular behavior at home (e.g., completing homework on time, remembering to bring needed materials from home), give parents specific ideas for how to do this. You might even provide a simple behavior chart for parents to use (see **Chapters 10** and **11** for ideas about reinforcement systems). Likewise, if you wish for parents to provide a consequence for something that happened at school, you might provide specific recommendations for that consequence.
- Understand that parents who speak a different language, are very poor, or are of a different race or ethnicity have much to offer. They are rich sources of information about their child and can be valuable partners in efforts to help the child succeed.
- Try to get to know a little about the family (e.g., brothers and sisters, grandparents, or others who might live in the home; where the parents work; family interests).
- Contact parents to share positive information more often than negative information. Too often, parents' only experience with schools is when school personnel call because of a problem. Make it a regular practice to let parents know about their child's successes and to share positive information about the student's school performance.

Working with parents can also enhance behavior management. To this end, teachers will need to communicate with families for the following reasons:

- Obtain information for functional behavioral assessments.
- Collaboratively develop behavioral intervention plans.
- Provide frequent information about students' behavioral and academic performance.
- Solicit information to determine whether changes in the home environment may be affecting a child's behavior in situations where the child's behavior changes significantly.
- Inform parents about disciplinary decisions for seriously inappropriate behavior.

Take specific steps to facilitate collaborative relationships with parents.

- Failing to make parents feel welcome at school and/or failing to make it easy for parents to contact the teacher.
- Contacting parents only when a problem arises.
- Regularly sending students home because of behavioral problems at school. We strongly believe that school problems should be handled at school, although in collaboration with the parents. If school personnel do not know how to manage a behavioral problem, they have access to many available resources. We believe that sending students home as a consequence for challenging behavior is problematic for several reasons. First, if the function of the challenging behavior is avoidance, sending the student home may actually cause the behavior to get worse (see Chapter 8). Also, sending students home does not teach appropriate replacement behaviors. Finally, sending students home means that students lose instructional time. As discussed previously, because behavioral problems often go hand in hand with learning problems, students who exhibit chronic challenging behavior can ill afford to miss school. In fact, students' instructional needs should be examined as a possible factor in the problem behavior.

Summary

These are interesting times for educators. We are under intense public scrutiny to raise academic standards and improve student outcomes. Yet, at the same time, teachers and administrators are challenged to serve children with multiple and complex needs: children who come to school ill prepared for even basic learning tasks, children with significant behavioral problems and learning disabilities, children with serious but untreated emotional conditions, and children from diverse backgrounds and family situations. These children respond positively to clear, predictable, and well-planned environments. But studies consistently reveal teachers' opinions that they do not have the training needed to address these students' disciplinary and behavior management needs. Teachers and administrators quickly exhaust all of their traditional tools with these students, but to no avail.

But there is hope! Research over the past 40 years has produced a wealth of knowledge about effective prevention and intervention strategies for even the most difficult-to-manage students. The challenge now is to apply this knowledge, on a large scale, to ensure that every teacher and administrator has knowledge of effective behavioral prevention and intervention strategies, knows how to apply these strategies under varying conditions, and can use systematic problem solving to adjust techniques when needed.

Summarize the relationships among teacher characteristics, student diversity, and traditional school discipline practices.

We presented data that document the rich diversity of today's classrooms. Given that the majority of teachers are White and female, we explained the implications for teachers and the impact of this discrepancy on behavior management and discipline. It is critical for teachers to understand students' cultural, ethnic, religious, and other areas of diversity and to engage in culturally competent methods of classroom management.

Describe traditional disciplinary methods and the concerns associated with those methods.

In this chapter, you learned that a major problem with traditional disciplinary methods is that some students, particularly minority students, male students, and students of low socioeconomic status, are more likely to be the recipients of exclusionary disciplinary practices and other punitive forms of discipline. Traditional disciplinary methods are also reactive rather than proactive and, for this reason, are not as effective

at preventing behavior management problems. In addition, traditional disciplinary approaches are time intensive, especially for the outcomes produced, and such approaches appear to leave teachers underprepared for the demands of classroom management.

Define and explain *positive behavior interventions and supports*.

The term *positive behavior interventions and supports* (PBIS) applies to a proactive, systematic, instructional approach to behavior management for individuals, groups, and entire schools. PBIS emphasizes prevention, environmental clarity and predictability, the teaching of desired behaviors, use of data, and reliance on research-based methods in a tiered framework of increasingly intensive and individualized supports.

Explain the nine Behavior Assumptions that form the foundation for managing behavior in school settings.

We described nine Behavior Assumptions that summarize much of the knowledge base in the area of behavioral research. We suggested that adhering to these Behavior Assumptions as the foundation for thinking about student behavior will better prepare teachers to solve the problems associated with classroom or individual behaviors by using interventions.

In Toolkit 1-3, we provide a self-assessment form for readers to reflect on their own philosophies and beliefs about the concepts discussed in this chapter. Additional self-assessments are provided in remaining chapters for the topics covered in each chapter. To use the self-assessments, respond to each statement by indicating the frequency with which you engage in the behavior described. Any statements rated as less than 4 may suggest a practice that, if incorporated to become a more regular part of your teaching repertoire, may enhance the effectiveness of your classroom management and teaching efforts.

Toolkit 1-3

Introduction to Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports Self-Assessment Form

Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

Use the numbers from the scale above to rate the following statements.

1. I believe that discipline is a broad concept that means more than punishment alone. _____
2. I feel comfortable knowing that I will often need to change my behavior in order to change my students' behavior. _____
3. I understand that some of my students will require more of my time in order to have good overall classroom management. _____
4. I understand that there is a reason for most student behavior problems. _____
5. I am aware that students in today's classrooms reflect much diversity, and why it is important for teachers to understand student diversity. _____
6. I understand that many behaviors can be linked to specific contexts. _____
7. I believe that it is more effective to change behavior by using positive strategies. _____
8. I understand that it is more effective and a better use of my time to use proactive, preventive strategies than to react to challenging behavior. _____
9. I plan to work with my students' general education teachers to plan for my students' best educational experience. _____
10. I have the desire to work with my students' parents, as members of their child's educational team. _____

Learning Activities

1. Interview one novice and one experienced teacher. Ask them what types of behavior challenges they face in their classrooms and how they are expected to deal with problems related to those challenges. Ask the novice teacher if classroom management is easier or more difficult than he or she imagined and why. Ask the experienced teacher how classroom management needs have changed since he or she began teaching.
2. In small groups, discuss the effects of higher academic standards and public scrutiny of school performance on discipline.
3. In this chapter, we argue that changing student behavior usually requires teachers to change something about their own behavior. What are your thoughts about this? If you knew that this would improve student behavior, what changes would you be willing to make in your interactions with students? Discuss these questions with a classmate.
4. In a small group, discuss universal prevention, targeted prevention, and tertiary interventions as they relate to managing student behavior. Give examples of each term.
5. List at least three specific ways that each of the Guiding Principles presented in this chapter might affect a teacher's behavior management efforts in a classroom.
6. Describe how you will begin to promote a positive relationship between your students and the following individuals:
   - Administrators
   - Office staff
   - Teachers
   - Paraprofessionals
   - Custodians
   - Cafeteria workers
   - Bus drivers
7. What are your greatest concerns regarding discipline and classroom management? Where can you seek assistance to address these concerns?

Following are two brief case studies that will show you how some of the concepts discussed in this chapter may look in practice. Read each of these "Putting It into Practice" vignettes, then answer the questions that follow. Compare your answers to the possible correct responses.

Putting It into Practice

Sam, a Secondary School Student

Sam is a seventh-grade student in your class. He has stopped turning in his homework, but he is passing his tests. He does not really act out, but he is not as involved in class activities as he has been in the past. Now that you think about it, Sam has worn the same clothes for the past 3 days. In addition, when he looks at you, his face shows almost no emotion. You have talked briefly with his mother in the past, but only to convey information about field trips, needed supplies, or other minor topics. You have never had a face-to-face conference about Sam's school performance. You also know very little about Sam's home life.

1. What are the most pressing problems for Sam that you should address?
   Possible correct answers:
   - There have been notable changes in Sam's behavior recently, and those changes are starting to affect his school performance.
   - You are noticing changes in Sam's appearance.
   - You know little about Sam's home life, so you aren't aware if significant events have happened recently that may be affecting his appearance and behavior.
2. What would you do to begin addressing those problems?
   Possible correct answers:
   - The first step would be to contact Sam's mother. You should talk to her, preferably in person, but by phone if an in-person conference is not possible.
   - You may want to contact your school nurse, counselor, social worker, and/or administrator about the changes you see in Sam. They may know more about the situation (e.g., through contact with siblings or other family members, or perhaps they have been contacted by Sam's mother or family). They may also be able to advise you about additional steps you should take. For example, the school nurse may talk to Sam as part of a basic wellness screening.
   - You should begin gathering objective data on Sam's behavior, academic performance, and appearance. This will help you better understand the extent of changes and will help you monitor Sam's performance in the next days and weeks.

Mary, an Elementary School Student

Mary is in the fourth grade. She often acts very silly in class. She talks about topics that are more suited to much younger children and that other children in her class think are "babyish." She seldom takes responsibility for her behavior but instead offers excuses or blames others. Recently, she has been cursing in class, a behavior new for Mary. Your first step in dealing with the problem is to talk to Mary. She giggles and says that the adults on her bus (the bus driver, other drivers who talk to that driver, and monitors) curse. You ask, "Do they curse at you or when they speak to one another?" She says that they often use bad words when they talk to each other.

1. List reasons why Mary may have begun cursing.
   Possible correct responses:
   - Mary may be "trying out" this new behavior of cursing, based on what she has seen and heard among the bus drivers.
   - Mary may not understand the words she is using, other than they are "bad." Since most children experiment with using bad language at some point, this may be part of a typical developmental behavior for Mary, especially since her overall behavior seems a bit more immature than that of her peers.
2. List possible steps you might take to address Mary's cursing.
   Possible correct responses:
   - First, you should teach (or reteach) Mary (and perhaps the entire class) the classroom rule for using appropriate language in school. The teaching should include an explanation for why "bad words" are not allowed (even though other people say them) and what to say instead, demonstration of how to use correct words, and having Mary practice using "good words" in role-play situations.
   - Next, be sure to acknowledge Mary when she uses those "good words."
   - Instruct the class that the correct response to anyone who uses "bad words" is to not look at the person, do not laugh, do not respond.
   - If Mary uses "bad words," do not look at her or respond to her. As soon as she uses appropriate language, acknowledge that.

- If the misbehavior continues, use one or more of the strategies described in Chapters 9 through 11.
- You should also talk to the bus drivers and monitors to remind them that children are listening to their language. If the problem continues, report it to your principal.

Resources

Books

National Research Council and Institute of Medicine. (2009). *Preventing mental, emotional, and behavioral disorders among young people: Progress and possibilities. Committee on the Prevention of Mental Disorders and Substance Abuse Among Children, Youth, and Young Adults: Research advances and promising interventions*. Mary Ellen O'Connell, Thomas Boat, and Kenneth E. Warner (Eds.). Board on Children, Youth, and Families, Division of Behavioral and Social Sciences and Education. The National Academies Press.

Other

Association for Positive Behavior Support standards of practice—individual level. (2007). This document delineates the skills and knowledge necessary for individuals who are responsible for implementing positive behavioral supports. The document may be downloaded from the website of the Association for Positive Behavior Support, listed below under "Websites."

Fabelo, T., Thompson, M. D., Plotkin, M., Carmichael, D., Marchbanks, M. P. III, and Booth E. A. (2011). *Breaking schools' rules: A statewide study of how school discipline relates to students' success and juvenile justice involvement.* Council of State Governments Justice Center; Public Policy Research Institute at Texas A&M University.

U.S. Department of Education. (2014). *Guiding principles: A resource guide for improving school climate and discipline.*

Websites

Association for Positive Behavior Support: Provides information about conferences, state PBIS networks, PBIS information, and the Standards of Practice referenced earlier.

Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs): Provides a comprehensive array of information about PBIS, including resources, training materials, research, examples of PBIS applications, and much more.

The Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA), a branch of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services: Provides a comprehensive array of information pertaining to mental health, including treatment, promising programs, locating services, and a mental health hotline.

The Silent Epidemic: This is a web-based presentation about schools' efforts to respond to student mental health problems, presented by National Public Radio.

National Center for Education Statistics: The main federal division responsible for collecting and analyzing data related to education.

National Center on Response to Intervention: Provides information, resources, training, and tools related to response to intervention; funded by the Office of Special Education Programs, U.S. Department of Education.

Center for Effective Collaboration and Practice: Provides information related to all aspects of emotional and behavioral problems in areas such as education, families, mental health, juvenile justice, child welfare, early intervention, school safety, and legislation. Includes downloadable booklets, manuals, and other materials; PowerPoint presentations; case studies; training modules; interactive discussions; and much more.

The Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders, a division of the Council for Exceptional Children: Provides information related to advocacy, intervention, and conferences.

Children and Adults with Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder: A nonprofit organization for children and adults with ADHD and their families: Provides resources, information on research and public policy, online discussions, and "Ask the Expert" sessions.

The IRIS Resource Locator on the Website of the IRIS Center for Training Enhancements: Provides case studies, an online dictionary, training modules, and other materials on the following topics: accommodations, behavior, collaboration, diversity, response to intervention, differentiated instruction, and disability.

Chapter 2

Theoretical Models to Explain Challenging Behavior

Ariel Skelley/Blend Images/Getty Images

Learning Outcomes

2.1. Describe the major theories of behavior and the research base and usefulness for teachers.

2.2. Describe the basic assumptions and principles of the behavioral model.

2.3. Describe applied behavior analysis (ABA) and the relationship between ABA and positive behavior interventions and supports.

2.4. Describe antecedent, skill deficit, and consequence explanations for inappropriate behavior.

Big ideas in theories about challenging behavior:

- Insisting on research-based practices will improve your effectiveness as a teacher and will help you better meet the expectations of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (its current reauthorization is the Every Student Succeeds Act of 2015) and the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 2004.
- For any theory of challenging behavior to be relevant to educators, it should offer associated assessment and intervention practices that can be used by educators and that are efficient and effective.
- The teacher's theoretical perspective will drive decisions about assessment and interventions.

One of the most common questions that educators and parents have when faced with a challenging behavior is, "Why does he (or she) do that?" Most of us, perhaps without even realizing it, have formed opinions about the driving forces behind atypical behavior. The authors of this text often encounter comments from concerned teachers, parents, and others about children who exhibit challenging behavior. We hear comments such as the following:

- MS. HUNTER: "I'm so frustrated with Khari's behavior. I just can't get her to pay attention. I think that she might need medication."
- MR. WHEELER: "I just don't know what to do when Ben tries to avoid work. Getting him to do his independent work is a major struggle: He does everything that he can to avoid it."
- MS. LONG: "I don't see how I can make any headway with Terry—I get no support from his parents!"
- MR. WAYNE: "A.J. is so distrustful—his family has abandoned him, and he is just not able to form attachments at school. How can I help him?"

These comments reveal much about the speaker's perspective on what has caused those behavioral concerns. One's beliefs with regard to the causes of challenging behavior will influence decisions about interventions. It is important that educators understand their own beliefs about the causes of challenging behaviors; acknowledge how those beliefs influence decisions made in the classroom; and know whether those beliefs are, in fact, supported by research on the etiology of challenging behavior. This chapter provides an overview of major explanatory theories for challenging behavior, a brief review of the research base for each, and a summary of the usefulness of each for classroom teachers. Because it is well beyond the scope of this text to present a thorough discussion of each theory, the majority of the attention is paid to the behavioral model and the biophysical model for explaining challenging behavior. The behavioral model is based on strong and flexible principles and empirically strong practices. Behavioral interventions are the most practical, available, and expedient options for educators. Because those tools reflect basic instructional interactions used by most teachers, they tend to be viewed favorably by teachers. Behavioral interventions have a long history of well-documented effectiveness with a wide range of behaviors, for all ages of students, and in all types of environments, as you will discover when we discuss strategies in later chapters. Used correctly, these interventions have a high probability of reducing many of the inappropriate behaviors that interfere with student success and establishing new, more adaptive behaviors. Finally, positive behavior interventions and supports grew out of, and draw heavily on, behavioral strategies and procedures. The behavioral model provides the core technology for positive behavior interventions and supports.

The biophysical model offers few interventions that teachers are able to choose, design, or even implement. Despite this, we believe it is important to provide a general discussion of possible biological factors that may contribute to student misbehavior and how those biological factors interact with a child's current environment to influence behavior, as well as medical treatments that students may receive. The field of positive behavior supports acknowledges the role of biological factors in behavior (Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports, 2004). However, the biological model, unlike the behavioral model, is limited in terms of utility for educators.

Major Theories of Behavior and Their Usefulness in Educational Settings

Learning Outcome 2.1. Describe the major theories of behavior and the research base and usefulness for teachers.

Theories of behavior attempt to explain human behavior.

"What makes individuals behave in certain ways?" is one of the most intriguing questions for professionals in education and human services. The beliefs that we hold about behavior affect how we respond to behavior and the interventions that we choose for addressing atypical behavior (Fogt & Piripaval, 2002; Wood, 1978). Over the years, numerous theories that explain the origins of behavioral patterns have been put forth. These theories of behavior are known as **theoretical models of behavior** or philosophical belief systems about atypical behavior. In this text, we are primarily concerned with the science of behavior and scientifically proven behavioral interventions. For this reason, it is important to take into account the extent to which the assumptions and interventions associated with different theoretical models are supported by scientifically based evidence. Furthermore, because this text is designed for educators, we must consider the usefulness of each model for educators.

What Constitutes "Scientific Evidence"

ESSA provides criteria for what constitutes evidence-based interventions in education.

Marketing companies have long used phrases such as "scientifically based," "research based," and "proven" as a promotional tool to convince consumers that a particular product is superior to others. Unfortunately, these phrases are also widely used to convince educators to buy certain products or services, or to adopt certain techniques for use in schools. But are all products that claim to be "research based" truly so?

The question of what constitutes research took on new importance with the passage of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (P.L. 107-110), later reauthorized as the Every Student Succeeds Act of 2015. Both NCLB and ESSA require that schools rely on evidence-based interventions. In 2016, the U.S. Department of Education issued non-regulatory guidance "… designed to help SEAs, LEAs, schools, educators, partner organizations and other stakeholders successfully choose and implement interventions that improve outcomes for students." (U.S. Department of Education, 2016, p. 2). Table 2.1 describes criteria for evidence-based interventions, according to ESSA.

We support the high standard for evaluating research claims that is established by this definition because, too often, education has been vulnerable to adopting unproven interventions based on current fads or whims (Kozloff, 2005; Scheuermann & Evans, 1997). As much as possible, we have tried to adhere to this standard in choosing interventions to be included in this text. However, not all practices that are widely recommended for preventing or treating challenging behavior have evidence bases that meet the standards of ESSA. It is always important that educators be skilled at monitoring the effectiveness of interventions, but particularly so when we use interventions that lack independent, rigorous research support.

Table 2.1 U.S. Department of Education Definition of "*Evidence-Based" Interventions*

WHAT IS AN "EVIDENCE-BASED" INTERVENTION?

(from section 8101(21)(A) of the ESEA)

"… the term 'evidence-based,' when used with respect to a State, local education agency, or school activity, means an activity, strategy, or intervention that—

(i) Demonstrates a statistically significant effect on improving student outcomes or other *relevant outcomes* based on—
  (I) *strong evidence* from at least one well-designed and well-implemented experimental study;
  (II) *moderate evidence* from at least one well-designed and well-implemented *quasi-experimental study*;
  (III) *promising evidence* from at least one well-designed and well-implemented correlational study with statistical controls for selection bias; or

(ii) (I) *demonstrates a rationale* based on high-quality research findings or positive evaluation that such activity, strategy, or intervention is likely to improve student outcomes or other *relevant outcomes;* and
  (II) includes ongoing efforts to examine the effects of such activity, strategy, or intervention.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education (September 16, 2016). Non-Regulatory Guidance: Using Evidence to Strengthen Education Investments. Available at https://ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/essa/guidanceuseseinvestment.pdf

The goal of research is to demonstrate a functional relationship between **independent variables** (e.g., the intervention) and **dependent variables** (e.g., the behavior that is the target of the intervention). To evaluate whether a functional relationship exists, researchers must design a research study to evaluate whether the independent variable does, in fact, produce a change in the dependent variable. Two major types of research design are used for this purpose: group design and single-subject design. **Group designs** evaluate the effectiveness of an intervention on a group of individuals (e.g., a class of students, all fifth-graders in a district, a sample of students with learning disabilities), often comparing the performance of individuals within the group who received a particular intervention with the performance of those in a similar group who did not receive the intervention. **Single-subject designs** evaluate the effects of the independent variables on individual students. Conducting group design research for educational purposes is not always feasible, particularly when evaluating interventions with students who have autism, developmental disabilities, or other disabilities. For this reason, many researchers rely on single-subject designs to evaluate educational and behavioral interventions. The U.S. Department of Education accepts single-subject designs for research that focuses on special populations (*Scientifically Based Evaluation Methods*, 2005). Either group or single-subject design research was the basis for evaluating most of the techniques described in this text.

The highest standard for research is that which involves randomized controlled trials (U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, 2003). A randomized controlled trial means that study participants are randomly assigned to a group that receives intervention (a **treatment group**), or a group that receives no treatment (a **control group**). Each group is measured on one or more dependent variables, and the effects of the intervention are evaluated based on the extent to which the intervention group fares better than the control group.

The U.S. Department of Education (2003) differentiates between "strong" and "possible" evidence of effectiveness of interventions (educational practices, strategies, curricula, or programs) using criteria that relate to the extent to which a study uses randomized controlled trials in which one or more similar groups receive the intervention and one or more similar groups do not. Also, the extent to which the intervention research is conducted across multiple implementation sites affects the strength of the evidence basis. Much of the intervention research for students with severe challenging behaviors is a type of research known as *single-subject design*. Quality indicators also exist for single-subject design research (e.g., Kratochwill et al., 2010). Consumers can have a degree of confidence in results from group or single-subject design research studies that incorporate rigorous research design elements.

Pearson eText

IRIS Module: Evidence-Based Practices (Part 1): Identifying and Selecting a Practice or Program

This page of a larger module explains what it means for a practice to be "evidence-based." Explain the difference between "evidence-based" and "research-based." https://iris.peabody.vanderbilt.edu/module/ebp_01/cresource/q1/p01/#content

Pearson eText

IRIS Module: Evidence-Based Practices (Part 1): Identifying and Selecting a Practice or Program

Imagine you are on a team tasked with selecting a school-wide social-emotional curriculum. Stakeholders ask why the team selected the one that is "evidence-based." List some of the benefits to educators and students of choosing the curriculum that is "evidence-based." To access this module, go to https://iris.peabody.vanderbilt.edu/module/ebp_01/cresource/q1/p02/#content

It is sometimes confusing or time consuming for teachers to try to determine whether a practice or intervention is "evidence-based." A helpful resource for finding the supporting evidence for educational and behavioral interventions is the What Works Clearinghouse (WWC) (https://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/), a service of the U.S. Department of Education's Institute of Education Sciences. The WWC applies rigorous criteria for evaluating evidence on a wide range of educational curricula, programs, and interventions. The site provides summaries of studies that meet the WWC evidence standards, the number and grade levels of students included in those studies, and a numerical "improvement index" indicator. The site also offers downloadable "Practice Guides," which are user-friendly summaries of research and recommendations on topics of interest to educators (drop-out prevention; teaching literacy and math skills; classroom management, etc.). These materials, along with numerous additional downloadable resources and searchable databases, make the WWC a "one-stop shopping" opportunity for reviewing the evidence basis for educational products and practices.

Major Theoretical Models

The origins of atypical behavior have long been of interest to researchers, academicians, physicians, psychologists, and others who study human behavior. Of course, interest in the etiology of atypical behavior isn't restricted to professionals who pursue formal study in this area. Anyone who has encountered an individual who exhibits unusual or out-of-the-ordinary behavior has probably wondered, "What causes this person to behave that way?" Whether an individual exhibits mildly atypical behavior, such as a child who is mildly noncompliant or who has unusual interests that set the child apart from peers, or seriously abnormal behavior, such as self-injurious behavior, aggression, or talk and behavior that reflects a dissociation from reality, we wonder how such unusual behaviors develop.

Over the years, various theoretical models have been developed to explain the origins of atypical behavior and the factors that maintain such behavior over time. These models vary dramatically in their proposed origins of unusual behavior, and each model uses unique terminology, concepts, assessment methods, and treatment procedures. Although a study of the origins of abnormal behavior would reveal numerous theoretical models, the most common models are those identified by Rhodes and Tracy (1974) in their classic text, *A Study of Child Variance, Volume 1: Conceptual Models*. In this seminal work, Rhodes and Tracy discuss six models that explain emotional disturbances in children: the biophysical, behavioral, psychodynamic, sociological, ecological, and counter theory models. The first five models have remained the most common models used to explain abnormal behavior. In this chapter, we discuss the biophysical and behavioral models, and highlight the critical elements of the psychodynamic and ecological models, as well as another model that offers interventions sometimes used by educators: the cognitive model.

Although the etiology of atypical behavior is interesting, it is important to distinguish between the following two questions: (a) What are the *origins* of atypical behavior (i.e., what causes such behavior to develop in the first place?), and (b) What maintains atypical behavior over time? Some of the models presented in this chapter focus on the origins of atypical behavior, whereas others focus primarily on factors that maintain the behavior. Even a cursory study of the etiology of abnormal behavior will lead one to conclude that no simple explanations exist for something as complex as human behavior. Atypical behavior most likely originates from the complex interplay of multiple elements, including biological, environmental, developmental, and sociological factors. However, in our opinion, the *origins* of atypical behavior are not a critical question for us as educators. Even if we could identify one or more causes

Table 2.2 Summary of Psychodynamic, Ecological, and Cognitive Models

Model	Basic Assumptions	Interventions and Treatments	Research Support	Usefulness for Teachers
Psychodynamic Model	• Atypical behavior results from internal psychological events and motivational forces. • Psychological disturbances and behavioral problems result from an individual's failure to successfully complete developmental stages or to resolve the psychological conflicts that accompany each stage. • The best known psychodynamic theory is Freud's psychoanalytic theory.	• Counseling, psychotherapy, psychoanalysis, play therapy, dream interpretation, or other forms of therapy. • Providing supportive environments (including classrooms) that place few demands on the child. • **Life Space Interview** (LSI), a therapeutic approach that uses verbal mediations (the Life Space Interview) to guide individuals through emotional/behavioral crises with the short-term goal of "emotional first aid on the spot" or the long-term goal of "clinical exploitation of life events" (Morse, 1963; Redl, 1959).	• There is no scientific verification for the existence of psychological stages and conflicts. • Some research suggests that psychotherapy for children and youth is more effective than no treatment (Casey & Berman, 1985; Kazdin, 1993; Prout & DeMartino, 1986). • Research consists primarily of clinical impressions and case studies (Wicks-Nelson & Israel, 1984), which are less convincing than controlled studies. • LSI has been questioned because of lack of research and concerns such as disproportionate attention being paid to unacceptable behavior, and the time-intensive nature of LSI (Webber & Plotts, 2008; Gardner, 1990).	• Low, because teachers are not usually trained in psychodynamic techniques. • Accountability for student academic performance and demands on teachers' time may preclude the use of time-intensive psychodynamic techniques. • Psychodynamically oriented thinking (e.g., behavioral problems are attributed to negative early life experiences) may interfere with teachers' use of immediately useful assessment and intervention methods (e.g., the methods described in this text).
Ecological Model	• Atypical behavior is the result of an interaction between the individual and the environmental influences (e.g., family violence, neglect, transient family members, poor-quality educational programs, troubled neighborhoods) present in the various **ecosystems** in which the individual functions.	• **Ecological assessment**, the process of gathering information about a child's behaviors and the ecosystems in which the child functions. • Match students to teachers who have a high tolerance for the student's behavioral characteristics (Algozzine et al., 2001). • **Project Re-ED** (Re-Education of Emotionally Disturbed Children and Adolescents), a network of schools and facilities for students with emotional/behavioral disorders based on an ecological model (Hobbs, 1966).	• Studies have shown positive results for youth who received Project Re-ED services (Weinstein, 1974), and short-term (Lewis, 1988) and long-term (Hooper et al., 2000) maintenance of treatment outcomes.	• Low, unless teachers have access to the type of interagency (e.g., mental health, social services) collaborative efforts found in ecological programs (Center for Effective Collaboration and Practice, 1998; Duchnowski et al., 1993).
Cognitive Model	• **Reality therapy** (Glasser, 1965): therapeutic interactions between adults and children with behavior problems are designed to help the child identify errors in thinking and engage in more reality-based thinking. • **Choice theory** (Glasser, 1998a): the basis for Glasser's schoolwide program, Quality Schools (Glasser, 1998b); behavior is voluntary but driven by basic needs for survival, love, belonging, power, freedom, and fun. • **Rational emotive behavior therapy (REBT**; Ellis, 1962): problem behavior stems from irrational thinking in response to antecedent stimuli.	• Interventions focus on verbal interactions, designed to help the child identify thinking errors or irrational thoughts, and learn new, reality-based thinking.	• Reality therapy and choice theory rely primarily on case studies and testimonials. • A meta-analysis of REBT research found positive outcomes for students involved in REBT interventions (Gonzalez et al., 2004).	• In our opinion, reality therapy and choice theory are based on appealing philosophies but offer little in the way of effective day-to-day tools for preventing and managing problem behavior in busy classroom environments. • Banks and Zionts (2009) suggest that REBT may be used as part of a school-based mental health or counseling program. Kaplan and Carter (1995) provide interesting REBT applications for teachers but also recommend behavioral interventions as part of an overall management plan.

of atypical behavior, that information may be of little use in fixing the problems that result from the atypical behavior.

The more significant question to us as educators is the second question that we posed: What maintains atypical behavior over time? What are the ongoing environmental or other factors that cause a student to exhibit continued noncompliance, or that cause a student to repeatedly engage in self-injurious behavior, for example? As educators, a theoretical model that helps us identify the ongoing contributors to problematic behavior is by far the most useful. Behavioral research provides the technology for identifying current environmental and other factors that maintain problematic behavior, and for using that information to develop effective interventions to expand an individual's repertoire of socially appropriate and functional behaviors and to minimize behaviors that interfere with the individual's academic, social, and vocational success.

Table 2.2 provides a summary of the main points of the psychodynamic, ecological, and cognitive models. The remainder of this chapter is devoted to discussion of the biophysical and behavioral models.

The Biophysical Model

The **biophysical model**, also called the medical model, is based on the assumption that atypical behavior results from biological predisposition or some type of organic (usually neurological) dysfunction inherent in the individual (Sagor, 1974). Evidence supports the biological bases of aberrant human behavior, despite the fact that this is a young and emerging field (National Human Genome Research Institute, n.d.). However, according to Sullivan et al., (2012), most psychiatric conditions are called "disorders," or "illnesses that disrupt normal function," (p. 537) rather than "diseases," which have known biological bases or factors, because of the fact that there are so few definitive answers about biological bases for these conditions. Although we can categorize biophysical contributors to psychiatric conditions in many ways, we have organized our discussion around five major potential sources.

The assessment, diagnosis, and intervention methods of the biophysical model do not typically involve tools that can be used by teachers and other educators. We discuss this model because we feel it is important for educators to have a general understanding of the many potential neurological, biochemical, and developmental factors that can contribute to classroom behavior problems that teachers must manage, such as inattention, excessive activity or talking, explosive anger or disruptive behavior, or even learning problems that often accompany behavior problems. Those underlying biophysical factors can create characteristics within a child that make it harder for that child to learn under conditions that work well for other children. Such characteristics (e.g., shorter attention span, difficulty learning to decode words, tendency to resort to physical means to express anger) can then lead to negative responses from parents and teachers. But because behavior is learned, even behavior with biophysical influences, those negative reactions can then create complex patterns in which the child quickly learns that the most effective way to produce desirable responses (e.g., attention, avoidance of tasks) is through misbehavior, and fails to learn prosocial behaviors needed for success in school. We believe it is important for teachers to have even rudimentary understanding of these factors to help others better understand that students exhibit misbehavior for many reasons, and usually those reasons are not to simply make the teachers' life more difficult or because they are a "bad kid." The good news is that the behavioral techniques we describe throughout this book are effective for preventing and managing even biologically influenced challenging behaviors.