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Managing Classroom Behavior*

Objectives

After studying this chapter you should be able to

1. Describe the importance of instruction in behavior management.

2. Explain why classroom management is critical.

3. Illustrate why management problems can be viewed as an opportunity to instruct.

4. Describe how to construct and teach effective classroom rules and routines.

5. Depict what to do when students continue to misbehave.

6. Explain the assumptions of behavior management.

7. Illustrate the possible functions of behavior.

8. Explain the importance of functional behavioral assessment.

9. Describe the process of conducting functional behavioral assessments.

10. Explain how to conduct indirect assessments.

11. Depict how to conduct descriptive assessments.

12. Illustrate how to conduct academic assessments.

13. Explain how to develop an individualized intervention plan.

Overview

Throughout this book, we have discussed various Direct Instruction programs that are effective in teaching students academic skills. At this point it should be obvious that a lack of academic progress should not be viewed as a student problem but as an instructional one. Student behavior is similar in that misbehavior is frequently viewed as a "student problem." However, behavior management problems are often an indication of weaknesses in the instructional and management procedures used in the classroom. For instance, we know from the effective teaching research literature what excellent teacher performance is. Excellent teacher performance results from appropriate curricular pacing, lesson pacing, and transition management (Hofmeister & Lubke, 1990). As shown in Figure 1, these teacher behaviors contribute to instructional momentum.

Instructional momentum means that students progress through Direct Instruction programs at such a pace that they experience success. Instructional momentum, in turn, reduces student misbehavior. This reduction in unwanted student behavior comes about for at least two reasons (Hofmeister & Lubke, 1990). First, when students are successful, they are less likely to misbehave. Second, when there is momentum, students have less time to misbehave. Stated another way, the more "down" time (i.e., unstructured activities) students have, the more likely they are to exhibit misbehavior; however, the less "down" time students have, the less likely they are to go off task (Hofmeister & Lubke; Witt, LaFleur, Naquin, & Gilbertson, 1999). Instructional momentum also increases student interest and student achievement (Hofmeister & Lubke).

Again, students who are interested in what is going on in the classroom and who are achieving at high levels are less likely to misbehave. Direct Instruction programs can set the foundation for better student behavior and increased achievement in the classroom.
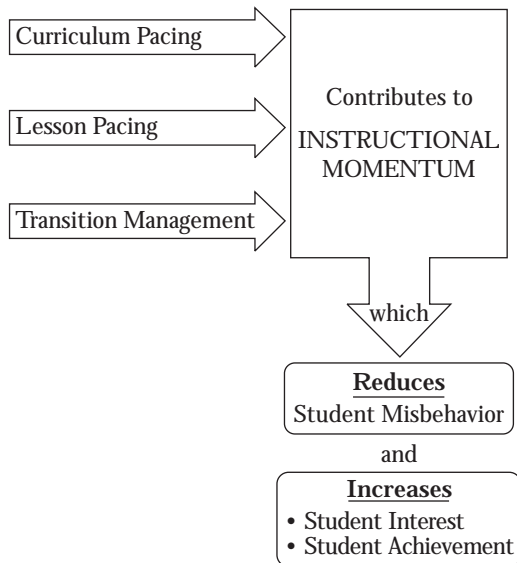
In this chapter, we will discuss why classroom management is important; how behavior difficulties should be viewed as opportunities to instruct; and primary, secondary, and tertiary intervention techniques. (Note: Topics covered in this chapter are covered more in depth in Martella, Nelson, and Marchand-Martella, 2003.) These procedures, coupled with effective programs such as Direct Instruction, will help improve student behavior in the classroom.

Why Classroom Management is Critical

Although we frequently are tempted to explain away behavior difficulties by assuming they are developmental in nature and the students will eventually "grow out of them," or shrug our shoulders and say, "Boys will be boys," we must take each behavior problem seriously. The reason we must take each problem seriously is that the single best predictor of delinquency in adolescence is behavior difficulties exhibited in elementary school (Walker, 1995). The research also suggests that for those students who have more severe problem behaviors, the problem behaviors do not simply disappear over time. In fact, Walker indicates that the stability of aggressive behavior over a 10-year period is about the same as the stability of intelligence over the same time period. The stability of IQ scores is approximately .70, while the stability of aggressive behavior is .60 to .80. Therefore, problem behavior must be changed as early as possible in the elementary-school years. If problem behavior persists after this period of time, the likelihood of making successful changes later in a student's academic career diminishes radically (Walker).

Figure 1
Instructional momentum.

Curriculum Pacing

Lesson Pacing

Transition Management

Contributes to
INSTRUCTIONAL MOMENTUM

which

Reduces
Student Misbehavior

and

Increases
• Student Interest
• Student Achievement

Note. From *Research into practice: Implementing effective teaching strategies,* by A. Hofmeister and M. Lubke, 1990, Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon. Reprinted with permission of the author.

Thus, teachers in the primary grades have a heavy responsibility for promoting appropriate behavior and have a great need for the very best behavior management strategies.

The reason the early grades are so critical is because that is where adults have the most influence over a student's behavior. Thereafter, peers take on a more important role in a student's behavior. Although the progression is fairly obvious, school personnel may not respond in time to prevent this negative spiral (i.e., behavior gets worse over time). Fortunately, this negative progression can be stopped. However, teachers must be ready and willing to set up their classrooms to stop the cycle. Teachers cannot wait. They must begin to take steps to consider how they are going to promote appropriate behavior and prevent management problems from the 1st day of class. Make no mistake, with the inclusion movement, more students with severe behavior problems are entering the general education classroom. Therefore, teachers need to be better at classroom management today than perhaps at any other time in educational history.

Opportunity to Instruct

Management problems should be seen as an opportunity to instruct students how to behave appropriately (Colvin, Sugai, & Patching, 1993). As stated by Bloom (1980), students come to school with two categories of variables that affect their achievement (see Table 1). The first category is nonalterable variables. These variables include ethnicity, socioeconomic status, gender, and home background. Clearly, teachers have a difficult responsibility in teaching students from varied home backgrounds. Making it even more problematic, as these children go through school, they tend to fall further and further behind their peers. Therefore, by the time these students are in sixth grade, they are far different than their peers in terms of academic success. "By the end of sixth grade, a child of poverty would need to go to school an additional 2 years to have the same amount of academic experience in school as a more advantaged child" (Carnine, 1994, p. 343). Also, many of these students are prone to exhibit behavior problems in our classrooms (Engelmann, 1997; Kerr & Nelson, 1998; Meese, 2001; Walker, 1995).

The second category of variables that affect student achievement is alterable variables, that is, those under teacher control. Teachers can go a long way by thinking of management problems in the classroom as a *classroom* issue (alterable variable) rather than a *student* issue (nonalterable variable). Approaching behavior management in this manner allows teachers to plan how to prevent or respond to management issues as part of the overall class-

Table 1
Nonalterable and Alterable Variables

Nonalterable	Alterable
• Ethnicity • Socioeconomic status • Gender • Home background	• Use of time • Teaching skills • Quantity of teacher-to-student interactions

room planning process. Such a process is termed an academic/positive behavioral support system (Martella et al., 2003). An academic/positive behavioral support system involves three levels—primary, secondary, and tertiary. Figure 2 shows an example of these levels for an emergent literacy program for young children.

Primary Prevention Techniques

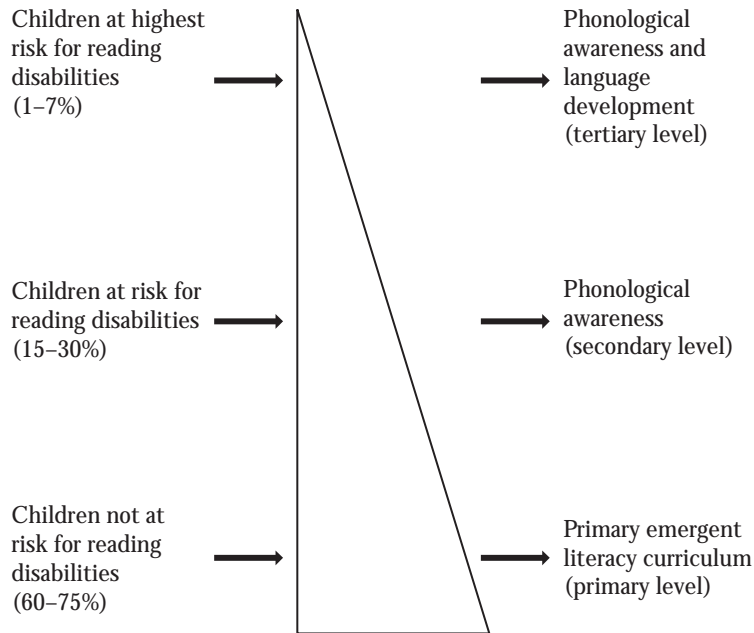Primary prevention techniques focus on enhancing protective factors on a schoolwide basis to reduce the risk of academic failure and behavior problems (Martella et al., 2003). Thus, all students receive the services. Primary prevention techniques include, but are not limited to, the use of effective curricular materials, the creation of effective classroom rules and routines, and the use of motivational systems.

The Use of Effective Curricular Materials

Throughout this book, effective instructional materials have been described. It should be apparent by now that wide-scale adoptions of effective instructional materials such as Direct Instruction programs are needed as a primary prevention technique. If a school truly wishes

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Figure 2

Examples of a primary-, secondary-, and tertiary-level emergent literacy program for young children.

Children at highest risk for reading disabilities (1–7%) → Phonological awareness and language development (tertiary level)

Children at risk for reading disabilities (15–30%) → Phonological awareness (secondary level)

Children not at risk for reading disabilities (60–75%) → Primary emergent literacy curriculum (primary level)

Note. From Martella, Ronald; Nelson, J. Ron; and Marchand-Martella, Nancy. *Managing Disruptive Behaviors in the Schools* (c) 2003. Published by Allyn and Bacon, Boston, MA. Copyright (c) 2003 by Pearson Education. Reprinted with permission of the publisher.

to make meaningful and lasting change in student academic performance and school/classroom behavior, a schoolwide planning process should take place (Martella et al., 2003). The use of effective curricula such as Direct Instruction programs should be considered not only an academic improvement system but also a behavior management one.

Creating Effective Classroom Rules

In order to create effective classroom rules, teachers must take the time to develop them. Rules are not to be treated as something developed overnight and put up on the board the first day of class. The development of effective rules includes several steps (see Table 2). In Step 1, teachers should discuss the value of rules with students (Eggen & Kauchak, 1997). This discussion should focus on telling students the importance of rules. For example, a statement such as, "Rules allow us all to know what is expected of us" could be used. Additionally, teachers should discuss why it is important to follow rules and why it is impor-

tant to have consequences for violating the rules. A comparison with society in general could be used. Laws are essentially rules of society. Teachers could discuss what would happen in society if there were no laws. For example, speed limit signs are basically statements of rules. A discussion on why it is important to have speed limits could be conducted.

In Step 2, rules should be developed with student input. According to Lickona (1991), gaining student input allows students to have ownership over the classroom rules. Students are also more likely to follow rules if they had a say in their development. Finally, students are more apt to feel that teachers respect what they have to say in the development of the rules. Student input does not mean that students have the final say in the development of the rules. Ultimately, teachers have the final say. However, if there is a disagreement with a particular rule, it is much better to identify what the disagreement is early in the development of the rules rather than later on when

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Table 2

Steps for Developing Effective Rules

1. Discuss the value of rules with students.

2. Gather student input to develop rules while keeping in mind the following:

   • Develop only three to five rules.

   • Use simple language.

   • State rules positively.

   • Use different sets of rules for different situations, if needed.

   • Keep class and school rules consistent.

3. Gain student commitment to follow the rules.

4. Teach rules explicitly.

5. Post rules in a prominent location.

6. Monitor and review rule following.

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the rules are already solidified. Additionally, gaining student input allows teachers to provide rationales for each rule as it is being developed. Effective rules should be developed with the following in mind.

1. *Rules should be kept to a minimum.* The general rule of thumb is to keep the number of rules to three to four (Paine, Radicchi, Rosellini, Deutchman, & Darch, 1983) or four to five (Eggen & Kauchak, 1997). A short list is important in that students must be able to memorize the rules. Memorization of rules is important so that it is clear that students know the rules. Having students memorize rules can reduce rule breaking and help eliminate the excuse that students did not know the rules. Keeping the list short will help make the rules more effective.

Many teachers will have difficulty limiting the list to only three to five rules. If this difficulty arises, it is likely that the rules are too specific. Many rules can be combined into a more general rule. For example, if we have several rules such as, "Keep your hands to yourself," "Say nice things to others," "Keep negative comments to yourself," and "Aid others who are in need of help," we could make a general rule that could combine several rules such as "Treat others with respect."

2. *Rules should contain simple language.* Teachers have a variety of students with different strengths and areas in need of improvement. Clearly, rules should be stated in language that every student in class understands. For example, rather than stating "Treat others with deference," say "Treat others with respect." Rules are not meant to be used as a vocabulary lesson. Keeping the wording simple also allows students to better remember those rules.

3. *Rules should be stated positively.* In our experience, this characteristic is perhaps one that is violated more than the others. Many of

us tend to tell students what we do not want them to do rather than what we want them to do. For example, rather than having the rule, "Do not treat others with disrespect," teachers should state the behavior they want such as, "Treat others with respect." Instead of stating, "No cheating," teachers could say, "Keep your eyes on your own work." Likewise, instead of saying, "No running in the hall," teachers should say, "Walk in the hall." This characteristic of effective rules should also spill over into those instances when we provide instructions to students. For example, rather than stating that students should "not show up late for class," teachers should tell students to "Get to class on time." We cannot overstate the importance of this characteristic. The reason why teachers should always look at the behavior they want exhibited by students is that telling students *what not to do* does not necessarily tell students *what to do*. Telling students not to use foul language does not tell students to use appropriate language. Teachers might have a student who simply stops talking in class, which reduces foul language but does not improve the student's use of appropriate language. Additionally, stating rules positively helps teachers scan for positive behaviors rather than negative ones. Again, the goal for teachers is to promote positive student behavior to the maximum extent possible.

4. *There may be different sets of rules for different situations, if needed.* For example, having a rule of "Walk in the classroom" is not appropriate in physical education. A more appropriate rule for PE may be to "Keep hands to yourself." Also, having a rule for students to keep their eyes on their own work is not relevant during cooperative learning situations where we may encourage the sharing of work. However, having a rule that everyone should participate in the activity would be appropriate for a cooperative learning situation. Therefore, depending on the context, some rules may be

appropriate while at other times they may be inappropriate.

Rules can also be developed for specific instructional tasks. For example, in *Corrective Reading Decoding B1* the following rules are presented in Lesson 1. "Here are the rules for the Word-Attack Skills exercises: One: Follow my instructions. Two: Answer when I give you the signal. Three: Work hard" (Engelmann et al., 1999b, p. 5).

5. *Class and school rules must be consistent.* Obviously, if classroom rules were not in agreement with school rules, students would not know how to react. Therefore, teachers should review the school rules and ensure that these rules are consistent with the classroom rules. For example, a school may require a hall pass. Therefore, teachers should make this a classroom rule if students need to access the hallway.

In Step 3 of developing effective rules, teachers gain student commitment to follow the rules. They should state each rule, and a discussion should ensue to determine if all students are in agreement with the rules.

In Step 4, once a commitment has been obtained from all of the students, the rules should be taught. Following an *I do, we do, you do* procedure, teachers can model following the rules ("I do"); practice rule following, providing feedback to students ("we do"); and give students opportunities to practice rule following on their own ("you do"). Role-playing is an excellent method to practice rule following. Examples (i.e., scenarios illustrating correct rule following) and nonexamples (i.e., scenarios showing incorrect rule following) can be provided. Say teachers have the rule, "Be respectful of others." They could provide examples of respect (e.g., asking politely for a piece of paper from another student) and of disrespect (e.g., taking another student's paper without asking). Teachers could also request examples and nonexamples of rules from the students.

Additionally, when nonexamples of rule following are provided, teachers should model what the consequence would be, such as sending students to time out. Once it is apparent that students are discriminating between examples and nonexamples of rule following, they have learned the "boundaries" of the rules; now, the rules can be written for display.

In Step 5, teachers should post rules in a prominent location. This posting reminds students of what the rules are. The positioning also allows visitors to learn what is expected of the students in the classroom. Additionally, posting allows other staff such as substitute teachers to learn what the expectations are and informs the students that visitors to the classroom also know what the expectations are.

Finally, in Step 6, teachers should monitor and review rule following on a continuous basis. Teachers should observe how the rules effect student behavior. If students begin to break rules consistently, teachers should determine what the reason is for the infraction. Many times, students simply do not remember what the rules are. Not remembering rules is more likely for younger students. In order to avoid or prevent this potential problem, rules should be reviewed on a consistent basis (e.g., once a week). Once students master the rules (i.e., can recite the rules without referencing the posted rules), the reviews can be faded. Students may also break rules because they are not clear. If lack of clarity is the case, rules should be modified until all students can explain what is meant by each rule. Using unison responding provides all students an opportunity to say the rules. Finally, rules may not be followed because they are not enforced. In other words, rule following may not be reinforced by teachers (e.g., teachers praise those students who follow the rules to increase the likelihood of rule-following behavior), and rule breaking is not punished or ignored (e.g., teachers do not send students to time out if a rule was broken). Teachers must make sure that rule following is reinforced as immedi-

ately as possible and on a consistent basis. Once the students consistently follow the rules, reinforcement can be faded to an intermittent basis. Teachers must also make sure they do not reinforce rule breaking at any time, because doing so only makes breaking rules more likely in the future.

Establishing Routines

Developing effective rules and reinforcing positive behavior are critical aspects of preventing behavior management problems in the classroom. However, an equally important, and sometimes overlooked area, is the teaching of routines. If we observed an orderly classroom, we would see one where teachers have likely taken the time to teach students how to follow certain prescribed routines. For example, there should be a procedure for using the restroom, sharpening pencils, or ordering a hot lunch. There may be start up routines to get students ready for the day such as a short activity for students to begin while teachers complete tasks such as taking role. Procedures should be taught in any area that will help with the smooth flow of activities in a classroom. Evertson and Emmer (1982) defined five such general areas in which teachers should teach routines to their students. These areas include:

1. Students' use of classroom space and facilities.

2. Students' behavior in areas outside of the classroom (e.g., bathroom, lunchroom, drinking fountain, playground).

3. Whole-class activity routines (e.g., raising hand to speak, where and when to turn in completed work, how to get help during independent seatwork).

4. Small group routines (e.g., how to gain the teacher's attention, unison responding, taking turns in shared reading).

5. Additional routines (e.g., how to behave at the beginning or end of class or the school day, how to respond to another student with disabilities, how to behave when a visitor is present, what to do during announcements).

The teaching process for routines is the same as for teaching any other task. First, teachers should model ("I do") what the procedure is for the students. For example, teachers may model taking the bathroom card from the wall and going from the classroom to the bathroom. They may model how to flush the toilet and how to wash their hands. Second, teachers should take students and guide them through the routine while providing feedback along the way ("we do"). Third, teachers should have each student practice the routine independently while again providing feedback ("you do"). Once the students have demonstrated the bathroom routine, another procedure can be taught. Finally, teachers should monitor how the students perform the procedure, providing positive and corrective feedback over time.

Although teaching routines is not often thought of as an important behavior management tool, well-taught procedures can dramatically reduce student misbehavior (Witt et al., 1999). Many so-called "misbehaviors" are simply a result of students lacking skills in the appropriate or expected procedures. Therefore, the time committed to teaching procedures will be well worth it.

Motivational Systems

One of the more important aspects of providing effective instruction is the motivation of students. Several motivational systems are integrated into Direct Instruction programs. These systems include praise, point systems, and contracts.

Praise

Praise has been cited as an effective strategy for promoting school achievement and positive classroom behavior (Martella et al., 2002,

2003). Martella, Marchand-Martella, Miller, Young, and Macfarlane (1995) call for the use of specific feedback when praise is delivered. For example, "Good reading that paragraph, Jessie" is more descriptive than saying, "Good job, Jessie." In some Direct Instruction programs, specific praise is specified in the formats. For example, the following format is provided in *Corrective Reading Decoding A*, Lesson 6: "Sound it out. Get ready. (Students respond.) Again, sound it out. Get ready. (Students respond.) Say it fast. (Students respond.) Yes, **seed**" (Engelmann, Hanner, & Johnson, 1999a). Another example illustrates the use of praise as provided in *Corrective Reading Comprehension A*, Lesson 17: "Listen to this rule. **Some** girls are tall. Everybody say that. (Students respond.) Mary is a girl. So, is Mary tall?" (Students respond with *maybe*.) Yes, **maybe** Mary is tall (Engelmann et al.). Saying *yes* plus the students' response is an excellent way of providing specific feedback for correct responding. Other programs do not specify praise directly in the script. However, proper delivery of *all* Direct Instruction programs requires frequent specific praise of students' correct answers and appropriate behavior. For example, the *Reading Mastery Plus Series Guide* (SRA/McGraw-Hill, 2002) states

> The students will work harder if they receive praise for their work. Each lesson provides many opportunities for praise. You can praise the students when they learn a new sound, when they read lists of words, or when they read a story without making any errors. You can also praise students when they behave well and when they work particularly hard. Praise should be simple and positive. You can say things such as, *Great. You read the entire list without making any mistakes,* or *Good talking. I could hear everybody.* The students are especially reinforced when you repeat a correct answer, for example, *Yes, that word is **am***. Praise should be an integral part of your presentation, but don't overdo it. Every statement of praise should

clearly result from a specific student action. If praise is indiscriminate and undeserved, it will lose all meaning for the students. Generally, students in the lower levels of the program will require more praise than students in the upper levels. (p. 44)

Point Systems

Point systems have been noted as effective motivators for students (Martella et al., 2002). Points are provided contingent on specified student behavior. For example, the *Corrective Reading* program makes use of a point system. Point boxes are found in each student's workbook. Figure 3 shows a sample point chart from *Decoding B1*. The rules for earning points are specified in the program format. For example, Exercise 5 of Lesson 26 in *Decoding B1* specifies that if the group reads at least nine rows of words correctly, all students should record four points in Box A of their Point Chart. Further, if the group did not read at least nine rows of words correctly, they should not be awarded points for this word-attack skills exercise.

Figure 3 also notes that the point system may be used to provide grades to students. This system provides an objective way to award grades to students. In addition, points may be used for contingencies other than grades. For example, students can earn specified activities for earning a certain number of points.

A point system used by many Direct Instruction teachers is the "teacher–kid" point game also called the "you–me" game. In this procedure, teachers tell the students that if they respond together and on signal, for example, they will earn a point. If they do not respond together and on signal, teachers earn the point. Teachers keep track of these points on the board, labeled with *teacher* and *students* or *you* and *me*. They tally the responses in either category, pairing them with praise, "You came in together at my signal. You get the point," or an error correction, "You need to

come in together at my signal. I get the point." This game serves as an effective motivator for those students who echo others or do not respond because students typically do not want teachers to "win" the game!

In addition to praise and the use of points, contracts can be useful motivating tools for students. Contracts often contain several components including who the participants are

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Figure 3

Sample point chart, Corrective Reading Decoding B1.

The point system requires students to record their daily points. Point Charts appear on the inside cover of every *Corrective Reading* Workbook. During different parts of the lesson, students record points in the appropriate boxes of their point charts. Below is a sample Point Chart from **Decoding B1.**

Lesson	A	B	C-1	C-2	D	Bonus		Total
26							=	
27							=	
28							=	
29							=	
30							=	
TOTAL							=	

In **Decoding B1**, students earn points for Word Attack (Box A), Group Reading (Box B), Individual Reading Checkout (Box C-1), Timed Reading Checkout (Box C-2), and Workbook Exercises (Box D).

The maximum possible points students can earn for each **Decoding B1** lesson, not counting bonus points, is 20 points. If you teach five lessons a week, a student can earn a maximum of 100 points, not counting bonus points. The point totals for each five-lesson block can be used as an objective basis for awarding grades. To give students a weekly grade, you might choose to use something like the following grading system.

91–100 points	A
81–90 points	B
71–80 points	C
70 points or less	needs work

Note. From Engelmann, S., Hanner, S., & Johnson, G. (1999). *Corrective Reading series guide.* Columbus, OH: SRA/McGraw-Hill. Reproduced with permission of The McGraw-Hill Companies.

Figure 4

Sample Contract, Spelling Through Morphographs.

FOR THE STUDENT:

I want to become a better speller. I agree to work hard and follow the teacher's instructions. I understand that my grade will be determined on the following basis:

A Grade—If the average of my five-lesson totals is at least 55 points.

B Grade—If the average of my five-lesson totals is 45 to 54 points.

C Grade—If the average of my five-lesson totals is 35 to 44 points.

I understand that an average of less than 35 points per five lessons is a failing grade for this course.

Daily points will be rewarded by the teacher as follows:

1. Oral work   0–3 group points for working hard and answering on signal. Everyone in the group will receive the same number of points for oral work each day.

2. Bonus   0–4 points that can be earned from time to time for special work that will be explained by the teacher.

3. Worksheet

Errors	Points
0–2	10
3	7
4	5
5	3
6	1
7 or more	0

4. Corrections: I will lose 3 points every time I do not correct a worksheet error.

I will total my daily points every five lessons.

FOR THE TEACHER:

I want my students to become better spellers. I agree to work hard preparing every lesson and to teach to the best of my abilities. I will award points and grades according to the terms of this contract.

_____   _____
Student   *Teacher*

Note. From Dixon, R., & Engelmann, S. (2001). *Spelling Through Morphographs teacher's guide.* Columbus, OH: SRA/McGraw-Hill. Reproduced with permission of The McGraw-Hill Companies.

and what their responsibilities are, the positive consequences for fulfilling their responsibilities, and the negative consequences (if any) for not fulfilling their responsibilities (Martella et al., 2002). Figure 4 provides a sample contract used in the *Spelling Through Morphographs* program. Notice that the contract is signed by the student and the teacher (the teacher also agrees to the terms of the contract), and specific information on grades and point delivery is provided.

Secondary Techniques

Sixty to 75% of students will respond to primary prevention techniques in a positive manner. However, approximately 15% to 30% of students will need a more focused approach to improve their classroom behavior. Sugai and Horner (2002) suggest *secondary prevention* techniques for these students. Secondary techniques provide behavioral, social, or academic support to at-risk students (Martella et al., 2003) through specialized academic or management group systems.

Behavioral Support

Behavioral support includes such techniques as family management training, conflict resolution training, precorrection strategies, and self-management strategies. We will discuss the last two strategies in this category since they can be easily integrated into Direct Instruction programs. (For a discussion of the first two techniques, refer to Nelson, Martella, and Marchand-Martella, 2002.)

Precorrection Strategies

One preventative management approach is to use the effective instructional skills and programs described in this book (Colvin et al., 1993). This instructional approach is based on three basic assumptions. First, problem behaviors are learned through our interactions with our environments. Second, students need to learn appropriate behavior; thus, they need to

be taught. Third, emphasis should be placed on teaching social skills. Essentially, teachers could prevent management problems by anticipating where problems are likely to be encountered (e.g., during transitions) and designing a lesson to teach the appropriate behavior that would prevent the anticipated problem behaviors.

Colvin et al. (1993) described the similarities of academic correction and behavior problem correction. For example, suppose a student writes a story and uses *there* to refer to possession ("it is there book") instead of *their*. The teacher could correct the error by explaining to the student that *there* refers to location (e.g., "it is over there") rather than possession. Then the teacher could have the student repeat what *their* means and have the student correct the mistake in the story. Similarly, if a student does not get to work when instructed to do so, the teacher could remind him of the routine of getting to work upon entering the room, have the student repeat the routine, and ask the student to get to work. Once the student begins working, the teacher should praise the student. Thus, the teacher treats the problem behavior as an opportunity to teach appropriate behavior, just like with teaching an academic skill.

Colvin et al. (1993) provide a seven-step plan for implementing the precorrection planning process. In Step 1, the context of the predictable behavior should be identified. In others words, teachers should determine when and where problem behaviors are likely to occur (e.g., problem behaviors may be most common during transitions). This planning is no different than planning for difficult academic tasks. Teachers should consider ahead of time what they will do when a student has an academic problem and set out to prevent the problem from occurring. Again, this planning is not different than what should occur when considering behavior problems.

In Step 2, the predictable inappropriate behavior and the expected appropriate behaviors should be specified. For example, during transitions, teachers may expect that students will not move to the next location and get ready to work. Then teachers need to determine what behaviors are appropriate under these circumstances such as moving immediately to the new instructional location and taking out relevant materials.

In Step 3, teachers should consider how to modify the context of the situation. For example, proximity control (improving behavior simply by standing or sitting close to students) can be used to encourage quiet and productive work during independent seatwork.

In Step 4, teachers should rehearse the expected behaviors with the students. For example, before the students transition from reading to math, teachers could stand near the students and have them repeat the rule about moving immediately to the next instructional location (if there is one). Then teachers could have the students practice following this rule by actually transitioning from reading to math.

In Step 5, teachers should determine how they will reinforce appropriate student behavior. For example, they could praise students when they are working independently and appropriately and could provide students with 5 extra minutes of free time when they finish their work.

In Step 6, teachers should prompt the expected behaviors. That is, when students begin to break a rule, teachers should first attempt to bring about the appropriate behavior by prompting it to occur. For example, if a student begins to interrupt another student who is reading aloud, teachers might say, "Remember the rule about waiting to talk until another student is finished reading." If the prompt does not work and the student continues the unwanted behavior, teachers should then have a predetermined consequence for this noncompliance.

Finally, in Step 7, the plan must be monitored. Teachers should continue to determine if appropriate behaviors are being exhibited. If a problem persists then an individualized intervention (tertiary level) may be necessary (described later).

Self-Management

One of the more popular behavior management methods used today is self-management training (Dalton, Martella, & Marchand-Martella, 1999). As Heward (1987) indicated, self-management comes from how we respond to the situations around us. There are several self-management skills that we can teach students. The instruction of these skills is the same as for other skills. In other words, these skills should be taught through an *I do, we do, you do* format and should be taught to mastery. Some of these skills include goal setting, self-recording, self-monitoring, self-charting, self-evaluation, and self-instruction (Martella, Marchand-Martella, & Cleanthous, 2002). In the following section, we describe each skill separately; however, it is usually best to implement them in combination with one another.

Goal setting. Goal setting involves the establishment of performance criteria and the identification and use of solutions to meet an established goal (Martin & Pear, 1999). Goal setting typically involves student input. For example, teachers could have students set a goal for a specific number of homework assignments to be completed and turned in during the week; a goal of a specified number of reading lessons per week could also be set and tracked to see if the goal was met.

Self-recording. Self-recording involves observing and recording one's own behavior with a prompt (Martella, Leonard, Marchand-Martella, & Agran, 1993). This prompt can be anything that evokes the recording behavior. For example, students can be told to mark down whether they are on or off-task every 5 minutes.

Self-monitoring. Self-monitoring is similar to self-recording except that it occurs without an external prompt (Dalton et al., 1999). Thus, self-monitoring is much more difficult for students to perform since they must remember to do the monitoring. For example, students could be given a monitoring sheet and asked to write down how many errors were made on each take-home assignment throughout the week. Students could also self-monitor the number of points earned through an instructional session.

Self-charting. Self-charting involves teaching students how to graph their own behavior. Self-charting can be a great motivational technique. For example, if teachers are conducting timed reading passages, students can graph their reading rates and errors on individual reading progress charts. Figure 5 shows a sample chart from *Corrective Reading Decoding B1.* On this chart, students can see the progression of their reading performance over time compared to the program goal (see step-wise horizontal criterion line in Figure 5).

Self-evaluation. Self-evaluation involves teaching students how to measure their own behavior against some specified standard (Martella et al., 2002, 2003). Teachers can show students how to make these evaluations themselves by providing accurate feedback on performance and/or providing them examples and nonexamples of good performance. For example, teachers could give upper elementary students an example of a well-written paper (with all required parts) and have the students evaluate their papers against this standard. Their evaluation is matched with the teacher's evaluation. Additionally, students could compare their performance against the criterion line in Figure 5.

Self-instruction. Self-instruction training involves teaching individuals how to "talk themselves through" a particular set of behaviors (Martella et al., 2002, 2003). Meichenbaum and Goodman (1971) described self-instruction training. They recommended a five-step sequence including (a) teachers perform task, instructing aloud while students observe; (b) students perform task while teachers instruct aloud; (c) students perform task while self-instructing aloud; (d) students perform task while whispering; and (e) students perform task while self-instructing covertly. For example, students can be taught to talk themselves through a simple addition problem such as, "If the smaller number is missing I must subtract," or "If the larger number is missing I must add."

The need for consequences. A particularly important aspect of any self-management program is arranging for consequences for the self-management skills that we want to develop and maintain (Martella et al., 2003). For example, there must be some consequence for self-recording or self-instructions for them to continue. These consequences may initially come from the teacher. Later, if teachers have done the training correctly, the maintaining consequences will come from more natural sources such as from other students or from the effects of completing a task successfully. Therefore, teachers must set up some system to encourage and support these behaviors or skills until they are supported naturally in their environment.

Social Support

Students must acquire social skills to have meaningful relationships with their peers, teachers, and parents. According to Elliott and Gresham (1991), students who lack social skills experience negative student–adult or student–student relationships. "Because socialization is an important outcome of schooling, training programs which teach children how to improve interactions with their teachers, peers, and parents can be a useful instructional tool for educators and mental health professionals" (Elliott & Gresham, p. 2).

Figure 5

Sample individual reading progress chart, Corrective Reading Decoding B1.

Individual Reading Progress Chart Decoding B1: Lessons 12–35
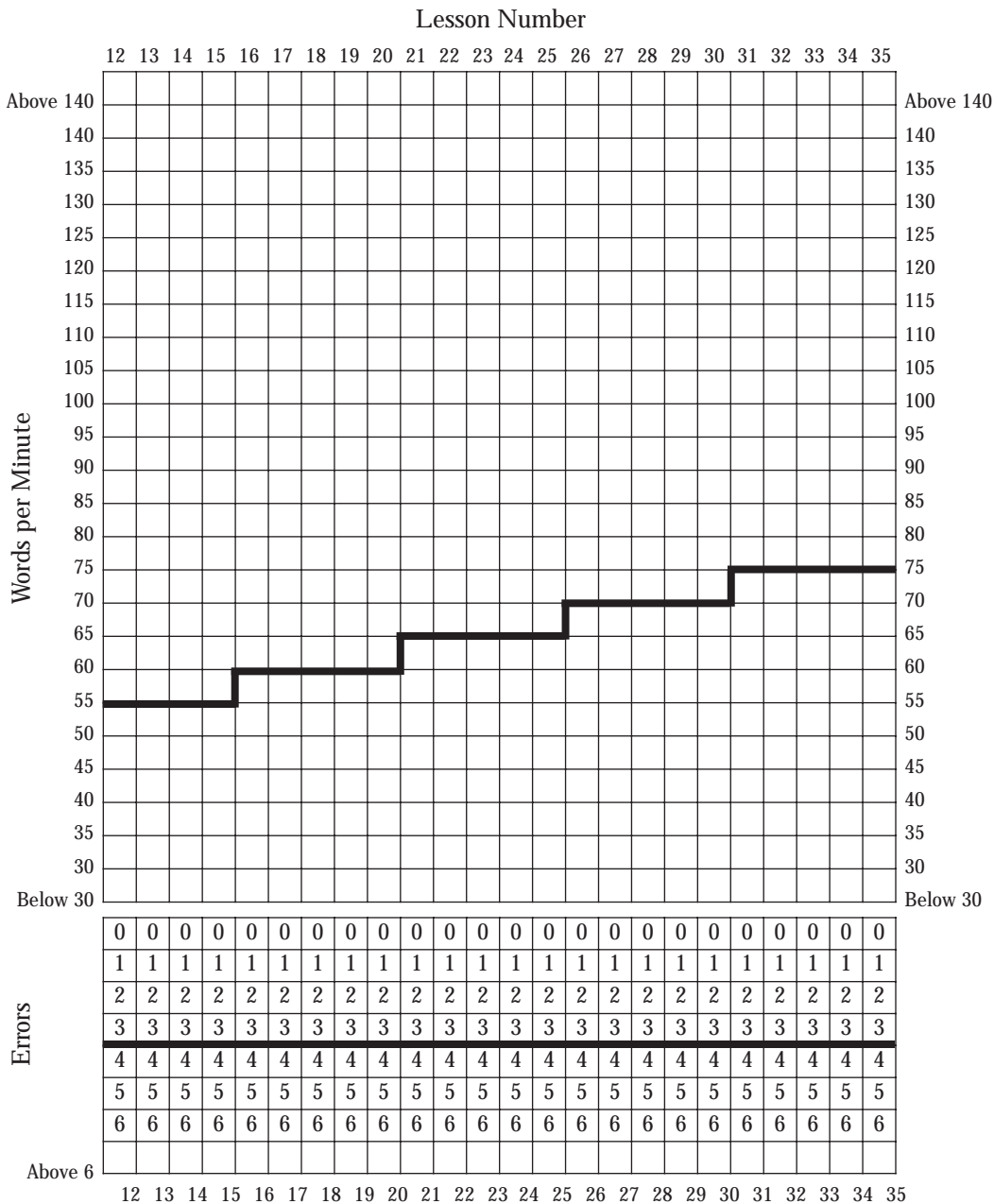
Note. From Engelmann, S., Hanner, S., & Johnson, G. (1999). *Corrective Reading series guide.* Columbus, OH: SRA/McGraw-Hill. Reproduced with permission of The McGraw-Hill Companies.

Social behaviors can be viewed in five domains: cooperation, assertion, responsibility, empathy, and self-control (Elliott & Gresham, 1991). Others view social and personal competence in areas such as social skills and social problem solving skills (Polloway, Patton, & Serna, 2001). Social skills include reciprocal interactions of individuals involved in a social exchange. Social problem solving involves a sequence of behaviors including (a) problem orientation, (b) problem definition and formulation, (c) generalization of solutions, (d) decision making, and (e) implementation of a plan and evaluation and verification of the outcome (D'Zurilla & Goldfried, 1971; Polloway et al., 2001).

Social skills and social problem solving may need to be taught directly to students and treated just as academic skills are. Olson and Platt (2000) discuss the use of modeling, role playing, peer tutoring, cooperative learning, and videos to teach social skills. Whatever the intervention chosen, students should first observe effective modeling of the skill to be learned, practice displaying the skill while receiving teacher feedback, and then have opportunities to display the skill independently in contrived and/or in real-life contexts. For example, cooperative play (e.g., learning to share, taking turns) is a skill that many teachers include in social skills training programs for preschool- to elementary-aged students. Teachers should show these students what it means to play cooperatively; they should provide numerous opportunities for students to practice playing cooperatively, with the teacher providing feedback (both positive and corrective) during these practice opportunities. Finally, teachers can have students practice playing cooperatively in contrived or real-life contexts such as playing cooperatively with students from another class during "game day" to show teachers that their newly acquired skills have generalized.

Academic Support

More individualized instruction such as a peer-delivered *Corrective Reading* program (see Chapter 10) for students who are struggling academically or a structured prevention program developed for students at-risk for school failure (e.g., social skills training program) are examples of further academic support that may be needed by some students. Additionally, compensatory programs such as *Corrective Reading* (see Chapter 4), *Expressive Writing* (see Chapter 5), *Spelling Through Morphographs* (see Chapter 6), and *Corrective Mathematics* (see Chapter 7) are effective secondary techniques that provide increased academic support to students. These programs are useful when students need intensive remedial instruction in a given skill area.

Tertiary Techniques

The combination of primary and secondary techniques can address the needs of approximately 93% to 99% of students. Unfortunately, approximately 1% to 7% of students need even more focused interventions (Martella et al., 2003). Sugai and Horner (2002) term these interventions *tertiary prevention* techniques. These techniques involve *individualized* systems for students with high-risk behaviors. These techniques are intended for those students who will continue to misbehave even when teachers provide the kind of behavioral, social, and/or academic support that is effective for most students. The secondary techniques described above can also be used as tertiary techniques. The difference is that at the secondary level, the techniques are aimed at a small number of students who are at-risk for school failure. These systems are designed as group systems and are not focused toward individual students. Tertiary techniques are focused at the individual level. For example, teaching self-management techniques to a group of students would be a secondary technique, while teaching a tailored self-management program combined with individual contingencies for engaging in self-management would be a tertiary technique. Providing a peer-delivered *Corrective Reading* program to a

group of general education students who are at-risk for failure would be a secondary technique while providing a *Corrective Reading* program to students who are in special education would be a tertiary technique.

Another more focused tertiary technique would be to assess an individual student directly with regard to the causes or functions of his behavior. Such an assessment requires teachers to question if the misbehavior is a "can't do" or a "won't do" problem. In other words, teachers determine whether a student is misbehaving due to a lack of academic skills or a lack of motivation to behave appropriately. In these cases, teachers must consider individualized interventions. Before we get to the process of determining appropriate individualized interventions, we must consider several assumptions.

Assumptions of Behavior Management

Whenever we develop a behavior management program, we must make certain assumptions to promote success. First, student behavior is contextual; second, student behavior serves a function (Iwata, Vollmer, & Zarcone, 1990).

Contextual

Student behavior is contextual; it depends upon the particular environmental conditions present just before and just after the behavior. If a behavior occurs frequently in a particular context, it should be assumed that there is something occurring in that context that maintains the behavior. Some may argue that a student's misbehavior is due to her home environment. A statement such as, "She is like that because she comes from a dysfunctional home" is an example. Although a dysfunctional home environment certainly is something to be concerned about, it does not tell us the whole story. The type of home environment a student comes from may have an impact on a student's classroom behavior when the student first enters the room. However, if the

behavior continues after that point in time, the assumption is that something is maintaining the unwanted behavior in that particular classroom. Therefore, understanding the context of where a behavior is occurring is critical to understanding the student's behavior. So, what are teachers to do? They must determine what is going on in that particular context that may be maintaining the behavior. In other words, teachers must find the function(s) of the behavior.

Functions of Behavior

There are several functions of behavior. What is meant by function is that when a behavior occurs, something is likely to happen. That something may be the delivery of a reinforcer. If it is a reinforcer, the behavior will be more likely to be repeated in the future under similar circumstances. In other words, the behavior serves a particular function (nontechnically speaking, it serves a purpose for the individual). Therefore, what we are trying to identify is a functional relationship between a behavior and particular contextual events. These contextual events will either reliably occur just before the behavior or just after the behavior. Determining a functional relationship is similar to when others talk of a cause-and-effect relationship (e.g., my behavior management system caused an improvement in student behavior). However, while it may not always be possible to determine the true cause of a behavior, we can determine a functional relationship.

Now consider the information required to know the function of a behavior. For example, say that when a teacher provides an instruction to begin work (antecedent), there is a high likelihood that a tantrum (behavior) will result, or when the student has a tantrum (behavior), the teacher will send the student away from the group (consequence). Therefore, the probability of the occurrence of a particular behavior is higher when a certain instruction is provided or when the teacher
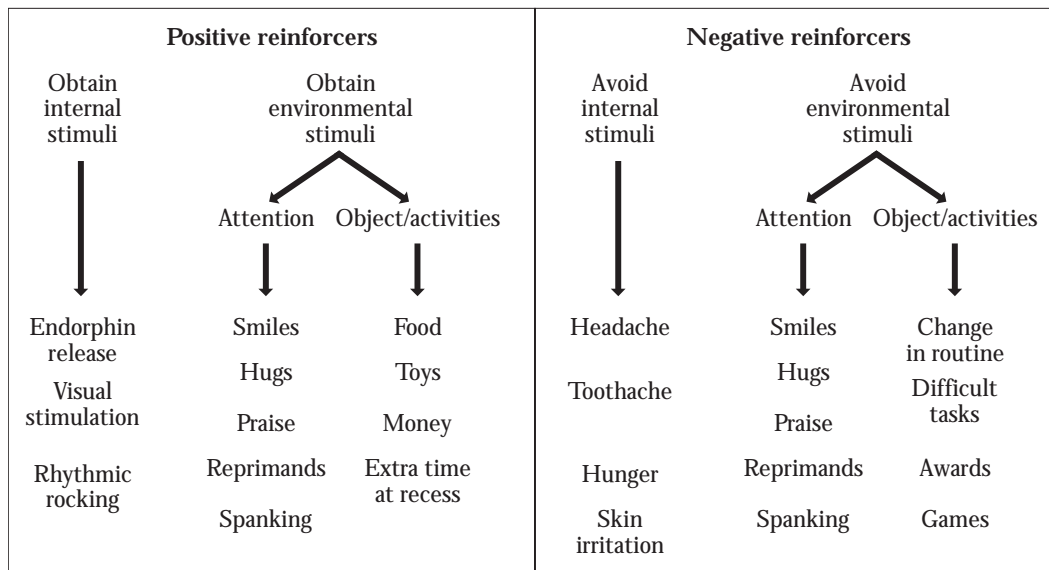
responds to the behavior in a particular way. What would this information provide the teacher? Once the function of a behavior is known it may become possible to change the instruction to avoid the unwanted behavior or to react to the unwanted behavior in another manner. Thus, determining the function of a behavior can be critical in developing an adequate behavior program for the student.

In order to determine what the function of a behavior is, we must know what the possible functions are. Essentially, we can categorize functions into two categories. As shown in Figure 6, the two categories involve positive reinforcement (defined as the presentation of a stimulus, contingent upon a response, that increases the future probability of the response) and negative reinforcement (defined as the removal of a stimulus, contingent upon a response, that increases the future probability of the response). Under the category of positive reinforcement, there are several subcategories—social (attention), tangible (objects/activities), and sensory (internal stimuli). Under the negative reinforcement category, the subcategories also include social (attention), tangible (objects/activities), and sensory (internal stimuli). Notice the examples under each of the subcategories. Two questions should come to mind. First, why is it that the social subcategories have the same examples? Second, why is it that things we would consider to be positive reinforcers, such as hugs, can be considered negative reinforcers, and things we would usually consider to be aversive (i.e., stimuli that we attempt to escape or avoid), such as spankings, can be considered positive reinforcers? The answer to both of these questions is that the examples are the

Figure 6

Potential functions of behavior.

Positive reinforcers			Negative reinforcers		
Obtain internal stimuli	Obtain environmental stimuli		Avoid internal stimuli	Avoid environmental stimuli	
	Attention	Object/activities		Attention	Object/activities
Endorphin release	Smiles	Food	Headache	Smiles	Change in routine
Visual stimulation	Hugs	Toys	Toothache	Hugs	Difficult tasks
	Praise	Money		Praise	
Rhythmic rocking	Reprimands	Extra time at recess	Hunger	Reprimands	Awards
	Spanking		Skin irritation	Spanking	Games

Note. From Martella, Ronald; Nelson, J. Ron; and Marchand-Martella, Nancy. *Managing Disruptive Behaviors in the Schools* (c) 2003. Published by Allyn and Bacon, Boston, MA. Copyright (c) 2003 by Pearson Education. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

same to show that positive and negative reinforcers are not subjectively determined. What determines if a stimulus such as a hug is a positive or negative reinforcer is ascertained by the student's behavior. An aversive stimulus is anything that occasions an escape or avoidance response. Therefore, if the student attempts to avoid a hug and continues to do so in the future, the removal of the likelihood of a hug is a negative reinforcer for the avoidance response. On the other hand, if a student behaved in such a manner to obtain a hug, the hug may be a positive reinforcer if the probability of the behavior increases in the future.

Also, notice that there is a sensory feedback category. Many times we respond due to the automatic reinforcement of a behavior (Skinner, 1953). In the positive reinforcement category, we see that students could behave to obtain some type of feedback from one or more of the senses such as visual stimulation, rhythmic rocking, or an endorphin release. Likewise, there are times when we attempt to escape or avoid sensory stimulation by emitting a behavior to do so. For example, we take pain medication to escape pain; we may put pressure on our heads when we have a headache, or we may attempt to escape a toothache by pushing on our jaw where the pain resonates.

The main functions of a behavior are shown in Figure 6. However, these are not the only possible reasons why a behavior occurs. It is important to realize that there are a number of other possible variables that can and will affect a student's classroom behavior. For example, other physiological reasons such as physical illnesses may cause a behavior to occur. What we are concerned about though are environmental functions. As such, most of the functions we deal with in the schools are attention getting and involve tangible positive and negative reinforcers. We have direct access to these functions. We can stop attention from occurring for a particular behavior, and we can prevent an escape or avoidance response. More

problematic are those behaviors that serve to acquire sensory feedback. We cannot get direct access to the reinforcers so we must attempt to stop these in an indirect manner such as through masking the sensory feedback (e.g., having a student who engages in self-injurious behavior such as head banging wear a helmet). In order to stop these sensory functions, we must have specialized training. Therefore, for the purposes of this chapter, the focus is on behaviors that occur due to attention or tangible reasons. In order to determine what the functions of behavior are, we must conduct specialized assessments. These assessments are called functional behavioral assessments.

Importance of Functional Behavioral Assessments

Functional behavioral assessments examine the circumstances surrounding the occurrence and nonoccurrence of an unwanted behavior. The goal of these assessments is to identify variables and events that are reliably or consistently present when the unwanted behavior occurs or does not occur. Functional behavioral assessments are considered important for two reasons. First, they are believed to improve the quality and potential success of a behavioral intervention. Presumably, the more we know about the behavior, the better we are able to design an intervention that will fit the needs of the particular situation. Second, functional behavioral assessments are believed to lead to less aversive behavioral interventions. Interventions are considered less aversive because determining what the likely reinforcers are for a behavior will allow us to remove the source of reinforcement that decreases the need to use punishment or negative reinforcement (e.g., warnings) procedures.

Functional behavioral assessments are also important to know since they are required by federal law when developing a behavior plan for an individual with a disability (Yell, 1998). Since the inclusion movement (i.e., placing students with disabilities in the general educa-

tion classroom for instruction) is a popular movement across the country, all educators are more likely to have students with disabilities placed in their classrooms. Therefore, it is critical for all persons who work with individuals with disabilities to understand what functional behavioral assessments are and how they are conducted. As stated by Yell:

> To deal with behavioral problems in a proactive manner, the 1997 amendments require that if a student with disabilities has behavioral problems (regardless of the student's disability category), the IEP [Individualized Education Program] team shall consider strategies—including positive behavioral interventions, strategies, and supports—to address these problems. In such situations a proactive behavior management plan, based on *functional behavioral assessment*, should be included in the student's IEP. Furthermore, if a student's placement is changed following a behavioral incident and the IEP does not contain a behavioral intervention plan, a *functional behavioral assessment* and a behavioral plan must be completed no later than 10 days after changing the placement. (p. 88)

Therefore, all educators should have at least a working knowledge of functional behavioral assessments. Additionally, although functional behavioral assessments are required in the development of a behavioral intervention plan for individuals with disabilities, these assessments should also be used for all students when an individual intervention is needed.

Conducting Functional Behavioral Assessments

Figure 7 shows a functional behavioral assessment process. As stated previously, one critical question that must be answered in the process is whether the problem behavior is a "won't do" or a "can't do" issue (Witt, Daly, & Noell, 2000). If the behavior is a "won't do" issue, the student is either not being reinforced to

behave appropriately or is being reinforced to engage in unwanted behavior. If the student is not being reinforced to behave appropriately, wanted behavior will not occur. Likewise, if the student is being reinforced for unwanted behavior, such as the attention he receives from classmates, the unwanted behavior will occur. This type of student is one who is typically motivated by positive reinforcement.

If we have a "can't do" issue, we are likely at an inappropriate instructional level for the student. In this case, the student may find the instruction or topic to be aversive and is, therefore, motivated by negative reinforcement (i.e., an escape/avoidance student). Thus, placement testing the student again to determine the correct level of a program such as *Reading Mastery* would be critical. Each of these assessments will be described in an order moving from the least extensive assessment (indirect assessment) to the most extensive assessment (functional analysis).

Indirect Assessments

The first step to conducting a functional behavioral assessment is to conduct indirect assessments. Indirect assessments include those that involve gaining information from sources other than from a first-hand observation of the behavior in the environment. These assessments are usually "subjective verbal reports of the behavior under naturalistic conditions" (Iwata et al., 1990, p. 305) (i.e., reports of when the behavior occurs and what the antecedents and consequences to the behavior are). Examples of methods used to gain this information are interviews, checklists, and rating scales (see Martella et al., 2003, for a detailed description of indirect assessments). These assessments have an advantage over other forms of assessments in that they are efficient and easy to use, and they pose a good starting point for an assessment. The difficulty with indirect assessments is that their reliability and validity are ques-

tionable (Iwata et al.), and they should not be viewed as an end point to the assessment.

Summarizing data. Once an indirect assessment has been conducted, the data should be summarized to determine whether there are any patterns present. In other words, teachers should decide if consistencies in the obtained information were present. Was a particular event or antecedent (e.g., academic instruction) usually present when the behavior occurred (e.g., swearing), usually resulting in a particular consequence (e.g., being removed from the group)? Setting events should also be considered. For example, whenever the student comes to school sleepy, does he usually display a higher instance of the unwanted behavior?

Descriptive Analyses

The second step in conducting functional behavioral assessments is to conduct descriptive analyses. Descriptive analyses can take several forms, such as ABC analyses, observation forms, and scatter plots (see Martella et al., 2003, for an in-depth discussion of descriptive analyses). The main advantage of descriptive analyses is that they are more objective than indirect assessments. That is, they involve a direct assessment or observation of the unwanted and wanted behaviors under naturalistic conditions (Iwata et al., 1990).

Summarizing data. Once the descriptive analyses have been conducted, the data will need to again be summarized. This summarization is similar in form to the one completed for the indirect assessment. The summary should be compared to the one created for the indirect assessment to determine if the two are consistent. Frequently, the two summaries will be consistent. However, there are times when the two summaries will be different in some manner. At this point, a determination of whether the unwanted behavior is a "won't do" or "can't do" issue should be made. If it is determined that the function of the behavior is attention from peers, the problem will likely be a "won't do" issue. If, on the other hand, the problem is determined to be an escape from an academic task issue, a "can't do" problem is likely present.

Another determination that should be made at this point is whether there are any possible setting events present. In the direct observation it could be found that corrective feedback was not a reliable predictor of the problem behavior. However, the manner in which feed-

Figure 7

Functional assessment process.
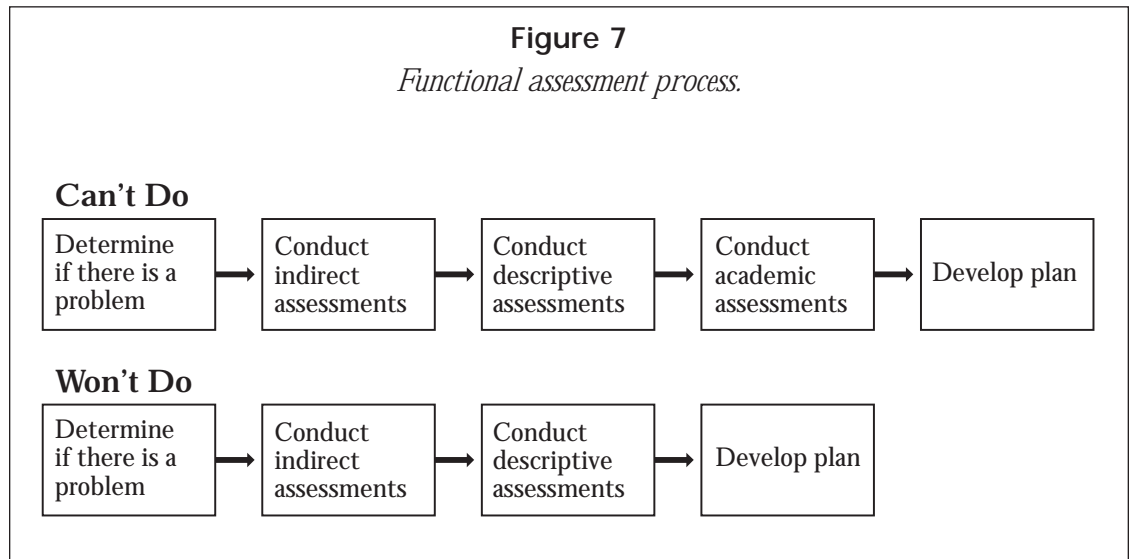
back was provided to the student was a critical setting event. During the indirect assessment, the teacher may have identified feedback as being a setting event. But the teacher did not take into consideration that the form of that feedback may have had the impact on the behavior. Suppose that during the observation it was shown that when the teacher provided feedback by first discussing what the student did correctly (e.g., "I see that you put a lot of effort into this assignment") and then provided an effective error correction sequence (e.g., "You were on the right track in figuring out the math problems until you had to borrow. Watch how I borrow in this math problem. Let's try the next problem together. Great. Now try this one on your own"), the student was not likely to misbehave. However, when an ineffective error correction sequence was used (e.g., "You did not borrow the correct way. You knew this yesterday. Try again"), the behavior was much more likely to be seen when a new instruction was presented.

If the problem is a "won't do," the development of an individualized intervention can begin. However, if the problem is a "can't do" as frequently indicated by a negative reinforcement (escape/avoidance) function, academic assessments should take place.

Academic Assessments

One clue that a "can't do" issue is present is if the behavior serves an escape/avoidance (i.e., negative reinforcement) function. In other words, if the student is attempting to escape or avoid an academic task, he may lack the skills necessary to complete the task; thus, the academic materials may be too difficult (Nelson, Roberts, & Smith, 1999). Roberts, Marshall, Nelson, and Albers (2001) note that curriculum-based assessment procedures should be embedded within functional behavioral assessments to identify these escape-motivated behaviors. Therefore, the next step in this process should be to conduct assessments to determine if the student is placed correctly in the Direct Instruction program.

Placement tests. Direct Instruction programs include placement tests. These assessments help to ensure that students are placed appropriately in the program. Sometimes students may be misplaced in a program. In this case, they typically make a great deal of errors or do not meet fluency criteria in early lessons. On the other hand, some students may be placed in a level that is too easy. If nothing is done for both of these types of students, the task may become aversive over time, thereby leading to escape or avoidance-motivated behaviors. What students are telling us with their behavior is that the work is too hard, they do not have the skills to perform some or most of the tasks, or the work is too easy. Thus, teachers should consider moving them to a lesson on which they are appropriately challenged. As has been repeatedly emphasized throughout the book, performance on lessons should be treated as information about whether students are properly placed and motivated.

Curriculum-based assessments. In addition to the placement test, Direct Instruction programs have mastery tests, rate and accuracy checks, take home or workbook assignments, and/or enrichment blackline masters for extra practice. If students are experiencing difficulties, teachers can skip lessons and administer mastery tests to ensure firm responding. Skipping every 10 lessons in *Connecting Math Concepts* and administering the mastery tests in the program can quickly tell teachers where students should be placed (again, besides having the placement test information). The mastery tests provide information on where to go in the program to ensure firm responding for particular deficit *areas.* Likewise, teachers can administer the rate and accuracy checks in *Reading Mastery*, for example, to determine if students are able to read the requisite stories in a certain amount of time within a specified error limit. Take homes and workbooks should be examined to

determine performance as well. If students cannot achieve at least 80% to 85% correct on the workbook or take-home assignment, the material may be too difficult.

Summarizing data. Upon analyzing the placement test and curriculum-based assessments used in the program, teachers make decisions about what changes they will make in students' placement within the Direct Instruction program. Again, they may move students up a level, down a level, or skip or repeat lessons to ensure firm student responding. Teachers are essentially detectives when it comes to analyzing academic assessment data.

Developing an Individualized Intervention

Once the data are gathered from a functional behavioral assessment, a behavior management plan can be developed. However, if the behavior management plan does not flow from the functional behavioral assessment, the functional behavioral assessment was essentially a waste of time and resources. Thus, if we are going to develop a behavior plan, we must be committed to conducting a functional behavioral assessment and using the data gathered for its intended purpose.

Building the Plan

The summary statements developed after the indirect, descriptive, and academic assessments can be used to aid in the building of a behavior plan. This model was designed by O'Neill et al. (1997) and provides an excellent method of developing a behavior plan.

If the behavior problem is a "won't do" then the plan should focus on reducing the motivation for the behavior and teaching a replacement behavior. A replacement behavior is whatever behavior teachers have targeted to replace the unwanted behavior—it is the goal behavior teachers are striving to have in their classroom. This replacement behavior should make the unwanted behavior irrelevant, inef-

fective, and inefficient. To accomplish this, it must be fairly easy for students to do. The replacement behavior must be reinforced immediately and consistently. Finally, the unwanted behavior should not be reinforced. Therefore, teachers must determine how reinforcement will be removed from the unwanted behavior and directed to the wanted (or replacement) behavior. Once these considerations are made, the behavior plan can be written. Additionally, if the behavior problem is a "can't do," the plan must focus on how instruction can be changed to be more effective.

Writing the Plan

As shown in Figure 8, the operational definitions of the target behaviors are provided. Next, the summary statements are documented with a diagram of the three possible behavior categories (i.e., desired behavior, target behavior, replacement behavior). The diagram in Figure 8 shows that asking for a break is the replacement behavior for swearing.

The general approach to solving the behavior problem is presented next. A strategy for changing the setting events (if any) to prevent the problem behavior is stated. If a setting event is the use of a negative method of correction that makes students more likely to hit or swear, teachers should change the way feedback is provided. If the behavior occurs when students seem tired, speaking with their parents about getting them to bed earlier may be a useful strategy. Predictor strategies are also stated and involve methods of preventing unwanted behaviors that can be used, such as changing the antecedents to the task. For example, teachers may change the way they provide instructions from a question (e.g., "Could you begin your work?") to a statement (e.g., "Please begin your work").

Another critical aspect of predictor strategies is to diagnose why a task is aversive to students in the case of an escape/avoidance-motivated behavior. The task may be too difficult or may
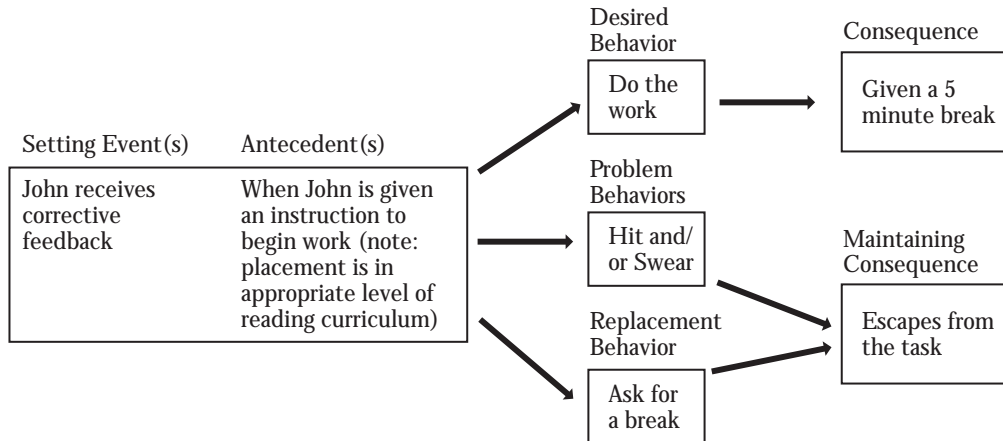
Figure 8

Behavioral support plan for John.

Problem Behavior

1. Hitting: Any contact with the hand to another person or object with the intent to harm.

2. Swearing: Stating verbally words commonly considered (i.e., four letter words) to be swear words.

Functional Assessment Summary Statement

When given instructions to begin working on a task after corrective feedback has been given on work, John will hit and/or swear. These behaviors are maintained by removal of the task by sending John to time out. Time out allows John to escape or delay the task.

Setting Event(s)	Antecedent(s)	Desired Behavior	Consequence
John receives corrective feedback	When John is given an instruction to begin work (note: placement is in appropriate level of reading curriculum)	Do the work	Given a 5 minute break
		Problem Behaviors	Maintaining Consequence
		Hit and/or Swear	Escapes from the task
		Replacement Behavior	
		Ask for a break	

General Approach

Setting event strategies: When providing feedback, an effective error correction procedure will be used. This procedure will involve praising John for his effort (e.g., "that was a good try"), modeling the correct answer (e.g., "that word is father"), guiding him to the correct answer (e.g., "let's say the word together"), and having him provide the answer independently (e.g., "what word is this?").

Academic remediation: John will be moved from *Corrective Reading Decoding B2* to *Corrective Reading Decoding B1.* On-going data collection and evaluation will occur to ensure one lesson is mastered per day.

Predictor strategies: Instructing John to complete his work rather than asking him to do so.

require too long of an on-task requirement. If the task is too difficult, stepping back in the program may be appropriate. The plan shows a readjustment in the program. If the problem is that the task requires too long of a sustained behavior, the appropriate solution may be to break the task into smaller units. If the problem is with attention seeking, the solution may be to provide attention on a more regular basis for appropriate behavior. The teaching strate- gies involve teaching the student how to request a break or where to go if a break is needed. The consequence strategies involve determining how the replacement behavior and desired behavior will be reinforced. These statements should be specific so other class- room staff can also implement the plan.

The routines are also presented. The routines should indicate the manner in which the work

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Figure 8, continued
Behavioral support plan for John.

Teaching strategies: Conduct a 15-minute training session with John on how to request a break (i.e., raise hand and ask for a break).

Consequence strategies: (a) When John begins to work on the assignment, the teacher will praise him for getting started. When John completes the work, he will be praised for the completed work. (b) If John begins to hit or swear, the teacher will remind him to ask for a break if he feels he needs one. Minor behaviors will be ignored. If John's behavior requires his removal, the teacher will provide a short booster training session on how to ask for a break immediately after he reenters the classroom. After the booster session, he will be instructed to complete the work he attempted to avoid.

Routines

Praise John when he begins working on his assignment and when he turns it in completed. Allow John to have a short 2-minute break when he asks for one in the prescribed fashion.

Ignore minor incidents. For more serious incidents (e.g., hitting) send John to time out and have him practice appropriate asking for a break upon reentering the classroom. Make sure John returns to the work that he attempted to avoid.

Monitoring and Evaluation

The observation form will be used to monitor the frequency of John's hitting and swearing behaviors. The teacher will review the data each morning prior to the start of class and at the end of the week to determine if changes in the plan are needed. The plan will formally be reviewed with John and his parents at the end of 1 month.

Note. Adapted from *Functional behavioral assessment and program development for problem behavior: A practical handbook,* by R. E. O'Neill, R. H. Horner, R. W., Albin, J. R., Sprague, K. Storey, and J. S. Newton, 1997. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.

will be provided. For example, if the student is having difficulty in completing an assignment, the method of breaking the assignment into smaller units should be specified. Breaking the assignment into smaller units may involve drawing a line through one third and two thirds of the assignment and informing the student that when she reaches each line, a break may be taken. Also, if an unwanted behavior occurs, there should be some appropriate response on the part of the classroom staff. The response may include simply ignoring the unwanted behavior, to calling for assistance from the office. Whatever the routines are, they should be stated in specific terms so all staff understand what is to be done and when.

Finally, teachers must monitor and evaluate the plan to see whether it is having the desired effect on the unwanted and wanted behaviors. If the intervention is not having the desired impact, the plan should be revised. However, it cannot be determined that the plan should be revised unless data are collected. Data collection is perhaps the most important aspect of a behavior plan since the data will lead teachers to various decision points (i.e., continue with the plan as is, make minor modifications to the plan, or make a major change in the plan). Unfortunately, data collection is not frequently used when dealing with behavior problems. The simple fact is this—effective behavior managers (i.e., effective teachers) use some type of feedback system to inform them of the results of their efforts. We cannot be effective in managing problem behavior without some form of monitoring and evaluation in place.

Implementing the Plan

Once the plan has been written it can be implemented. The critical aspect of any behavior management plan is ongoing monitoring and evaluation. It is frustrating when an ineffective behavior management plan is implemented but continues to be used. If a behavior plan is not effective, the response

from teachers is simple—stop using the plan and make an adjustment. It serves no one to continue using a behavior management program that is ineffective. If changes in the student's behavior are seen, teachers should continue to use the management program. Additionally, once the replacement behavior has taken over for the problem behavior, teachers should take steps to replace this behavior with the desired behavior. The way this replacement is accomplished is that the desired behavior must be reinforced each and every time it is seen while the replacement behavior is reinforced intermittently. With adequate planning and implementation of a behavior plan, the student's behavior will change for the better.

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