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Behavior Management Models

Chapter Objectives

After studying this chapter, you should be able to

- describe what is meant by discipline,
 - explain how assertive discipline is implemented,
 - define logical consequences,
 - illustrate how to implement the reality therapy model,
 - specify the approach of love and logic,
 - describe the Ginott model,
 - characterize the Kounin model,
 - depict the Jones model,
 - explain what character education is, and describe two character education programs,
 - characterize the pros and cons of each of these models,
 - list the five concrete recommendations to help teachers reduce common behavior problems,
 - define the behavioral model and its characteristics,
 - describe the misunderstandings of the behavioral model, and
 - specify the right to effective behavioral treatment and the right to an effective education.
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VIGNETTE

Controlling Angry Outbursts Through Evidence-Based Practices

MS. JACKSON HAS A STUDENT in her seventh-grade classroom who is having difficulty due to his angry outbursts. Ms. Jackson has tried a variety of techniques to decrease José's outbursts, all without success. She has tried telling him how his actions affect others. She has also tried to help him manage his anger by counting to 10 before he speaks. As a last resort, Ms. Jackson has been sending José to the office, where he talks about his anger with a school counselor.

Ms. Jackson does not know what to do. She has discussed the problem with other teachers and has tried their suggestions. She has asked José's parents to help her by talking with José and by not allowing him to play video games after school if he has a difficult day.

Ms. Jackson recently learned José had been assessed two years previously for a suspected behavior disorder. The assessment team, however, determined he did not meet the criteria for such a disability. She has also learned José has had counseling services over the last few years but to no avail. Most teachers believe José is simply a student who has difficulty controlling his anger and that the best way to prevent his angry outbursts is to stay away from him and not to make any demands when he is in a bad mood.

Ms. Jackson, however, believes that not making demands on José to prevent outbursts is not a viable option. She believes doing so is not really helping her or José. She also believes her job is to teach José how to act appropriately while he is in her classroom. Therefore, Ms. Jackson decides to journey into the world of behavior management approaches to see what has been found to work in situations such as hers.

Overview

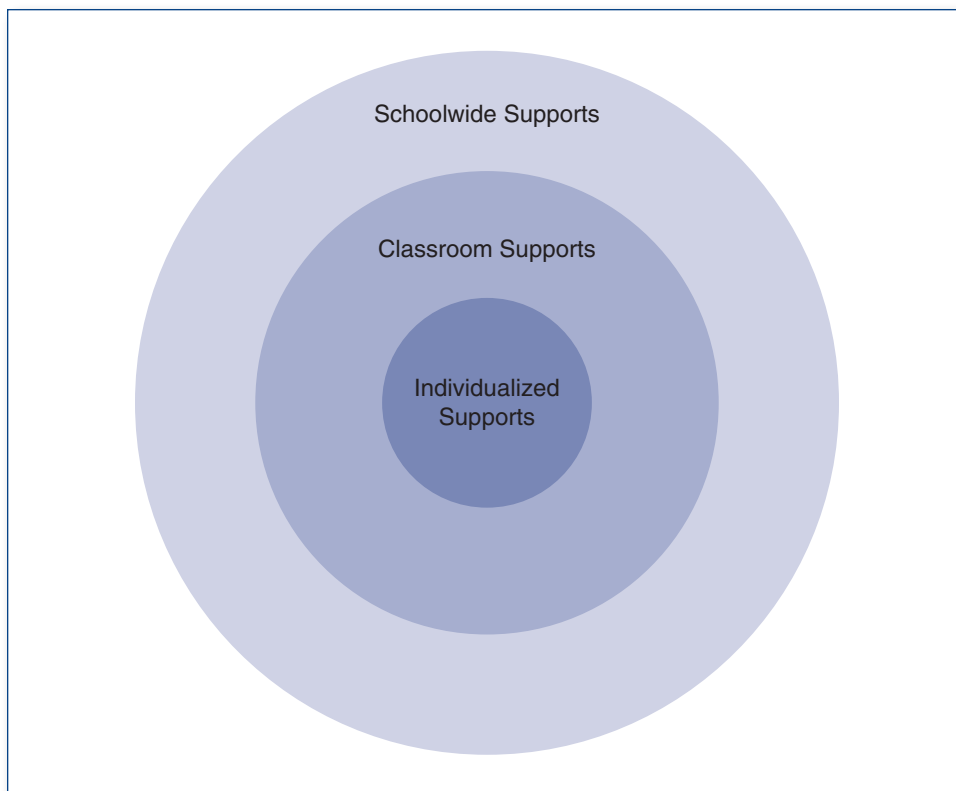
The topic of how to manage student **behavior** (i.e., a clearly defined and observable act) in schools has been around as long as there have been schools. Behavior management has been and still is the chief concern of educators across the country (Dunlap, Iovannone, Wilson, Kincaid, & Strain, 2010; Westling, 2010). When students misbehave, they learn less and keep their peers from learning. Classroom behavior problems take up teachers' time and disrupt the classroom and school. In fact, difficulty managing student behavior is cited as a factor associated with teacher burnout and dissatisfaction. For example, "50 percent of urban teachers leave the profession within the first five years of their career, citing behavior problems and management as factors influencing their decision to leave" (McKinney, Campbell-Whately, & Kea, 2005, p. 16). More should be done to create effective classroom environments through the use of better classroom management approaches (McKinney et al., 2005; Westling, 2010).

Every year, "new and improved" behavior management approaches hit the schools only to be thrown out by the end of the year. There are at least five possible causes for this cycle. First, preservice teachers may not be trained well in behavior management methods. Typically, a single classroom management class that provides a superficial view of behavior management is offered. Second, teachers may not be trained to analyze research on behavior management approaches. We tend to flock to the "flavor of

the month” procedures without a great deal of regard for what has been shown to work. Third, there is no unified theory of behavior management. Because the causes of behavior problems are often not agreed on, teachers may become confused about the causes of student behavior. Fourth, schools often do not have a seamless and consistent approach to behavior management utilized across classrooms, teachers, and grade levels. Teachers tend to implement their own procedures causing confusion on the part of students. Finally, behavior management is often viewed as a reactive approach to behavior problems rather than as a proactive one.

We believe behavior management planning must occur at three levels. Figure 1.1 shows behavior management as three concentric circles. The smallest circle relates to the implementation of individualized behavior management supports for the most troubled students. Traditionally, behavior management training in special education has occurred at the individualized level. The middle circle is handled from a classroom perspective and includes effective instructional supports. Behavioral and academic programming are key aspects in the prevention of and reaction to problem behavior in the classroom. The largest circle represents schoolwide supports designed

Figure 1.1 Comprehensive Behavior Management Planning





Teachers should discuss with students expected behavior in the classroom.

to prevent and respond to behavior difficulties at the school level. These concentric circles are dependent on one another and form a comprehensive approach to behavior management. This comprehensive approach is important given the recent shift by schools from a reactive approach to behavior management to a proactive one (Lane, Wehby, Robertson, & Rogers, 2007). Viewing behavior management in this way is also helpful in reducing the staggering drop-out rates in the United States (Dynarski et al., 2008).

This chapter describes what is meant by discipline and various models used in schools to deal with student behavior. An analysis of each of the models is provided including their positive aspects and weaknesses. Additionally, five concrete recommendations to help teachers reduce common behavior problems are described along with a description of the behavioral model. Given that the conceptual focus of this textbook is behavioral, we discuss the misunderstandings of the behavioral model. Finally, behavioral ethics are highlighted via position statements from the Association for Behavior Analysis. Essentially, these statements lay out the rights individuals have to effective behavioral treatments and to an effective

education. If we use effective management methods derived from the research literature, we can make significant positive gains in the lives of teachers and students.

What Is Discipline?

Over the years, discipline has been equated with punishment, specifically, corporal punishment. Punishment and discipline, however, are not the same thing. Discipline involves teaching others right from wrong. Specifically, **discipline** includes methods to prevent or respond to behavior problems so they do not occur in the future (Slavin, 2009). The following are common definitions of the word *discipline* found in most dictionaries: training to act in accordance with rules, instruction, and exercise designed to train proper conduct or action; behavior in accordance with rules of conduct; and a set or system of rules and regulations. As seen in these definitions, discipline is about teaching students how to behave appropriately in different situations. It is not punishment, although punishment is one possible way of disciplining students.

What Are Some Popular Behavior Management Models Used in Schools?

With the changing attitudes toward the use of punishment-based disciplinary procedures, schools have looked for alternative models of student discipline. These models were and are aimed at developing and maintaining appropriate student behavior. The authors of these models try to describe why they work. Unfortunately, many of them have overlooked some important fundamentals; that is, they ignore the effects on students and fail to use scientific, functionally based definitions in their models. Following are brief descriptions of some of the various behavior management models used in schools. Table 1.1 provides a sample of the most commonly used models.

Table 1.1 Sample of Models Used in Schools

Model	Key Aspects
Assertive Discipline	<p>Teachers have the right to determine the environmental structure, rules, and routines that will facilitate learning.</p> <p>Teachers have the right to insist that students conform to their standards.</p> <p>Teachers should prepare a discipline plan in advance, including statements of their expectations, rules, and routines and the type of discipline method to be used if and when students misbehave.</p> <p>Students do not have the right to interfere with others' learning.</p> <p>When students do not behave in a manner consistent with teacher expectations, teachers can respond in one of three ways: nonassertively by surrendering to their students, hostilely by showing anger, or assertively by calmly insisting and assuming that students will fulfill these expectations.</p> <p>Students choose to misbehave, and teachers should not accept their excuses for such misbehavior.</p> <p>Teachers should use positive and negative consequences to convince students that it is to their benefit to behave appropriately.</p> <p>Teachers should not feel bad if forced to use harshly negative consequences when necessary because students want teachers to help them control themselves.</p> <p>Teachers have the right to ask for help from parents and school administrators when handling student misbehavior.</p>
Logical Consequences	<p>Inappropriate behavior is motivated by unconscious needs, e.g., to gain attention, exercise power, exact revenge, or display inadequacy.</p> <p>If the motive for attention is satisfied, inappropriate behavior associated with other motives will not be manifested.</p> <p>Students can learn to understand their own motives and eliminate misbehavior by having teachers help them explore why they behave as they do.</p>

Model	Key Aspects
	<p>Presenting students with a choice offers a sufficient basis on which they can learn to be responsible.</p> <p>Students react to life based on their birth order.</p> <p>We learn through our interaction with our environment. Within this interaction, our behaviors are exposed to natural, arbitrary, and logical consequences.</p> <p>Natural consequences are usually the most effective form of negative consequences.</p> <p>If we cannot rely on natural consequences under all circumstances, we can use arbitrary or logical consequences.</p> <p>When teachers have the option of using arbitrary or logical consequences, logical consequences should be chosen because students behave more appropriately when they suffer the logical consequences for their misbehavior.</p>
Reality Therapy	<p>Students are self-regulating and can learn to manage their own behavior.</p> <p>Students learn responsible behavior by examining a full range of consequences for their behavior and by making value judgments about their behavior and its consequences.</p> <p>Student behavior consists of an effort to satisfy personal needs for survival, belonging and love, power, freedom, and fun.</p> <p>Students have a unique way of satisfying their own needs.</p> <p>Students cannot be forced to change what they believe about how best to satisfy their needs.</p> <p>There must be a warm, supportive classroom environment where students can complete quality work and feel good about themselves.</p> <p>Students should be asked to do only useful work, to do the best they can, and to evaluate their own work to improve upon it.</p> <p>Rules should be developed in the classroom.</p> <p>Teachers should establish a level of mutual respect with the students.</p> <p>Coercion should never be used in schools to control student behavior. If coercion is used, mistrust will prevail.</p>
Love and Logic	<p>Each student's self-concept is always a prime consideration.</p> <p>Students should always be left feeling as if they have some control.</p> <p>An equal balance of consequences and empathy should replace punishment whenever possible.</p> <p>Students should be required to do more thinking than the adults do.</p> <p>There are three types of teaching and parenting styles: helicopters, drill sergeants, and consultants.</p> <p>Teachers should focus on being consultants to their students.</p> <p>Adults should set firm limits in loving ways without anger, lectures, or threats.</p> <p>When students cause a problem, teachers should hand it back in loving ways.</p>

(Continued)

Table 1.1 (Continued)

Model	Key Aspects
Ginott	<p>Student behavior can be improved if teachers interact with students more effectively, treating them with understanding, kindness, and respect.</p> <p>Positive communication by teachers improves the self-concept of students, which produces better classroom discipline.</p> <p>Congruent communication should be used because students cannot think right if they do not feel right.</p> <p>Students can learn to be responsible and autonomous.</p> <p>Accepting and clarifying the feelings of students will improve their classroom behavior.</p> <p>The improper use of praise encourages student dependency on teachers.</p> <p>Punishment encourages student misconduct.</p> <p>Insulting students causes them to rebel.</p> <p>Promoting cooperation increases good discipline.</p> <p>Teachers can improve their relationships with students by ending their language of rejection and using a language of acceptance, inviting students to cooperate rather than demanding that a behavior occur, providing acceptance and acknowledgment for student behavior, conferring dignity upon the students, expressing anger with “I messages” versus “you messages,” using succinct language rather than overtalking, and providing appreciative praise that describes student behavior rather than ability.</p> <p>Teachers need to model self-discipline to show their students how to deal with problems.</p>
Kounin	<p>Negative or positive moves by teachers toward students radiate out (the ripple effect) and influence others.</p> <p>Students need to be controlled by their teachers.</p> <p>Control can be improved by increasing the clarity and firmness of desists (i.e., remarks intended to stop misbehavior).</p> <p>Teachers can improve control by displaying “withitness” (i.e., being aware of what is going on around them).</p> <p>Teachers should use “momentum” by beginning lessons immediately after the start of class, keeping lessons moving with little downtime, bringing the lessons to a close, and making efficient transitions from one lesson to another.</p> <p>Teachers should achieve “smoothness” in a lesson by removing undue interference or changes that disrupt the students.</p> <p>Teachers can use group alerting by gaining students’ attention to inform them of what is expected.</p> <p>Students should be made active learners by asking them to answer questions, to demonstrate concepts, or to explain how something is done.</p> <p>Teachers can control or have an influence over several activities at once by using “overlapping.”</p> <p>Students are more successful when teachers make lessons interesting, avoiding “satiation” (i.e., when students are bored or frustrated, they tend to become less than interested in a topic). Lessons and seatwork should be enjoyable yet challenging.</p>

Model	Key Aspects
	When students have been appropriately identified as problem students and when the teachers' moves are properly timed, greater control of student behavior is possible.
Jones	<p>Children need to be controlled to behave properly.</p> <p>Teachers can achieve control through nonverbal cues and movements calculated to bring them physically closer and closer to the students.</p> <p>Parents and administrators can be used to gain control over student behaviors.</p> <p>Teachers should demonstrate skill clusters including body language and easy-to-implement group-based incentive systems that are tied to academic content using "Grandma's rule."</p> <p>Student seating should be organized so that students are easy to reach.</p> <p>Teachers should use graphic reminders that provide examples and instructions, quickly praise students for doing something correctly, and give straightforward suggestions that will get students going and leaving immediately.</p> <p>Teachers should utilize good classroom structure, limit setting, responsibility training, and backup systems.</p>
Character Education	<p>Character education promotes core ethical and performance values.</p> <p>Students learn to understand, care about, and act upon these core ethical and performance values.</p> <p>Programs should encompass all aspects of the school culture.</p> <p>Teachers should foster a caring school community.</p> <p>Students should be given opportunities for moral action.</p> <p>Character education supports academic achievement.</p> <p>Programs focus on the intrinsic motivation of students.</p> <p>Whole-staff involvement is key.</p> <p>Positive leadership of staff and students is essential.</p> <p>Parents and community members should be involved.</p> <p>Results are assessed and improvements are made.</p>

Assertive Discipline

Canter and colleagues developed the assertive discipline model, originally based on nine major aspects (shown in Table 1.1). As seen in the table, discipline rests on how the teacher responds to misbehavior. It is up to the teacher to keep students in line during class. Canter and colleagues have modified assertive discipline over the years (Charles, 1996; Malmgren, Trezek, & Paul, 2005). Originally, Canter tried to get teachers to be strong leaders in the classroom. Therefore, his focus was on getting and keeping teachers in charge. In more recent times, however, Canter emphasizes the importance of focusing

on student needs by talking with students more and teaching them how to behave appropriately. Therefore, Canter modified his model to make it more focused on positive discipline methods than on the use of force and coercion.

Canter and Canter (1992) describe the following five steps of assertive discipline. First, teachers must acknowledge that they can and do affect student behavior. Second, teachers must learn to display an assertive response style, which is the most effective style they can have. Third, teachers must make a discipline plan that contains good rules and clear, effective consequences. Fourth, teachers must provide student instruction on the discipline plan. Finally, teachers should instruct students on how to behave responsibly.

Malmgren et al. (2005) summarized the four main components of the model. First, teachers should develop a set of rules for the classroom. Second, teachers should determine a set of positive consequences for following the rules. Third, teachers should establish a set of negative consequences for not following the rules. Finally, teachers should implement the model with the students.

Even after being taught the discipline plan, however, some students will continue to misbehave. Three approaches are used to work with these difficult students. First, a one-on-one problem-solving conference is scheduled at which the student and the teacher try to gain insight into the student's behavior. The purpose is not to punish the student but to provide guidance. Second, a relationship is built from the use of positive support. The teacher should show the student that he or she cares about the student as a person and should make an attempt to get to know the student on a more personal basis. The student must feel that the teacher truly cares about him or her. Finally, an individualized behavior plan should be developed that is more specialized to the student's individual needs compared with the needs of the other students.

Analysis. Assertive discipline is based on the assumptions that teachers are the leaders of the classroom and that they should use punishment to bring control to the classroom, if needed. A major positive aspect of assertive discipline is the concept that student behavior in a classroom results from what teachers do in the classroom. Also, Canter has attempted to add more proactive methods of preventing management problems through teaching students about rules and expectations. Unfortunately, assertive discipline has several major weaknesses. An operational definition of punishment (see Chapter 2) is not used. Punishment is assumed to be in effect with Assertive Discipline. Second, there is inadequate research to suggest the approach works. Much of the reported data on assertive discipline includes teacher testimonials or perceptions (e.g., Wood, Hodges, & Aljunied, 1996) or poor research (Nicholls & Houghton, 1995; Swinson & Cording, 2002). Although testimonials are important to consider, other important data sources are missing, and many questions remain unanswered. Does assertive discipline result in a decrease in the level of student misbehavior in the classroom as measured by direct observation? Does assertive discipline result in a decrease in the level of office referrals? A third problem is the reliance on threats, warnings, and a discipline hierarchy. Research evidence suggests threats and warnings tend to escalate problem behaviors in the classroom (Nelson, 1996b). When teachers use threats and warnings, students are more likely to become aggressive than when threats and

warnings are not used. Finally, Canter misuses the term *consequence* to suggest it refers only to punishment. A consequence is anything that occurs, such as a reinforcer or punisher, after a behavior occurs.

Assertive discipline seems to be a behavior reduction method that can work under certain circumstances. Unfortunately, if assertive discipline does work to suppress unwanted behavior, it does so in a manner that may well make the long-term problem of disruptive behavior worse. The use of threats and warnings along with a lack of reinforcement for appropriate behavior may seriously compromise the efficacy of this approach.

Logical Consequences

Dreikurs (1968) developed the logical consequences model, built on the belief that we learn through our interactions with the environment. Within this interaction, behaviors are exposed to three types of negative consequences: natural, arbitrary, and logical (Clarizio, 1986). Table 1.1 lists several major aspects of logical consequences. (See Dreikurs, Cassel, & Ferguson, 2004, for an expanded discussion of these concepts.) It is important to point out that teachers using logical consequences should attempt to prevent behavior issues by avoiding power struggles with students (Malmgren et al., 2005).

Natural consequences are those consequences that normally occur without any teacher intervention when we engage in some type of behavior. These are usually the most effective form of negative consequence for stopping unwanted behavior. A natural consequence of fighting is to get hurt. A natural consequence of lying is that no one believes the liar. A natural consequence of calling others names is to be ignored by peers. A problem with natural consequences is that they may be either too minor to have an effect, such as if a student breaks a toy when other toys are available, or they are not allowed to occur, such as when we prevent someone from being beaten up when a fight starts.

If we cannot rely on natural consequences under all circumstances, we have a choice as educators as to the type of consequences we can use; we can choose either arbitrary consequences or logical ones. **Arbitrary consequences** are those consequences that are not aligned with the offense. An arbitrary consequence for fighting is to send the student to the principal's office. An arbitrary consequence for a student who lies is that the student loses computer time. An arbitrary consequence for calling others names is to send the student to time out. For those behaviors that do not have natural consequences, arbitrary consequences can be applied, and these could involve sending a student to in-school suspension for a temper tantrum or taking away free time for drawing on a desk.

The second option is for teachers to use **logical consequences** rather than arbitrary consequences. Logical consequences are connected in some manner to the offense. A logical consequence for fighting during recess is to prevent the student from going to recess for a week. A logical consequence for a student who lies is for the teacher to tell the student he or she is not believable. For temper tantrums, a logical

consequence is to remove the student from class until he or she calms down. When teachers have the option of using either arbitrary or logical consequences, logical consequences should be chosen.

Analysis. The basic assumption made in the logical consequences model might be correct: the motivation for classroom behavior might be to attract attention. Many students are motivated by gaining attention from teachers or peers. Whether this motivation is conscious or unconscious, however, is difficult to demonstrate. It seems adequate to determine if the motivation is or is not attention. Unfortunately, other motivational areas (e.g., exercising power, exacting revenge, or displaying inadequacy) are all inferences that cannot be substantiated through direct observation. In other words, to suggest that students are misbehaving in a classroom because they are attempting to exercise power is based on what the students are receiving in return for the behavior (e.g., to gain a tangible item). This return for the behavior is then inferred to be what motivated the behavior, and students are said to have a need for power. The major difficulty with this line of thought is that the focus is on the student as the cause of the behavior rather than on what the teachers do in response to student behavior.

The assumption that students behave more appropriately when they suffer logical consequences is also problematic. Although it is true that if logical consequences are effective the unwanted behavior will be less likely to continue, this does not mean that appropriate behavior will follow. What is needed, then, are logical consequences for appropriate behavior as well.

Another difficulty is that proponents of the logical consequences model equate arbitrary consequences with punishment. Logical consequences, however, can also function as punishment. In addition, what is an arbitrary consequence in one instance (e.g., sending the student to a part of the room away from peers for work refusal) may be a logical consequence in another context (e.g., sending the student away from peers for hitting another student). Therefore, what makes something an arbitrary or logical consequence is not the consequence in and of itself but the context in which it is presented. In other words, arbitrary and logical consequences can be the same things. Both types of consequences are provided to eliminate the behavior; thus, they are both meant to be punishers. Unfortunately, logical consequences may not be severe enough to overcome the reinforcement of the student's actions.

Two of the model's precepts are adequate: that students can learn to understand their own motives and that they should be provided with choices. Teaching students to determine why they emit certain behaviors is an important skill. Also, providing a choice of activities to students has been shown to increase the likelihood students will complete the chosen activity (Dunlap et al., 1994; Vaughn & Horner, 1997). Thus, allowing student choice should be part of a management program implemented in a classroom.

The logical consequences model can be an effective method of behavior management if implemented without the inferences of various motivations. The research base for this model, however, is limited (Grossman, 1995). Therefore, before the logical consequences model is used, we should make sure the approach has been determined to be effective through research.

Reality Therapy

Glasser (1965) developed control theory. Glasser's basic premise was that students are in control of their own behavior and choose whether to behave appropriately or not (Strahan, Cope, Hundley, & Faircloth, 2005). Classroom management should be designed to help students make better choices. Activities such as class meetings conducted weekly or more often can provide students feedback on how their behavior affects others. In addition, these meetings give students a variety of ideas about how to improve behavior in the future and provide support from peers to make behavior changes. Consequences for unwanted behaviors may or may not be used with students. The key to this approach is getting students to realize how their choices of behavior affect others. The term *control theory* was changed to *choice theory*. **Choice theory** is the underpinning foundation of reality therapy (Lawrence, 2004).

There are several key aspects that set the foundation for the **reality therapy** model, as shown in Table 1.1; essentially, students are motivated by five needs. First, students are motivated by the need for survival, which involves the need for food, shelter, and freedom from harm. Teachers can aid students in the satisfaction of this need by helping them feel safe in the classroom and by not using coercion to try to control behavior. Second, students have a need for belonging and love. Teachers can aid in fulfilling this need by creating a classroom environment in which students work together on meaningful activities, are included in class discussions, and receive attention from the teacher and others. Third, students have a need for freedom. Teachers should allow students to make choices regarding what they will study, how they will study it, and how they will demonstrate their execution. Fourth, students have a need for fun. Teachers should involve students in interesting activities and allow them to share their accomplishments with other students. Finally, students have a need for power. Teachers can help students meet their need for power by giving them responsibilities.

A key to reality therapy is the establishment of mutual respect between the teacher and student. This respect is achieved through the following positive teacher responses to students: supporting, encouraging, listening, accepting, trusting, respecting, and negotiating. Teachers should avoid interacting with students in the following ways: criticizing, blaming, complaining, nagging, threatening, punishing, and bribing. One way of improving the teacher-student relationship is for teachers to assist students in evaluating their feelings and behavior through nonjudgmental classroom meetings (Marandola & Imber, 1979).

Analysis. Glasser's reality therapy model has a number of positive attributes. For example, getting students involved in developing classroom procedures is positive. Also, who would not agree that making learning fun and exciting is an admirable goal? Glasser has also contributed to the overall change in behavior management perspectives that students' behaviors are affected by what teachers do in the classroom and that management methods should be positively based (e.g., encouraging, listening, respecting) rather than coercive (e.g., criticizing, threatening, punishing).

The basic premise that students are motivated by an effort to satisfy needs for love, power, freedom, and fun is difficult to substantiate, however. In other words, these things

are inferences based on what we see students doing. For example, if a student is attempting to gain attention from the teacher, we may be tempted to infer the student is seeking love. Likewise, if a student refuses to follow a teacher's instructions, we may be tempted to infer the student is seeking power. These inferences, however, are based on what the student is doing and what the student receives in exchange for the behavior. Therefore, the inferences are not necessarily correct. We can simply stop at the point of saying the student receives attention for the behavior or the student is able to get out of a task when she refuses to complete a task. Also, assuming students choose their behavior in the way Glasser suggests puts the focus of responsibility on the students. Students do not have free choice in the classroom because the teacher sets up limits to behavior. Therefore, any choices students make are largely dependent on what the teachers do in the classroom. The focus, then, should be on what the teachers do that affects student behavior. Further, Glasser explains student motivation as coming from inside while also saying teachers can set up the environment to improve motivation by meeting the needs of the students. If teachers can help meet student needs, the control does not come from within the students but, ultimately, from what the teachers do, which is external. Therefore, Glasser's model is inconsistent with its basic premise of motivation and of what teachers can do to affect this motivation. A final problem with Glasser's model is the paucity of research documenting its effectiveness, which is especially troubling because a relationship between cause (i.e., satisfying needs) and effect (i.e., improved student behavior) cannot be demonstrated. This relationship cannot be shown because internal needs (a) are not directly observable and (b) cannot be directly controlled or manipulated.

Love and Logic

Fay (1981), at the Cline-Fay Institute, developed the love and logic model, which rests on several key aspects (see Table 1.1). Among these are the teaching and parenting styles the model outlines. According to Fay (1981), there are three types of teaching and parenting styles: helicopters, drill sergeants, and consultants. Helicopters tend to hover over students to rescue them from the hostile world. These teachers make excuses for students, take on the responsibilities of students, make decisions for students, and use guilt to get students to behave in a certain manner. Drill sergeants command students and direct their lives. These teachers tell students how they should feel and handle responsibility. They have many demands and provide absolutes. They also provide threats and orders and use punishment, including the infliction of pain and humiliation. Consultants provide guidance and consultant services for students. These individuals provide messages of self-worth and strength, share personal feelings about something, provide and help students explore alternatives, and then allow students to make their own decisions. These teachers aid students in experiencing natural consequences for their actions and in exploring solutions to problems. Clearly, teachers should focus on being consultants to their students.

When students are resistant to teacher guidance, several things should be attempted. For resistant behavior, teachers should catch students doing something good, interpret

the resistant behavior, try to understand why the students are doing it, and provide qualified positive regard by telling students what the teachers liked. When students are disruptive, the teachers should ignore the behavior, catch it early before it escalates, talk it over with students, and, if needed, isolate misbehaving students from others. Praise should be used, but it should be specific, directed toward the task, and given sparingly.

The above consequences are frequently immediate and have problems in that teachers may provide these consequences when angry, use threats, have no time to plan the most appropriate consequence, and lack empathy. Alternatively, anticipatory consequences are more desirable. These consequences allow teachers time to determine the most appropriate response to an unwanted behavior. For example, if a student acts inappropriately, the teacher may tell the student that he or she will have to do something about the student's behavior but at a later time. The student is told to try not to worry about the future consequence. The words the teacher uses, such as "try not to worry about the consequence," will become conditioned as an anticipatory consequence itself.

Analysis. Being concerned with how students feel about themselves is an important role of teachers. Also, decreasing the use of punishment is an important goal for all educators. Leading students through a problem-solving process can be an effective means of changing student behavior, and providing choices to students can aid in their development as responsible individuals. The avoidance of threats and warnings and holding students accountable are positive aspects of the model as well. Also, catching the behavior early is an effective technique.

The model provides no systematic method of determining why students do what they do, though. It is not always true that, if students feel loved and are provided with choices, they will become more responsible. At times, catching students being good and ignoring unwanted behavior is not enough. Teachers need more guidelines to prevent and respond to unwanted behavior. Talking it over with students can be a positive technique, yet *when* the talking occurs is important. Talking it out immediately after the behavior occurs may make the problem worse over the long run (Sulzer-Azaroff & Mayer, 1991). In addition, isolating students for disruptions is a punishment technique and should be acknowledged as such.

Overall, the love and logic model has many positive features. Unfortunately, it provides many poorly defined procedures. Also, research demonstrating the overall effectiveness of the model is lacking, possibly due to the problem of not having precisely defined procedures and techniques.

Ginott

Ginott (1971) developed this model; Table 1.1 shows its key aspects. Ginott believes teachers are the essential element in classroom management and that effective alternatives to punishment should be found because students learn from how teachers respond to problems. Therefore, teachers who show self-discipline are able to show their students (even those who misbehave) how to deal with problem situations. According to Ginott, teachers with a lack of self-discipline lose their tempers, call students names,

insult students, behave rudely, overreact, show cruelty, punish everyone for another's actions, threaten, give long lectures, back students into a corner, and make arbitrary rules without student input. Teachers who show self-discipline are those who recognize student feelings; describe the situation; invite cooperation; are brief; do not argue with students; model appropriate behavior; discourage physical violence; do not criticize, call names, or insult students; focus on solutions; allow face-saving exits for students; allow students to help set standards; are helpful; and de-escalate conflict.

Analysis. The use of cooperation is a positive aspect of this model; another is being concerned with how students feel themselves. Also, all teachers should adhere to avoiding the use of blame, shame, insults, and intimidation. Anything teachers can do to make the learning environment more pleasant should be done. Students function more favorably in a classroom where positive disciplinary methods, rather than punishment procedures, are used. Punishment procedures can, as Ginott observes, result in negative side effects, leaving students and the classroom worse off. Therefore, Ginott's stance on the use of positive procedures is important for teachers to follow.

The assumption that a better self-concept improves classroom behavior and performance by itself, however, has not been supported by past research (Scheirer & Kraut, 1979; Sulzer-Azaroff & Mayer, 1991). In fact, data obtained by Seligman (1995) indicate that many individuals with higher than normal levels of self-esteem have higher levels of disruptive behavior than those with lower levels of self-esteem. In addition, although Ginott does not preclude the use of praise in the classroom, his model tends to assume that praise can lead to student dependency. But praise is positive if that praise is used judiciously and made specific. Also, stating that punishment encourages misconduct is an indication that a technical definition of punishment (see Chapter 2) is not being used. Another problem is that, although many of the procedures used in this model are considered to be good practice (e.g., congruent messages, allowing choices), there is no mechanism built in for those students who continue to misbehave, nor is there any assessment to determine why students misbehave. Finally, there is a lack of research validating this approach.

Kounin

Kounin (1970) developed the Kounin model based on early intervention research of effective management skills (e.g., Kounin, Friesen, & Norton, 1966; Kounin & Gump, 1958; Kounin & Obradovic, 1968); this model has several key aspects shown in Table 1.1. To achieve meaningful behavior change, the Kounin model suggests using 10 concepts in the classroom: (a) the ripple effect, (b) withitness, (c) momentum, (d) smoothness, (e) group alerting, (f) student accountability, (g) overlapping, (h) the avoidance of satiation, (i) valence and challenge arousal, and (j) seatwork variety and challenge. The **ripple effect** is the tendency for primary-aged students to react to teachers' actions when those actions are aimed at other students. **Withitness** is being aware of what is going on in the classroom. **Momentum** is beginning lessons immediately after the start of class, keeping lessons moving ahead with little downtime, bringing lessons to a close, and making

efficient transitions from one lesson to another. **Smoothness** is being able to conduct a lesson without undue interference or changes that disrupt the students. **Group alerting** involves making sure students are paying attention and then providing them with specific instruction on what they are supposed to do at any one time. **Student accountability** involves keeping students involved in the lesson. **Overlapping** means that the teacher can control or have an influence over several activities that overlap. **Satiation** can be defined as the feeling students get when they are too full—so stuffed and replete with instruction that they have no more interest or desire to learn. So teachers should avoid satiation by trying to make learning interesting and students successful rather than bored or frustrated. **Valence and challenge arousal** refers to teachers showing enthusiasm and using a variety of activities when teaching students, so learners have a positive reaction to the lesson. Finally, **seatwork variety and challenge** refers to the idea that teachers should strive to make seatwork interesting to students.

Analysis. As indicated in Table 1.1, the model recommends the use of clear and firm desists. The recommendation is practical; the use of effective desists can stop behavior problems from continuing. The use of the Kounin model can be effective for low-level misbehavior. All teachers should learn how to use desists and withitness to control student behavior. There is a rich research history demonstrating the effectiveness of this model and components of the model (e.g., Arlin, 1979; Borg, 1977; Borg, Langer, & Wilson, 1975). In fact, Kounin's influence is seen in much of Chapters 5 and 6. The problem with the model, however, is that it is not complete. It does not suggest what to do with those students who continue to misbehave even for effective teachers. A comprehensive management system might involve components of the Kounin model but would also need many more components to be effective for the most difficult-to-manage students.

Jones

Jones (1987) developed the Jones model, which rests on the key aspects shown in Table 1.1. Teachers must learn two major skill clusters. First, Jones indicates that 90% of effective discipline involves body language. Therefore, teachers should do the following: make eye contact, move close to the student (physical proximity), stand straight (body carriage), display appropriate facial expressions, and use gestures such as palm out to indicate to students to stop or thumbs up to indicate pleasure with their behavior. Second, teachers should use group-based “genuine incentive” systems such as watching films or having free time to pursue personal interests, and they should institute “Grandma’s rule” (see Chapter 5)—the provision of incentives to finish assignments, so students earn something they want. These incentives should be easy to implement and be group based (see Chapter 7 for a description of group-oriented management programs). A key to this model is approaching student behavior in a calm and controlled fashion.

Teachers following the Jones model try to minimize teacher interventions by organizing the classroom, including seating arrangements and rules and routines (see Chapter 7) and using graphic reminders that provide students with examples and instructions, and they also leave students to their work by moving on quickly after praising a student for doing

something correctly or giving straightforward suggestions that will get a student on task. Teachers can also use a **preferred activity time (PAT)** procedure that involves allowing students access to those things they enjoy but that are an extension of the academic content. For example, painting murals related to a unit on the *Mayflower* landing or developing plays based on historical events could be preferred activities. Teachers should predetermine a reward that can be given to the whole class. Students retain this preferred activity time with responsible behavior and earn it at the end of the predetermined time interval (e.g., at the end of the week). If a student misbehaves, teachers start a timer and subtract the length of time the student was off task from the total PAT.

Jones indicates that backup systems are needed when students continue to test the teacher. If all else fails, a teacher should use warnings, remembering to be relaxed and to maintain eye contact when talking. If warnings do not work, the teacher can “pull a card.” Card pulling involves taking an index card out of a file box so that it is in plain view of the student. The card has the parent’s phone number on it. If this method does not work, the teacher uses the “letter home on desk technique.” This technique involves writing a letter home to the parents. The teacher then walks back to the student and tells her that the letter will be sent if she repeats the misbehavior within one week. The letter is taped to the student’s or teacher’s desk in plain view. The teacher allows the student to tear up the letter after the week is over if the misbehavior is not exhibited.

Analysis. The Jones model shows that preventive measures can be used in behavior management. Certainly, body language is important when attempting to communicate with students. In addition, approaching discipline in a calm manner is supported by research in behavior management. Also, the use of incentives as outlined by Jones is an effective method of reinforcing student behavior.

The PAT system, however, is an example of a punishment-based token economy system (see Chapter 5 for token systems). When teachers use an incentive system such as a token economy, the process should be one of earning the incentives rather than of working to avoid losing the incentives. The PAT system, however, is a response cost system (see Chapter 12), which is a punishment-based system. The PAT system functions by motivating students to behave appropriately to avoid the loss of time from the total time provided at the beginning. A more positive system is to motivate students to behave appropriately to earn the time: the better students are, the more time they earn.

Along these lines, the Jones model is limited in that it relies on threats and warnings when students continue to misbehave. The use of cards and letters is an attempt to get students to behave to avoid these things. Research has shown threats and warnings tend to make behavior problems escalate and get worse (Nelson, 1996b). It is in the best interests of teachers and students to avoid such aversive techniques. A final problem with the Jones model: it lacks research validation.

Character Education

Although character education is more of a philosophical approach to improving student behavior as opposed to a single model, we will discuss it here. (Key aspects of character

education, taken from the Character Education Partnership [2010], are presented in Table 1.1.) Character education “is a fairly new and rapidly evolving topic for curriculum interventions. It is also broad, often overlapping with other program areas” (What Works Clearinghouse [WWC], 2007a, p. 1). **Character education** often includes focused work on teaching students respect, being fair and trustworthy, caring for others, being responsible, and being a better citizen.

WWC examined 93 studies of 41 programs in their 2007 review of character education programs. Of these 93 studies, only 18 met the WWC evidence standards. These 18 studies represented 13 programs. These programs included *Building Decision Skills*, *Caring School Community*, *Connect with Kids*, *Facing History and Ourselves*, *Heartwood Ethics Curriculum*, *Lessons in Character*, *Positive Action*, *Skills for Action*, *Skills for Adolescence*, *Too Good for Drugs*, *Too Good for Drugs and Violence*, *Too Good for Violence*, and *Voices Literature and Character Education*. Only two of these programs (i.e., *Positive Action* and *Caring School Community*) had enough evidence (i.e., more than one study, more than one school, and at least 350 students) to receive a rating of medium to large in the behavior category. Both of these character education programs will be discussed below.

Positive Action. WWC rated the *Positive Action* program as having positive effects on behavior. The program had the highest effectiveness rating of any program. The *Positive Action* program is a comprehensive program designed to prevent negative behavioral problems (e.g., substance abuse and office referrals) and develop positive behaviors (Beets et al., 2008). The focus of the program is on attributions (e.g., self-concept) and social relationships such as treating others with respect and kindness. “The program is based on the philosophy that you feel good about yourself when you think and do positive actions, and there is always a positive way to do everything” (WWC, 2007c, p. 1). It is a K–12 program designed to promote better school behavior and academic achievement. It includes six units with an additional seventh review unit (Flay & Allred, 2003; Flay, Allred, & Ordway, 2001; Ji et al., 2005).

Unit 1 focuses on self-concept. Unit 2 examines positive actions for body (physical) and mind (intellectual). In Unit 3, students learn positive social and emotional actions for managing themselves in a responsible manner. Unit 4 includes a focus on positive social and emotional actions for getting along with others. The focus in Unit 5 is on positive social and emotional actions for being honest about yourself and others. Finally, Unit 6 involves goal setting with a focus on social and emotional actions for improving oneself on a continual basis. These units are covered in an age-appropriate manner across three levels: K–6, middle school, and high school.

In addition to positive effects for behavior, *Positive Action* also received the highest rating (positive effect) by the WWC for academic achievement. There were no effects listed for knowledge, attitudes, and values.

Caring School Community. The *Caring School Community* (CSC) program (a modified version of the *Child Development Project*) was determined by WWC to have potentially positive effects for behavior. The overall goal of the program is to help schools

become caring communities of learners (Battistich, Schaps, Watson, & Solomon, 1996; Solomon, Battistich, Watson, Schaps, & Lewis, 2000; Watson, Battistich, & Solomon, 1997) and to prevent problems at school (Battistich, Schaps, Watson, Solomon, & Lewis, 2000). It is a comprehensive school improvement program for elementary-age (K–6) students (Munoz & Vanderhaar, 2006). The program includes four parts: class-meeting lessons, cross-age “buddies” programs, “homeside” activities, and schoolwide community (WWC, 2007b). Class-meeting lessons involve focused instruction on core values such as fairness and personal responsibility. In class-meeting lessons, students get to know one another, talk about key issues, identify and solve problems collaboratively, and make important decisions. Cross-age “buddies” pair older and younger students to build caring relationships. The goal is to create trust among students through focused academic and recreational activities. Parents are involved in homeside activities during which students complete short conversations with their parents and then discuss them in the classroom. Finally, schoolwide community activities bring parents, students, and school staff together to build trust and a feeling of belongingness. Despite the potentially positive effects for behavior, no discernible effects for knowledge, attitudes, values, or academic achievement were noted by WWC.

Analysis. School reform models are emerging as an attempt to address the varied needs of students in Grades K–12. Character education appears to hold promise in the improvement of student behavior and academic achievement. A beneficial aspect of character education is the focus on learning to interact with others in a positive manner. The two programs described above are prevention based and are implemented across grade levels. Character education also focuses on behavior as well as on academic performance.

Unfortunately, much of the theory surrounding the programs is based on constructivist philosophy. Intrinsic motivation is emphasized along with self-esteem building. The scientific research on these approaches is limited at best. These programs also do not target those students who are the most difficult to manage and teach. Although character education is targeted to all students, a primary concern is with those students who cause the majority of our management problems. Additionally, when a model internalizes causal variables, as character education does, it is not possible to state the cause-and-effect relationship between program components and results. For example, if *Positive Action* leads to better self-concept and school behavior, it is not possible to state with confidence that the improved school behavior resulted from improvements in student self-concept. Just as possibly, “self-concept” improved as a result of better school behavior, or they simply both improved together without one affecting the other. We view “self-concept” as a set of behaviors (albeit internal ones), not as a *cause* of behaviors.

Finally, a significant issue with character education is the limited amount of research support it has garnered. Based on the 2007 WWC review, many programs are considered promising. Unfortunately, only two of the 41 programs (*Positive Action* and *Caring School Community*) had enough evidence to receive a rating of medium to large in the behavior category. Only one of the programs (*Positive Action*) was shown to have

positive effects for behavior *and* academic achievement. Clearly, more research is needed before we can confidently say that character education as a whole is effective for improving the school climate.

Conclusion

The aforementioned models all have positive attributes. Some aspects of these models, such as getting students involved in behavior management programs and treating students with respect, can and should be used by teachers. Any model that aids students in becoming more self-sufficient should be strongly considered. For behavior management approaches to be successful, however, they must be well defined and able to be replicated. Also, teachers should be able to explain not only why a management method worked but also why it failed to determine what the next step should be in solving the management problem. This explanation requires a consistent manner of viewing and interpreting the outcomes of different approaches.

Unfortunately, many of the described models do not have a solid research base on which to make these explanations. In addition, an adequate behavior management model must have built-in assessment and evaluation techniques to determine what management procedures are most appropriate and whether the procedures are indeed working. Several of the aforementioned models do not include these systematic assessment and evaluation techniques.

These models do have one thing in common: they all rest on some form of consequence for misbehavior, although many argue against external control. Whenever we praise a positive behavior or use consequences for an unwanted behavior, the consequences come from the environment. To suggest that one model is superior to another because it does not use external control methods is simply incorrect. Along these lines, some professionals make a distinction between encouragement and praise (Dreikurs et al., 2004) in a “democratic classroom.” However, the distinction between encouragement and praise is an artificial one and does not aid in the management of unwanted behavior. The issue is not one of encouragement versus praise but one of effective versus ineffective feedback. According to Hattie and Timperley (2007), feedback is an important variable that affects learning and achievement. However, Hattie and Timperley suggest feedback is more effective when it provides information on correct responses and improvement from previous attempts than when it provides information on incorrect responses. One form of feedback is praise. We will discuss the effective use of praise in Chapter 8. Once it is agreed that all management methods use some form of external control, it must be determined which method works the best. This analysis is what is missing from some of these models. Few of the models set out to determine systematically which external management method (a) works best for each student and (b) has the fewest negative side effects. The approach discussed in this book attempts to do just that—to determine which method works best for each student and the possible side effects of the methods.

Other problems with the aforementioned methods are the claims many of them make that students are free to choose their behavior and that the facilitation of this

choice is critical in their development. Choices, however, are always limited. In fact, to affect their students' behaviors, teachers rely on a lack of *free* choice. If students had free choice, nothing teachers did would affect student behavior. Teachers are constantly attempting methods of directing the choice of students. Therefore, we must admit we are attempting to influence student behavior and thus take steps to do so in an appropriate manner. To suggest students should be allowed to take control over their behavior by having teachers allow them to choose their behavior and suffer or take responsibility for their actions is false and misleading.

Another area of concern with the aforementioned models is the paucity of scientific support each has. Ultimately, teachers must consider whether the model works. What should determine the form of disciplinary approach they use in the classroom is the research supporting the effectiveness of its procedures. Anyone can claim that his or her model or method is effective, and most do. It is far different to demonstrate over time that it actually leads to meaningful behavior change. Therefore, teachers must determine what has been shown in the research literature to work in the classroom. A major weakness of many of these approaches is that systematic observation and behavior-tracking methods are not built into the models. To implement a behavior management procedure effectively, we have not only to execute the procedure but also to establish formative measures to track its effectiveness.

Finally, many of the models assume that the causal variables of behavior change reside within the student. Unfortunately, there can be no direct demonstration of mental processes such as self-concept causing changes in overt behavior. Any claims to this effect are simply inferences made by the researcher. An adequate management model must demonstrate directly the causal variables in effect.

Although there are many issues with the aforementioned models, they are not all bad. They possess several positive attributes. Many of the positive attributes described in the models above will be expanded on in this textbook. The remainder of this chapter will describe approaches that the scientific research literature has shown to be effective in managing behavior.

What Are Best Practices in Behavior Management?

In a sense, the most important question we should ask regarding improving student behavior and academic performance is this: Does the model or procedure we implement actually work? Fortunately, there are large-scale evaluations on best practices for elementary-level and secondary-level students. Considering all the models available for behavior and instruction, the one that produces the largest gains with students with behavior and learning difficulties is the behavioral model (see Burns & Ysseldyke, 2009, for important details on evidence-based practices for working with students with behavior and learning issues).

Further, Epstein, Atkins, Cullinan, Kutash, and Weaver (2008) offer five concrete recommendations to help teachers reduce common behavior problems in the classroom. The WWC evidence standards were used to rate the quality of the evidence

supporting these recommendations; ratings of moderate or strong were provided for each recommendation (see Table 1.2). First, teachers should identify the specifics of the problem behavior and the conditions that occur just prior to and after the behavior (rating = moderate evidence). Teachers should gather important information by observing students in the classroom. They should use the information they gather to develop effective and efficient intervention strategies tailored to individual student needs. Second, teachers should change the environment in such a way that problem behaviors decrease (rating = strong evidence). Environmental factors include academic expectations, behavioral expectations, the physical arrangement of the room, the class schedule, and learning activities. Third, teachers should actively teach social and behavioral skills to replace unwanted behaviors. While these skills are being acquired and afterward, teachers should reinforce these skills and maintain a positive classroom environment (rating = strong evidence). Fourth, teachers should include parents, other school personnel, and behavior specialists for support and guidance in the management of student behavior (rating = moderate evidence). Finally, teachers, along with other school personnel, should consider adopting a schoolwide approach to prevent and respond to student misbehavior and to increase positive social interactions among students and between students and school personnel (rating = moderate evidence). All these recommendations fit within a behavioral model (described below).

The Behavioral Model

The behavioral model used in this textbook is based on **applied behavior analysis (ABA)**. ABA is based on the understanding that the environment causes many of our behaviors to occur. Thus, the study of how the environment affects our behavior and how changing these environmental events will lead to behavior change is the focus of ABA. ABA has seven general characteristics (Cooper, Heron, & Heward, 2007). These seven characteristics include (a) applied (ABA is committed to improving people's lives by selecting behaviors that will lead to socially significant improvements); (b) behavioral (behavior to be changed is observable and measureable); (c) analytic (changes in observable and measureable behavior are demonstrated to be the result of changes in the environment); (d) technological (methods used to change behavior can be replicated by others); (e) conceptually systematic (procedures used for behavior change can be interpreted from the principles of behavior); (f) effective (behavior change must be shown to be socially significant); and (g) generalizable (behavior change should be shown to continue over time or in a new setting once the behavior program has been withdrawn).

To summarize, then, the behavioral model relies on an experimental analysis of environmental events to demonstrate a cause-and-effect relationship between environmental changes and behavior change. The behavior change should be seen by members of society as important and should occur in settings where the intervention did not occur (i.e., generalization) and over a period of time when the intervention is withdrawn (maintenance).

Table 1.2

Five Concrete Recommendations Noted by What Works Clearinghouse to Help Teachers Reduce Common Behavior Problems

1. Identify the specifics of the problem behavior and the conditions that prompt and reinforce it.

Concretely describe the behavior problem and its effects on learning.

Observe and record the frequency and context of the problem behavior.

Identify what prompts and reinforces the problem behavior.

2. Modify the classroom learning environment to decrease problem behavior.

Revisit, re-practice, and reinforce classroom behavioral expectations.

Modify the classroom environment to encourage instructional momentum.

Adapt or vary instructional strategies to increase opportunities for academic success and engagement.

3. Teach and reinforce new skills to increase appropriate behavior and preserve a positive classroom climate.

Identify where the student needs explicit instruction for appropriate behavior.

Teach skills by providing examples, practice, and feedback.

Manage consequences so that reinforcers are provided for appropriate behavior and withheld for inappropriate behavior.

4. Draw on relationships with professional colleagues and students' families for continued guidance and support.

Collaborate with other teachers for continued guidance and support.

Build collaborative partnerships with school, district, and community behavior experts who can consult with teachers when problems are serious enough to warrant help from outside the classroom.

Encourage parents and other family members to participate as active partners in teaching and reinforcing appropriate behavior.

5. Assess whether schoolwide behavior problems warrant adopting schoolwide strategies or programs, and, if so, implement ones shown to reduce negative and foster positive interactions.

Address schoolwide behavior issues by involving a school improvement team.

Collect information on the hot spots throughout the school—namely, the frequency of particular schoolwide behavior problems and when and where they occur.

Monitor implementation and outcomes using an efficient method of data collection and allow ample time for the program to work.

If warranted, adopt a packaged intervention program that fits well with identified behavior problems and the school context.

Misunderstandings of the Behavioral Model

Unfortunately, two major misconceptions prevent professionals from using some of the more effective behavior management procedures available today: intrinsic versus extrinsic rewards and the issue of control.

Extrinsic Versus Intrinsic Rewards. Several individuals have made statements indicating the use of extrinsic rewards or control procedures harms students. **Extrinsic rewards** are things given to a student such as praise, tokens, stickers, or candy. **Intrinsic rewards** are things that occur inside the individual such as pride, interest, and self-esteem. Interestingly, Deci and Ryan (1985) and Deci, Koestner, and Ryan (1999) have written that the use of extrinsic rewards tends to undermine intrinsic interest in subjects. In other words, when we reward students for reading, they may become less interested in reading for pleasure and will not read unless we give them something. Kohn (1993a, 1993b) has also discussed the negative effects of extrinsic rewards on the intrinsic motivation of children. There are, however, several difficulties with the conclusions of these authors. First, when Deci and colleagues and Kohn speak of rewards, they are not speaking of reinforcers. (The differences are discussed in Chapter 2.) Second, there is no agreed-on definition of an extrinsic reward. For example, is praise from a teacher extrinsic? What about discussing what a student has learned after that student has finished reading a book? Essentially, we can define virtually anything that goes on in the classroom environment as extrinsic. Third, the critics do not distinguish between behaviors that are reinforced on a continuous basis and those that are reinforced intermittently. In other words, if we see a behavior occur in the absence of an extrinsic reinforcer, is the behavior occurring due to intrinsic interest, or have we simply not seen the extrinsic reinforcer take place? (Schedules of reinforcement are discussed in Chapter 2.) Fourth, the critics have also forgotten that they are extrinsically reinforced for their views. It is probably a safe bet that the critics are paid for what they do and most likely would not continue to give workshops or teach for the sheer enjoyment of doing so. Thus, we are all extrinsically reinforced for what we do without the negative effects about which we have been warned.

Fifth, the critics have failed to make distinctions in regard to how the extrinsic rewards are provided. Chance (1992) wrote an interesting review of the research on the effects of extrinsic **reinforcers** (as opposed to rewards) on intrinsic motivation. According to Chance, extrinsic reinforcers can be task contingent, performance contingent, or success contingent. When we use **task contingent** reinforcers, we reinforce students for simply engaging in a task for some period of time. There is no requirement in regard to the quality of the task. The main goal is to get students to do something. According to Chance, task contingent reinforcers tend to decrease the likelihood that students will do the task in the future in the absence of any external contingencies. Thus, Chance indicated that this decrease in performing the task would support what the critics warned us about. Interestingly, the research cited by these critics has relied on task completion rewards. The second method of providing extrinsic reinforcers involves

making them performance contingent. **Performance contingent** means that external reinforcers are provided if students have met a predetermined performance criterion. According to Chance, performance contingent reinforcers will increase intrinsic interest in a subject if students make the performance criterion. Those students who do not meet the performance criteria, however, will experience a decrease in their intrinsic interest in the subject. Finally, **success contingent** reinforcers reinforce students for meeting a predetermined criterion as in the performance contingent example, but students are also reinforced along the way. In other words, the task is broken into smaller subtasks, and students are reinforced for their progression to the final performance criterion. According to Chance, success contingent reinforcers tend to increase intrinsic interest in a subject. Therefore, it is not appropriate to make a general statement that extrinsic rewards should not be used with students. It is appropriate to state that we must make sure we are using reinforcers and not rewards and that we are using success contingent reinforcers rather than task completion reinforcers.

A final problem with the critics' assertion that we should not use external control procedures is their assumption that the reinforcers used in a management program are artificial (i.e., not natural). However, as explained by Cooper et al. (2007), there is no such thing as an artificial reinforcer. If a reinforcer is occurring in an environment, it is a **naturally occurring reinforcer** by definition. The distinction is between **contrived reinforcers** (i.e., those reinforcers not typically used in a particular setting, such as paying students for good behavior as part of a management program) and those that already exist in a given setting (e.g., praise or teacher attention). Rather than debating about intrinsic versus extrinsic reinforcers, it seems much more worthwhile to discuss effective versus ineffective consequences. "The extrinsic-intrinsic distinction between reinforcers may not even be valid" (Martin & Pear, 2007, p. 38).

It is hard to imagine a world devoid of external contingencies. Laws in society are tied to external contingencies; imagine a society without any laws. Thus, we must acknowledge that external reinforcers (and punishers) are always present. Once external reinforcers are acknowledged to exist, we can take steps to decrease the use of ineffective contingencies and increase our use of effective ones.

Issues of Control. Control is a concept often misunderstood by teachers. When the term *control* is used, people think of being manipulated and being made to do things against their will. Therefore, when we speak of controlling a behavior, we may become the objects of criticism. Control, however, is not always what it seems. In a sense, everything we do is under some form of control. We usually pay our taxes on time to avoid the penalty of not doing so. We typically slow down when going over the speed limit if we see a police officer. That you are reading this textbook is likely due to some form of "control" placed on you by a professor (who requires the textbook for a class) or because you are motivated to learn more about behavior management to make your professional or personal life better. If we think of control in this way, whatever we do with a child, adolescent, or adult will involve some sort of control. Telling a child to be quiet, giving an adolescent a curfew, or asking another adult to hand you the newspaper will involve consequences (either positive or negative). Having a student go through



Student hand raising is “controlled” by the teacher.

Glasser’s problem-solving process is an attempt at control in that the teacher is trying to get the student to behave appropriately as a result of the problem-solving process. Making a school task more enjoyable and meaningful to students is an act of control because the teacher is attempting to increase the likelihood that students will be motivated to learn.

Therefore, when many professionals speak of control, they are not talking of using techniques similar to what may be used in a prisoner-of-war camp. What they are talking about are techniques that we all use every day of our

lives; for example, tipping a waitress for good service may make the waitress more likely to continue to provide good service in the future.

Conclusion

There are misunderstandings about effective behavior management approaches. These misunderstandings can have a profound impact on whether we are successful or unsuccessful in managing students’ classroom behaviors. If we are going to improve our behavior management skills and become more adept at the prevention of and the response to student misbehavior, we must use what has been shown to work in the short term as well as over time. Therefore, it is critical to have a knowledge base developed through scientific research (see Martella, Nelson, & Marchand-Martella, 1999, for an in-depth discussion of research methodology).

What Are Ethical Issues in Treating Behavior and Instructional Problems?

Before we leave this chapter, it is critical to get a foundation in ethics. ABA is a powerful technology and can be misused. Therefore, it is prudent for the reader to understand fully issues related to the appropriate use of behavior change methods. Ethics in behavior management refers to two primary questions: (a) Was the program the right thing to do under the circumstances, and (b) Did the management program result in behavior change that was socially significant and cost-effective? Several organizations have ethical codes. We will cover ethical statements from the Association for Behavior Analysis International (ABAI) in this chapter.

The Right to Effective Behavioral Treatment

ABAI outlines six rights individuals have when exposed to behavioral interventions (Van Houten et al., 1988). These rights (see Table 1.3) should be considered when a behavior program is designed and implemented. ABAI (2010) developed a set of guiding principles on the application of restrictive procedures that are consistent with the earlier statement on the right to effective and ethical treatment. These guiding principles are shown in Table 1.4, but they will be covered in more detail in Chapter 6.

Table 1.3

Association for Behavior Analysis International Statement on the Right to Effective Behavioral Treatment

Statement on the Right to Effective Behavioral Treatment, 1989

The Association for Behavior Analysis issues the following position statement on clients' right to effective behavioral treatment as a set of guiding principles to protect individuals from harm as a result of either the lack or the inappropriate use of behavioral treatment.

The Association for Behavior Analysis, through majority vote of its members, declares that individuals who receive behavioral treatment have a right to:

1. *A therapeutic physical and social environment:* Characteristics of such an environment include but are not limited to: an acceptable standard of living, opportunities for stimulation and training, therapeutic social interaction, and freedom from undue physical or social restriction.
2. *Services whose overriding goal is personal welfare:* The client participates, either directly or through authorized proxy, in the development and implementation of treatment programs. In cases where withholding or implementing treatment involves potential risk and the client does not have the capacity to provide consent, individual welfare is protected through two mechanisms: Peer Review Committees, imposing professional standards, determine the clinical propriety of treatment programs; Human Rights Committees, imposing community standards, determine the acceptability of treatment programs and the degree to which they may compromise an individual's rights.
3. *Treatment by a competent behavior analyst:* The behavior analyst's training reflects appropriate academic preparation, including knowledge of behavioral principles, methods of assessment and treatment, research methodology, and professional ethics; as well as practical experience. In cases where a problem or treatment is complex or may pose risk, direct involvement by a doctoral-level behavior analyst is necessary.
4. *Programs that teach functional skills:* Improvement in functioning requires the acquisition of adaptive behaviors that will increase independence, as well as the elimination of behaviors that are dangerous or that in some other way serve as barriers to independence.
5. *Behavioral assessment and ongoing evaluation:* Pretreatment assessment, including both interviews and measures of behavior, attempts to identify factors relevant to behavioral maintenance and treatment. The continued use of objective behavioral measurement documents response to treatment.

6. *The most effective treatment procedures available:* An individual is entitled to effective and scientifically validated treatment; in turn, the behavior analyst has an obligation to use only those procedures demonstrated by research to be effective. Decisions on the use of potentially restrictive treatment are based on consideration of its absolute and relative level of restrictiveness, the amount of time required to produce a clinically significant outcome, and the consequences that would result from delayed intervention.

This statement was developed by the Association for Behavior Analysis Task Force on the Right to Effective Behavioral Treatment [members: Ron Van Houten (Chair), Saul Axelrod, Jon S. Bailey, Judith E. Favell, Richard M. Foxx, Brian A. Iwata, and O. Ivar Lovaas]. This Position Statement was accepted by the ABA Executive Council in October 1987 and by the ABA membership in 1989.

SOURCE: Association for Behavior Analysis International (1989). Used with permission.

Table 1.4

Association for Behavior Analysis International Statement on Restraint and Seclusion

Statement on Restraint and Seclusion, 2010

The Association for Behavior Analysis International (ABAI) and its members strongly oppose the inappropriate and/or unnecessary use of seclusion, restraint, or other intrusive interventions. Although many persons with severe behavior problems can be effectively treated without the use of any restrictive interventions, restraint may be necessary on some rare occasions with meticulous clinical oversight and controls. In addition, a carefully planned and monitored use of timeout from reinforcement can be acceptable under restricted circumstances. Seclusion is sometimes necessary or needed, but behavior analysts would support only the most highly monitored and ethical practices associated with such use, to be detailed below.

This Position Statement on Restraint and Seclusion summarizes critical guiding principles. With a strong adherence to professional judgment and best practice, it also describes the conditions under which seclusion and restraint may be necessary and outlines proper strategy in order to implement these procedures appropriately and safely. This statement is consistent with ABAI's 1989 Position Statement on the Right to Effective Behavioral Treatment, which asserts numerous rights, including access to the most effective treatments available—while emphasizing extensive procedural safeguards.

I. Guiding Principles:

1. *The Welfare of the Individual Served is the Highest Priority* – Clinical decisions should be made based upon the professional judgment of a duly formed treatment team that demonstrates knowledge of the broad research base and best practice. Included in this process are the individuals being served and their legal guardians. The team should be informed by the research literature, and should determine that any procedure used is in that individual

(Continued)

Table 1.4 (Continued)

person's best interests. These interests must take precedence over the broader agendas of institutions or organizations that would prohibit certain procedures regardless of the individual's needs. A core value of ABAI with regard to behavioral treatment is that welfare of the individual being served is the absolute highest priority.

2. *Individuals (and Parents/Guardians) Have a Right to Choose* – ABAI supports the U.S. Supreme Court ruling that individuals have a right to treatment in certain contexts, and that many state and federal regulations and laws create such rights. Organizations and institutions should not limit the professional judgment or rights of those legally responsible for an individual to choose interventions that are necessary, safe, and effective. A regulation that prohibits treatment that includes the necessary use of restraint violates individuals' rights to effective treatment. The irresponsible use of certain procedures by unqualified or incompetent people should not result in policies that limit the rights of those duly qualified and responsible for an individual through the process of making informed choices.
3. *The Principle of Least Restrictiveness* – ABAI supports the position that treatment selection should be guided by the principle of the least restrictiveness. The least restrictive treatment is defined as that treatment that affords the most favorable risk to benefit ratio, with specific consideration of probability of treatment success, anticipated duration of treatment, distress caused by procedures, and distress caused by the behavior itself. One may conclude from this premise that a non-intrusive intervention that permits dangerous behavior to continue while limiting participation in learning activities and community life, or results in a more restrictive placement, may be considered more restrictive than a more intensive intervention that is effective and enhances quality of life.

II. Application:

1. General Definitions

- i. *Restraint* involves physically holding or securing the individual, either: a) for a brief period of time to interrupt and intervene with severe problem behavior, or b) for an extended period of time using mechanical devices to prevent otherwise uncontrollable problem behavior (e.g., self-injurious behavior) that has the potential to produce serious injury. When used in the context of a behavior intervention plan, restraint in some cases serves both a protective and a therapeutic function. These procedures can reduce risks of injury and can facilitate learning opportunities that support appropriate behavior.
- ii. *Seclusion* involves isolating an individual from others to interrupt and intervene with problem behavior that places the individual or others at risk of harm. When used in the context of a behavior intervention plan, seclusion in some cases serves both a protective and a therapeutic function. These procedures can reduce risks of injury and can facilitate learning opportunities that support appropriate behavior. ABAI is opposed to the use of seclusion when it is operationally defined as placing someone in a locked room, often combined with the use of mechanical restraint and/or sedation,

and not part of a formal Behavior Intervention Plan to which the individual served and/or their Guardians have consented. We support the use of a planned time out treatment or safety intervention which conforms to evidence based research, is part of a comprehensive treatment or safety plan which meets the standards of informed consent by the individual served and/or legal guardian, and is evaluated on an ongoing basis via the use of contemporaneously collected objective data.

- iii. *Time-out* from reinforcement is an evidence-based treatment intervention that involves reducing or limiting the amount of reinforcement that is available to an individual for a brief period of time. It can entail removing an individual from his or her environment, or it may entail changes to the existing environment itself. When time out involves removing an individual from the environment, it should only be used as part of an approved and planned Behavior Intervention Plan. Time out from reinforcement is not seclusion, but it may involve seclusion if it is not safe to have others in the room. In addition, some innocuous versions of timeout from reinforcement, such as having a child take a seat away from a play area, are not deemed to be intrusive. Such procedures are commonly used and are generally safe.

2. *Use of Restraint as part of a Behavior Intervention Plan*

- i. The use of restraint in a planned Behavior Intervention Plan is done as part of an integrated effort to reduce the future probability of a specified target behavior and/or to reduce the episodic severity of that behavior. A Behavior Intervention Plan that incorporates contingent restraint must a) incorporate reinforcement based procedures, b) be based on a functional behavior assessment, c) be evaluated by objective outcome data, and d) be consistent with the scientific literature and current best practices.
- ii. Procedures describing the use and monitoring of this type of procedure should be designed by a Board Certified Behavior Analyst, or a similarly trained and licensed professional who is trained and experienced in the treatment of challenging behavior.

3. *Use of Timeout (or in rare cases, seclusion) as part of a Behavior Intervention Plan*

- i. Timeout may be used as part of an integrated Behavior Intervention Program designed to decrease the future probability of a pre-specified target behavior and/or to reduce the episodic severity of that behavior. The Behavior Intervention Plan that incorporates the use of time out must a) be derived from a behavioral assessment, b) incorporate reinforcement strategies for appropriate behavior, c) be of brief duration, d) be evaluated by objective outcome data, and e) be consistent with the scientific literature and current best practices.

4. *The Necessity for Using Emergency Restraint and Seclusion*

- i. Emergency restraint involves physically holding or securing a person to protect that person or others from behavior that poses imminent risk of harm. These procedures should be considered only for dangerous or harmful behavior that occurs at unpredictable times that make the behavior not amenable to less restrictive behavioral treatment interventions and that place the individual and/or others at risk for injury, or that will result in significant loss of quality of life. The procedures should be considered only when less intrusive

(Continued)

Table 1.4 (Continued)

interventions have been attempted and failed or are otherwise determined to be insufficient given adequate empirical documentation to prove this point.

- ii. When applied for crisis management, restraint or seclusion should be implemented according to well-defined, predetermined criteria; include the use of de-escalation techniques designed to reduce the target behavior without the need for physical intervention; be applied only at the minimum level of physical restrictiveness necessary to safely contain the crisis behavior and prevent injury; and be withdrawn according to precise and mandatory release criteria.
 - iii. Emergency restraint procedures should be limited to those included within a standardized program. Medical professionals should review restraint procedures to ensure their safety.
 - iv. Consideration of emergency restraint should involve weighing the relative benefits and limitations of using these procedures against the risks associated with not using them. Associated risks of failure to use appropriate restraint when necessary include increased risk for injury, excessive use of medication, expulsion from school, placement in more restrictive, less normalized settings, and increased involvement of law enforcement.
 - v. Crisis management procedures are not a replacement for behavioral treatment, and should not be used routinely in the absence of an individualized behavior intervention plan. The best way to eliminate restraint use is to eliminate behavior that invites restraint use via systematic behavioral treatment procedures. If crisis intervention procedures are used on a repeated basis, a formal written behavior plan should be developed, reviewed by both a Peer Review Committee and Human Rights Committee (when available), and consented to by the individuals served and their parents or legal guardians.
5. *Informed Consent*
- i. As members of the treatment team, the individual and/or parents/guardians must be allowed the opportunity to participate in the development of any behavior plan.
 - ii. Interventions involving restraint or seclusion should only be used with full consent of those responsible for decision making. Such consent should meet the standards of “Information,” “Capacity,” and “Voluntary.” The individual and his or her guardian must be informed of the methods, risks, and effects of possible intervention procedures, which include the options to both use and not use restraint.
6. *Oversights and Monitoring*
- i. Restraint or seclusion procedures (not including brief timeout procedures) for both treatment and emergency situations should be made available for professional review consistent with prevailing practices.
 - ii. The behavior analyst is responsible to ensure that any plan involving restraint or seclusion conforms to the highest standards of effective and humane treatment, and the behavior analyst is responsible for continued oversight and quality assurance.
 - iii. These procedures should be implemented only by staff who are fully trained in their use, regularly in-serviced, demonstrate competency using objective measures of performance, and are closely supervised by a Board Certified Behavior Analyst, or a similarly trained professional.

- iv. The use of restraint or seclusion should be monitored on a continuous basis using reliable and valid data collection that permits objective evaluation of its effects.
- v. Procedures involving restraint or seclusion should be continued only if they are demonstrated to be safe and effective; and their use should be reduced and eliminated when possible. Efficacy with respect to treatment programs refers to a reduction in the rate of the specified target behavior and/or reduction in the episodic severity of that behavior. With respect to emergency treatments, efficacy refers only to the time and risk associated with achieving calm.

A task force authorized by the Executive Council of the Association for Behavior Analysis International generated the above statement concerning the technique called Restraint and Seclusion. Members of the task force independently reviewed the scientific literature concerning Restraint and Seclusion and agreed unanimously to the content of the statement. The Executive Council has accepted the statement and it was subsequently approved by a two-thirds majority vote of the general membership. It now constitutes official ABAI policy.

SOURCE: Association for Behavior Analysis International (2010). Used with permission.

The Right to Effective Education

ABAI also outlines six rights students have when receiving educational services (Barrett et al., 1991). These rights should be considered when an educational program is designed and implemented. See Table 1.5.

Table 1.5 Association for Behavior Analysis International Statement on the Right to Effective Education

Statement on Students' Right to Effective Education, 1990

Based on the principles that have been demonstrated to improve student learning and performance, the following are recommended educational entitlements for all students:

1. **The student's overall educational context should include:**
 - a. Social and physical school environments that encourage and maintain academic achievement and progress, and discourage behavior inconsistent with those goals;
 - b. Schools that treat students with care and individual attention, comparable to that offered by a caring family;
 - c. School programs that provide support and training for parents in parenting and teaching skills; and
 - d. Consequences and attention at home that encourage and maintain success at school.

(Continued)

Table 1.5 (Continued)

2. Curriculum and instructional objectives should:

- a. Be based on empirically validated hierarchies or sequences of instructional objectives and measurable performance criteria that are demonstrated to promote cumulative mastery and that are of long-term value in the culture;
- b. Specify mastery criteria that include both the accuracy and the speed dimensions of fluent performance;
- c. Include objectives that specify both long-term and short-term personal and vocational success, and that, once mastered, will be maintained by natural consequences in everyday living; and
- d. Include long-term retention and maintenance of skills and knowledge as explicitly measured instructional objectives.

3. Assessment and student placement should involve:

- a. Assessment and reporting methods that are sufficiently criterion-referenced to promote useful decision making based on actual levels of skills and knowledge rather than on categorical labels such as “emotionally disturbed” or “learning disabled,” and
- b. Placement based on correspondence between measured entering skills and skills required as prerequisites for a given level in a hierarchically sequenced curriculum.

4. Instructional methods should:

- a. Allow students to master instructional objectives at their own pace and to respond as rapidly and as frequently as they are able during at least some self-paced instructional session each day;
- b. Provide sufficient practice opportunities to enable students to master skills and knowledge at each step in the curriculum;
- c. Provide consequences designed to correct errors and/or to increase frequency of responding and that are adjusted to individual performance until they enable students to achieve desired outcomes;
- d. Be sensitive to and adjust in response to measures of individual learning and performance, including use of individualized instruction when group instruction fails to produce desired outcomes;
- e. Regularly employ the most advanced equipment to promote skill mastery via programs incorporating validated features described in this document; and
- f. Be delivered by teachers who receive performance-based training, administrative and supervisory support, and evaluation in the use of measurably effective, scientifically validated instructional procedures, programs, and materials.

5. Measurement and summative evaluation should entail:

- a. Decision making via objective curriculum-based measures of performance, and
- b. Reports of objectively measured individual achievement and progress rather than subjective ratings, norm-referenced comparisons, or letter grading.

6. Responsibility for success should stipulate that:

- a. Financial and operational consequences for school personnel depend on objective measures of student achievement;
- b. Teachers, administrators, and the general educational program assume responsibility for student success, and change programs until students achieve their highest performance levels; and
- c. Students and parents should be allowed and encouraged to change schools or school programs until their educational needs are met.

This statement was abstracted from a report by the Association for Behavior Analysis Task Force on the Right to Effective Education [members: B. H. Barret (chair), R. Beck, C. Binder, D. A. Cook, S. Engelmann, R. D. Greer, S. J. Kyrklund, K. R. Johnson, M. Maloney, N. McCorkle, J. S. Vargas, and C. L. Watkins]. The full report of the Task Force was accepted by the ABA Executive Council and was published in *The Behavior Analyst*, 1991, Volume 14(1). This abbreviated statement was subsequently approved by majority vote of the general membership. It now constitutes official ABA policy.

SOURCE: Association for Behavior Analysis International (1990). Used with permission.

VIGNETTE REVISITED**Controlling Angry Outbursts Through Evidence-Based Practices**

Finding the past management attempts to be less than successful but also wishing to help José with his problem, Ms. Jackson reflected on the situation at hand. She thought that there surely must be other professionals with similar problems. There must be others who had found effective management procedures to use with students like José, but where could she find this information?

Ms. Jackson decided that she needed to find evidence-based practices. That is, she wanted to find management procedures that had been found to be successful with students like José. Ms. Jackson retrieved a long list of such evidence-based articles, and she discovered that the procedures found to be most effective are the ones built on behavioral principles. She also learned that one common theme among all management models is the need to provide guidelines for student behavior while simultaneously creating a positive learning environment. Finally, Ms. Jackson learned that much of what she had heard about the behavioral model was comprised of simplifications or misconceptions and that by implementing evidence-based procedures she could indeed improve José's behavior.

Now Ms. Jackson's goal is to learn more about these procedures and their underlying assumptions before designing a behavior management program. The information she learned is presented in the following chapters.

Summary

Student behavior is one of the most critical concerns in schools today. We are faced with misbehavior in our schools on a daily basis and need effective methods of preventing and responding to misbehavior. Several methods have been advocated over the years. It is important for teachers to be familiar with these models given their frequent use in schools. Unfortunately, few of these methods have demonstrated their effectiveness scientifically. We continue to use ineffective management methods even in the face of evidence that they do not work as claimed or that those claims have not been validated. Fortunately, we know what does and does not work.

Several of the positive aspects of the models covered were highlighted and are integrated throughout this textbook. However, there are several conceptual issues regarding the causes of the behavior change that results from the implementation of certain models or programs (e.g., self-concept). Character education holds some promise as a school reform model but needs a considerable amount of research showing the effects of each program.

Fortunately, Epstein et al. (2008) made five recommendations to help teachers deal with behavior management issues. These five recommendations are based on a review of the scientific research literature and should be considered by teachers. The recommendations made by Epstein et al. are consistent with the one model that has been shown over the years to be highly effective in dealing with behavior issues. The behavioral model is a scientifically based model that is grounded in applied behavior analysis (ABA) and has seven general characteristics that make it highly effective. It is critical that teachers become knowledgeable about ABA and skilled at implementing its principles if effective behavior management is going to take place in the schools.

Unfortunately, there are several misconceptions with regard to ABA. The intrinsic versus extrinsic reward debate is probably a waste of time, given there is no agreed-on definition of intrinsic reinforcement and there is a lack of evidence demonstrating its effects. Also, the issue of control is not a serious concern when one realizes that the form of control discussed in ABA is the same as the control exerted on an automobile driver using the highway (e.g., do not exceed the speed limit, keep to the right except to pass, wear a seatbelt). Contrary to critics' statements, control in ABA does not refer to "brainwashing" or involve a violation of one's personal rights.

Given that ABA is such a powerful technology, strict ethical behavior must be demonstrated when applying it. The Association for Behavior Analysis has position statements that should be followed. Our students have the right to effective behavioral treatment and a right to an effective education.

Key Terms

applied behavior analysis (ABA)	24	choice theory	13
arbitrary consequences	11	consequences	11
assertive discipline	9	contrived	26
behavior	3	discipline	5
character education	19	extrinsic rewards	25

Ginott model	15	reality therapy	13
group alerting	17	reinforcers	25
intrinsic rewards	25	rewards	25
Jones model	17	ripple effect	16
Kounin model	16	satiation	17
logical consequences	11	seatwork variety and challenge	17
love and logic model	14	smoothness	17
momentum	16	student accountability	17
natural consequences	11	success contingent	26
naturally occurring	26	task contingent	25
overlapping	17	valence and challenge arousal	17
performance contingent	26	withitness	16
preferred activity time (PAT)	18		

Discussion Questions

1. What are the possible reasons for not using evidence-based management procedures?
2. What was your definition of discipline before reading this chapter? What is it now?
3. How are each of the models described in this chapter used?
4. What are the strengths of each of the models described in this chapter?
5. What are the weaknesses of each of the models described in this chapter?
6. What are the misunderstandings related to intrinsic versus extrinsic reinforcers?
7. What are the misunderstandings related to the issue of control?
8. How can we overcome these misunderstandings?
9. Why are scientifically validated management approaches important?
10. What does the right to effective behavioral treatment mean?