Chapter 10
Meet Needs of Students with Challenging Behaviors
Positive Strategies for Difficult Situations

CHAPTER GOAL

Develop knowledge and skills to build an understanding how challenging behavior communicates needs of students; learn about proactive strategies for responding to social and behavioral problems.

CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

1. Evaluate and understand research on the effects of traditional practices utilizing rewards and punishments.
2. Visualize types of challenging behaviors and needs these behaviors may communicate.
3. Understand how imposing control rather than meeting needs strengthens problematic behaviors.
4. Explore and utilize proactive strategies for meeting student needs.
5. Understand legal requirements and procedures for developing Behavioral Intervention Plans.

These Kids Are Driving Me Crazy and I Don't Know What to Do!!

"These kids are driving me crazy! I don't know what to do!" How do we respond to social and behavioral challenges? We've seen that the first strategy is to *prevent* problems by designing engaging instruction and by building a classroom community. Yet, despite our best efforts, we will experience problems with some students. In the Voices feature here, teachers discuss their students' behavior. They list behavioral problems and helpful and hurtful responses. We are surprised by what they say does *not* work—rewards and

punishments, bribes and threats, rejection and expulsion. What *does* work, they think, is building respect for students, teaching well, giving choices, providing support, and developing relationships. These teachers' findings agree substantially with the research literature. "This is the only way that kids know someone really cares for them," said Sheila, a high school science teacher.

Teachers on Dealing with Problem Behaviors

Some Common Problems in Classrooms

- Student is off task.
- Talks during instruction.
- Won't sit still.
- Attracts others' attention and gets them off task.
- Is unprepared for class.
- Makes excuses to leave class.
- Hits other students or the teacher.
- Insults other students.
- Acts belligerent.
- Withdraws and does not want to participate.

What Works?

- Give students attention.
- Encourage cooperative learning and play groups.
- Teach in fun and engaging ways.
- Study culture or "difference" of the week in the room to promote understanding and acceptance of differences.
- Have students help make rules and structure learning activities in the classroom.
- Have students help other students—use peer mediation, peer buddies, circles of friends.
- Institute sharing time to talk about events in life.
- Show concern and care.
- Stop till student gets under control.
- Emphasize group work. Ask "Do you need to . . . ?" Give options.

What Does Not!

- Boring, unengaging teaching.
- Extra assignments.
- Yelling.
- Lack of respect—lashing out rudely, nagging, pleading, begging.
- Intimidation—misuse of power.
- Punishment.
- Detention.

One of the other teachers was aghast, however. "Are you people crazy? There is no way this will work!" (Peterson, 1998). This reaction reflects the debate regarding behavioral challenges in schools. Do we try to control students through rewards and punishments? Do we label them as disturbed and get them out of our classes and into special education? Or do work to build relationships, care, and respect? Do we seek to understand and respond to student needs? How can we meet our own needs also?

Quincy: A Student out of Control

We are talking with a young teacher who has developed a reputation for success with challenging students. William teaches grades 4 and 5 and has been "looping" in a school serving a racially diverse, low-income area. We were immediately impressed by the student work that literally covers the walls, ceilings, and windows of William's classroom.

"I want to tell you about Quincy," *William says.*

*"**I can't do anything with him. He hits other students all the time**." Quincy has quite a reputation, and several teachers think he should be in a class for students with emotional disorders. "I met Quincy my first year, when I took over his fourth-grade classroom," William continues. "I was the third teacher that year, and the class was in chaos." "What did you do?" we ask, thinking of stories about new teachers thrown into challenging classes.*

*"**First, I made the classroom fun and inviting**. Some friends helped me transform the room from drab to colorful. I wanted students to know this was going to be better and fun. However, Quincy hated everything, fought, and sometimes lashed out in a violent rage. He frequently turned over desks and jumped from tables. The only way I could get him to cooperate was to give him a choice of spending his time in class or in the office."*

*"**He's afraid and angry at home, treated with disrespect at school**." We expect William to tell us he tried to get Quincy in the special education class. Instead he says, "I really wanted Quincy to be successful." His eyes flicker in anger. "I was incensed when I saw how the previous teacher had treated Quincy. She placed masking tape on the floor around his desk, creating an invisible jail. If I had been Quincy, I would have rebelled too!"*

"Confused by what was making him act this way, I soon learned that Quincy was living in a small apartment with his mother and grandmother. His mother's boyfriend regularly beat her and did not like Quincy. The grandmother was threatening to kick Quincy and his mother out. I

began to understand. Quincy was angry and scared. He did not feel safe or know if he would have a place to live!"

*"**The other teachers wanted to get rid of Quincy**. Not my student!" William tells us that almost daily, teachers asked when Quincy would be sent to the center for children with emotional disturbance. Their answer was to get rid of him. Yet William persevered and began to experiment.*

*"**I built on his interests and gave him choices**." Quincy kept playing in the coat closet, swinging from the doors. "Rather than restrict him, I made him the coat closet monitor. This worked. He now had a reason to be there and was proud of his job. I also gave Quincy choices involving hands-on activities and work partners. I moved students who liked to help others to his table, and I got another student to read with him every day. During computer time I let him catch up on his work. He surprised me by working hard during this time."*

*"**Quincy's behavior began to change**. He knew I cared." William smiles again. "Quincy gradually improved. I remember the first day without having a real confrontation. I hugged him and congratulated him like he had just won the lottery! He began to listen to me when I asked him to sit down instead of fighting. One day he told me that a child was bothering him. I was so excited that he was thinking rather than just reacting. Another day, Quincy saw Karee's daily progress report, which listed things like 'Did you do all your work?' 'Did you follow the teacher's directions?' and 'Did you help the teacher?' He asked me if he could have a daily progress report. He was evaluating his own behavior. He also began to do nice things for me, such as putting away materials."*

William responded to Quincy as a person, not by using M&M's or praise as manipulative tools. He gave feedback about personal growth and strengths. Quincy began to see him as a friend and ally, not as a controlling authority. William explains, "I think two things were responsible for Quincy's gradual change. First, my class was fun and he did not want to miss it. He had choices, and he could move around. No worksheets or invisible jail in my class. Second, he realized I cared about him and he responded.

*"**He began to do his academic work, and to learn**. A few simple adaptations went a long way." As Quincy's behaviors began to improve, so did his academic work. "I became convinced that Quincy was afraid he could not do work and was refusing in order to save face. So I worked to make him feel comfortable and successful. He would read aloud with me or with a partner, not in front of the whole class. In spelling I allowed him to pick five words instead of ten. Although I expected less written work, my expectations continued to grow as he did more and more. On one*

report card he had A's, B's, and one C. When he saw his grades, he was shocked. 'Those are A's . . . and B's!' he exclaimed. I will never forget the proud look on his face."

"I invited Quincy home. We had fun and strengthened our relationship." William also reached out to Quincy beyond the school day. "This was the turning point. A couple of other teachers took selected students with high needs to their houses and encouraged me to do the same, despite negative teachers who warned me of lawsuits. The first time we had pizza. Quincy ran around the back yard wearing out my dog. It was terrific to see him playing and laughing. Over the next year I periodically had him for dinner, games, or swimming."

***The most improved award for Quincy**: "By the end of the year, Quincy was a different kid. He still had periodic problems. However, when a conflict arose, he would stop and think. At the honors assembly I was proud to give Quincy the Most Improved award. He wants to get on the academic honor roll next time."*

In this vignette, we should recognize what William did not do. Yes, he ensured that Quincy did not hurt other students by keeping careful watch, helping Quincy think about his behavior, and getting other students to help Quincy. However, William did not spend most of his time focusing on Quincy's problems; nor did he refer him for special education or suggest medication. William knew his job was to meet Quincy's needs and to help him learn how to interact in positive ways, not to forcibly control his behavior. Quincy's story illustrates what is possible and highlights themes we will see throughout this chapter (Peterson & Hittie, 2000).

Sights to See
Solving Social Problems

Resolving Conflict: "O'Farrell Middle School At this school in San Diego, California, school leaders place equal emphasis on the social, intellectual, psychological, and physical needs of their students". www.edutopia.org/resolving-conflict-ofarrell-middle-school

Smart Hearts: Social and Emotional Learning Overview This 13 minute video provides an introduction to social and emotional learning and how this helps schools deal with serious challenging behaviors including bullying.
http://www.edutopia.org/social-emotional-learning-overview-video

Creating a Positive, Student-Centered Approach

Educators are increasingly concerned about behavioral challenges and violence in schools. To deal with these problems, three general approaches are used:

1. Punishment
2. Rewards (technically, "reinforcers")
3. Meeting student needs and promoting growth and relationships

Many discipline programs promote use of power by adults, in the form of combinations of approaches 1 and 2, to control the behavior of children. Rather than helping children make choices based on their own internal values, interests, and motivation, an **internal locus of control,** most seek to control students' behavior through external rewards, incentives, or punishments, an **external locus of control.** Yet research clearly shows that both punishment and rewards often create more problems than they fix. Let's look briefly at these two very widely used strategies.

Rewards and Punishment to Control Behavior: *Typical Strategies That Deepen Problems*

First, let's distinguish between the popular conception of rewards and punishment and the technical definitions used in behavioral psychology. In the popular parlance, *rewards* are perceived positive consequences or incentives bestowed by a person or persons with power in order to promote desired behavior. Such rewards may be social (a smile, praise, congratulations); sensory (a touch, a kiss, a pat on the back); fiscal (money, a gift certificate); or physical (food, books, a car).

A *reinforcer*, on the other hand, is an action associated with a behavior that *increases* the occurrence of the behavior. The point is that a reward is in the eye of the giver. A reinforcer, however, is defined by its impact on behavior. Reinforcers are of two types: (1) Positive reinforcement involves *providing* a stimulus to promote a behavior; (2) negative reinforcement involves *removing* something, typically something undesirable, when the desired behavior occurs. For example, if a student is promised time on the computer, for good behavior, that is positive reinforcement. When a student is isolated in the classroom, allowed only to return to the group when his behavior improves, that is negative reinforcement. Either way, to be called a reinforcer, an action must result in the increase of a behavior. In any case, we generally use the more popular term *reward* when describing efforts by those in authority to provide reinforcing consequences to obtain behavioral responses they desire (Charles, 1999; Janney & Snell, 2000b).

Similarly, *punishment* is popularly understood as an undesired consequence one person uses to *decrease* the behavior of another—taking away recess privileges, grounding a child, drawing frowny faces on a chart, requiring extra work. In the technical behavioral definition, however, a *punisher* is an aversive stimulus resulting in the reduction of a behavior. The other behavioral strategy for reducing behaviors is *extinction,* the withholding of stimuli that reinforce a behavior (Charles, 1999; Janney & Snell, 2000; Kohn, 1993, 1996; Reavis & Andrews, 1999).

How effective is punishment? Here is what research indicates:

- We can eliminate behaviors through punishment in the short run. However, this outcome occurs only if the punishment is sufficiently strong—and lasts only while punishment remains in effect (Beach Center on Families and Disability, 1994; Koegel, Koegel, & Dunlap, 1996; Martin & Pear, 1996).
- Punishment does not address underlying needs and new behavioral challenges often emerge (Carr et al., 1994; Hitzing 1994; Janney & Snell, 2000b.).
- A focus only on behavior prevents us from really understanding the person. We often distance ourselves from the "problem" student and depersonalize our reactions, thus setting the stage for additional future problems (Hitzing 1994; Marin, Gilpin, Goodman, & Moses, 1996)
- Punishment reduces or eliminates guilt, ensuring that any change in behavior is caused by external force rather than internalized decisions (Cragg, 1992; Gilligan, 1996). As a result, "the more harshly we punish . . . the more violent they become; the punishment increases their feelings of shame and simultaneously decreases their capacities for feelings of love . . . and of guilt." (Gilligan, 1996, p. 110)

Many suggest that combined with consequences (punishments), we should provide rewards to reinforce positive behaviors. Most behavior management programs use this strategy (Kohn, 1992). At first glance this might seem rational and humane. However, Kohn (1993, 1999) conducted a comprehensive review of research and found that rewards:

- Punish—because (1) they are a form of control and (2) not everyone gets a reward. Someone is always left out.
- Rupture relationships—a person in power metes out rewards, and competition for rewards breaks a sense of community.
- Ignore the reasons for behaviors.
- Discourage risk taking—people do "exactly what is necessary to get [a reward]

and no more" (Kohn, 1998, p. 63).
- Undermine intrinsic interest and motivation.
- Encourage mediocrity. Students who focus on rewards (grades, scholarships, praise) rather than on intrinsic interests are less likely to do well over time.
- Must be desired strongly enough to make an impact.
- Are effective only in the short run, as long as they "keep coming."

The impacts of traditional rewards on interest and motivation, and their consequent effects on learning and achievement, are particularly serious. In a comprehensive review, Lepper and Henderlong (2000) found that the motivation of students declines as they grow older, that the use of external rewards reduces interest in a task, and that performance declines as a result. Aware of this, many teachers say that they work hard *not* to reward students but help them become intrinsically motivated by pursuing their own interests.

Meeting Student Needs:
Promoting Growth and Relationships

Another approach is available: *positive behavioral support*. In this approach we seek to understand what behaviors communicate about needs and to help students meet their needs in a socially acceptable way. If a student curses in class, we want to know why that student is doing so. We'll be thinking about the student's needs and welfare as much as we are about prohibiting negative behavior. As other students understand that we care, we'll also be surprised how this helps to strengthen our classroom community. In effect, we are modeling how we'd like to see students help and support one another.

This does not mean that we condone disrespectful or problematic behavior. Quite the opposite. For example, if Lawrence enters our class cursing and calling us names, we pull him aside and ask him what is happening; we make it clear that his behavior is not acceptable but that we know something is bothering him. (In effective classes students know the class routines and will continue to work together, allowing the teacher time to talk with the student.) In doing so, we are helping Lawrence think about his behavior and showing we care about him, not just keeping him in line. Further, we gain the respect of students by being strong enough to attend to them as individuals rather than merely using our authority to demand compliance.

School Patterns In Dealing with Behavioral Challenges

RESPONSE to challenging behavior	DESCRIPTION
Chaos: reactive responses.	Teachers feel out of control, nothing works, no support systems in place and frustration. This often results in random lashing out at children and punitive responses. This pattern is often connected to punishment and expulsion below.
Punishment and expulsion.	Rules developed by the school or teacher with little to no student or parent input, are administered inflexibly. When rules are broken or challenged, the prime mode of response is punishment: including taking away privileges, sending home, and expulsion. Students are frequently referred for special education services to remove the student from the class. Staff seldom work proactively with one another and a culture of blame is pervasive often target at parents.
Staff control	This approach is often used in schools seeking to be inclusive but not clear as to how to deal with challenging behaviors. Most often a paraprofessional is systematically assigned to a student with behavioral challenges. This pattern is particularly seen with students with autism.
Rules and rewards.	Schools and teachers using this pattern focus on developing rules that are clear and provide rewards for compliance. This pattern often works hand in hand with punishment and expulsion and staff control. However, as the primary focus it provides a more positive culture . However, the focus remains on control of student behaviors and the definition of appropriate behaviors by adults. In this approach, a focus on building community and responding to inner needs of children is typically secondary.
Community & positive behavioral support.	In this pattern, individual teachers and the entire school culture explicitly and systematically attend to building a sense of care and community in the school. When problems occur positive behavioral support is used and educators seek alternative ways of helping children have their needs met, developing behavior plans that provide support to students and modeling and teaching of problem solving and alternate behaviors. In such schools, we also see much effort to build community among adults. The work of Glasser and strategies such as Peace Clubs are tools towards these ends.

One way of contrasting the traditional and positive behavioral support approaches is pictured in the figure above (Albin, Horner, & O'Neill, 1994; Evans & Meyer, 1985; Faber, Mazlish, Nyberg, & Templeton, 1995; Hitzing, 1994; Kohn, 1996). As the figure indicates, traditional behavior management focuses on controlling a student's behavior from the perspective of others in the environment, particularly adults. Positive behavioral support, however, seeks to respond to the needs of the student and to help the student learn respectful and proactive ways of having needs met. In the first approach, other people decide when the problem is resolved; in the second, the problem is not resolved until the students sees his or her needs being met.

Creating a Student-Centered School

Throughout the world, schools are increasingly developing school-wide approaches to challenging behaviors. Some schools rely heavily on efforts to control students, using what Kunc (1998) calls the "habits of exclusion"—time-out, detention**,** hall monitors directing the physical movement of students. In other schools control is maintained through rewards. Students are expected to learn the rules and create plays about them; teachers give daily tokens that can be turned in at the school store. Yet the focus is still more on controlling behaviors than on promoting real human growth.

What do schools look like that use a student-centered approach, one focused on student needs? Numerous schools are moving in this direction. Westside Elementary School provides one example. The school operates with only five rules: (1) Try, (2) be safe, (3) be kind, (4) work hard, and (5) be respectful. These are positive rules indicating what is *desired* rather than what is prohibited. Throughout the school, there is no punishment. When there is a conflict, staff assume that behavior signals an unmet need. For example, instead of missing recess or lunch, the class clown might be given five minutes a day to do a stand-up comedy routine. A bully "might become a tutor to the younger children he earlier terrorized. The clown needed attention and the bully needed to be admired by younger children" (Berg, 1989, p. 10B).

The school principal reports that such proactive strategies resolve more than 90 percent of discipline problems. When additional measures are needed, a child is expected to develop a plan, essentially a contract, in which the problem is defined and the student indicates what steps he or she will take to resolve it. The school seeks to help students learn new ways of responding. Building on William Glasser's *reality therapy***,** staff lead students through a series of questions designed to help them think: "What did you want to happen? What did you accomplish? What are the pros and cons of your behavior? What do you want to do now? What do you need to do to get what you

want?" (Glasser, 2000). Teachers use cooperative learning in the classroom, and the school holds periodic open meetings where children can "speak their minds without fear of reprisal from staff or peers" (Berg, 1989, p. 10B).

In another school, staff were concerned about their many behavior problems. The new principal said, "We won't look at students as being a problem but as *having* a problem." With this view in mind, he removed the school's "behavior room" and approached Helen—the warmest, most caring teacher—and asked her to work as a *mediator* with students and teachers. Whenever problems occurred, the student and teacher went to Helen's room and she helped them work out solutions. This became an opportunity for *learning* rather than punishment. After a while Helen said in a staff meeting, "I am glad you send students to me. However, at this point, if you have a conflict with a student, call me down and I will cover your class while you work out the problem yourself." She gradually began to spend most of her time providing such support for teachers (Kunc, 1998).

Comprehensive programs using a student-centered philosophy, at their best, incorporate the following components (Garbarino, Dubrow, Kostelny, & Pardo, 1992; Kay, 1999; Lantieri & Patti, 1996; McLane, Burnette, & Orkwis, 1997):

- Building community in the school (see Chapter 9)
- Peer mediation and conflict resolution
- Teaching students how to support one another through peer buddies and circles of support (see Chapter 9)
- Professional support—individual and group counseling, support groups
- Mentors through such programs as Big Brothers and Big Sisters
- A building support team (see Chapter 5)
- Interagency support and intervention for families

Schools vary dramatically in terms of how they use various responses to student behavioral challenges. However, consistent patterns are apparent in schools. The figure above illustrates some common patterns. In some schools and classrooms, there seems to be no thought through response. Chaos and reactive responses rule the day. Of course, in such classes punishment is often front and center but it is so ineffective even in the short term that teachers literally don't know what to do. Punishment, suspension, and expulsion form the center of other patterns. In such schools and classrooms, it feels as if there is a literal war going on between teachers and students.

Traditional Behavior Management Versus Positive Behavioral Support

	TRADITIONAL BEHAVIOR MANAGEMENT	POSITIVE BEHAVIORAL SUPPORT
Problem	Behavior is causing us or others trouble, so we want to eliminate it.	Behavior, which is learned, is *communicating* something important.
Assessment	Specify the problem behavior and determine frequency, strength, duration.	Conduct "functional analysis" to determine *reasons for* the behavior.
Goal	Eliminate problem behavior.	Help student learn better ways of communicating needs.
Intervention	Reduce reinforcement of behavior ("extinguish" by ignoring) or punish when target behavior occurs.	Develop a sense of safety and trust between teacher and student.
		Make the class fun and interesting so there is a "pay off" for positive participation.
		Provide support from another person; reduce frustration in the setting.
		Teach alternative ways to communicate.
		Teach how to tolerate school conditions.
Success	The behavior is eliminated and people in power view the situation as better.	The person's problem is solved from *his or her point of view.*

Source: Adapted from Hitzing (1994).

School Patterns In Dealing with Behavioral Challenges

The fact is that in such situations students almost always win. There is simply more of them. In some situations, staff are assigned to be with a given student every moment of the day. The theory is that they can control the behavior of the student on a moment to moment basis. Of course, such a strategy does nothing to help the student learn new behaviors so a constant guard is needed. Other schools decide to more proactively teach all students in the school to follow rules. While this approach is more positive, typically students have had little to no input into the rules, little emphasis is placed on community building, and the focus is still control of student behavior. It's a move towards more positive practices but still a ways to go. Finally, there are schools where building community is a key, front and center agenda. In such schools, when

problematic behavior occurs they look first at the needs of the student and develop strategies to use all in the learning community to help the student learn new, more positive ways to have their needs met.

Teacher Roles and Perspectives.

We watch our students as they arrive in the morning. George, whose parents were divorced a month ago, looks better today. Nicole is laughing, but she's abused at home and children's teasing sometimes sets her off in a violent fit. Keith is withdrawn. Classified as "mentally retarded," he's been working really hard lately, learning to read a book he enjoys. There's Patricia. Thank goodness for children whose home lives are together. She's a leader and has been particularly helpful with Keith and Nicole.

What are some of the strategies that successful teachers use to deal with challenging students? To help George cope with his parents' divorce, we seat him with very nurturing students at his table, and a special friend talks with him about anything he needs to talk about for the first ten minutes of class. The teacher has organized informal peer supports**,** connecting George with other students who make sure he has someone to play with at recess. Because he loves to draw, he is helping the art teacher make the backdrop for the school musical. This keeps him busy, which always helps when people are hurting.

Nicole needs a lot of support. She has a circle of friends that meet once a week who help her with her homework and are teaching her to be a good friend by example. They are patient with her. When she gets really upset, they sing with her.

Keith is growing by leaps and bounds, thanks to his mother and his special group. They read with him in the mornings, sit with him in the group area to help keep him focused, remind the teacher to write down instructions for him, and play with him at recess. He does not read or write at the same level, but the whole class works on individualized materials, so he does not stand out. The students are aware of his limits and congratulate him when he tries hard and learns something new.

As we look at the many needs of our students, we also come face to face with ourselves. There is no other arena in which students' responses will raise more personal issues—issues about our own lives, relationships, and abilities to handle emotions. As we seek to understand students, we must do the same for ourselves. Why do we respond the way we do? What do our responses mean, and how can we grow? How were we raised? What was and is our relationship with our parents? Were we abused? How did

teachers and others in authority treat us? How do we feel about ourselves? Were we provided models of joy, hope, and support? Do we know how to have fun while working hard? We are challenged to understand ourselves but not to lay blame. The fact is, if we can't and don't do this with ourselves, neither will we be able to do it with our students. The good news is that our seeking to work positively with students can simultaneously help both us and our students.

A Few Practical Tools

The key, of course, is to use strategies to help prevent problems in the first place. If we use the many strategies in Chapter 9 to help build community in our class we'll prevent many difficulties. When we do have difficulties, however, putting a few practical strategies into place can help deal with these in a respectful way that helps meet student needs.

1. *Daily emails to parents on progress*: With parents who use email, we can send quick notes regarding any issues that arise once we have established a relationship with the parents.
2. *Weekly progress report*: Use a simple rating scale with behaviors on which the student is working. We check off how well they did for that day. We let the student chose categories with our assistance and then type a copy to use.
3. *Mini conversations*: Twice a day pull the student aside to verbally ask how they think they are doing. Set one or two goals to focus on. This is not a time for us to fuss at the student, but to listen and help direct their thinking.
4. *A safe place that the student can work*: This is not a place to which we would send students as a punishment. We ask students ahead of time what place they might go to help them calm down if a problem arises. They can then choose to go to this place or we can suggest it if problems are occurring.
5. We can spend *thinking and planning* on our own time to really focus on WHY the student is doing what they are doing, not how to stop the behavior. What need do they have that is not being met? This is best done on a regular basis.
6. Construct a group that is a *circle of support* for that student.
7. *Hourly Progress Report*: Have a conversation with the student about what they want out of school and how we can accomplish that. Each hour mark did they complete behavior and assignments with a plus or zero. Do this with the student so that they are recognizing the behavior.

Back Pack
Positive Approaches to Behavior Challenges

Reclaiming Youth Network Reclaiming Youth is an organization dedicated to transforming education and human services by creating respectful ways of dealing with youth. This work is based on the Circle of Courage that addresses the universal needs of belonging, mastery, independence, and generosity. Great approach and resources here.
http://www.reclaiming.com/

Positive Behavior Support Federally funded research and training center that has many practical resources related to positive behavior support. rrtcpbs.fmhi.usf.edu/

Center for Effective Collaboration and Practice seeks to "foster the development and the adjustment of children with or at risk of developing serious emotional disturbance". This site offers many practical resources regarding effective practices for students with many social and emotional challenges.
cecp.air.org/

Key Strategies
The Foundation

We'll talk in greater depth about strategies later in this chapter. However, these are so important we wanted to discuss them early on. Here are questions we often have: Is it *ever* ok to use rewards? Is there *any way* to get students to be responsible? *Are there* consequences for harmful behavior? Well, *yes, yes, and yes*. Four key strategies we want to highlight in response to these questions: (1) expressing appreciation; and (2) celebrating achievements through student selected rewards; (3) learning social skills; and (4) restorative justice. Let's discuss these amazing tools.

Appreciation

All of us value when people we respect say that they appreciate something that we did or when they tell us they really appreciate something about us – how kind we are, how well we sing, the artwork we create. The fact is that when this happens we will feel rewarded. The difference, however, is that *people do not express appreciation for the purpose of controlling our behavior*. In fact, we use another word when people do that – manipulation which, of course, is seen as a punishment rather than a reward. If we are constantly looking for positive attributes of students and sharing with them what we appreciate, the fact is that this is likely to be reinforcing in the technical sense and help strengthen positive and proactive behaviors.

Celebrations

The idea of celebrating achievements is very similar to showing appreciation. In fact, you could think of it as one way of showing appreciation to an individual student or a group of students. The key is the relationship with that student and discussing with them what is helpful. If a student sets daily goals then she may choose their own reward or celebration for achieving their goals. There is an extreme difference between something that is selected by the teacher even if the teacher has tried to take the student's likes and dislikes into account. It is that daily conversation that will account for the student learning to think about how to make changes and actually internalizing the goals. The reward then becomes a sideline. It is a celebration of what has already occurred then the motivation for learning. The motivation is in the realization that someone cares about them and is willing to take the time each day to work with them on their goals and dreams.

Some teachers use celebrations for entire the class. There are two very different approaches. If the teacher says, "Class if we have good behavior this morning and get all our work done, you will get an extra recess," he is using the recess to try and motivate her students. Without teaching them self-motivation this will not succeed in the long run. A second teacher says at the end of the day, "Class you have worked very hard today and I am proud of the progress you have made on your research project. What can we do to celebrate your success?" They talk. Several ideas are thrown out and the class picks an extra recess.

Sometimes students select rewards a teacher would never consider that involve additional work and learning. In a 7th grade language arts class a student chose to type extra stories on computer and create pictures as his reward for achieving his goals on his daily report. A 5th grade student who was a good artist but struggled in academics chose to work on decorations for parties coming up for both classmates and teachers. His work was very detailed and received lots of acclaim. This improved his self-esteem and he became highly motivating to work hard on his classwork.

The key to using rewards effectively is the relationship with the children that they create and strengthen and the improved sense of self that results. If the reward only helps the student learn to do what adults tell him, then nothing has changed inside the child's mind. We all need recognition for a job well done. When we work together to give children recognition in ways that improve their sense of self and the entire community, then we can say rewards help rather than hurt.

Learning Social Skills in Community

Students often come to school not knowing how to make friends, talk about problems, or interact pleasantly with people they don't like. **Social skills instruction** is an unwritten school curriculum that every teacher at every grade level must address daily. We use many strategies for helping students learn social skills. However, the most effective and manageable strategy is to incorporate these skills into the daily fabric of our teaching. Many useful curricula for teaching social skills have been developed and we use these to garner ideas on ways to incorporate the teachings (Amish, Gesten, Smith, & Clark, 1988; Elias et al, 1997; Kusche & Greenberg, 1994; L'Abate & Milan, 1989; McGinnis & Goldstein, 1984; Walker, Colvin, and Ramsey, 1995).

Rehearsal approaches are particularly powerful, giving students opportunities to practice how they could react. For this purpose Gray (1994) developed *social stories,* which depict situations of concern to children. Each social story describes a social interaction in the first person, telling where the situation occurs, who is involved, what is happening, and why. Stories also describe the feelings of the individual. Students apply these stories to daily interactions as part of a learning process; the approach has been found effective with students with autism and with others who have difficulty learning social skills (Kuttler, Myles, & Carlson, 1998; Swaggart et al., 1995). Some educators have added music and other multimedia strategies when using social stories (Brownell, 2000). This helps children remember the skills they learn, as the brain can create associations to sounds or visuals.

Some teachers or support staff use social skills curricula in classes or groups on dealing with emotions, feelings, coping with loss, dealing with anger, and so on. However, we can also use these guides to infuse social skills instruction into our classroom in the form of "social mini-lessons." For example, when discussing negotiations between two countries regarding trade agreements, we help the class focus on negotiation as a skill; we provide some short information about listening and coming to win–win agreements, then have students practice in groups. Then, when a real conflict arises, we use this confrontation to help the students learn to solve problems, drawing on resource materials.

Restorative Justice: *Healing Hurt*

A final key approach is restorative justice. Said simply, "If you break something, it is your responsibility to fix it. If you hurt someone, it is your responsibility to do what you

can to heal the hurt." Rather than hurting students when they hurt others, we engage them in responsible behaviors to make it better. It's a powerful way of thinking and doing.

Beginning in classrooms and ending in courtrooms, the traditional notion of "justice" says we find who is at fault and punish them. Someone breaks a rule and there are consequences imposed by those in authority. Yet, punishment does not change undesirable behavior and weakens the community because those injured and the person who caused hurt are separated. There is no attempt at reparation or healing (Janney & Snell, 2000b; Koegel, Koegel, & Dunlap, 1996; Kohn, 1993, 1996).

Could it be different and better? In restorative justice . . .

> restoration, or healing, becomes the goal . . . A restorative approach seeks to repair the damage of crime. . . . giving victims a voice in the justice process through . . . mediation; holding offenders directly accountable for their behavior; and giving offenders "a way back" into the community through meaningful sanctions of benefit to the people who have been adversely affected. In essence, restorative justice is concerned less with fixing blame or meting punishment than with "making things right." (Gerard, 1997, p. 1)

In our classroom, rather than punishing, we ask a student who has wronged another to make amends. In a class meeting, we talk about what happened, ask the class and the student for ideas about how to repair the damage and heal hurt feelings, and negotiate ways to welcome the student back into the community. Students have similar dialogues with individual classmates, with peer mediators, or in circles of support.

Further, students do not get expelled. They deal directly with those they have hurt and do what they can to make amends. When they do so, they are welcomed back into the

community, into our classroom. Doing this, of course, means that we as teachers must have the courage to deal directly and openly with feelings and facilitate difficult conversations. When we do so, however, we simultaneously are helping students develop positive behaviors, helping to heal hurt and repair what is broken, and strengthen the sense of care and mutual responsibility in our classroom. We also will be helping to meet key student needs (Consedine, 1995; Cragg, 1992; Fletcher, 1986; Gerard, 1997; Young, 1995). Let's now step back and look at what behaviors mean and what this might signal that we do.

Challenging Behaviors
A Call for Understanding

As we respond to behavioral challenges, we find many complexities. Let's look at some common social and behavioral problems that face teachers in schools. Then we'll explore the meaning of these behaviors.

How Do Challenging Behaviors Look?

We see five general categories of social and behavioral problems in school: (1) underachieving, (2) isolating, (3) distracting, (4) disruptive, and (5) dangerous (Albert, 1996; Janney & Snell, 2000b.).

Underachieving. Most teachers become concerned about students who don't complete assigned academic work. Such students lose assignments and don't work in class or turn in materials. They do almost anything, it seems, other than class work.

Isolating. Students may withdraw or be rejected by others and thus feel alone and lonely. Although these students often don't actually cause *us* problems, their withdrawal is frequently an indication of conflicts within, which may erupt in more overt problems. One student diagnosed with ADHD tells of literally sleeping in classes throughout her high school career. Other students may have few interactions or relationships. Often considered "shy," such isolated students often have low self-esteem and fear of failure, and often have difficulty making friends.

Distracting. Students may be distracting to the point of frustration. These are the students who tap pencils, pull one another's hair, tumble or fall on the floor laughing. Evans and Meyer (1985) include various self-stimulating behaviors in this category, behaviors stereotypically associated with persons with autism. Such students play with

sources of light, twirl pencils or other objects, rock, or flip coins over and over (Janney & Snell, 2000b). These types of behaviors often occur when a student is feeling frustrated, bored, or disconnected.

Disruptive. When a student is disruptive, he or she actively intrudes on the flow of the class or on work with other people. Students can do this in many ways: being constantly negative, complaining, being verbally abusive, throwing tantrums, engaging in angry outbursts, physically fighting, taking the work of another student, destroying classroom materials, and more (Janney & Snell, 2000b).

Dangerous. On rare occasions students are dangerous either to themselves or to others. Dangerous behaviors are the most difficult and may include self-injury (from constantly scratching to suicide attempts); bullying; threats and intimidation; or physical violence —hitting or the use of knives, guns, chains, or other weapons. Such violent behavior is growing (Garbarino, Dubrow, Kostelny, & Pardo, 1992; Gilligan, 1996; Lantieri & Patti, 1996).

What Do Problem Behaviors Mean?

If we see behaviors as controlled only by external stimuli, we will seek to control students through reinforcers or punishments. If we believe behaviors are based on moral choices, we will exhort students to choose correctly and chastise them when they don't. *A more effective and accurate view is to see behaviors as efforts by which people communicate about their own needs.* If we adhere to this view, we deal with problem behaviors by trying to help students learn positive ways to meet their needs. Let's use Glasser's (1992, 2000) five needs of human beings, introduced in Chapter 9, to think about common needs communicated by problem behaviors.

Survival. People need to survive and to have resources to stay alive—food, water, clothing, shelter, and medicine. Survival responses can take many forms—concerns about personal safety, emotional anxiety, hunger. Our students may react in surprising ways out of a fear for their survival. Jan, an elementary teacher, tells this story:
Lynette spilt a pop all over us and we had to remove our shoes. Julian, a student with autism, became quite agitated. He said over and over, "No fire alarm today!" As soon as we put our shoes back on, he calmed down. We figured out that he was worried that a fire would break out and we would be in the school when the alarm rang. He knew the rule—must have shoes on to go outside. The panic that Julian must have felt when he believed we might perish in a fire! (A. Jones, personal communication, January 15, 2000)

Survival does not necessarily have to be objectively threatened. The threat to survival is what is *experienced* by the student and may be physical or emotional.

Love and Belonging. We have a powerful need to be loved, to belong with a group of people, to feel needed, wanted, and appreciated. For many students, however, this need is not met. In both high- and low-income families, students often do not receive adequate attention through personal time spent with parents, eating family dinners and discussing the day or reading books together. Some parents are so busy providing food and clothing that there is no time or energy left over. Other parents are involved with work or social commitments or keep their children to involved in activities to spend personal time with them. Many students have no close adult relationships and have limited experience of nurturing relationships.

When students do not feel a sense of love and belonging, they often react in many problematic ways—acting the class clown, breaking rules, making loud jokes or obscene gestures, constantly putting themselves at center stage (Albert, 1996; Gilligan, 1996; Paley, 1990). Other students join gangs involved in dangerous and illegal activities (Garbarino, Dubrow, Kostelny, & Pardo, 1992). Yet others withdraw. Underlying these actions are desperate needs for connection and care and feelings of unworthiness and low self-esteem.

Power. All people need some control over time, space, activities, or situations and chances to feel skilled or competent. For many reasons, however, students often feel overwhelmed, alone, restrained, and powerless. Parents may not give their children opportunities for choices. Schools make matters worse with structured and rigid classes. Students with special needs often have been in small, highly controlled special education classes. Some students come from homes in which they have been abused and where alcohol and drug abuse make their lives unstable, where they feel they cannot control even small parts of their lives. Students who are poor may feel that they are powerless in a nation of wealth.

When students feel a lack of power and competence, they may react in many negative ways. Some seek *revenge* for real or imagined hurts. Gilligan (1996) found that abused murderers committed their crimes seeking to achieve a sense of *justice,* "an eye for an eye." Others seek *avoidance of failure.* Believing that they can't be successful, they compensate by withdrawing and appearing inadequate, hoping that people will not remind them of their unworthiness. A teacher told this illustrative story:

One day I had the kids make a French calendar. They were to write the name of the month and days of the week. Vernon kept saying, "This is stupid Mrs. Kwoslo, this is stupid, stupid. . . ." Then he looked up at me and said, "This is hard, Mrs. Kwoslo." (B. Quinlan, personal communication, March 16, 2000)

Most disconcerting are occasions when students refuse to respond to our requests, most often called **noncompliance.** Kunc (1998) says we should think of this *no* as the tip of an iceberg. What might *no* mean? There are numerous possibilities: "Ask me later"; "I am afraid of failure"; "Not with you!"; "I am embarrassed."

Fun. We all need activities that are enjoyable and invigorating, simply fun. When students are bored, they will do almost anything to change that. Students daydream and escape in other ways—playing games, making faces, throwing spitballs. They may also become frustrated, get into conflicts, or tell us in many other ways, "I don't want to be here." The following story is illustrative.

Ruben was entering Margaret's third-grade class from a school where he had been in a special education class. He had terrible problems there and would tantrum, scream, and toilet on himself daily when he came to the classroom door. In the special class he had to "sit straight and practice writing his name over and over before he could do anything else." Margaret's eyes glisten as she tells what happened on the first day in her third-grade class:

On his way into class he started to become upset at the doorway, but I caught him casting a mildly interested eye at the fish tank. Before I was introduced to him or his parents, I handed him the fish food and asked him to feed the fish. End of a big problem with a long history. He walked right in happily. This great kid and the fish are flourishing". (M. Alkari, personal communication, September 12, 2000)

This child, with limited verbal communication abilities, had been saying by his behavior, "I hate this class. It is boring, repressive. I don't want to go." He fought with all his might. Several years of "behavior programs" based on behavior modification had done nothing; but the simple, attentive response of this teacher made a difference. Of course, Margaret built on this initial response, building an accepting, engaging community for Ruben.

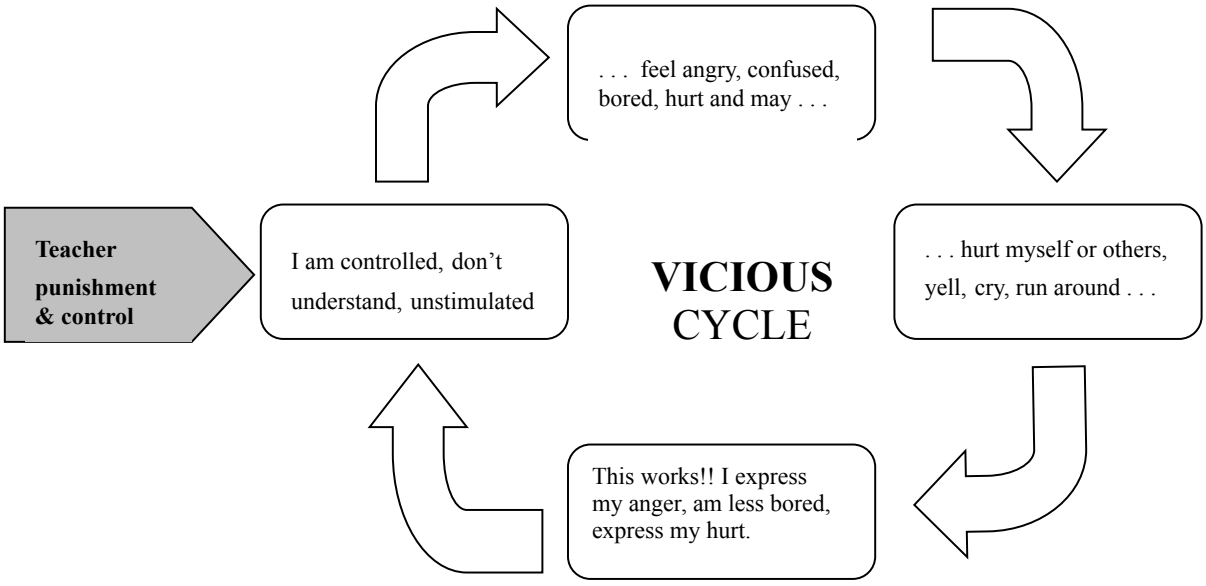
Freedom. Freedom means both a lack of restraint and the ability to choose, to make decisions. If any single human need is the most widely ignored in schools, it is probably this one. In talking with groups of teachers about this topic, we frequently ask about the

ways they got into trouble in school. Everyone laughs. "Why is this funny?" I ask. The reason it is funny is that one of the main causes of the trouble was always that the teacher was rigid and controlling; the problem behaviors defied an authoritarian regime in which rules were more important than people. We see over and over that teachers who provide students choices and freedom to move around and talk while they work have fewer problems in their classes. Of course such teachers spend a lot of time helping students learn how to handle their freedom, but they know how important it is.

Vicious Cycles

What happens when a student's needs are not met? According to Hitzing (1994) a vicious cycle often develops, in which negative behaviors and distrust spiral downward. The figure below demonstrates how this works. For example, suppose a student feels emotion based on an unmet need and reacts with unacceptable behavior. When he acts out or withdraws, he gets more of his needs met, though in a negative way. If the student wants greater control, he gets it; if attention, he gets this. In other words, rather than understanding needs and looking for positive ways to meet these, we often respond in ways that exacerbate the original problem. We may restrict the student, become angry, hold the student out of interesting activities. Consequently, problematic behaviors continue with increased intensity.

Vicious Cycle in Behavioral Challenges
Source: Adapted from Hitzing (1994)



Students with social and emotional challenges often are struggling in very difficult situations. On the one hand, students *need* someone to care for and listen to them; they need attention, help in learning how to get what they need in positive ways, and someone to reach out to them. However, what they frequently *get* is punishment, anger, rejection, and segregation—responses that ensure that they feel more anger, hurt, and loneliness (see the figure below). They also are often placed in an "alternative school" or in special education classes for students with emotional disturbance (Kauffman, 1997) with other students having similar difficulties—in a setting where positive role models are not available and where students learn poor behaviors from one another.

Needs of Students and Typical Responses

WHAT STUDENTS NEED	WHAT THEY OFTEN GET
Care and love	Rejection
Sense of belonging	Segregation (special education class, alternative school)
Support	Anger
Attention	Punishment
Respect	Humiliation
Help with learning positive ways to get needs and desires met	
Encouragement	

Proactive Responses to Social and Behavioral Challenges: *From Punishment and Control to Choice and Care*

There is good news, however. Surprising as it may seem, when we respond proactively to students based on the principles we outline in this chapter, students often will move toward prosocial, responsible behavior. It's the difference between being kept in a jail by hated taskmasters and joining a family that has fun together. Responding proactively is not easy, of course, though on occasion we'll be surprised as a serious problem seems simply to vanish. Perhaps hardest for us will be learning how to shift from teacher-centered to student-centered teaching. Let's look at some key strategies that promote positive interactions and prevent vicious cycles.

Meeting Student Needs

When we see puzzling and troubling student behavior, we ask "What need is not being met for this child?" Every action communicates a message. When we work to meet student needs we do so in two ways: (1) preventive and (2) responsive (Janney & Snell, 2000b). For each need we constantly seek to provide opportunities that *prevent* problems from occurring. We work to create a class that is fun, safe, and emotionally secure. In other words, if we want students to act respectfully, our class must be a place they enjoy, where they feel physically and emotionally safe, where they know we care about them. Anything short of this and we become one of the factors creating behavioral problems (Albert, 1996; Hitzing, 1994; Kohn, 1996, 1999).

We also see a student always as a *person.* As students cause us trouble, we can too easily focus only on their problem behavior. We get angry or upset and often distance ourselves, depersonalize our actions. By doing this we may actually exacerbate problems. Treating our students with respect as people is a simple but powerful approach. We talk with respect, no matter what students have done (Glasser, 1992, 2000; Kameenui & Darch, 1995; Lovett, 1996; Maag, 1997; Paley 1990). When teachers loose control of their words, they have forgotten that the only person who's behavior they can control is themselves and they have jeopardized the community in the classroom. We are always modeling what we want students to do in challenging situations.

We also seek to *respond* effectively, understanding that challenging behaviors demonstrate unmet needs. We help students find ways to meet their needs in positive ways. To explore proactive strategies, let's again use Glasser's (1992, 2000) model of human needs.

Survival. Many children come to school with their basic needs insufficiently met. We cannot change their home environments, but we need to be aware of their intense feelings. To help, we can keep some basic food supplies from the cafeteria in the room for students who are hungry, allow water bottles, and find people with whom students can talk. We can also be aware of how children respond emotionally, sometimes feeling a sense of panic and fear. Some children with autism, for example, respond with panic to loud noises. For such students we can reduce noises and provide extra support through social stories and other strategies.

Love. Many children do not feel loved and accepted. One way to combat this is to create times and places where socializing is part of classroom activities. When students need approval, we ask them to take a message to a group, send them to talk to another

student who is upset, or simply get very excited over an assignment they have done well and ask them to share it with another student. Of course, preventing students from being segregated into special classes is a key strategy in helping reduce isolation and create a sense of belonging. In addition, teaching that utilizes cooperative learning and peer buddies provides opportunities for the growth of relationships (Amado, 1993; Hughes et al., 1999). When students cause problems, we figure ways to meet the situation positively. A seventh-grade teacher told about Erma, a student who frequently left her desk to go talk to friends when she was supposed to be completing her work. The teacher decided to incorporate more social time, not less, into Erma's daily schedule.

Power. Students who have been denied power can be the most challenging. When students act out, our instinct is often to want to *reduce* their efforts to achieve power. Therefore, when we intentionally develop strategies to give these students *more* power, it can feel very risky. Yet we can find ways to do so that will make a difference (Kunc, 1998; Smull & Harrison, 1992; Walker & Walker, 1991). Examples:

- A student stands up in the middle of class and tells us this lesson is crap. We ask to meet with him at the end of the class. We ask him if he would work with us to redesign how we teach the lesson. Surprised, he agrees.
- Jay is always bullying younger students. We tell him that we can't let that happen. We ask him what would he like to do to make amends. We give him some choices —tutoring children after school (under supervision), taking a child on a field trip with a group, volunteering to help at a local circus.
- Create classroom jobs for each student so each one has control over a specific area or type of classroom situation. These jobs stay constant all year so the student truly owns the job and has both the control and the responsibility of it.
- Have each student be an "expert" in something he or she can share with others. The teacher then intentionally sends students to the expert for help.
- Involve students in making decisions—choosing topics on which to focus, solving problems in the classroom, selecting order of activities for the day. The teacher then puts into action the choices that were made by the students.

Fun. Making our class fun is an ongoing process. We use students' interests to get them into learning. If a student is interested in cars, for example, we can take a physics concept and revolve it around cars; in language arts we can provide reading materials and research information for a project on types of transportation. We can use many other strategies too:

- Incorporating multiple intelligences—music, dance, art, drama on a daily basis into the learning.
- Playing games, particularly cooperative games, that connect to learning material in a fun way
- Laughing a lot, telling funny jokes, using humor
- Sharing aspects of our lives , at the start of the day and particulary in reading any material when we are modeling making connections to the work.

When students react in ways that tell us they are not having fun, rather than punishing and making our class even more grim, we look for ways to respond. If Jalessa interrupts the class by making funny faces, we give her the job of telling a joke to the class once a week. Or suppose students at the back of our high school algebra class, who have been having trouble with the class work, are constantly laughing together. We ask them to lead the class in a discussion regarding how to make algebra fun. They surprise us by making a play out of a homework assignment.

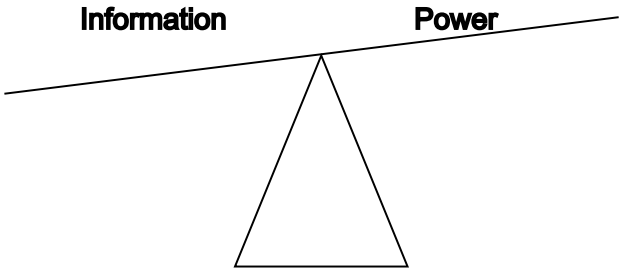
Freedom. If we have a class in which there is little chance of choice and freedom, students will create their own choices. How can we provide freedom for students in our class when we are supposed to be "in charge" as the teacher? Here are some examples:

- Provide choice time, a time when students may choose from any of several different activity options related to the study topic.
- Allow students to sit where they want.
- Have water or snacks that can be taken when needed.
- Have students choose books to read and write stories on subjects they select.

Providing Information for Learning: Moving beyond Constant Power Struggles

To communicate respectfully with students, we need the strength to communicate clearly to them our expectations along with the warmth through which we show we care. Too often we vacillate between being overly warm and being too strong. The more information we can give students—feedback, strategies, ways to think, and more—the less we have to use power to control their behavior (see figure below) (Kunc, 1998). Let's look at specific strategies for giving students information in respectful ways.

Balancing Information and Power in Relationships
Source: Kunc (1998)



Communicating to Promote Learning. The figure on page 399 summarizes contrasting approaches of control versus respect (Kunc, 1998; Faber, Mazlish, Nyberg, & Templeton, 1995). The feature illustrates some helpful strategies—and some practices to avoid or minimize. Let's explore these strategies and practices a bit. A student is running down the hall screaming. Rather than *assuming* we know what is going on ("That Brad is screwing around again, just showing off"), we can express *curiosity:* "Wow, what is going on? What's up?" This response prompts us to attend to the student in a different way.

In the same situation, one teacher might yell, "Don't run in the hall! You know the rules!"—an obvious demand that calls on authority. Another teacher seeing the same student might say, "Walk please," a request. One response *demands* obedience, whereas the other respectfully *requests* compliance. A demand gives a student no choice; a request conveys the power to choose.

As we work through conflicts, we explore multiple ways to solve problems. Rather than assuming we know *the* way, we can work out solutions. Relatedly, as we interact with students we can help them *understand the rationale* for our requests as opposed to using our *authority* and the implied force behind it.

We also seek to use clear ***I-statements.*** Rather than saying, "You must not leave campus to go to lunch," we say, "I want you to be safe. This rule was made to help keep you safe. I hope you will follow it because I care about you." The difference is tremendous. Once again, we become a person and they are given choices.

Often we hear that we should maintain a professional distance from our students and not get involved personally. Distancing ourselves from our students and their families supposedly enhances our authority. In fact, however, our real impact comes from the

relationships with our students and the care they feel from us. Therefore, we *share about our life,* our feelings, our thoughts. We help students see us processing what to do, share our own insecurities. We may fear that this will promote a sense of weakness, but the opposite actually occurs. As William reached out to Quincy earlier in this chapter, so we can connect with our students on a personal level. We can move to being a person rather than only an authority figure.

Communication Based on Respect or Control:
Philosophies at War in Practice

RESPECT	CONTROL
Curiosity	Assumption of intent
Request	Demand
Third alternative	One right way
Rationale/explanation	Authority
Clear I-statements	"You should" statements
Sharing/disclosure	Professional distance
Listening/support	Domination/coercion
Negotiation	Rewards/punishments

Source: Adapted from Kunc (1998).

We also *listen* to students. Stephen Covey (1989) stated that a characteristic of effective people is that they seek "first to understand, and then to be understood." Further, we use good facilitation skills to *reflect back to them* what we hear them saying and the underlying thoughts or feelings that are coming through. "Morice, you seem tense. I know you've been under a lot of stress lately." "Jean, you're telling me that you're exhausted because you were sick all night. That must make you feel a lot of pressure right now." This approach contrasts dramatically with discipline by domination and coercion: "Morice, get in your seat right now." "Jean, I don't care what happened last night, you know your responsibilities."

We ***negotiate*** with students to help them meet their needs. We try constantly to understand students; we are neither a pushover nor a dictator but set expectations, communicate these, and work out arrangements so the needs of all can be met.
We help students understand themselves, too, and help them ***set their own goals and evaluate their behavior.*** Reality therapy, as mentioned earlier, is one useful approach for this purpose. In reality therapy a teacher approaches a student and poses a series of questions that go something like this: "You are doing this. What do you think the result of this action will be? Is this what you want? If not, what do you want? What do you need to do to get what you want?"

A Time for Power and Control

On occasion, we will need to use our power to control a situation that is out of hand (Kunc, 1998). In order to understand when to respond this way, however, we can think through our "*non-negotiables*"—conduct that is simply intolerable. What is nonnegotiable and why? Too often we create difficulties when we define reasonably minor items as non-negotiables. Do we seek greater control and compliance than is useful or necessary? In some situations, what is considered nonnegotiable may actually not be that important—rules about raising one's hand to talk, being quiet, and staying seated unless permission is asked. Other situations, however, are dangerous; for example, a student may be hitting other students, kicking, or throwing chairs. When students do cross the line, we may have to use our power and control. When we need to assert direct authority, it will be easier if we have a history of positive relationships. It is also important to exert control in a respectful manner:

1. Use a caring tone of voice and gestures.
2. Provide a reason why something is nonnegotiable.
3. Be respectful. "I know this is important to you, but . . ." (Kunc, 1998).

Engaging the Classroom Community in Problem Solving

In typical classrooms, when behavioral problems occur, the teacher takes charge of the situation and metes out rewards and punishments. In a more effective class, however, the classroom community is involved. As teachers, we do have responsibility for our class. To fulfill this responsibility effectively, however, we support students in their efforts both to master the curriculum and to grapple with social and behavioral issues. For this support to work, our classroom community must have mechanisms and forums by which conflicts and problems are solved.

Class Meetings Class meetings are an effective way to solve daily problems. These can be scheduled or created on the spur of the moment. In these meetings the teacher is a participant, not a leader, in a problem-solving discussion. Students discuss, create, and implement solutions (Developmental Studies Center, 1994; Glasser, 1992; Elias et al., 1997). Let's observe such a meeting.

Stephanie is a high school English teacher. As we enter her class, she is in the corner of the room in an intense conversation with two boys. The two students clearly were in a conflict with each other and the teacher earlier in the class. The tension among the three of them is strong.

As we sit down, Stephanie is describing her feelings to Mark and Nathan regarding their rude actions. She explains why their behavior was not helpful. She clearly is upset, but she speaks calmly, with no judgment in her inflections. After talking a while, Stephanie and the boys join the rest of the class, who gather at the front of the room. She asks Mark and Nathan to explain their reactions. Classmates then share how they felt. They are encouraged to use I-statements, such as "I felt mad when you said that to me" but are not permitted to interrupt, yell, or accuse. Following their discussion, the class creates a plan for what to do the next time. The boys reluctantly suggest they read a funny skit tomorrow and decide to write in a special journal that Stephanie will keep available when they have something vital to tell her.

Later in the day, in contrast to this, the teacher down the hall has the same two students. When they act out, she first tries sarcasm, then yells at them. Finally they are sent to the office, where they receive two days' suspension. Unfortunately, there is no plan in place for the next time, and they certainly do not feel that this teacher cares about them.

Circles of Friends As we discussed in Chapter 9, circles of friends can be a powerful tool both to prevent problems and to deal with challenges. Any student who needs support can have such a group, and many children benefit by participating in one.

Peer and Conflict Mediation Many schools are establishing school- and district-wide "peacemaker programs" to train volunteer students in *conflict resolution* and *peer mediation* (Fisher & Ury, 1991; Fletcher, 1986; Johnson & Johnson, 1995; Lane & McWhiter, 1992; Porro, 1996). However, we can do this in our own class as well (Paley, 1992). Conflict resolution programs give opportunities for certain children to volunteer to be "peacemakers" or peer mediators. It is important that volunteers represent a mix of the class—that they come from different ability levels, genders, and ethnic groups, for example. Students receive training in helping other students. Here's how it works in the peacemaker program. If two or more children are having a problem, they approach a child designated as a peacemaker, who asks each student: "Do you want to solve a problem?" Each child then gets a turn to tell his or her story. When one speaks, the other listens. When each understands the other, the peacemaker facilitates a discussion regarding solutions. In several schools teachers report that peacemaking has become an integral part of teaching and problem solving at their school. Children begin using language like "I feel" and "I need" and begin listening to others' points of view. One urban school reported that parents were even learning such skills from their children (Baer, 1994; Fine, 1994).

Peer Supports Students can help one another in many ways. We create structures to encourage this, such as "peer buddy" programs, in which students work together on certain assigned topics or help a newcomer become accustomed to the school. When a community has been built, however, students also will naturally help each other in unpredictable ways. They will read together, help with classwork, talk to a hurting student, or calm down an angry friend. When we expect learners to help and teach them how, they do so in ways that are invaluable in encouraging those with behavior struggles. No matter what the problem—whether it is about the loss of a boyfriend, a bad grade, or calling names, and whether the children are very young or in high school —students can help each other through problems. Indeed, students often accept the help of a peer when they will not talk openly to an adult (Farmer, Pearl, & Van Acker, 1996; Hughes et al., 1999; Rosenberg, McKeon, & Dinero, 1999).

Giving Students and Ourselves a Break

Sometimes teachers and students simply need a break from one another. Typically, teachers send students to the office as a punishment. We would suggest that this and similar tactics be used less as punishments than as ways of giving us and students a break. Explain this idea to the student and suggest that we both might use the time to

think and then get together to talk. We also make arrangements with colleagues to allow the student to come to their classroom, or ask the school social worker or psychologist to assist us when things get to be too much.

Better yet, we can create places for breaks for students to get away on their own initiative, a "safe place." These could be locations in or near our classroom—under our desk, in the reading corner, in the hall. Some high schools have established open student support rooms where students can come at any time for help or to study, talk, or just hang out. Similarly, one elementary school established a quiet, pleasant location next to the principal's office where students could come when they needed to get away. Often a safe place has supplemental items to help the children calm down. These vary by age of the students but include: squishy balls to manipulate, a small blanket or stuffed animal to cuddle up with, paper and colored pens to write a note to a trusted friend, or a Cd with relaxing music and headphones. All these strategies are helpful in giving a student a place to be alone to process emotions.

Taking a break allows us to break the cycle of conflict and to regather our thoughts and emotions. This approach is also a sharp contrast to forced "time outs" for students, which require that students sit out their lunchtime or recess in the school office, and to in-school suspension, in which students are required to go to a special room supervised by a counselor or teacher.

Utilizing Professional and Community Supports

A range of professional supports are available for working with social and behavioral difficulties. Here are a few of the most widely available types of services; many additional variations have been developed based on unique resources in local communities (Garbarino, Dubrow, Kostelny, & Pardo, 1992; McLane, Burnette, & Orkwis, 1997):

1. *Support groups* for students with special problems and needs—divorcing parents, death in the family, drug abuse, pregnancy, and so on
2. Consultation support concerning student needs, provided to teachers by a psychologist, social worker, or counselor
3. Individual counseling
4. Group counseling; most effective when students participate voluntarily rather than being referred for "behavior problems"

Although these professional services can be helpful, they are not sufficient to help students solve serious behavioral problems. Counseling and support groups help students begin to understand themselves—to identify, label, and think about their feelings. However, students need daily practice and learning through modeling and gentle instruction. Our class is a key place where this occurs.

Engaging Parents in Partnership

Engaging parents is very critical. We want to reach out to parents as partners. We walk a fine line here, however, for a parent may be an important contributor to the social or behavioral problem a child is having. We have to reach out, communicate, and listen carefully. On the other hand, we have to be careful not to make unwarranted assumptions (Garbarino, Dubrow, Kostelny, & Pardo, 1992; Koegel, Koegel, Kellgrew, & Mullen, 1996). Several strategies are particularly useful when we are dealing with families in relation to behavioral concerns:

- Be aware of the history of the family, of the challenges the family faces, and of how these have affected the child. Ask the parents about their lives.
- Tell parents the problems that are showing up in school and ask whether they see similar things at home. Ask their opinion as to what to do.
- Although families of children with behavioral problems often have many problems themselves, look at the strengths of the family. Focus and build on these.
- Communicate with the family about positive attributes of the child and about the child's growth and successes as well as about his or her problems.
- With some students, consider sending home frequent "behavior reports."
- Also be aware, however, of the dynamics in the family. In some situations in which children are being abused, negative reports from the school can set off additional abuse.

Individualized Differentiation for Behavior: *The Behavior Intervention Plan*

Educators who utilize the positive approaches outlined in this chapter (and in recommended references) will be fulfilling both the spirit and the letter of the law. Sometimes, however, students' behavioral problems are so puzzling and challenging that we need to develop a formal Behavioral Intervention Plan for a student. This may be part of a student's IEP, Section 504 plan, or part of a plan desired by the school staff or parents. Although the student's problem may be complex, the BIP steps are simple (see Albin, Horner, & O'Neill, 1994; Hitzing, 1994; Janney & Snell, 2000b).

Selected Proactive Approaches to Social and Behavioral Challenges

Name of Approach	Key Resource
Conscious Discipline	Becky Bailey (2001) Conscious Discipline. Love Guidance Press.
Circle of Courage	Larry Brendtro (2003) Reclaiming Youth at Risk. Solution Tree Press.
Collaborative Problem-Solving	Ross Greene (2008) Lost at School: Why Our Kids with Behavioral Challenges are Falling through the Cracks and How We Can Help Them. Scribner.
Setting Limits	Robert J. MacKenzie (2003) Setting Limits in the Classroom: How to Move Beyond the Dance of Discipline. Three Rivers Press.
Cooperative Discipline	Linda Albert (1996) Cooperative Discipline. Ags Publisher.

Step 1: Identify Social and Behavioral Problem(s) We first identify clearly the behaviors about which we are concerned, explaining in clear terms exactly what a student does. Rather than saying, "Justine is angry all the time," we describe what exactly Justine does, how she shows her anger. "Many times when boys in the class talk with Justine, she will grimace at them and tell them loudly to go away. She argues with friends during lunch and sits at the back of the class and sulks." This paints a clearer picture. To raise our level of awareness further, we keep a running record in which we describe students' academic, social, and behavioral actions. This illuminates the interconnections between instruction and the behaviors.

Step 2: Develop a Student-Centered Theory Recently we talked with a teacher who was having a lot of trouble with a student. She was desperate to figure out a strategy that would "control this student's behavior." However, when we asked, "*Why* is this student acting this way?" she did not know. The question had not been asked by anyone. When we go through a systematic process of looking at a student's behavior to determine its strength and the underlying causes or situations that trigger the problem, we are doing a version of a functional assessment (O'Neill, Horner, Albin, Storey, & Sprague, 1996). Rather than responding only to the behavior itself (most often merely

symptomatic of the real issue), we seek to understand what is going on and to develop a theory that will give us a sound basis for devising strategies to help the student. Rather than asking, "How can I control this kid?" we then ask questions like the following (Albin, Horner, & O'Neill, 1994; Evans & Meyer, 1985; Hitzing, 1994; Janney & Snell, 2000b.):

- What is the quality of life for the student?
- Why is this behavior occurring? What is the person trying to communicate through this behavior? What legitimate human need is being signaled?
- To what people, places, choices, and activities is the student connected?
- What is going on at home or in the community that affects the student?
- From what resources does the student draw emotional strength and support?
- How well does the student communicate? Through what modalities most effectively?
- Why does this behavior concern me? Is it really important, or is the problem more about my need for control?
- How can I help the student not feel the need to react this way?

With these questions in mind we gather information. We talk with students, have them write about their homes and lives as part of classroom literacy activities, observe them in the school, talk with parents and others who know the students, and make home visits. The key here is to focus on understanding the student but not to be rigid about how we gather information. We seek to understand the *student's story* as it is now and as it has unfolded in the past.

Often we will need to think carefully about what was going on before and around the time that a behavioral incident occurred—what behaviorists call "antecedent information." This information signals a specific need or feeling the person is trying to communicate. Useful questions include (Janney & Snell, 2000b):

- *Who* is present? How many people? Is someone coming or going?
- *What* is going on when the behavior occurs? Is there a pattern? What is happening when the behavior *never* occurs? In what type of task is the student involved—reading, math, gym? Is the task too hard or too easy? Is the student waiting a turn?
- *When* does the behavior occur? Is there a pattern? Before lunch? Just before the end of the day?
- *Where* does the behavior occur? On the playground? In class, in the office, at home, at the movies, at the grocery store? In a large open space or a closed space?

As we look at the *behavior itself,* we count and record the time of day, duration, and strength of the behavior. Recording forms exist for this purpose, and we use them to graph behaviors. Behavioral interventionists often use such charts to track the impact of strategies on behaviors. Such information focuses our thoughts more clearly on the problem.

We also want to pay attention to the *consequences* of the behavior. What occurred after the behavior? Did the person obtain desired outcomes? We also look for clues in the student's total life, bringing together what we know about the student's story, life, behaviors, and expressions of thoughts and feelings as we listen for *patterns* (Evans & Meyer, 1985; Hitzing, 1994; Janney & Snell, 2000b).

As we proceed, we develop a theory about what is happening. This theory will guide our subsequent efforts to develop strategies to meet the students' needs. Out of this process we articulate a coherent, if tentative, view regarding (1) why the behaviors are occurring, the (2) underlying needs of the student, and (3) strategies to help the student meet his or her needs in a more positive way.

We will involve the student in all parts of this process. It should come as no surprise to the student that we are targeting certain behaviors. We want to know what students think of their own behavior and whether they think it needs to change. We will engage families and students in gathering information, in helping us all to understand what is going on. Most important, we will communicate with students about their needs and desires and explore better ways to meet these. What is important in the whole process is that we seek to be a partner with students and families rather than sitting back as the "professional authority."

Step 3: Develop and Implement a Plan When students exhibit serious behavioral problems, we develop a written plan that can be part of the IEP or Section 504 plan (see chapter 4) for a student or a tool that is used informally in class. Whether we develop a formal written plan or an informal working strategy, we need the same information (Albin, Horner, & O'Neill, 1994; Hitzing, 1994).

- Behaviors of concern
- Planned responses to behaviors or strategies to prevent and respond to behavioral problems
- Roles of teachers, support staff, parents, and others
- Method of evaluating the success of the plan
- A mechanism for reviewing the outcome and making necessary revisions.

Many different formats are used for documentation. Especially important are forms for recording strategies that include space for (1) prevention, (2) teaching new social and behavioral skills, and (3) responding to crisis situations (Janney & Snell, 2000b).

Step 4: Evaluate Outcomes Together A key difference between control strategies and student-centered approaches lies in the question, "How do we know when an approach that aims to deal with a behavioral problem actually works?" Under a control philosophy, authority figures identify the problem. A strategy is deemed successful when the problem behavior disappears or when desired behaviors occur: The student quits fighting, or he reads when he is told.

However, a student-centered approach turns this around. Although the perspective of others in the setting will be important, we are *most* interested in the viewpoint of the student. For if behaviors are related to a range of individual needs, it will not be possible to eliminate or create behaviors without addressing the key needs of the person. In this view, the problem is solved when the needs of the person are met according to the *student's* viewpoint (Hitzing, 1994; Lovett, 1996).

Nonviolent Crisis Intervention

The strategies we've outlined will be sufficient to deal with most social and behavioral problems. Sometimes, however, crises erupt after building over a long period of time. At these moments, we need strategies for nonviolent crisis intervention.

Fisher and Ury (1991) describe three types of negotiating styles used in crisis situations: (1) soft, (2) hard, and (3) principled. **Soft negotiators** tend to focus on the relationship and may even fear conflict more than the problem itself. Such individuals often try to ignore issues rather than deal with them. **Hard negotiators,** on the other hand, seek to win no matter what the costs. **Principled negotiators** avoid both of these extremes. Separating the person from the problem, they seek a situation where all have their needs met and are treated with respect.

In some cases problems may escalate into a crisis in which a student loses control and may become dangerous. The figure below illustrates five typical stages of crisis and a range of both helpful and counterproductive responses. At any point in time during a crisis, the problem may escalate to a higher or lower level of threat depending on how those involved respond.

Proactive Crisis Management

STAGES OF CRISIS DEVELOPMENT	COUNTERPRODUCTIVE RESPONSES	HELPFUL RESPONSES
Anxiety demonstrated by . . .	*Issue Directive:* "Do this!"	*Listen and reflect:* "Mary, you seem upset today."
Noncompliance	*Set limits:* "You can't do that."	*Express curiosity:* "What's going on?"
Disruption	*Establish consequences:* "If you do this, I will . . ."	*Be supportive:* "I'm here if you want to talk."
Unusual actions	*Label the student:* "You're . . . a problem, an angry child . . ."	*Partner:* "Let's work together on this."
		Express healthy expectations: "It will be OK."
Trigger: Action sets crisis in motion . . .	*Demand compliance:* "Sit down!"	
Questioning—"Why do we have to?"	*Apply consequences:* "You will get an F for this course."	*Cool off:* Take some deep breaths, acknowledge feelings.
Refusal	*Make threat/intimidate:* "Stop or I will call your mother"	*Agree to work it out:* Show willingness to solve problem and let person know you are ready to discuss issues.
Emotional outburst		
Crisis: A serious crisis develops. We see . . .	*Show anger:* "Back off!" With loud voice and flushed face.	*Give personal point of view:* Give your point of view using I-statements.
Intimidation	*Move in:* Move toward screaming student to stop him.	*Solve the problem:* Brainstorm win–win solutions.
Threat		
Violence	*Retaliate/expel:* "Go to the office now!"	
	Punish: "You lose your privileges for the week!"	
Recovery: Student settles down and feels . . .	*Blame:* "You always act this way."	*Listen:* "You look like you are sad."
		Support: "How can I help?"

STAGES OF CRISIS DEVELOPMENT	COUNTERPRODUCTIVE RESPONSES	HELPFUL RESPONSES
Embarrassment	*Use instruction to retaliate:* "I've told you, walk out when you feel upset. What is wrong with you?"	*Normalize crisis:* "All of us have times when we lose it."
Guilt		
Shame		*Make personal disclosure:* "I did this when I was your age."
Resolution	*Remind of crisis:* "You were out of control earlier, you know."	*Collaborate:* "How can we work together to help you?"
Calm		
	Avoid: Teacher won't look at student.	*Analyze:* "What happened? What would have helped you?"
	Expect recurrence: "He's going to go off again if they don't get him out of my class."	*Problem-solve:* "What would be better next time you have these feelings? How can we help you deal with the issues facing you?"

Source: Adapted from Kunc (1995) and Lantieri & Patti (1996).

Often the development of a crisis begins with an individual who is experiencing unusual *anxiety.* This anxiety may show itself in several forms—noncompliance, disruption, extreme withdrawal. If we can listen, be supportive, be curious, and expect positive results, students are likely to settle down. However, if we act in authoritarian ways—directing students to act, setting limits, or labeling them or their behaviors—we often push them to the next level.

At the next level, some action may spark a response. Often this **trigger** will be trivial—a dirty look, a nasty comment, one person's stepping on another's shoes; but such triggers often set off feelings of rejection, unworthiness, and consequent shame (Gilligan, 1996). In this stage we see student challenges escalate—questioning, refusals to comply, emotional outbursts of anger or crying. Non-helpful but too typical responses involve demands for compliance, threats, and punishment. The person does not feel heard, and the anxiety he or she felt in the first place goes up.

Depending on the situation, the highest levels of *crisis* can take many forms, ranging from intimidation and threats to serious violence. Those using a paradigm of control will simply match the force of the person with force of their own—moving in, showing anger, and threatening either in words or in actions to retaliate and punish.

Lantieri and Patti (1996) outlined options in this stage: (1) avoid; (2) diffuse; or (3) confront, either *(a)* violently or *(b)* nonviolently. Soft negotiators tend to avoid the conflict, although this is often problematic. Hard negotiators tend to move toward the use of violence to "take down" students. However, those involved in **non-violent crisis intervention** use other strategies, as shown in the Tools for the Trek feature. These negotiators suggest that we take steps to cool off, share our view of what is occurring while agreeing to work out a solution, and brainstorm solutions. In the most desperate of situations, such actions often help calm the person and allow us to find alternatives that prevent violence and actually promote learning and growth.

What might this kind of intervention look like? Consider this scenario.
Darius came in looking very glum this morning. Carmen, his teacher, knew he'd been having a tough time lately. Before she knew it, however, things escalated. Darius was at the back of the room, screaming and holding a knife on Mitchell. Terrified, Carmen nevertheless stopped, breathed deeply and said, "Darius, you're really making us afraid. We know you've had a hard time lately and we all want to help you. We can do that. Would you please give me the knife." She stopped and waited, watching him and making eye contact. It seemed an eternity. However, he slumped just a bit, handed the knife to her, and sat down at the back of the class with his arms over his head.

The subsequent phases following the crisis provide an opportunity to help students think about their reactions. This is not a time for blame but a time for listening, sharing, and reflecting. It is a time for all involved to help students think through their needs and explore ways to get those needs met. Helping students find ways to make amends in interaction with the classroom community can be particularly effective and powerful.

IDEA and Behavioral Challenges
What the Special Education Law Says

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act of 2004 maintained the procedures related to behavioral challenges of students with disabilities that became part of the law for the first time in 1997. Concerns with student discipline continued to spark substantial debate in Congress during the reauthorization process. The IDEA provisions include the following:

1. ***Suspension and expulsion.*** Schools frequently suspend and expel students who cause behavioral problems. However, as an assistant principal recently said, "We send students home for three days. They come back to school and cause more problems. We suspend them again. We are not doing anything." Schools using *suspension and expulsion*

seldom have a strategy for helping students learn new ways of behaving. In response to this reality, the law stipulates that students with disabilities can be expelled or suspended for problem behaviors only if the behaviors are shown *not to be directly related to the disability* of the student. However, a student may be removed from the school for up to ten days, even over the parents' objection, if such procedures are consistent with the treatment of students without disabilities. A student who brings a weapon to school or uses or sells illegal drugs may be removed from the school for up to forty-five school days. During this time school personnel work with the student and parents to develop a Behavioral Intervention Plan (Janney & Snell, 2000b.; Koegel, Koegel & Dunlap, 1996).

2. ***Manifestation determination review.*** A team must meet to determine if problematic behaviors are directly related to a student's disability. The team conducts a review of student information within no more than ten days after a student is suspended or removed from the classroom for behavioral problems. If there is a direct relationship between the student's disability and his or her behavior, the school must develop a Behavioral Intervention Plan (BIP).

3. ***Behavioral Intervention Plan (BIP).*** A plan to address behavioral concerns must be developed by a team as part of the IEP when the "behavior impedes his or her learning or that of others, and must consider, when appropriate, strategies, including positive behavioral interventions, and supports" (Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act, 2004). At best, a BIP will be developed when behavioral challenges are evident, rather than after a crisis has occurred. A BIP can be developed for any student with a disability, not only for those classified as emotionally disturbed.

4. ***Functional assessment.*** A functional assessment is required whenever a school removes a child from his or her current educational placement. The intent of such an assessment will be to assist the school in developing a Behavioral Intervention Plan for the student.

Moving On to Respect

Dealing with social and emotional challenges is an important part of our journey. Students belong in caring classroom communities in which peers help them work out their problems. They deserve to be treated with respect and to have help in achieving their own goals and meeting their needs. They deserve teachers who are in control of their own emotions and feelings and can react calmly and respectfully in a situation . They deserve teachers who have thought out a plan of action and are concerned with each student's success, a place where actions are intentional instead of random and

reactionary. With this attitude and some solid strategies, we will find ourselves reaching more difficult students than we ever thought possible. Few experiences compare to the feeling of creating bonds with challenging students where they feel safe enough to change their defensive behaviors. It is the reason we continue to work toward a community that includes all children. The figure above provides a summary of our discussion in this chapter that helps us do this.

Characteristics of Classrooms Practicing Positive, Relationship-based Behavior Support

1. Adults demonstrate commitment to working with all students who are presenting behavioral difficulties – to keep them within the general education class and demonstrate to students that they are cared for.

2. Students are rewarded primarily through natural reinforcers such as genuine recognition and appreciation, valued activities, accomplishments; formal reward and punishment systems are avoided.

3. Children are supported in providing assistance to one another in dealing with feelings and behaviors through a variety of structures, including classroom meetings, training and implementation of conflict resolution, peer buddies, and circles of support.

4. Teachers incorporate instruction and learning regarding how to deal with conflict, feelings, and behaviors of concern as an integral part of the curriculum.

5. Educators treat students with respect and talk with them in ways that encourage them to communicate their feelings and concerns.

6. Teachers and other educators engage students in dialogue and negotiate goals and strategies concerning behaviors and responses to feelings on which they need to work.

7. When students have challenging behaviors, adults carefully consider what legitimate needs the student is trying to meet through the behaviors.

8. When students are so wounded and hurt emotionally, that they need some concrete rewards to aid them adults negotiate such rewards with students based on their own interests, choices, and needs.

9. When students have serious emotional and behavioral challenges, teachers work with a school-based, interdisciplinary team to conduct an intensive assessment to determine the roots of the behaviors and develop an intervention plan.

10. A crisis team supports teachers and other educators that is designed to provide support to defuse dangerous behavioral challenges.

Traveling Notes

We are most successful with students when we reach out to develop a caring relationship, even in the midst of challenges; when we move away from power struggles; and when we seek to provide information, helping students learn how to manage their own behavior rather than using our power and authority. Here are a few notes regarding positive practices from this chapter.

1. Teachers who have clearly thought about what they think about teaching children social skills. The things they do in their class are not random or reactionary, but are well thought out and have a purpose.
2. Rewards are used appropriately. The children set goals for themselves and rewards that interest them, rather than being assigned random stickers or trips to a class store.
3. Teachers use goals to help children think about behaviors and how they can improve.
4. When behavior problems occur, teachers ask questions about why the problem is occurring and seek to find the answer in the student's life.
5. Teachers always speak in respectful tones, never yelling or threatening, no matter what the provocation. They model respect and care they want to see from students.
6. Teachers use class meetings to engage the students in problem solving, relinquishing traditional control to further the strengths of the community.
7. Teachers use Glasser's five needs (survival, love and belonging, power, fun, and freedom) to analyze behavior and develop strategies designed to help them meet their needs in positive ways.

Stepping Stones To Whole Schooling

Following are some activities that will help extend your understanding and actions you may take towards positive behavior support in your classroom and school.

1. With one or two other teachers, identify the two or three children in your school who are having the worst behavior problems. Bring together a group to brainstorm ideas to help these students and provide teacher support. For each student: identify the behavior; seek to understand *why* the behavior is occurring. What *need* is being communicated; develop some ideas that focus on helping the student meet his or her needs in a more positive way while ensuring that other students and the teacher have their needs met as well; think about how this student's situation relates to

community—or to a lack of community—in the school; meet periodically to assess what is happening, and use this assessment process as an opportunity to learn.

2. Keep a journal regarding how you deal with students in your class who have challenging behaviors. What do you do? Are you punitive, angry, and controlling, or are you seeking to meet the students' needs? Are you treating the students with respect or using power exclusively? If change is needed, what two strategies might you employ to try to shift what is happening?
3. Review the strategies outlined in this chapter and develop a plan regarding how you could make these part of your teaching practice this year. How will you get support for doing this? Share your ideas and plan with another teacher. Find a teacher who is having problems with a child or children in his or her class. (This should not be hard.)
4. Locate a teacher who has a reputation for dealing with difficult children very well. Talk with the teacher and find out how he or she thinks about students. What are this teacher's ideas about dealing with challenging behaviors?