

CHAPTER 1

Foundations of Classwide PBIS

CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to . . .

1. Describe classwide positive behavioral interventions and supports (CWPBIS).
2. Identify the theoretical foundations of CWPBIS.
3. Access and use other available CWPBIS resources.
4. Understand the scope and sequence of this book.

***Imagine This:** It is your first day as an administrator. It's the week before school begins, and you are leading your faculty through a series of professional development workshops. As you begin a session on classroom management, you see eyes roll and heads drop. "Here we go again," mutters one teacher in the back row. "Let's see what this year's gimmick will be," says another. Disheartened, you review your remarks and realize that the 2-hour workshop you planned will in no way begin to address the school's excessive discipline referrals, teacher morale, and lack of systematic behavior support for all students. "OK," you say, addressing the group, "Let's look at some data, and let's talk about a systematic, evidence-based framework for delivering behavior support in the classroom."*

THE RESEARCH-TO-PRACTICE GAP IN CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Classroom management can be a challenge for even the most skilled teacher. Each year, students arrive with a range of behavioral needs, and teachers may not always have the repertoire of practices needed to best support everyone in their classrooms. Many teachers report

feeling unprepared to deal with students' difficult behaviors (e.g., Freeman, Simonsen, Briere, & MacSuga-Gage, 2014; Oliver & Reschly, 2007, 2010). The responsibility for ensuring that teachers are well prepared to support all students' behavior falls on teacher preparation programs (e.g., colleges and universities with teacher education programs, alternative route to certification programs) and providers of professional development, but evidence indicates that we are not doing enough (e.g., Landers, Alter, & Servilio, 2008; Myers, Freeman, Simonsen, & Sugai, 2017). The United States has a high turnover rate among teachers, which is due at least in part to teachers' struggles with classroom management (Klassen & Chiu, 2010; Landers et al., 2008). In order to attract teachers to the field and to keep them in the classroom, we need to ensure that they have the skills and support they need to be effective classroom managers.

The good news is this: We know what works (i.e., the **research** piece). Several decades of research have provided evidence about practices that will positively impact students' (and teachers') behavior in the classroom (Office of Special Education Programs [OSEP], 2015; Simonsen, Fairbanks, Briesch, Myers, & Sugai, 2008; Simonsen & Myers, 2015). We discuss some of these empirically supported practices and provide additional resources in upcoming sections of this chapter. Despite knowing what works, though, teachers often do not implement these empirically supported practices with the frequency and fidelity that leads to improved student behavior (e.g., Forman, Olin, Eaton Hoagwood, Crowe, & Saka, 2009; Myers, Sugai, Simonsen, & Freeman, 2017; Reinke, Herman, Stormont, Newcomer, & David, 2013). This **practice** piece can be a challenge: How can we support teachers' implementation of and fluency with empirically supported practices in classroom management? We hope this book will help to answer that question.

THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF CWPBIS

Let's begin with a very quick look at the theoretical underpinnings of our approach to classroom management. We apply a positive behavioral interventions and supports (i.e., PBIS) framework at the classwide level (i.e., CWPBIS). PBIS is heavily influenced by behaviorism and an applied, scientific approach to human behavior (i.e., applied behavior analysis [ABA]) (Alberto & Troutman, 2016; Cooper, Heron, & Heward, 2007). In a behavioral approach, the interventionist (who, in CWPBIS, is usually the teacher) explores the impact of the environment on an individual's behavior and makes changes to the environment to increase or decrease the likelihood of certain behaviors. Elements of the classroom environment that can be changed include the arrangement of the classroom, the distribution of rewards contingent on appropriate behavior, and the teacher's own behavior. If a teacher can understand which environmental conditions increase the likelihood of appropriate student behavior, he or she can provide those conditions. For example, if third-grade teacher Mr. Sanchez observes that his students are more on task when the window shades are down, he can lower the shades to increase the likelihood of on-task behavior. Similarly, if high school science teacher Ms. Langston notices that her students are more likely to participate when she gives specific praise related to participation (e.g., "I like how you raised your hand, Simone.

What did you want to contribute?”), she can provide more specific praise statements when she wants to increase participation.

A full description of the science of behavior is beyond the scope of this chapter. We address many behavioral principles in Chapter 2, including descriptions and applied examples of key concepts such as antecedents, consequences, and stimulus control. In the meantime, for a more in-depth explanation of an applied science of behavior, we suggest the following resources: *Applied Behavior Analysis for Teachers* (9th edition), by Paul Alberto and Anne Troutman; *Applied Behavior Analysis* (2nd edition), by John Cooper, Timothy Heron, and William Heward; and *Classwide Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports: A Guide to Proactive Classroom Management* (especially Chapter 1), by Brandi Simonsen and Diane Myers (yes, two of the authors of this book!). (Full reference information for these resources and all others mentioned is available in the “References” section at the back of this book.) Without a fundamental understanding of how behavior works, teachers may struggle to make the connection between theory and practice; that is, they will not understand why what they are doing has (or does not have) an impact on student behavior.

PBIS began as a user-friendly way to deliver individual, empirically supported, ABA-based behavioral supports to people with behavioral needs (e.g., Carr et al., 2002). Researchers and practitioners realized the potential that a PBIS approach could have at the schoolwide level and began developing a schoolwide PBIS framework (i.e., SWPBIS; Turnbull et al., 2002). SWPBIS is a multi-tiered system of support (MTSS) based on the public health model (Walker et al., 1996). In this model, all members of a population (in a school, those members include students, faculty, staff, and administration) receive a universal level of preventative support. We often call this initial level of support “Tier 1.” In SWPBIS, these supports include establishing agreed-upon expectations (e.g., “be safe,” “be responsible,” “be respectful”), teaching those expectations to all students in the context of routines (e.g., hallway, cafeteria, bus), developing a system for responding to student behavior that meets expectations, and consistently collecting data that are then used to evaluate SWPBIS in context and make modifications as necessary. Visit the OSEP PBIS Technical Assistance Center (www.pbis.org) for resources, research, and other information related to PBIS.

Outcomes, Data, Systems, and Practices

PBIS has four core elements: *outcomes*, *data*, *systems*, and *practices* (Sugai et al., 2010). The chapters in this book explore each of these elements as they relate to the content being presented, so it makes sense to introduce them briefly here. First, implementing any PBIS framework—be it at the schoolwide, classwide, or teacher-training level—requires **outcomes**. That is, what is it that you hope to achieve by adopting PBIS? We have found that teachers, administrators, and other education personnel generally agree on two overarching outcomes: improved student behavior and improved academic performance. Once stakeholders (e.g., PBIS team members, school faculty, others with a vested interest) have agreed on outcomes, they must agree on how to measure those outcomes, which involves the collection and evaluation of relevant **data**. For example, if a classroom teacher is interested in “increased student participation” as an outcome, he could track the number of

hand-raises during a discussion and see whether that number increases after implementing a specific **practice** (e.g., token economy). **Practices** are those interventions and strategies that we implement in order to achieve our outcomes; these are what will ultimately increase or decrease the likelihood of specific behaviors and should be selected based on available evidence of their efficacy and contextual and cultural appropriateness. (A discussion of empirically supported classroom management practices follows in the next section of this chapter.)

Finally, the success and sustainability of any PBIS effort depends on the **systems** that support PBIS implementation and maintenance. These systems include a plan for training (e.g., teaching students about the expectations, teaching faculty members to use CWPBIS practices) that is ongoing; one brief overview will not result in long-term effects. In addition to training, a functional PBIS model will have a system for data collection and evaluation, a system for responding to appropriate behavior, and a system for responding to inappropriate behavior. We often refer to the systems piece as the “heart” of any PBIS model; without systems, PBIS would not be able to sustain itself. If you would like a more in-depth explanation and discussion of these core elements of PBIS, refer to Sugai and colleagues (2010) and Simonsen and Myers (2015; especially Chapter 3).

EMPIRICALLY SUPPORTED PRACTICES IN CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Earlier, we said that we know what works, so let’s start with an overview of effective classroom management practices that we’d like to see all teachers using in the classroom. We use the term “empirically supported” to describe practices that have substantial, rigorous evidence demonstrating their effectiveness. These practices have been (1) implemented and evaluated by researchers, (2) associated with measurable and documented effects on students’ behavior, and (3) able to demonstrate efficacy across settings. Below, we organize our brief discussion of these empirically supported classroom management practices in broad categories (i.e., maximizing structure and actively engaging students during instruction; establishing and teaching positively stated expectations; implementing a continuum of strategies to reinforce appropriate behavior; and implementing a continuum of strategies to respond to inappropriate behavior) and provide specific examples of the practices within each category.

MAXIMIZING STRUCTURE AND ACTIVELY ENGAGING STUDENTS DURING INSTRUCTION

Structure in a classroom comprises several elements over which teachers exert a major influence (for the most part; certainly, there are some structural aspects—e.g., placement of doors and windows—that are beyond the teacher’s control). First, there is the visible

physical structure of the classroom (e.g., where furniture is placed, wall decor). Second, there is the organizational structure of the classroom (e.g., rules and expectations, reward system). Finally, there is the instructional structure of the classroom (e.g., how lessons are delivered, planned student engagement). A few key practices to maximize structure and actively engage students during instruction are outlined next; for a comprehensive look at CWPBIS practices, refer to Simonsen and Myers (2015).

Establishing and Teaching Classroom Routines

Establishing and teaching classroom routines is a critical part of the embedded structure in the classroom. Both students and teachers need to be fluent with when and how routines are executed. All day-to-day operations in the classroom should have established routines that have been specifically taught to students, including how to ask for help, procedures for using the restroom, where to find missed assignments due to absences, what to do if they are finished with a quiz before other students—the list goes on and on. Each classroom will have a unique set of routines that are contextually appropriate; that is, the routines are developed with consideration of students' ages, ability levels, and background knowledge. For example, in a kindergarten class, Miss Cruise may teach her students exactly what it looks like to sit appropriately during circle time (i.e., the circle time routine): legs crossed, eyes on teacher, hands and feet to self. This would not be appropriate for Mr. Perry's high school history class; instead, he may teach students exactly what it looks like to participate appropriately in a class debate (i.e., the debate routine): hand raised to participate, waiting for others to finish before speaking, ending comments when prompted by the timer or the moderator. Teaching classroom expectations will be addressed in a subsequent section.

Arranging the Classroom Environment to Promote Appropriate Behavior

All classrooms are different, and there is not a single way to arrange the classroom that will guarantee improved student behavior. What we do recommend is that the classroom be arranged to minimize crowding and distraction. All decor should be relevant and enhance students' ability to attend to instruction, rather than detract from it. Teachers should arrange the room so that they can adequately supervise all students; each student should be able to see the teacher, and the teacher (and students) should be able to move around freely without obstructions or furniture blocking traffic flow. This attention to arrangement will also help with transitions. Transition routines should be taught and practiced, as transitions are times when students may be more likely to engage in behavior that does not meet expectations. When planning the arrangement of the classroom, teachers should always be focused on the instructional approach and outcomes. If a lesson is group-based, the desks should be in clusters. If independent work is the goal, rows may be more appropriate. If a teacher wants to focus on academic talk and improved social skills between students, paired desks may make the most sense.

Actively Engaging Students in Instruction

Do you know a teacher who has never had any formal training in classroom management, yet he or she rarely has classroom management issues? There's a good chance that teacher is a pro at engaging students in instruction. Students who are actively engaged in instruction are much less likely to be involved in inappropriate behavior—those are two mutually exclusive responses! Teachers can use a variety of empirically supported practices to engage students in instruction, including high rates and varied styles of opportunities to respond (OTRs). OTRs could be as simple as asking students an academic question (e.g., “Who knows the capital of Manitoba?”) or as complex as asking for a written explanation of the impact of the Treaty of Versailles on the end of World War I. OTRs can be gestural (e.g., “Give me a thumbs up if you agree that the answer is 42”); they can be individual (“Sammy, show me where the page number is located”) or done in unison (“Class, on my count, everyone tell me the name of our president”). To be a true “opportunity” for students, the students must have the capacity to respond; that is, the OTR must be developmentally, contextually, and academically appropriate. High rates of OTRs are associated with increased student engagement (Simonsen et al., 2008), and increased student engagement generally results in increased academic performance—one of those overarching goals that all educators desire. In addition to OTRs, other practices associated with increased student engagement include direct, explicit instruction, classwide peer tutoring, computer-assisted instruction, and guided notes (Simonsen & Myers, 2015).

Maximizing structure affects the **antecedents** that occasion (i.e., “signal” the availability of reinforcement for) behaviors. We discuss antecedents and antecedent control much more in upcoming chapters. Antecedents alone do not increase or decrease the likelihood of behaviors that meet classroom expectations, but thoughtful consideration of environmental stimuli (e.g., furniture placement, visible rules) and other structural aspects of the classroom can increase the likelihood that students (and teachers) will know and perform desired behaviors at the appropriate times.

ESTABLISHING AND TEACHING POSITIVELY STATED EXPECTATIONS

In addition to maximizing both the physical and embedded structures in the classroom, teachers should establish and teach their classroom expectations to students (just as teachers would teach academic content that they wanted students to know and be able to apply). In a CWPBIS model, a teacher chooses between three and five positively stated expectations for the classroom (Simonsen & Myers, 2015). These expectations should be broad (e.g., “be respectful”) so they can be defined across a variety of routines. These expectations should be positively stated for several reasons. First, we want to remind students of what they *should* be doing rather than what they *should not* be doing. For example, if someone tells you “Don’t run,” you instantly think of running—which is *not* the desired behavior. It’s much more effective to say “Walk,” which reminds the learner only of the desired behavior.

Positively stated expectations also create a more positive classroom environment, which is challenging if teachers only have a list of “no, stop, don’t” rules. Finally, if teachers have a list of “no, stop, don’t” rules, students will inevitably find behaviors that are not explicitly prohibited in the classroom and promptly engage in them. (Imagine the list a teacher would need to have in order to discourage every possible problem behavior!) If teachers are in a school where SWPBIS is already in place, then the schoolwide expectations can be used as classroom expectations, which will help enhance consistency in language and behavior between environments.

Once a teacher has established a small number of positively stated general expectations, he or she needs to define these expectations in the context of classroom routines. We mentioned classroom routines in the previous section. These routines provide the embedded structure of the classroom and are critical to an efficient, effective learning environment. Teachers cannot assume that students will know how to execute behaviors that meet expectations; for example, students may have very different ideas of what “being respectful” looks like (if “be respectful” is one of the classroom expectations). Teachers should select a reasonable number of classroom routines (we suggest no more than five to seven) and define their expectations in the context of those routines. For example, if one of the expectations is “be responsible” and one of the routines is “independent seat work,” the following behaviors specifically define what that expectation looks like within that routine: “Keep your eyes on your own work,” “Place completed work in the bin on the teacher’s desk,” and “Read all directions before beginning your work.” One of the easiest ways to organize these defined behaviors is to create an expectations-within-routines matrix (see Figure 1.1 for an example).

After desired behaviors have been explicitly defined, teachers need to develop a plan for teaching those behaviors to their students. Teachers should identify a scope and sequence of instruction appropriate for their students’ ages and ability levels (e.g., When will lessons be taught? How often will social behavior lessons be taught? How will they be categorized—by expectation, by routine, or in another manner?). After the timeline is determined, teachers should systematically (there’s that “systems” piece of PBIS!) roll out instruction of the classroom expectations by explicitly teaching them to students in the same manner in which academic content is taught. That is, lessons should be specific; they should have measurable outcomes and a system for evaluating those outcomes; and they should follow a direct instructional approach (i.e., using a model–lead–test format, or “I do,” “We do,” “You do”). As with academic lessons, teachers should collect data to determine the effectiveness of expectation-related instruction and use those data to guide teaching (or reteach, if necessary).

Establishing positively stated expectations for the classroom ensures that all students (and teachers) will know exactly what behaviors are expected and when to execute those behaviors. Just as with academic content, expectations need to be taught explicitly, with meaningful instructional activities and informative assessment. In addition, students will need periodic reminders about the expectations. We know that students sometimes will forget academic content (what is the capital of Manitoba, anyway?) and may need review sessions or booster trainings; this same principle holds true for social behavior content as well.

	Arrival	Dismissal	Group Activities	Whole-Class Instruction	Independent Seatwork
Organized	Put everything in locker neatly. Turn your phone off and put it away.	Pack up all materials at your desk after the bell rings. Walk single-file to your locker.	Review who is assigned which role in the group. Review directions before beginning.	Have only what you need for class on your desk. Take helpful notes.	Have all needed materials on desk or nearby. Sharpen pencil before beginning tasks.
Prepared	Have all materials you need for the day. Have your student ID visible.	Write down all homework assignments. Bring home needed materials.	Follow all directions for group work. Complete all of your assigned tasks.	Complete all assigned readings prior to class. Write down details about assignments.	Be sure any needed technology is charged. Review directions prior to beginning.
Enthusiastic	Put homework in the correct bin. Begin the “do now” as soon as you sit down.	Select one thing you learned today to share with your family and write it down in your planner.	Introduce yourself to all group members. Set goals about timeline and productivity.	Actively contribute to class discussions. Look up related resources on the Internet after class.	Stay on task with phone off and away. Take notes on questions for teacher after class.
Nice	Greet your peers and your teacher. Hold the door for others who are entering.	Say good-bye to your peers and your teacher. Hold the door for people behind you.	Actively listen to other group members. Offer to help any group members who are struggling.	Raise hand to participate. If partnering, select someone different each time.	Raise hand if you have a question. Keep silent while working.

FIGURE 1.1. Example of rules-within-routine matrix for a seventh-grade classroom in an SWPBIS school in which all students are encouraged to “Be OPEN-minded.”

IMPLEMENTING A CONTINUUM OF STRATEGIES TO REINFORCE APPROPRIATE BEHAVIOR

As we discuss in the following chapters, it is the **consequences** of a behavior that will actually increase, maintain, or decrease the likelihood of a behavior in the future. That is, behaviors followed by pleasant consequences to the learner tend to be repeated, and behaviors followed by unpleasant consequences to the learner tend not to be repeated. If teachers go through the efforts to maximize structure, actively engage students, establish expectations, and then explicitly teach those expectations to students, teachers should make sure to provide consequences that are likely to increase students' desired behaviors and make all of that careful preparation worthwhile. There are several empirically supported practices that teachers can use to increase the likelihood of behavior that meets expectations, including behavior-specific praise, group contingencies, behavior contracting, and token economies (Simonsen & Myers, 2015). We take a closer look at these next.

Behavior-Specific Praise

Praise is a common social reinforcer used frequently by teachers. The most effective kind of praise is specific (i.e., the behavior being praised is explicitly stated) and contingent (i.e., it directly follows the behavior so the relationship between the behavior and the praise statement is clear to the learner). Specific praise statements have been associated with increases in appropriate student behavior across multiple populations (Simonsen et al., 2008) and are one of the most efficient and effective practices that teachers can employ in their CWPBIS systems. In fact, we consider it non-negotiable; that is, all teachers should be implementing specific praise in their classrooms without exception. Here are some examples of behavior-specific praise statements:

- “Brandi, you’ve done a great job completing this assignment neatly. That’s what it looks like to work responsibly.”
- “Jen, thank you for helping Teddy pick up his area and showing good citizenship.”
- “George, I like how you raised your hand to participate.”

Behavior-specific praise statements are intended to reinforce (i.e., increase the future likelihood of) behavior that meets expectations, but they serve other purposes, too. A behavior-specific praise statement is a verbal **prompt** (see a full description of prompting in upcoming chapters) for all students about expected behaviors; that is, when Diane hears George being praised for raising his hand, she is reminded that hand raising is a desired behavior. In addition, teachers can only deliver behavior-specific praise if they are paying attention to students' behavior. For students who find attention reinforcing, specific praise statements can provide attention contingent on an appropriate behavior. At a minimum, all teachers should be using behavior-specific praise to reinforce appropriate behavior, but there are other practices on the continuum that teachers may decide to incorporate into a CWPBIS system.

Group Contingencies

Group contingencies have been associated with increases in appropriate behavior (Alberto & Troutman, 2016). In a group contingency, all learners in a group must perform the target behavior to earn the same reward. There are three types of group contingencies:

1. In a **dependent** group contingency, one or a few learners perform a behavior and everyone receives a reward. For example, “When Lisa and Tim turn in 10 homework assignments each, the class earns an extra recess.”
2. In an **interdependent** group contingency, each learner in the group must perform the target behavior in order for the group to receive the reward. For example, “When everyone has read at least three books, we will have a pizza party.”
3. In an **independent** group contingency, whether or not the learner receives the reward depends entirely on his or her own performance of the desired behavior. For example, “If you clean up your area after art class, you can have 5 minutes of free time.”

Teachers may use variations of the group contingency (e.g., a marble jar wherein a teacher places a marble each time she “catches” someone behaving appropriately; when there are a certain number of marbles, the class earns a movie or other reward). There are several caveats for using group contingencies, and we urge teachers to only use group contingencies if the possible benefits, possible risks, and systematic implementation have been carefully considered. In the dependent and interdependent group contingencies, there is the risk of peer pressure. Teachers can mitigate this risk by promoting the contingency as an opportunity for community building and teaching students (using specific instruction, as described above) what it looks like to encourage and support one another. In the dependent group contingency, students who do not perform the desired behavior (or who engage in other inappropriate behaviors) may still earn the reward if the contingency is not set up carefully. In any of the group contingencies, learners may be less likely to perform the desired behavior if the reward is not reinforcing to them. For example, what if learners don’t like recess? Or pizza? These students may not be motivated to do their part (either by performing the desired behavior or by encouraging classmates) to earn that reward, thus threatening the success of the group contingency as an effective strategy for increasing appropriate behavior. Luckily, we have other options.

Behavioral Contracting

Although many teachers consider behavioral contracts to be an option for students who are struggling to meet behavioral expectations, we urge teachers to think about behavioral contracts as a way to proactively encourage appropriate behavior. Behavioral contracts can be used in conjunction with other reinforcement strategies (e.g., token economy) and mimic contracts found in the real world because they (1) are documented, (2) contain terms that were negotiated by both parties, (3) state what will happen if certain behaviors are com-

pleted (and if they are not completed), and (4) are reviewed regularly to ensure compliance (Alberto & Troutman, 2016; Simonsen & Myers, 2015). Behavioral contracts must be fair, contain specific details about the expected behaviors, and state how, what, and when rewards will be delivered.

Behavioral contracts should focus on the desired behaviors rather than the absence of inappropriate behaviors. For example, if a student was working on his time on task, one expectation in the contract could read, “If Dante remains on task (i.e., following directions, oriented toward teacher during lesson, oriented toward work during desk work, observing all classroom rules) for 20 out of 30 minutes during a given English class, he will earn 5 minutes of iPad time to be redeemed at the end of the day.” In addition, contracts can specify additional contingencies if the student exceeds expectations: “If Dante remains on task for all 30 minutes of a given English class, he will earn 15 minutes of iPad time to be redeemed at the end of the day.”

Token Economies

Most teachers have some familiarity with token economies, and we encourage all teachers to use this widely researched practice in their classrooms as a way to support and reinforce appropriate student behavior (Simonsen & Myers, 2015). Token economies are an overt system for recognizing and rewarding target behaviors, and although they may vary widely in appearance and delivery, all token economies should have the following components:

- **Tokens**, which are delivered contingently on the appropriate behavior. These can be tickets, stickers, points, play coins, or anything that can be easily delivered and counted (as they will be exchanged for backup reinforcers).
- **Backup reinforcers**, which should offer students a variety of reward options. Teachers may create a “menu” of backup reinforcers that could be activity based (e.g., 10 minutes iPad time), tangible (e.g., pencil or pen), or social (e.g., lunch with a friend).
- An **exchange system** that clearly outlines both the exchange rate, that is, the “cost” (in tokens) of each backup reinforcer, and the process for exchange (i.e., when and where exchanges take place).

Unlike group contingencies, token economies offer students different rewards for the same behaviors, thereby increasing the likelihood that students will be reinforced for the appropriate behavior and more likely to engage in that behavior in the future. Also, tokens can be delivered discreetly and can bear a quantitative relationship to the behavior being performed (unlike specific praise, which is usually verbal and does not vary in quantity as tokens can). For instance, “Great job raising your hand!” and “Great job helping Stanley pick up his books!” (after another student knocked them out of Stanley’s hands) provide the same amount of reinforcement for both behaviors, one of which clearly requires more effort. In a token economy, hand raising could be a “one-token” behavior and helping another in a situation like that could be considered a “ten-token” behavior.

Token economies do require more planning and consistent evaluation than other practices, but token economies can have an enormous payoff in terms of improved student behavior, making the effort well worth it. In addition, token economies mimic the monetary economy in which we all live (i.e., we earn a salary or wages for performing a task, and we exchange that payment for items that we need or want) and can be a valuable learning tool for students if the token economy is monitored regularly and tweaked as needed (according to behavioral data and level of support required) and culturally appropriate for the ages and context of the classroom.

IMPLEMENTING A CONTINUUM OF STRATEGIES TO RESPOND TO INAPPROPRIATE BEHAVIOR

Even in classrooms where teachers apply all of the strategies described above, collect data regularly, and use those data to make effective instructional decisions, there will still be student behaviors that do not meet expectations. When this happens, teachers should have a continuum of strategies to respond to students' inappropriate behaviors. We have outlined several of these strategies below. For more detailed information, see Alberto and Troutman (2016) or Simonsen and Myers (2015). (Also, the resources mentioned in the "Suggested Resources" section toward the end of this chapter provide much more in-depth information on all theories, practices, and systems discussed in this chapter.)

Behavior-Specific Error Correction

The first response to a low-level behavioral error should be similar to a teacher's response to an academic error. When a student makes an error when reading aloud (e.g., she says "through" when the word is "thorough"), the teacher will usually respond by pointing out that an error was made (e.g., "Can you try that again?"), helping to correct the error as needed (e.g., "Be sure to read the word completely"), providing increasing levels of prompts if necessary (e.g., "Read it with me: *thorough*"), and giving contingent positive feedback if the student corrects the error (e.g., "That's right. Keep reading!"). Teachers usually do not follow this instructional, helpful approach when responding to social behavioral errors. If a student calls out instead of raising her hand, common teacher responses include, "Stop calling out," "Don't be disruptive," or similar types of reprimands. Behavior-specific error correction looks different:

STUDENT: (*without raising hand*) Miss Newman! Miss Newman! I know!

MISS NEWMAN: Shawn, remember what it looks like to be responsible when participating in class? Calling out is not being responsible. Show me what being responsible looks like.

STUDENT: (*Raises hand.*)

MISS NEWMAN: Great job raising your hand, Shawn. Now, what is your answer?

Rather than just issuing a reprimand that does not remind Shawn of the desired behavior, Miss Newman points out the error, reminds the student of the desired behavior, gives him an opportunity to engage in the desired behavior, and acknowledges when the desired behavior occurs. As with academic behaviors, students will only learn social behaviors with practice and feedback. Of course, not all behaviors are low-level enough to warrant this kind of response (e.g., behavior-specific error correction would be an inappropriate teacher response to a fistfight in the classroom), and not all student behaviors will respond to this strategy. Behavior-specific error correction is one response in our continuum of strategies, and all teachers should be able to apply this strategy in their classrooms when appropriate.

Other Responses to Inappropriate Behavior

There are other strategies that can decrease the likelihood of inappropriate student behavior. A complete discussion of them is beyond the scope of this chapter, but we look briefly at several of them next.

Differential Reinforcement

Differential reinforcement is a strategy usually applied at the individual-student (rather than whole-class) level. There are different types of differential reinforcement, all of which apply a special schedule of reinforcement to decrease the frequency of inappropriate behaviors and increase the frequency of appropriate behaviors. These specific schedules of differential reinforcement (DR) include the following:

- **Differential reinforcement of lower rates of behavior (DRL)**, which reinforces a lower level of a target behavior that is inappropriate primarily due to its frequency. For example, asking to get a drink is an acceptable behavior when the frequency is low, but it is unacceptable when it happens too often. A teacher may use DRL as follows: “Sam, asking to get a drink is fine once in a while, but asking three or four times an hour is not fine. If you can limit yourself to asking for just one drink before lunch and one drink after, you can be the line leader this afternoon.”

- **Differential reinforcement of other behaviors (DRO)**, which reinforces an absence of the target behavior after a certain period of time. A teacher may use DRO as follows: “Santiago, if you can refrain from talking to Sarah for the next 20 minutes of class, you can have 5 minutes to converse at the end of the period.” (The teacher will need to ensure that Santiago is being reinforced for remaining quiet and on task and that any other inappropriate behaviors—such as writing notes to Sarah or making kissing noises, neither of which is “talking”—will nullify the delivery of the reinforcement.)

- **Differential reinforcement of alternative behaviors (DRA)**, which—happily—teachers should be doing already if they are following a CWPBIS model. With DRA, teachers reinforce a socially acceptable behavior that is an alternative to the target behavior. For

instance, for a student who struggles to keep his hands to himself, a teacher may reinforce an alternative behavior whenever possible: “Simon, I like how you have your hands in your pockets,” or “John, thank you for keeping your hands at your sides/your feet on the floor.”

Differential reinforcement can increase the focus on appropriate behavior and decrease the likelihood of inappropriate behaviors, especially when paired with other strategies for increasing appropriate behavior (e.g., behavior-specific praise, token economies). In any PBIS model, we want to avoid introducing aversive stimuli into the environment as a primary response to inappropriate behavior and instead use an instructional, proactive, and positive approach to increasing those behaviors that we do want to see in the classroom.

One term sometimes used when discussing behavior management in the classroom is **noncontingent reinforcement**. Although this term can be confusing (because, after all, reinforcement is delivered contingently on a behavior), we want you to be familiar with it in case you hear it being used in the field. In noncontingent reinforcement, reinforcers are delivered regardless of a student’s behavior (Alberto & Troutman, 2016). For example, if a student’s off-task behavior is being maintained by peer attention, the teacher may schedule “chat breaks” or similar things that are not contingent on appropriate behavior but that provide the desired peer attention. Noncontingent reinforcement may be used in conjunction with DRA.

Planned Ignoring

When students’ inappropriate behavior functions to obtain attention, it can be difficult for teachers to respond to the behavior *without* providing attention. For instance, if a student is calling out the teacher’s name loudly, in a singsong manner, and repeatedly (in other words, the student is not meeting expectations), the teacher is likely to respond with a look and probably a reprimand or error correction—all of which provides contingent attention (which the student likely finds reinforcing) that will maintain or increase the likelihood of that behavior in the future. For inappropriate behaviors that function to gain attention, teachers can use **planned ignoring** to decrease the likelihood of those attention-seeking behaviors. This means that when a student is engaging in an inappropriate behavior to get attention, the teacher must plan to ignore the behavior (i.e., not provide any contingent attention). Before using planned ignoring, the teacher must make sure that the student has ample instruction in, and opportunity to practice, the desired replacement behavior (e.g., raising a hand, in our example of the student who calls out inappropriately). The teacher should provide as much contingent attention as possible for the appropriate behavior; in addition, teachers should prompt often for the desired behavior (e.g., prior to a class discussion, the teacher says to the student, “Michael, remember to raise your hand if you want my attention”). If a teacher is using planned ignoring, he or she must withhold all attention (i.e., looks, gestures, comments) to ensure that the inappropriate behavior is not being reinforced, and the teacher must be prepared for the possibility that the behavior will intensify before it begins to decrease. After all, the student is used to being reinforced for a certain

behavior, so when there is no reinforcement, the student may simply try again, and increase the intensity of the behavior to better the chances of reinforcement. (Think about a child in the grocery store who is told “No” when she asks for candy. If the child is used to getting candy, she’s very likely to ask—or demand—again, and the situation can escalate quickly!) Planned ignoring should be used judiciously and only in conjunction with teaching, prompting, and reinforcing of the desired behaviors.

Overcorrection

Teachers may consider using **overcorrection** to decrease the future likelihood of inappropriate behavior. Overcorrection requires the learner to engage in an exaggerated or extended practice of an appropriate behavior contingent on a related inappropriate behavior (Alberto & Troutman, 2016). For example, if a student vandalizes a stall in the restroom, the teacher may have the student clean off his graffiti (simple correction) and then have the student clean off the other graffiti in the other stalls (overcorrection). Specifically, that is an example of **restitutional overcorrection**, when a student “makes restitution” (and then some) for an inappropriate behavior. Here’s another example: Several students run while lining up for lunch. The teacher has the students walk back to their seats and line up according to expectations (i.e., hands at sides, walking) and then has them repeat lining up appropriately five more times, which would be considered **positive practice overcorrection**. We sometimes see this concept applied in academics—for example, students may write a misspelled word several times to practice the correct spelling. While we don’t want students associating an appropriate behavior with an aversive consequence, overcorrection can be helpful in reducing future inappropriate behaviors while providing students extended practice of an appropriate behavior and increasing students’ sense of accountability for their actions.

Time-Out from Reinforcement

Sometimes, a time-out from reinforcement may be an effective strategy for decreasing the likelihood of future inappropriate behaviors. Note that in order for this strategy to work, the time-out must actually be from an activity or setting that the student finds reinforcing. Removing a student from an environment (contingent on misbehavior) in which the student didn’t want to be only reinforces the misbehavior by providing the student a chance to get away. The next time the student doesn’t want to be there, he or she is likely to engage in the same misbehavior that resulted in escape the last time. One appropriate application of time-out from reinforcement could occur when a student who is enjoying recess is being rowdier than allowed at recess and is removed (i.e., told to sit and watch) for a specific amount of time. Also, in a classroom, if a student is telling jokes to his delighted group members, the student may be asked to work alone for 15 minutes before being able to return to the group. Using time-out effectively can be challenging for teachers, and we recommend its use only (1) as one possible strategy on a continuum of responses to inappropriate behavior that is

embedded in a comprehensive CWPBIS system and (2) when combined with practices to teach and reinforce expectation-following behaviors.

THE PHASES OF LEARNING

As we've discussed in the previous sections, an effective CWPBIS model requires foundational knowledge about behavior, skilled implementation of empirically supported practices, the ability to sustain those practices over time, and the ability to continue implementation—with tweaks, as needed—across populations of diverse ability levels, backgrounds, cultures, and ages. We believe that learning classroom management is like learning most other skill sets, and we frame that in the *phases of learning model* (Alberto & Troutman, 2016; Cooper et al., 2007; Simonsen & Myers, 2015). The phases of learning (acquisition, fluency, maintenance, and generalization) lead sequentially to the end goal of a learner being able to apply what he or she has learned across settings and time. We use this model to guide our own instruction, and we use it to frame this book, as well. The phases are described briefly below (see Figure 1.2 for a visual depiction of the phases).

Acquisition

In the **acquisition** phase, a learner is exposed to new content. During this phase, the focus is on acquiring knowledge to be able to formulate accurate behavioral responses. Teachers should expect mistakes during the acquisition phase and be ready to provide specific feedback to support students' acquisition of new knowledge. Think of first graders learning to read, high school students learning to factor equations, or adults learning new technology for the first time. There will be errors, but eventually the learners should build a solid base of knowledge related to the new concept.

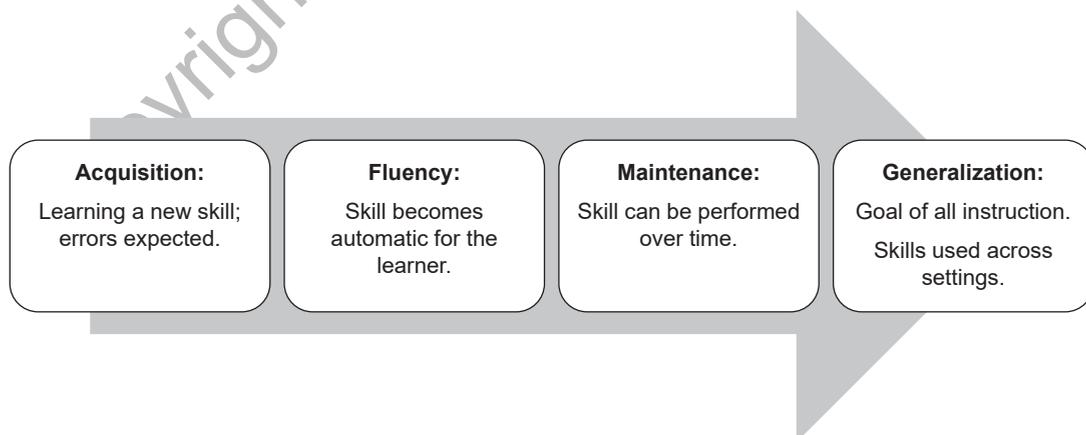


FIGURE 1.2. Visual representation of the phases of learning.

During the **fluency** phase, the focus is on the rate of responding. Learners should be able to execute the new behavior in a way that makes the behavior functional. If a student must sound out each letter when reading, he is not yet in the fluency phase of learning, and reading is not yet a functional skill for that student. If an adult still has to read the instructional manual each time she wants to record a program on the DVR, she is not yet in the fluency phase of learning, and that skill is not yet functional. Fluency is what makes a skill useful for a learner.

The **maintenance** phase of learning requires the learner to be able to execute a skill fluently over time without being retaught. Maintenance of a skill can be challenging; this is why teachers sometimes see a decrease in student's expectation-following behavior after weekends and breaks—the students, although fluent with the desired skills, are not yet in the maintenance phase. Remember what you learned in high school? Maybe trigonometry, or French, or scientific notation? Chances are you were in the maintenance phase with some of those skills (maybe long enough to ace a final or be successful on the SAT), but unless you use those skills regularly now, you've since "moved out" of the maintenance phase and might even require reteaching if there were a situation (GREs?) where you'd need those skills again. All instruction should promote skill maintenance so learners can use those skills without reteaching (Simonsen & Myers, 2015).

Finally, the **generalization** phase of learning is the goal of all instruction. In the generalization phase, learners can use a learned skill across settings and time. In addition, learners who reach the generalization phase of learning can modify skills to apply them in new or unusual contexts and situations. For example, an adult may be able to record a program on her DVR, but a real test of generalization comes when a friend asks that adult to record a program on his DVR, which is a different model. Similarly, a student may be able to speak Spanish, but true generalization occurs when that student can converse fluently with native Spanish speakers from Spain, Mexico, Puerto Rico, and Venezuela, all of whom are likely to have different dialects, pronunciations, and idioms.

The goal of all instruction is to ensure that learners become fluent with acquired skills that they can maintain across time and generalize to new settings and situations. We want the readers of this book to meet this goal, and we've already laid some of the groundwork for the acquisition phase by reviewing the basic tenets of CWPBIS earlier in this chapter. All chapters will conclude with questions and activities to promote development at each phase of learning as related to classroom content, and we hope that by the end of the book, you will be able to generalize what you've learned in your own educational environment.

SUGGESTED RESOURCES

In this chapter we have provided a very brief overview of empirically supported classroom management practices, and we want to be sure that you can easily find other resources if you are still in the acquisition or fluency phases of learning about classroom management. We've mentioned two of the resources below earlier in the chapter, so they may sound familiar.

First, the 2015 book *Classwide Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports: A Guide to Proactive Classroom Management*, by Brandi Simonsen and Diane Myers, was the predecessor to the current book and will provide you with an in-depth look at all aspects of CWPBIS. Also, like the current book, each chapter ends with questions and activities to promote successful learning at each phase: acquisition, fluency, maintenance, and generalization.

Second, the 2015 OSEP program brief titled *Supporting and Responding to Behavior: Evidence-Based Classroom Strategies for Teachers* (which can be found at www.osepideasthatwork.org/evidencebasedclassroomstrategies) provides an interactive electronic document with clear descriptions, examples, and resources (including videos) that will assist any teacher (in any phase of learning) with the implementation of empirically supported classroom management practices.

Third, the 2016 book *Applied Behavior Analysis for Teachers* (9th edition), by Paul Alberto and Anne Troutman, is one of our favorite resources to recommend for teachers at any phase of learning. All of us have used earlier editions of this textbook to support our own early attempts at effective behavior support in the classroom.

Fourth, The Guilford Practical Intervention in the Schools Series (see title listing at www.guilford.com/browse/education/guilford-practical-intervention-schools-series) is designed to support teachers in the classroom and covers a wide variety of relevant instructional, behavioral, and social-emotional topics. Two of our favorite behavior-related titles are *Evidence-Based Practices in Classroom Management* (2017), by David Hulac and Amy Briesch, and *Integrated Multi-Tiered Systems of Support: Blending RTI and PBIS* (2016), by Kent McIntosh and Steve Goodman.

OVERVIEW OF THE BOOK

This book is intended as a guide and resource for those who support teachers (including future and current administrators, current and future school psychologists and related service professionals, providers of professional development, and PBIS teams and coaches). This book will provide necessary information about (1) empirically supported classroom management and behavior support practices, as we've begun to do in this chapter; (2) professional development models that will move teachers toward more systematic implementation; and (3) strategies to support data-based decisions to provide teachers with the most effective support. We envision this book being used in a variety of ways, including:

- An applied text for graduate courses in educational leadership, school psychology, or another field that trains education professionals who will be supporting teachers;
- A resource for teachers who want to enhance their own implementation of empirically supported classroom management practices;
- A guide for school-, district-, or state-level PBIS teams to use when planning the scope and sequence of professional development related to CWPBIS; and
- A handbook for consultants and others who provide professional development for teachers and schools interested in improving classroom management systems.

As you may have already noticed, our book begins with a foreword that provides a historical perspective on PBIS and identifies the need for this book based on current issues in the field of classroom management and behavior support. The book itself is divided into three main sections. Part I describes the foundations of CWPBIS and the phases of learning (which you just read about in this chapter), provides a behavioral framework for supporting adult behavior (Chapter 2), and provides a general overview of implementation supports for teachers (Chapter 3). Part II focuses on empirically supported strategies to support teachers' CWPBIS implementation, including an overview of professional development models (Chapter 4) followed by detailed descriptions and examples of specific strategies, including explicit instruction or training (Chapter 5) and coaching and mentoring (Chapter 6). In Part III, we focus on using data to support teachers before, during, and after professional development, including establishing a data collection system and providing performance feedback (Chapter 7) and data-based differentiation of support for teachers (Chapter 8).

Part I. Supporting Teachers' Implementation of Classwide PBIS: Foundations and Basic Principles

Chapter 1. Foundations of Classwide PBIS

As you've read, Chapter 1 addresses the research-to-practice gap in classroom management and the impact of this gap on students and teachers. We provide an overview of empirically supported classroom management practices, touching briefly on the theoretical foundations of PBIS. We describe the phases of learning and their application to teacher training (and this book), provide a list of additional resources, and explain the need for and organization of this book.

Chapter 2. Behavioral Principles That Impact Adult Behavior Changes

In Chapter 2, we provide a foundation for understanding and deep discussion of behavioral principles relevant to adult behavior change, including the three- and four-term contingencies (i.e., antecedents, behavior, consequences, and setting events and motivating operations). We also examine the behavioral strategies specifically related to supporting teachers' implementation of CWPBIS, including prompting, stimulus control, modeling, shaping, chaining, and programming for generalization.

Chapter 3. Overview of Implementation Supports for Teachers

Chapter 3 begins with an overview of implementation (i.e., phases and drivers of implementation, lessons from research) and follows with considerations for organizing classroom supports for teachers. We revisit empirically supported classroom management practices and then look closely at the foundations and features of the other core PBIS elements (i.e., outcomes, data, systems).

Part II. Empirically Supported Strategies to Support Teachers' Classwide PBIS Implementation

Chapter 4. A Road Map to Building Systems of Support for Teachers

Chapter 4 provides an overview of professional development models, including the typical approaches used to train teachers. We examine empirically supported professional development systems that can be used to support teachers and illustrate how supports for teachers can be organized.

Chapter 5. Designing Effective Training Activities for Classwide PBIS

In Chapter 5, we describe what explicit training looks like and why it is an effective antecedent strategy for supporting teachers. We discuss options for delivery, necessary resources, effective evaluation of explicit instruction, and fidelity of implementation.

Chapter 6. Coaching to Support Teachers' Classwide PBIS Implementation

In Chapter 6, we describe what coaching and mentoring look like and why they are an effective antecedent strategy for supporting teachers. Following the same format as Chapter 5, we discuss options for delivery, necessary resources, effective evaluation of coaching and mentoring, and fidelity of implementation.

Part III. Data-Based Decision Making to Support Teachers' Classwide PBIS Implementation

Chapter 7. Data Collection Systems and Performance Feedback

In Chapter 7, we explore options for efficient and effective data collection and provide examples of relevant tools and checklists. We also discuss how to determine the purpose of data collection and how to use those data to make decisions. In addition, we discuss data-based performance feedback as a consequence strategy, then move into a discussion of options for delivery (e.g., expert, mentor, peer-to-peer).

Chapter 8. Differentiated Supports for Teachers

In Chapter 8, we take a closer look at data-based decision making related to what differentiated (or “tiered”) support can look like when training teachers. We discuss the need for differentiated support and provide examples of decision rules and of data-based differential support. We also recap and summarize what we hope you’ve learned from the book and offer a few considerations for scaling up your support of teachers’ CWPBIS implementation.

SUMMARY

Those responsible for training teachers in CWPBIS have a large responsibility. Effective training requires in-depth knowledge of behavioral foundations and principles, of empirically supported classroom management practices, of how the phases of learning affect training, and of how to evaluate the need for, and impact of, training before, during, and after professional development occurs. We hope this book provides content knowledge, support, and a helpful blueprint for those undertaking any teacher training, and we begin by looking closely at the behavioral principles relevant to adult behavior change in Chapter 2.

PHASES OF LEARNING ACTIVITIES: CHAPTER 1

Acquisition

1. Create a checklist of the empirically supported CWPBIS practices described in this chapter that teachers could use to self-evaluate their own CWPBIS implementation. The checklist should include brief descriptions of each included practice and possible examples of what the teacher should be looking for in his or her classroom.
2. Identify each of the four phases of learning and provide a definition and example (related to what teachers' implementation of CWPBIS might look like) for each phase.

Fluency

1. Describe the four core elements of PBIS (i.e., outcomes, systems, data, and practices) to a colleague and check for his or her understanding to evaluate the quality of your description. Specifically, describe how these elements apply to CWPBIS.
2. Design a presentation (e.g., PowerPoint) that summarizes the content of this chapter in a way that would make it clear to your audience and set the stage for learning about supporting teachers' CWPBIS implementation.

Maintenance

1. Review the description of upcoming content provided in this chapter and look at this book's table of contents. Draft a timeline for how you will move through the book. The timeline should be aligned with the phases of learning and your purpose for reading the book. For example, are you reading the book purely for informational purposes, or are you using it to help your school team establish an action plan for CWPBIS implementation in all classrooms? Identify which chapters and content align with the different tasks and steps in your timeline.
2. Review at least two of the other resources we've mentioned in this chapter (e.g., websites such as www.pbis.org or some of the other volumes in The Guilford Practical Intervention in the Schools Series). Then make a table that identifies any overlapping content between the resources, as well as any noted differences or unique content. Identify two to three strategies

to ensure that supporting teachers' CWPBIS implementation with different resources is as efficient and effective as possible. That is, how can you avoid redundancy when supporting teachers while (a) maximizing the potential of available resources and (b) giving teachers exposure to different presentations of similar content (which will help program for maintenance and generalization)?

Generalization

1. Select two of the empirically supported CWPBIS practices described in this chapter (e.g., specific praise, error correction, differential reinforcement) and describe how these practices may look when applied to adult behavior. That is, how can CWPBIS practices support teachers' implementation of CWPBIS? (We realize that may be a little confusing, but CWPBIS is ultimately about improving learner outcomes, so how can these practices improve outcomes for our adult learners?)
2. Review the empirically supported CWPBIS practices described in this chapter, then describe any relevant considerations you think would apply when working with teachers to implement those practices in the following settings: (a) a classroom for students who are medically fragile or who have severe disabilities, (b) an alternative school or a juvenile justice facility, and (c) a group home for adults with physical, intellectual, or emotional disabilities.