Supporting Behaviour Management in School for Students with Behavioural, Emotional and/or Social Difficulties (BESD)

Practical data-based approaches to selecting, implementing, monitoring and evaluating interventions at multiple levels of behaviour support

Dr. Sean O’Leary
Deputy Director
Special Education Support Service
(Oct 2011)
# Table of contents

**INTRODUCTION**
- Characteristics and Prevalence 3
- Behaviour and Mental Health 5
- NEPS Model: A Continuum of Support 6
- Multi-tiered Support for Behaviour 7
- Responding to Inappropriate Behaviour 9

**TIER 1: WHOLE-SCHOOL OR CLASSROOM APPROACHES** 10

**TIER 2: SMALL GROUP OR INDIVIDUAL APPROACHES** 19

**TIER 3: INTENSIVE INDIVIDUALISED APPROACHES** 29

**CONCLUSION** 38

**SUMMARY** 39

**REFERENCES** 40

**APPENDIX 1: BEHAVIOUR SUPPORT POSTER** 46
INTRODUCTION

Students with emotional disturbance and/or behavioural problems may have conditions such as neurosis, childhood psychosis, hyperactivity, attention deficit disorder (ADD), attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and conduct disorder (CD). Generally a student with emotional disturbance and/or behavioural problems will present with negative behaviours that impinge on their learning and often their social development (Signposts, 2009).

The National Education Psychological Service (NEPS, 2010) define behavioural, emotional and/or social difficulties (BESD) as ‘difficulties which a young person is experiencing which act as a barrier to their personal, social, cognitive and emotional development. These difficulties may be communicated through internalising and/or externalising behaviours. Relationships with self, others and community may be affected and the difficulties may interfere with the pupil’s own personal and educational development or that of others. The contexts within which difficulties occur must always be considered, and may include the classroom, school, family, community and cultural settings.’

The purpose of this document is to provide information and practical examples for schools on evidence-based behavioural interventions that could be used at each tier of a multi-tiered model as part of a systematic problem-solving approach to supporting all pupils in school, including pupils with behavioural difficulties.

Characteristics and Prevalence

Characteristics and behaviours associated with emotional disturbance and/or behavioural problems may include aggressive or anti-social behaviour, inattentiveness, distractibility and impulsiveness; impaired social interactions; general inability to cope with the routine of daily tasks; obsessive and repetitive behaviours; attention-seeking behaviours such as negative interactions or a poor attitude towards work, peers or teachers; and depressed behaviours such as withdrawal, anxiety or mood swings (Signposts, 2009).
Some students with emotional disturbance and/or behavioural problems have negative self-concept and low esteem. In the classroom, students may be frequently off task and may adversely affect the learning of some others. Students may have some problems working in groups and in forming relationships. Some students may show aggression towards others and refuse to co-operate.

A survey of all special schools in Ireland conducted by Kelly et al. (2004) revealed that the most common behaviour problems that occurred over a 4-6 week period were:

(i) non compliance;
(ii) aggressive behaviour that physically harms others; and
(iii) disruptive, nuisance or threatening behaviour to others.

In *Schools for Pupils with Emotional Disturbance* three additional behaviours occurred in 10 out of the 11 schools that responded:

(i) self-injurious behaviour;
(ii) psychological disturbance; and
(iii) passive challenging behaviour.

The National Council for Special Education (NCSE) publishes statistics for the numbers of children with special educational needs in mainstream primary and post primary schools who are in receipt of additional resources from the NCSE (available at www.ncse.ie). In August 2010, the number of pupils with emotional and/or behavioural disturbance or severe emotional and/or behavioural disturbance in receipt of additional teaching hours was 6,900, which equates to just over 20% of the population of pupils with special educational needs in receipt of additional teaching hours.

The Special Education Support Service (SESS) was established under the remit of Teacher Education Section (TES) of the Department of Education and Skills (DES) in 2003. The SESS co-ordinates, develops and delivers a range of professional development initiatives and support structures for school personnel working with pupils with special educational needs. A review of support scheme applications reveals that 162 of the 874 applications (i.e. 18.5%) received by the SESS from schools between Sept 2009 and Dec 2009 sought support in the area of behavioural, emotional and/or social difficulties (BESD). Of these, 16% were marked urgent and indicated physical
danger to pupils or staff. Examples of behaviours outlined in urgent applications included self-injurious behaviour, angry outbursts, aggression and violence.

**Behaviour and Mental Health**

It has been suggested that the fields of education and mental health overlap in the following key areas: disruptive, antisocial and aggressive problems or difficulties; overactivity, attention and concentration problems; somatic, emotional and related symptoms; as well as peer and family relationships and poor school attendance (Visser & Cole, 2003). Mental health difficulties are included under a range of labels, including emotional and behavioural disorder, psychological disturbance and mental illness. The term psychiatric disorder is applied when these difficulties meet the diagnostic requirements of DSM-IV Criteria (American Psychiatric Association, 1994) or the ICD-10 Criteria (World Health Organisation, 2004). In Ireland, estimates show that 15% to 20% of children exhibit clinical signs of mental health difficulties with significantly higher rates for children living in disadvantaged areas (see NCSE, 2006). However, this estimate is lowered to 8% when only moderate to severe mental health difficulties are considered (Irish College of Psychiatrists, 2005).

Child and Adolescent Mental Health Services (CAMHS), which operates under the remit of the Department of Health and Children, are the first line of specialist mental health services for children and young people in Ireland. The Second Annual CAMHS Report (CAMHS, 2010) includes a month long survey of the clinical activity of 50 community CAMHS teams during November 2009, in which 6,950 cases were seen. This report reveals:

(i) adolescents from the 15 years of age group are most likely to be attending CAMHS, followed by children aged 10-14 years;

(ii) the ADHD / hyperkinetic category was the most frequently assigned primary presentation followed by the anxiety category;

(iii) depressive disorders increased with age;

(iv) deliberate self-harm, which also increased with age, accounted for 6.2% of the primary presentations of the 15-17 year age group, however deliberate self-harm / suicidal ideation was recorded as a reason for referral in 22% of the new cases seen.
NEPS Model: A Continuum of Support

The following NEPS publications available from www.education.ie are relevant to primary schools:
- Special Educational Needs - A Continuum of Support (Guidelines for Teachers)
- Special Educational Needs - A Continuum of Support (Resource Pack for Teachers)
- Behavioural, Emotional and Social Difficulties - A Continuum of Support - Guidelines for Teachers

The following NEPS publications available from www.education.ie are relevant to post-primary schools:
- A Continuum of Support for Post-Primary Schools - Guidelines for Teachers
- A Continuum of Support for Post-Primary Schools - Resource Pack for Teachers

These continuum of support guidelines incorporate three tiers of intervention and support for pupils within primary and post-primary schools:

(i) whole school or classroom approaches (*Support for All* or Classroom Support);
(ii) small group or individual approaches (*School Support*);
(iii) intensive individual approaches (*School Support Plus*).

This continuum encourages schools to organise evidence-based interventions within the school by first considering what all pupils require and then selecting, implementing and monitoring interventions of increasing intensity to support pupils who do not respond sufficiently to previous support.

This type of model has been described as an alternative to the traditional IQ-discrepancy approach for identifying pupils in need of support (Bradley *et al*., 2007). The emphasis on evidence-based proactive instruction, school-wide screening, ongoing assessment, monitoring of pupil progress and data-based decision making contained within such a model attempts to ensure that the instruction provided in the mainstream classroom is examined prior to any labelling of a pupil who is struggling (Batsche, 2006).
Such a proactive approach can be preventative in that learning or behavioural issues within the classroom may be reduced before they become a problem (Bradley et al., 2007). An effective behaviour management approach includes the provision of consistent, reasonable expectations along with skills instruction to support the development of protective factors that enhance pupils' social and emotional growth (Hawkins et al., 1991; Nelson et al., 2002).

Multi-tiered Support for Behaviour
In terms of behaviour support for pupils, the NEPS continuum of support can be conceptualised as follows:

(ii) **Tier 1: whole school or classroom approaches for all pupils**, which include a consistently applied behaviour policy along with formal teaching and reinforcement of desired behavioural expectations;

(iii) **Tier 2: small group or individual approaches** for pupils whose behaviours are not sufficiently responsive to the whole school or classroom approach and who require more structured interventions, more detailed monitoring and more frequent feedback;

(iv) **Tier 3: intensive individualised approaches** for pupils whose behaviours are not sufficiently responsive to either of the previous two support tiers and who require additional specialised support.

The three tiers of the continuum of support should not be seen as separate phases. While many pupils receive adequate support at the whole school or classroom tier, some pupils will require support at the first two tiers while a few pupils will require support at all three tiers of the continuum.
Responding to Inappropriate Behaviours: A Problem-Solving Approach
Scott et al., (2010) propose four steps common to all tiers of behaviour support that are equally applicable across the whole-school, among pupils who do not respond appropriately to whole school approaches and for pupils who require intensive support:

1. **Prediction** informed by an analysis of specifically identified challenging behaviours, which includes the context in which they typically occur;

2. **High-probability interventions** that include a focus on relationships, differentiated instruction and behaviour management;

3. **Consistency** to ensure and build staff consensus to implement behaviour management practices in the same manner;

4. **Assessment** to monitor key outcomes that may be used to inform data-based decision making.

This approach can effectively meet the needs of staff and pupils by providing a school-based evaluation that is sensitive to the particular context of a school. In other words, intervention strategies at any tier of the continuum of support can be logically designed based on actual school data, which can help to meet the goal of prevention as well as ensure consistency of implementation. Once these four steps have been applied to the whole school, the second tier of support involves gathering data on pupils who continue to present behavioural challenges despite whole-school interventions. This information is then used to go through the four steps again.

Implementing the problem-solving approach at Tier 1 and Tier 2 increases the effectiveness of interventions at Tier 3 (Eber et al., 2002). The third tier of support begins with analysing the data for pupils who did not respond sufficiently to both tier one and tier two interventions. Once again, the four steps are applied in an attempt to provide even more intensive support for the most challenging pupils.
Responding to Inappropriate Behaviours: Evidence-Based Practice
Evidence-based practice refers to education policy and practice that is grounded in sound evidence about its intended effects. Within the context of supporting pupils with behavioural needs, there is a growing scientific literature that highlights two key elements of evidence-based practice: (i) evidence-based interventions and (ii) assessment (Kazak et al., 2010). The use of evidence-based interventions requires teachers to draw on well-documented approaches that have been demonstrated to improve pupil outcomes. Assessment is required for the accurate identification of behavioural problems and requires ongoing monitoring of pupils’ response to interventions combined with an evaluation of outcomes.

Responding to Inappropriate Behaviour: National Educational Welfare Board
The guidelines on developing a code of behaviour issued by the National Educational Welfare Board (NEWB, 2008) identify a number of key considerations for responding to inappropriate pupil behaviour, such as:

- Developing a policy on how sanctions will be used;
- Having an agreed set of strategies for intervening positively to help pupils to change inappropriate behaviour; and
- Agreeing a standardised way of recording matters to do with pupils’ behaviour.
TIER 1: WHOLE-SCHOOL OR CLASSROOM APPROACHES

School personnel can use a variety of strategies to prevent challenging behaviour within a range of contexts (Kauffman, 1999). Early intervention with antisocial behaviour can limit the development of more serious challenging behaviours and minimise the occurrence of adverse effects, such as academic failure, social rejection and impaired mental health (Forness et al., 1996; Lane et al., 2002; Severson & Walker, 2002).

The use of screening methods to identify high-risk pupils in schools increases the likelihood of selecting appropriate interventions to meet individual needs (Severson & Walker, 2002). In other words, proactive screening can contribute purposefully to establishing a preventative approach to managing challenging behaviour. The NEPS guidelines contain a range of proactive screening methods that can be used in Irish schools.

Data Collection

Office Discipline Referrals (ODRs) can provide useful information for: (i) identifying pupils who may require additional support (ii) guiding the selection and development of appropriate interventions; and (iii) measuring outcomes to assess the effectiveness of interventions (Nelson et al., 2002). However, ODRs on their own are not a sufficient data source because they tend to prioritise pupils demonstrating problematic externalising behaviour while ignoring pupils exhibiting at-risk internalising behaviour (Nelson et al., 2002; Walker et al., 2005).

Pupils with internalising behaviour are often invisible in a classroom setting (Merrell et al., 2003) and are frequently perceived by teachers to be shy, which may result in potentially serious internalising behaviours being overlooked (Marchant et al., 2007).

To overcome these limitations, it is recommended that schools combine information from ODRs with proactive screening (Nelson et al., 2002; Walker et al., 2005). Furthermore, whole school data from proactive screening and qualitative data, such as interviews with pupils, parents and teachers can be triangulated with ODRs (see Fig. 1) to provide a basis for decision-making (Irwin et al., 2004).
Despite the limitations of ODRs expressed earlier, discipline referrals can be used as a measure of behavioural climate within the school and as a method of assessing the effectiveness of interventions (Irwin et al., 2004).
The Importance of Differentiation

Pupils’ experience of successful learning can reinforce desired behaviours (Kame’enui & Simmons, 1990). Providing interventions without differentiated learning and teaching is not sufficient to support pupils with a history of school failure (Gable et al., 1993).

Teachers can provide differentiated learning in the classroom by:

1. adjusting curricular aims to suit the needs and abilities of pupils;
2. promoting higher-level and creative thinking that encourages pupils to optimise the application of their learning;
3. using a variety of instructional approaches, such as whole-class teaching, small group work, paired work, co-operative learning and individual teaching.
4. using a variety of instructional strategies (e.g. demonstrations, role plays, active learning etc) to appeal to visual, auditory and kinesthetic learners;
5. grouping pupils for learning within the classroom based on their needs rather than always relying on the same groups;
6. offering pupils a choice of learning activities based on their needs, strengths, interests or learning preferences;
7. using different instructional strategies when revising a topic to the ones used to originally teach the topic;
8. using whole-class discussion (or pre-assessment) when beginning a new topic to determine what pupils already know;
9. allowing pupils to show what they have learned in different ways; and
10. using appropriate assessment modes to assess what pupils have learned.
Research indicates that classroom strategies, such as consistent routines, clearly communicated high expectations, active engagement, use of prompts, frequent opportunities to respond and consistent consequences can improve pupil outcomes (e.g. Crosby et al., 2006; Simonsen et al., 2008). It has also been suggested that both academic and social behaviours contribute to pupil success and must be given equal priority in learning and teaching (Nelson et al., 1996; Serna et al., 2000).

Positive Relationships
There is considerable evidence to indicate a positive correlation between teacher-pupil relationships and pupil social competence (e.g. Birch & Ladd, 1997; Hamre & Pianta, 2001). Positive interactions with significant adults within school can promote improved pupil adjustment to school. Pupils who experience positive interactions with teachers display fewer behavioural problems than pupils who experience poor or coercive interactions with teachers (Birch & Ladd, 1997; Hamre & Pianta, 2001; Murray & Greenberg, 2000). According to Koenig (2000), Monroe (2006) and others, teachers can initiate and sustain positive relationships with pupils by:

- expressing warmth, caring and trust;
- directing positive attention towards the pupil by providing encouragement and emotional support as well as by recognising pupil strengths;
- showing interest in the pupils’ activities and life;
- being sensitive to pupil needs; and
- recognising that setting events or antecedents influence behaviour.

The importance of differentiation in: (i) supporting access to the curriculum, (ii) promoting pupil self-concept to maximise pupil engagement with the curriculum and (iii) encouraging participation through fostering positive relationships with others is depicted graphically in Fig. 2.
The Good Behaviour Game

The Good Behaviour Game (for reviews, see Embry, 2002; Tankersley, 1995; Tingstrom et al., 2006) is a group-oriented reward system in which pupils are divided into groups within a classroom. Classroom rules are posted in the classroom and are explicitly taught until all pupils are familiar with them. During designated periods of class time, the number of instances of specified inappropriate behaviour (e.g. calling out, talking, out-of-seat behaviour) is recorded on a visual display for each group. Each member of a group receives a reward (e.g. class privileges, choice of activity, tokens) if the total number of inappropriate behaviours for the group is under an acceptable limit (e.g. 4 occurrences). In the early stages, the game is played for short periods of time but can be played for longer periods and more frequently over the course of several weeks for a full academic year.

Over the past three decades, this approach has been utilized in a number of educational settings with pupils from 4 to 18 years of age and has provided well-established evidence of reduced aggression and other behaviour problems, both when implemented classroom-wide and when implemented with specific high-risk groups (Powell et al., 2007).
Caution must be exercised during the implementation of this intervention as an individual pupil’s desire to sabotage the game might lead to peer rejection. Teachers will have to exercise skill and flexibility to avoid such potential drawbacks.

**Example A: Good Behaviour Game**

A science teacher wanted to promote positive behaviour amongst a second-year class of pupils in a community school, who he considered to be challenging. During one lesson, the teacher agreed class rules with the pupils and discussed examples of each rule along with examples of rule-breaking (i.e. inappropriate behaviour). The teacher constantly reinforced these rules for a week and then divided the class into teams of six pupils for specific periods of class time (typically about 10 minutes at the start or end of each lesson).

Each team decided their own name. Any incidences of rule-breaking by a pupil (which became known as a *foul*) were recorded on the whiteboard for each team. It quickly emerged that some teams received more rule-breaking scores (*fouls*) than other teams because of individual pupils within the team, which lead to peer criticisms of team members.

To balance this effect, the teacher introduced a system of positive reinforcement, where teams could score *goals* if individual pupils performed a specific activity particularly well, such as task completion or co-operating with the teacher. Fouls and goals were recorded on the whiteboard for each 10 minute session. A *goal* cancelled a *foul* and vice versa. The team that won the most goals was allowed to leave the class first at the end of the lesson. After four weeks, the teacher reported improved relationships with pupils, greater completion of tasks and decreased incidences of rule-breaking. The teacher continued to use this strategy and adapted it to suit different activities within the classroom.
Example B: Co-teaching and Differentiation

The following description outlines the problem-solving process that one school used to analyse multiple data sources to implement and monitor interventions that support all pupils at tier one of the continuum of support, with a particular emphasis on pupils with BESD.

**Prediction:** During a staff development day, teachers listed classroom challenges and were arranged in groups to discuss existing interventions as well as a number of possible interventions (Table 1).

**Table 1: Examples of Classroom Challenges, Existing Interventions and Possible Interventions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classroom Challenges</th>
<th>Existing Interventions</th>
<th>Possible Interventions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of pupil motivation</td>
<td>Sanctions</td>
<td>Additional short-term sanctions, such as a referral unit or classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homework not done</td>
<td>Verbal reminder</td>
<td>More frequent meetings with parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No equipment for class</td>
<td>Notes home to parent</td>
<td><strong>Additional differentiation in the classroom</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incorrect uniform</td>
<td>Punishment work</td>
<td>Apply sanctions more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lateness</td>
<td>Complaint sheet (i.e. ODR)</td>
<td>consistently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distractibility</td>
<td>Meeting with year head</td>
<td><strong>Co-teaching</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non co-operation</td>
<td>Detention</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non compliance</td>
<td>Meeting with principal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attention-seeking behaviour</td>
<td>Suspension</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persistent disruption</td>
<td>Expulsion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inappropriate language</td>
<td><strong>Positive Behaviour Support</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal abuse</td>
<td>Non-verbal praise</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical abuse</td>
<td>Verbal praise</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Praise notes to parent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Student awards</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**High-probability interventions:** In an effort to build consensus, staff were asked to agree that any solutions were (i) likely to prevent identified problems, (ii) capable of being consistently implemented over a sustained period and (iii) agreeable to at least two thirds of the staff. By a process of elimination, staff agreed that co-teaching and differentiation were likely to be effective in addressing several of the challenges that they faced. Co-teaching can provide an effective mechanism of combining support at tier two or tier three of the continuum with tier one interventions.
Consistency: Teachers were grouped into teams that would provide support for various class groups. It was decided to prioritize classes that were considered to be high-risk. A review process was implemented after eight weeks to ensure consistency of implementation by addressing staff concerns and offering solutions.

Assessment: In an effort to assess the impact of their intervention, staff collected feedback from all teachers throughout the year. Qualitative feedback from teachers indicated greater levels of differentiation within co-taught classrooms. Teachers also reported reduced challenging behaviour in the classroom. After just eight weeks, over 50% of teachers reported fewer discipline problems while over 90% of teachers reported fewer discipline problems by the end of the academic year. Qualitative feedback from pupils and the parents of pupils with special educational needs also pointed to an improved learning environment in the school. This improvement was also evident in the attendance records, complaint sheet (i.e. ODR) data, detention and suspension data analysed for pupils with BESD from separate classes.

![Bar chart showing average number of days absent, behavioural complaints, detentions and suspensions for pupils with BESD (n = 3) in the year preceding the onset of co-teaching and during the co-teaching year.]

Fig 3: Average number of days absent, behavioural complaints, detentions and suspensions for pupils with BESD (n = 3) in the year preceding the onset of co-teaching and during the co-teaching year.
The data presented in Fig. 3 shows that absenteeism decreased by 54%. When the number of days present in school is factored into calculations of behavioural incidents and consequences, it can be shown that behavioural complaints (i.e. ODRs) decreased by 46%, detentions decreased by 53% while the more serious sanction of suspension decreased by 86%. This difference can also be expressed in terms of total hours saved during the co-teaching year with these pupils gaining on average more than 176 instructional hours per student through preventative and proactive teaching. This example shows the usefulness of analysing ODR data as one component of evaluating the effectiveness of interventions.
TIER 2: SMALL GROUP OR INDIVIDUAL APPROACHES
Small group or individual approaches for pupils with BESD can be implemented with data-based decision-making at tier two of the continuum of support. While it is incongruent with the problem-solving approach described in this paper, to recommend specific interventions without a thorough analysis of school data (ODRs, proactive screening and qualitative data), the following interventions are described to highlight evidence-based programmes that have been successfully implemented in different settings.

Social Skills Training
Social skills allow individuals to interact appropriately with one another, respond to social cues, follow social rules and avoid interpersonal conflicts (Matson, et al., 2006). Many children that display challenging behaviour, including those with developmental disabilities, externalising behaviour and self-injurious behaviour demonstrate deficits in social behaviour (Duncan et al., 1999; Njardvik at al., 1999). Individuals who display deficits in social behaviour may use maladaptive behaviours to meet their social needs (Matson, et al., 2006), which may lead to peer rejection (Olson & Lifgren, 1988). Furthermore, poor social skills and peer rejection may contribute to underachievement, low self-esteem, school drop-out, conduct problems and juvenile delinquency (Coie et al., 1992; Walker et al., 1994).

There is evidence to suggest that maladaptive behaviour can be reduced and learning capacity can be increased by supporting appropriate social interaction amongst children. For instance, a meta-analysis of 29 social skills training interventions for children exhibiting externalising behaviour problems showed that nearly three quarters of the children displayed reduced anti-social behaviour as a result of the intervention (Ang and Hughes, 2001). In addition, Gresham et al., (2004) evaluated six independent meta-analyses of social skills training interventions for youth at risk of emotional and behavioural problems and concluded that social skills training is an effective intervention for children with emotional and behavioural disturbance.
Social skills training, which typically involve modeling, role-playing, shaping, feedback and reinforcement of positive interactions, can be incorporated into all three tiers of the continuum of support. The range and intensity of social skills training within each tier of the continuum will depend on the needs of pupils (as indicated by ODRs, proactive screening and feedback from parents etc) and may include:

- smiling, eye contact, listening, taking turns;
- following rules, co-operating, sharing;
- using verbal and non-verbal forms of communication;
- identifying emotions;
- managing disagreements;
- being assertive.

**Communication Skills Training**

Communication skills are critical to the academic and social atmosphere of the school. Children and young people with BESD can regularly experience communication difficulties, which may negatively influence self-esteem and peer relationships (Hyter, 2003). Such difficulties may also cause children with BESD to use maladaptive behaviour to express their needs (Carr & Durand, 1985). In other words, the ‘challenging behaviour’ displayed by an individual may be an attempt to communicate within an environment that is perceived as ‘challenging’ by the individual. In a school setting, teachers might deem a pupil’s behaviour to be inappropriate or challenging but it is seen by the pupil as an effective form of communication. In such cases, supporting the individual to use a functionally-equivalent form of communication may replace the inappropriate behaviour (Durand & Merges, 2001).

Functional Communication Training (FCT) has been used in the treatment of children with developmental disabilities to reduce aberrant behaviour and increase appropriate communication (Carr & Durand, 1985). The increased use of appropriate communication by children who received FCT has also been shown to be maintained over time and transfer to new tasks, environments and teachers (Duran & Carr, 1991; 1992).
Although FCT requires a functional analysis to determine the function of the challenging behaviour, the effect of teaching communication strategies on reducing difficult behaviours indicates that providing simple communication training will decrease challenging behaviours even in the absence of a complete functional assessment (Shecter, 2010).

Communication skills for pupils with BESD, which can be also be included in social skills programmes at any tier of the continuum of support, may focus on:

- teaching communicative alternatives;
- combining opportunities for communicative success with positive reinforcement;
- building communication vocabulary and strategies for dealing with socially or emotionally difficult scenarios.

**Pupil Self-Directed Interventions**

Three self-directed strategies (self-management, self-monitoring and self-instruction) have provided evidence over many years of being successful for pupils with emotional and behavioural disorders (see Fitzpatrick & Knowlton, 2009).

These interventions typically occur in two phases:

1. pupils learn to become aware of and identify internalizing and externalizing behaviours of concern after which any external methods to manage specific behaviours are paired with and gradually replaced by internally managed (self-directed) strategies;
2. pupils learn to use self-directed strategies with different people, in different situations and in different contexts.
Self-management strategies support a pupil to influence their own behaviour, which can promote pupil independence and decrease challenging behaviour. These strategies have been successfully applied across all age groups from pre-school to second-level with pupils presenting with a wide range of disabilities (e.g. general learning disability, autism and BESD). In terms of control, the implementation of self-management interventions can be expressed along a continuum from teacher control (external authority) to pupil control (internal evaluation). The gradual move from teacher control to pupil evaluation is essential and may support the transition from teacher-mediated instruction to pupil-managed independent learning, leading to greater pupil accountability. Self-management strategies can support pupils to generalize their behaviours to other situations and settings, which can increase social interactions for pupils and reduce demands on teacher time.

Self-monitoring is a component of self-management that involves collecting data on a pupil’s behaviours within the classroom. Self-monitoring supports a pupil to recognise and record specific target behaviours (generally positive behaviours) and consists of two components:

1. self-observation involves the pupil recognizing specific target behaviours, which may involve considerable teacher input, prompts and feedback;
2. self-recording involves the pupil recording each occurrence of the target behaviours, which is also monitored by the teacher who provides feedback to the pupil on the accuracy of their recording as well as reinforcement for pupil usage of positive behaviour. Such monitoring and feedback is gradually decreased over time.

Self-monitoring has been demonstrated to increase appropriate school behaviours and decrease incidences of inappropriate behaviour.
Self-instruction involves teaching a pupil task-specific procedures (typically in a one-to-one setting using modeling) by:

1. identifying social or academic concerns;
2. developing approaches to address these concerns;
3. practicing the approaches initially using verbalization and then subsequent practicing using a quiet voice and eventually an inner voice;
4. obtaining a commitment from the pupil to use the agreed approaches.
Example C: Self-monitoring

A teacher in a post-primary school taught a mixed-ability second year class, which included a pupil with an assessment of Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD). The teacher was particularly concerned about the pupil’s tendency to shout out inappropriately during the lesson, which distracted both the teacher and other pupils. The teacher implemented a range of sanctions (additional work, note home, detention etc) but sanctions alone did not seem to have any enduring impact on the behaviour. The teacher became concerned that his reaction to the behaviour might actually be reinforcing the pupil’s challenging behaviour.

The teacher applied a problem-solving approach to changing the behaviour by working through the four steps mentioned earlier i.e. prediction, high-probability interventions, consistency and assessment.

Prediction: In an effort to understand the behaviour, the teacher recorded the intensity, frequency and duration of the behaviour during multiple classroom activities by using a rating scale from 1 to 5, which is summarised in Table 2 as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behaviour of Concern: Shouting out in class</th>
<th>Rating Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Context: Various i.e. independent work, group work, reading and writing.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intensity</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duration</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The teacher measured the behaviour of concern (shouting out) as not particularly intense (a score of 2) and of short duration (a score of 1) but felt that it was very frequent (a score of 5). Based upon this data, the teacher felt that the frequency of the behaviour was the most disruptive element of the behaviour that occurred across a range of contexts. He predicted that strategies to reduce the frequency of the behaviour might yield the most promising outcomes for the pupil.
**High-probability interventions:** The teacher consulted with a resource teacher to discuss possible interventions. Due to the nature of the data and the importance of building positive relationships with pupils with BESD, it was decided to implement two interventions for this pupil: (a) personal greeting upon entry to the class and (b) self-monitoring.

**Consistency:** At the end of one lesson, the teacher kept the pupil back to discuss the particular behaviour of concern (shouting out inappropriately) and informed the pupil that he wanted the pupil to record his own behaviour by counting the number of times he shouted out in class and by recording a general comment on positive aspects of his behaviour. To ensure consistency of implementation, the teacher also told the pupil that he would record his perception of the pupil’s behaviour and that they would discuss the pupil’s progress at the end of each lesson. Over the next few weeks, the teacher greeted the pupil positively at the start of each lesson. He also recorded the pupil’s behaviour and checked that the pupil’s recording was accurate. At the end of each lesson, he spent about two minutes discussing progress with the pupil while other pupils were leaving the room. Any improvement in the pupil’s behaviour or recording accuracy was acknowledged and reinforced. Over time, the teacher was able to reduce these discussions with the pupil to every second lesson, then to once a week and eventually to just periodic check-ups.

**Assessment:** Over a two month period, the frequency of the target behaviour steadily decreased until it no longer caused disruption in the classroom. The frequency of the inappropriate behaviour for each lesson over a two month period as recorded by the teacher is presented in Fig. 4. The graph also includes data recorded for the pupil in each lesson over a two-month period before the intervention.

During the intervention, the teacher also reported a significantly improved relationship with the pupil, which was sustained over the remainder of the academic year.
Fig. 4: Average number of behavioural incidences (shouting out) per lesson in each week over a nine week period for a pupil with ADHD prior to intervention and during the implementation of the intervention (i.e. personal greeting & self-monitoring).

Additional Structure
In addition to social and communication skills training, some programmes at the second tier of intervention provide additional structure and pupil monitoring. The ‘Check and Connect’ programme was developed in the U.S. as part of School-Wide Positive Behaviour Support (SWPBS) to support relationship building, routine monitoring, problem-solving and affiliation to school. It has been effective in improving pupil engagement, improving both academic and social outcomes and in preventing school drop-out. This intervention provides a useful approach for linking pupils to supportive adults in the school and can be adapted to suit the needs of individual pupils.

Another programme that was developed as part of SWPBS is the Check-in/Check-out (CICO) intervention, which includes a daily report card designed to improve daily structure, social links with supportive adults, access to academic support and greater communication between home and school. CICO requires the pupil to:

1. check in with an adult upon entering the school;
2. check in and out with teachers during the day to receive feedback on the daily report card about specified targets;
3. check out with an adult at the end of the day;
4. bring the daily report card home.
CICO has been shown to lead to reductions in disruptive behaviour. For a review of these interventions and SWPBS, see Horner et al., (2010).

Example D: Behaviour Support Group
Staff in one large primary school initiated a number of interventions at tier one of the continuum of support for all pupils (e.g. differentiation, positive behaviour support, sanctions). These interventions were informed by the ‘teacher checklist for whole-class structures and supports’ contained in the NEPs guidelines. Despite these interventions, the data (ODRs, proactive screening and teacher feedback) indicated that some pupils required additional support. A small number of staff, which included the special needs co-ordinator, the school principal and two class teachers worked through the four steps of the problem-solving approach (i.e. prediction, high-probability interventions, consistency and assessment) to aid the selection of effective ways of supporting these pupils.

Prediction: An analysis of proactive screening and ODR data indicated that four senior pupils from 5th and 6th class (age range 10 – 12 years) shared common characteristics relating to:
- arguments with teachers/SNA’s;
- task refusal;
- non-compliance; and
- inability to take responsibility for behaviour.

A social skills observation profile (NEPs guidelines) for each of these pupils revealed that these pupils tended not to follow social cues or instructions from peers/adults in a range of contexts (e.g. classroom, playground, lunch room). It was predicted that these pupils might benefit from a social skills programme at tier two of the continuum of support.

High-probability interventions: It was decided that the pupils required social skills training that incorporated daily report cards, links with a supportive teacher to improve relationship building, pupil reflection, negotiated pupil target setting to reinforce even
small gains in behaviour, coping strategies to build resilience and increased communication with home.

**Consistency:** To build consensus amongst stakeholders, parental permission was sought for the intervention to take place, which involved a review of pupil data and efforts to address both teacher and parental concerns. Once parental permission had been granted, the pupils met with a designated teacher for a 60 minute period per week over the course of 20 weeks (or more frequently depending on individual pupil circumstances). Initial sessions focused on establishing a positive group dynamic and establishing the pupil’s perception of their own behaviour using a pre-intervention assessment checklist. Throughout the intervention, pupils were supported to reflect on various behaviours using different scenarios. Individual weekly targets were also negotiated with each pupil. To ensure consistency, class teachers reported daily on each pupil’s weekly target using a daily report card, which was signed by the parent and support group teacher each week. The achievement of pupil targets was reinforced by the class teacher, parents and support group teacher. Any failure to reach targets led to re-negotiated targets that were considered to be more achievable.

**Assessment:** The support group teacher assessed the intervention using ODRs and feedback from parents, class teachers and pupils (aided by a post-assessment checklist). In general:

- ODRs decreased for each pupil and parental feedback was positive;
- Class teachers reported improved relationships with the pupils, improved classroom behaviour and felt supported by the process; and
- Pupils reported a better understanding of themselves and other people.

Three pupils in particular benefited significantly from the support group intervention. One pupil did not appear to progress satisfactorily so it was decided prior to the completion of the support group intervention to provide further support for this pupil at tier three of the continuum.
TIER 3: INTENSIVE INDIVIDUALISED APPROACHES
Interventions at the School Support Plus tier of the continuum typically require more intensive and individualised supports, which may require input from external professionals and support services. When individual pupils do not respond to the provision of carefully planned academic and behavioural supports at the first two tiers of the continuum, additional intervention is required. Supports that might be considered for pupils with BESD at this intervention tier include:

1. Individual Education Plan
2. Functional Behavioural Assessment (FBA) and Individual Behaviour Plan

Functional Behavioural Assessment (FBA)
The focus of this paper is on FBA, with a particular focus on teacher designed FBA. The essential aim of an FBA is to guide in the selection of an appropriate intervention. FBA can be considered along a continuum which progresses steadily towards more formal and intense methods while continuing with the implementation of preventative and proactive interventions at tier one and tier two of the continuum. The four problem-solving steps outlined earlier may be used repeatedly with increasing complexity until an appropriate form of support is found. FBA involves determining the function of a specific behaviour through an analysis of antecedents and consequences, an approach with a strong evidence-base (see Horner et al., 2010).

In general, an FBA considers that behaviours are caused by antecedents and maintained by consequences.
**Antecedent:** Triggers behaviour (may be related to feelings of being threatened or not coping etc)

**Examples**
- Writing/reading task
- Task demand i.e. asking a pupil to do something
- Independent pupil work, such as a test/homework
- Attention/praise, some pupils don’t respond well
- Disapproval/criticism from teacher/peer
- Extended teacher talk
- Boredom

**Behaviour:** Teachers might deem the behaviour to be inappropriate or challenging but it may be seen by the pupil as an effective form of communication

**Examples**
- Off-task behaviour e.g. scribbling
- Shouting out/inappropriate vocalisations
- Verbal aggression e.g. swearing
- Physical aggression e.g. hitting
- Task refusal
- Non-compliance
- Running away
- Self-harm

**Consequence:** from the perspective of the pupil (can be immediate or long-term)

**Examples**
- To receive a desired item
- To gain/avoid attention
- Avoidance i.e. not do the task etc
- Escape e.g. get away from threatening environment
- Sensory self-stimulation

These are the functions of behaviour.
FBA: Indirect Methods
Indirect FBA methods involve collecting information from ODRs, attendance data, medical history, academic records, proactive screening, previous interventions and parental/pupil/teacher interviews.

In many ways, indirect FBA methods resemble and build-upon problem-solving approaches outlined in tiers one and two of the continuum. However, it is important that such data collection includes information on the intensity, frequency or duration of specific behaviours of concern and includes consideration of antecedents and consequences.

The behaviour of each pupil at this level of intervention is operationalised i.e. a precise working definition of the behaviour of concern is developed, which is specific, observable and measurable. For instance, ‘aggressive’ is not an operational definition. It is important to develop a more precise description e.g. ‘hits other pupils’. This definition can be further developed by adding information on the intensity, duration and frequency of the behaviour along with providing information on the context in which the behaviour occurs.

FBA: Direct Methods
Direct descriptive methods include direct observation of behaviours in multiple contexts (including break time and during a range of classroom situations), which can then be compared with data collected using indirect FBA methods.

One approach to direct observation involves using *interval-based methods* to collect information about target behaviours during specific timed intervals. An example of an interval-based method is the scatter plot, which helps identify whether problem behaviors occur at predictable time periods or during certain activities over several days. Any occurrence of the target behaviour that occurs during an interval is recorded. The data is then scrutinised to identify possible associations between the behaviour of concern, time of day and related activities. This information can be used to identify specific routines and settings where further observations might take place or where interventions could be implemented.
An example of a scatter plot is shown in Table 3.

### Table 3: Example of a Scatter Plot

**Pupil:** Tom  
**Class:** Oak  
**Observer:** Ms. Smith

**Behaviour of Concern:** non-compliance

**Behaviour Definition:** The pupil does not comply within three minutes to a request from a teacher (no teacher prompts given within three minutes of initial request)

**Date(s):** 06/12/10 to 07/12/10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Monday Time</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Tally</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9.00-9.40</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.40-10.20</td>
<td>Maths</td>
<td>//////</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.20-11.00</td>
<td>Science</td>
<td>///</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.00-11.20</td>
<td>Break</td>
<td>//</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.20-12.00</td>
<td>History</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.00-12.40</td>
<td>Religion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.40-1.20</td>
<td>Lunch</td>
<td>//</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.20-2.00</td>
<td>P.E.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.00-2.40</td>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.40-3.20</td>
<td>SPHE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tuesday Time</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Tally</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9.00-9.40</td>
<td>P.E.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.40-10.20</td>
<td>Geography</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.20-11.00</td>
<td>French</td>
<td>//</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.00-11.20</td>
<td>Break</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.20-12.00</td>
<td>Maths</td>
<td>//////</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.00-12.40</td>
<td>English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.40-1.20</td>
<td>Lunch</td>
<td>//</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.20-2.00</td>
<td>P.E.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.00-2.40</td>
<td>Science</td>
<td>/////</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.40-3.20</td>
<td>Science</td>
<td>/////</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interval-based observations can involve partial interval recording or whole interval recording. In partial interval recording, the behaviour is recorded if it occurs at any time during an interval. This is suitable for high-frequency and rapidly occurring behaviours. Observation periods of specific tasks can be divided into brief time intervals (e.g. 3 minute intervals) and the observer inserts a mark in each interval in which the target behaviour occurs.

An example of a completed partial interval recording is shown in Table 4.
Table 4: Example of Partial Interval Recording

Pupil: Tom  Class: Oak  Observer: Ms. Smith

Behaviour of Concern: Compliance with request from peer or teacher
Behaviour Definition: The pupil complies within 30 seconds to a request from a teacher or peer without prompts (Mark X for Yes and O for No)

Date(s): 14/12/10  Context: Practical Activity in Science Class
Observation Time: 2.45 – 3.15  Interval Length: 3 mins

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interval</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>O</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total number of times behaviour occurred: 5

In whole interval recording, the target behaviour is recorded if it occurs for the entire interval. This type of approach is particularly useful for behaviours that occur continuously e.g. on-task behaviour.

An example of whole interval recording is shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Example of Whole Interval Recording

Pupil: Tom  Class: Oak  Observer: Ms. Smith

Behaviour of Concern: On-task behaviour
Behaviour Definition: The pupil is on task without prompts, which is shown by asking a question, looking at written material, using a calculator or writing (Mark X for Yes and O for No)

Date(s): 14/12/10  Context: Independent work completing Maths problems
Observation Time: 11.40 – 11.50  Interval Length: 1 min

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interval</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total number of times behaviour occurred: 6
Interval-based observations can also involve momentary time sampling, which involves checking on the occurrence of specific target behaviour at a precise moment i.e. at the end of each interval. This approach is useful when continuous observation is not practical or when an observer is collecting data on a number of pupils at the same time.

An example of momentary time sampling is shown in Table 6. The results can be expressed as a percentage.

Table 6: Example of Momentary Time Sampling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pupil: Tom</th>
<th>Class: Oak</th>
<th>Observer: Mr. Smith (Maths Teacher)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Behaviour of Concern: Talking out of turn</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviour Definition: The pupil talks inappropriately i.e. when the teacher or a peer is talking or when he should be engaged in independent work (Mark X for Yes and O for No)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date(s): 23/11/10</td>
<td>Context: Maths class</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation Time: 11.20 – 12.00</td>
<td>Interval Length: 4 min</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interval</th>
<th>Occurrence of Behaviour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5/10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Direct observation also involves completing an ABC observation form, an example of which is shown in Table 7. The ABC refers to antecedent, behaviour and consequence.

Table 7: Example of an ABC Observation Form

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date &amp; Time</th>
<th>Antecedent</th>
<th>Behaviour</th>
<th>Consequence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14/12/10</td>
<td>Teacher explains concepts on whiteboard</td>
<td>Talking out of turn</td>
<td>Teacher asks Tom to be quiet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>Teacher asks pupils to copy down work from the whiteboard</td>
<td>Talking out of turn</td>
<td>Teacher frowns at Tom and explains to him how to complete the task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>Teacher gives class a problem to solve independently</td>
<td>Non-compliance</td>
<td>Teacher gives Tom the first part of the solution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>Teacher asks Tom to pay attention</td>
<td>Talking out of turn</td>
<td>Peers laugh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>Teacher asks Tom to move seat</td>
<td>Non-compliance</td>
<td>Teacher threatens to send Tom to office</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>Tom moves seat, is disorganised</td>
<td>Talks out of turn</td>
<td>Teachers tells Tom to hurry up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>Teacher asks pupils for answers</td>
<td>Talks out of turn</td>
<td>Teacher ignores Tom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>Teacher asks Tom to show him his answer</td>
<td>Non-compliance</td>
<td>Teacher is critical of Tom’s work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>Teacher asks pupils to read quietly</td>
<td>Non-compliance</td>
<td>Teacher ignores Tom</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Direct observation data can be combined with indirect FBA methods to hypothesize the function of the behaviour. The hypothesis should include antecedents that trigger the behaviour as well as consequences that reinforce the behaviour. For example, possible hypotheses to explain the function of Tom’s behaviour might be:

‘When Tom doesn’t understand what’s going on, he talks out of turn to gain attention from peers or the teacher.’

‘When Tom is requested to do a task that he doesn’t like, he does not comply to avoid doing the task.’

It is important to note that indirect and direct methods of functional behavioural assessment do not demonstrate a functional relationship i.e. identify the function of target behaviour. Instead, they merely identify a correlation between antecedents and consequences with target behaviour by identifying variables associated with the behaviour. In other words, information from indirect and direct methods can be used to form a hypothesis about the antecedents that cause the target behaviour and the consequences that reinforce the target behaviour.

There have been pitfalls associated with the implementation of FBA. External expert reviews of FBAs implemented by practitioners with various levels of FBA training in the U.S. revealed various deficiencies, such as missing or vague behaviour definitions, over reliance on indirect assessment, lack of validation of hypothesized function and use of interventions that were standard in the school rather than ones that were related to the function of the behaviour (for a review, see Fox & Davis, 2005). Clearly, as is the case with all interventions, the correct implementation of FBA methods is important to maximize pupil outcomes.
Individual Behaviour Plans

FBA typically leads to the development and implementation of an individual behaviour plan. While a full description of individual behaviour plans is outside the scope of this document, there are key elements that relate to problem-solving and data-based decision making. During the development and implementation of an individual behaviour plan, the four problem-solving steps can be continuously applied to support data-based decision making until an appropriate form of support is found i.e. prediction, high-probability interventions, consistency and assessment.

In general, an individual behaviour plan involves:

- consultation with parents and the pupil;
- consultation with external professionals as required;
- baseline information about the pupil’s strengths and needs;
- targets that are related to the pupil’s strengths and needs;
- criteria to measure success;
- teaching and learning approaches to be used;
- ongoing monitoring and dates for review.

The interventions informed by the data collected may focus on the support that the pupil requires at all three levels of the continuum of support. This could include minimizing antecedents that are known to trigger the behaviour of concern while increasing the use of antecedents that support desired behaviour. Such an approach might involve adapting teacher instructions, learning materials and/or the learning environment. The individual behaviour plan might also seek to minimize consequences that were found to reinforce or maintain inappropriate behaviour in favour of consequences that reinforce the desired behaviour (e.g. additional praise for desired behaviour). Finally, interventions may involve teaching more acceptable replacement behaviours that serve the same function as the behaviour of concern, such as asking for help, tolerating delay, expressing an opinion, managing oneself and resolving conflict. These interventions ideally build on pupil strengths to promote behaviour change.
Conclusion
The problem-solving approach that can be used at all three tiers of the continuum is provided in the Summary on page 37. The first tier of the continuum of support lays the foundation for all other interventions that are implemented in school. This foundation, which is constructed upon positive pupil-teacher relationships, effective classroom management and differentiated learning, is strengthened by data collection and analysis. The collection and analysis of data is the first step in selecting and implementing tier two and tier three interventions. The quality and effectiveness of interventions is linked to the ability of school teams to implement data-based decision making by building consensus amongst key stakeholders to ensure consistency of implementation. A focus on data can support teachers to change school variables that promote success for pupils as well as inform individual interventions for pupils at greatest risk. A number of approaches that can be used at all three tiers of the continuum to support pupils with special educational needs is summarised in Appendix 1 (see page 44).
Summary: Implementing Multi-Tiered Support for Behaviour

A summary of the problem solving approach that can be used to address behavioural difficulties across each tier of support is presented in Table 8. Although listed within three separate tiers, these approaches can be adapted for use within any tier.

Table 8: Problem-Solving Across the Three Tiers of Behaviour Support

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Tier 1</th>
<th>Tier 2</th>
<th>Tier 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prediction</td>
<td>List all predictable behaviour problems in the school. Consult all staff, pupils and parents as appropriate.</td>
<td>Identify behaviours of concern using ODRs and qualitative data. Consult all staff that have contact with pupil and parents as necessary.</td>
<td>Determine behaviours that are unresponsive to previous intervention. Consult key members of staff, parents and external professionals as required.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consistency</td>
<td>Build staff consensus by involving all staff in decision-making. Decisions must be logical, practical and sustainable.</td>
<td>Involve individuals who are needed to increase the likelihood of success. Meet regularly to select, implement and monitor interventions.</td>
<td>Prioritise people who are deemed essential to maximise outcomes but regularly inform/consult all stakeholders.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment</td>
<td>Collect feedback from proactive screening (NEPS guidelines) and stakeholders as required. Analyse school data, such as ODRs.</td>
<td>Increase frequency and precision of data collection. Use brief observations, feedback, ongoing screening and school data, such as ODRs. Monitor the intensity, frequency and duration of behaviours.</td>
<td>Implement direct ongoing observations in a range of typical school settings to record intensity, frequency and/or duration of behaviours. Collect feedback from key stakeholders.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
References


Behaviour Support for Pupils with Special Educational Needs Across the Continuum

Positive behaviour for pupils with special educational needs can be promoted by:
1) providing access to the curriculum through differentiated learning and teaching;
2) encouraging participation through fostering positive relationships; and
3) maximising pupil engagement with the curriculum by supporting pupil progress.

(1) Providing Access to the Curriculum
- Provide multi-sensory learning opportunities that utilise pupils’ range of learning channels e.g. visual, auditory, tactile etc
- Check clarity of instruction
- Consider readability of texts
- Establish consistent routines
- Offer choices/prompts
- Liaise with parents/guardians

(2) Encouraging Participation
- Build positive relationships
- Support social skill development
- Promote communication skills
- Consider peer tutoring/support
- Develop ground rules for co-operative learning or exploratory talk
- Provide additional structure or routines
- Liaise with colleagues

Collect and analyse data to support instructional decision-making

(3) Maximising Pupil Engagement
- Identify pupil strengths
- Record and celebrate small improvements
- Directly address the development of pupils’ organisational skills
- Listen to and accommodate pupil voice
- Include pupil self-directed interventions (e.g. self-management strategies)
- Promote self-advocacy
- Use assessment for learning