Advancing Inclusive and Special Education in the Asia-Pacific

Fiona Bryer
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Behavioural Support for Students with Special Educational Needs

Trends Across the Asia-Pacific Region

Centre for Advancement in Inclusive and Special Education
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Policies and practices of inclusion in education were adopted in the Asia-Pacific region somewhat later than in the West; and they are still evolving as schools, colleges and universities are coming to grips with the challenge of addressing increasing diversity among students. There is a growing awareness in the region that there is a need for improved channels of communication for academics and researchers to share more effectively their findings in order to influence developments in the field of inclusive and special education.

Many institutions in the region have academic groups working and researching in this field, often in semi-isolation. For example, the following institutions are all separately involved: University of Hong Kong, the Chinese University of Hong Kong, The Education University of Hong Kong, University of Queensland, University of Monash, University of Canterbury, Beijing Normal University, National Taiwan Normal University, University of Macau, Nangyang Technological University, and the Korean University, and as well as other universities. The academics concerned are eager for an outlet for their publications, and for ongoing communication with other professions in different countries and cities. Equally important, teachers, students on graduate courses, special education practitioners, counsellors, school psychologists, and school principals are eager to obtain information and guidance on meeting student's diverse educational and personal needs. Inclusive education has been described as '…a multifaceted practice that deals with value and belief systems, invites and celebrates diversity and difference arising from family background, social class, gender, language, socio-economic background, cultural origin or ability, with human rights and social justice at its core' (Agbenyega & Deku, 2011, p.1). Inclusion is thus a core part of the notion of 'education for all' agenda; and it is far more than the placement of students with special educational needs in regular classrooms (UNESCO, 2003). That is also the view that will be presented consistently within these books.

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Preface

Why Did We Write This Book?

This book offers a positive and practical analysis of behavioural support as a means to advance academic and social outcomes for students with special educational needs (SEN) around the Asia-Pacific Rim. It explores the dissemination of behavioural support as an evidence-based approach to inclusive and special educational practice. The guiding theory, legislative framework, and research investment that originated in the USA are progressively informing educational practice in other countries.

A recent compilation of European achievements in behavioural support (Goei & De Pry 2017) documented system-wide implementation in some countries, together with the use of effective practices and analysis of issues around capacity building and sustainability. By comparison, many school systems in Australia have followed American practice. They have progressively adopted aspects of behavioural support within their systems and have relied on in-house resources and reporting to share their experiences. Increasingly, behavioural support for students with SEN is being introduced into thriving Asian countries.

It is timely, therefore, to consider and compare progress in behavioural support across different cultural and educational contexts. This book compiles the experiences in selected countries that are exploring the American approach. With this compilation, insights into what works and what doesn't work in specific contexts may provide recommendations for future efforts.

For Whom Is This Book Written?

Sharing information about behavioural support between countries means sharing information among those with a stake in the schooling of students with SEN. University researchers, government policymakers, school administrators, and

regular and specialist classroom teachers bring different perspectives on how behavioural support can address student needs and improve educational opportunities available within local school communities. With these stakeholders in mind (educational decision-makers in government and nongovernment positions, school staff, and academics), this book has been written to provide readable and helpful summaries with practical advice. Coverage is intended to highlight core business for behavioural support in emerging contexts.

How Is This Book Organised?

The book is organised into five parts, including an introductory chapter highlighting Western perspectives on teaching, learning, and behaviour (Part I), and followed by a concluding chapter highlighting issues and insights derived from case studies in Australia and Asia (Part V). The second part contains two chapters that describe the origins and growth of behavioural support in the USA. The third part contains three chapters that report the Australian patchwork of adoption and adaptation practice and gives two case studies of behavioural support in government and nongovernment sectors. The fourth part provides five case studies of supports for students with SEN in modern Asian countries.

In Part II, the systemic development of behavioural support in the USA provides a comprehensive model for other countries to follow. In Part III, the dissemination of this movement into another Western context, Australia, shows the challenges that arise when there isn't a unifying and holistic approach to problem behaviour at a systems level. In Part IV, the Asian case studies contrast the current acceptance and implementation of approaches to behavioural support.

Taken together, this book fills a gap, bringing together issues and insights about how educational policy and practices in different societies and cultures influence the uptake of behavioural support into schools and classrooms. It also provides ideas about behaviour, research, and training for future attention and reform.

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Reference

Goei, S. L., & De Pry R. L. (Eds.). (2017). *School-wide positive behaviour interventions and supports: European research, applications and practices*. London, UK: Routledge.

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Part I
Introduction

Chapter 1
Western Perspectives on Teaching, Learning, and Behaviour

Fiona Bryer and Wendi Beamish

Abstract Scientific understanding of how students behave, develop, and learn is central to mass education, inclusive schooling, and behavioural support in Western education. The shift to inclusive schooling has changed the demands on how teachers practise. Behavioural support offers schools and teachers a bridge connecting research to preventative, proactive, and proven practices for educating diverse learners, including those with special educational needs (SEN). The movement away from separate provision for students with SEN has challenged schools and teachers to be better prepared to proactively manage problem behaviours, to incorporate social-emotional learning in school curriculum, and to provide needs-based education for all students. In Western education, wellbeing has become a popular idea for whole-school improvement, and the construct of learning is returning to popularity for improving academic instruction. However, classroom teaching, student learning, and problem behaviour have remained somewhat disconnected. For all students, behavioural support links research-informed practice to meaningful outcomes in wellbeing, learning, and behaviour.

Keywords Behaviour · Development · Social-emotional learning · Wellbeing · Teacher practice

Introduction

Behavioural support is a movement with links to several literatures that will be outlined in this chapter. First, the twenty-first century shift to inclusive schooling has fostered the emergence of multilevel instruction for the diversity of learners in the modern classroom. Second, the continuing research-to-practice gap between recommended educational theory for students with special educational needs (SEN) and implementation of practice in schools has pointed to the need for precisely

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documented practices and operational procedures of mutual interest to researchers and educators. Third, developmental sciences have described and explained core concepts and principles that advance student behaviour and learning in school settings.

Across these literatures, the need for systems-level change and school improvement is an intersecting theme. Within this framework, inclusive school communities can use behavioural support as a vital pathway for improving learning outcomes and wellbeing for all students. Given gaps between recommendations for research-informed practice and actual practice in educational settings, behavioural support provides tools and procedures that can reduce ongoing lags in school-wide capacity building, poor sense of connectedness between regular and specialist teachers, and boundary riding by staff that hinders service delivery for students with SEN. Western perspectives on behaviour, learning, and development also challenge inclusive schools to be better prepared to proactively reduce problem behaviours, to include social-emotional learning in school curriculum, and to provide needs-based and authentic learning experiences for all students.

Practice and related terms that refer to the way in which instruction is provided to students with SEN occur many times throughout this book. Views about what makes practice effective in producing meaningful student outcomes vary a great deal. The popularity or unpopularity of practices does not align neatly with a scientific basis of professional judgements and decision-making: Evidence can be ignored; evidence can be limited, flawed, or not yet available. "Much confusion exists regarding the meaning and potential applications of evidence-based practices in special education" (Cook, Tankersley, Cook, & Landrum, 2015, p. 310).

Throughout this book and in this chapter, research-informed practice is the term used generally to encompass the subset of practice interchangeably called research-based, empirically supported, and recommended. In the first part of this chapter, evidence-based practices refer to a very small subset of instructional strategies that are concretely defined and replicable. In the final part of this chapter, the focus is on educational practices that make learning environments safe for students across ages and abilities, that enact protections against educational risks, and that create opportunities for scaling up improvement in individual practitioners, in the education profession as a whole, and in the organisation of schooling.

The Past and Future of Education

Western perspectives on teaching, learning, and behaviour in its education systems have implications for education systems around the Pacific Rim. Western studies of mass education as a societal phenomenon are reframing the understanding of schooling to pay more attention to the wellbeing of its participants and also are reframing the understanding of teaching to pay more attention to the developmental complexities of the learning process and learning systems. Western studies of the education of students with SEN are helping to reframe our understanding of the importance of mental health, wellbeing, social and academic aspects of school

belonging, and behavioural support to the experiences and outcomes of schooling across the whole population of students. These understandings can inform the future directions of education systems in the Pacific Rim in societies that span agrarian-preindustrial, industrial, and digital-postindustrial economies.

In Western societies, opportunities for students with SEN to participate in special education opened up with normalisation of mass education. Later opportunities for some students with SEN to experience fuller participation together with the broader community of students then opened up with access to inclusive education. Western populations became participant citizens when opportunities for schooling were extended beyond elitist access to formal education for a relatively few people associated with privilege and patronage. Western investment in many years of schooling and a broad range of humanist, scientific, technical, and professional studies replaced the initial reformist focus on a few years of basic literacy, numeracy, and religion in the early phases of the industrial revolution of the twentieth century. Expenditure of material wealth on education and advanced training created more opportunities for more people to rise out of poverty and to enrich these societies as a whole.

Gaps in the mass education agendas and inclusive education frameworks of Western societies have been recognised. Not all students complete secondary school and achieve a secure and fulfilling adulthood, and not all students with SEN obtain an inclusive education with positive life outcomes. As some gaps were closed during the industrial revolution of the twentieth century, other gaps have appeared during the technological revolution. As new digital elites have emerged during this technological century, it has been observed that there is a decline in the Western success of mass literacy during the last century.

Coping positively with the changing nature of work (e.g. job uncertainty in a "gig economy"), redistribution of material wealth within and between countries, and global vulnerabilities in climate instability, population growth and mobility, and related shortages in basic resources of land, water, and air makes it important for education systems to pay attention to education for citizenship of the whole population in order to sustain the inclusive virtues of civil society.

Shift to Inclusive Schooling

In Western countries, inclusive education is an expectation that all children in a society can participate in formal schooling together. Two key parts of this expectation is that (a) students with SEN will receive adjustments that will help them to participate more fully with typically developing peers and that (b) teachers will use adaptive instructional technology to facilitate participation and monitor its effectiveness in improving learning and behaviour in the inclusive classroom. The history of formal education in the West and in the East shows ongoing expansion of opportunity to participate and ongoing refinement of educational supports for participation. One major barrier to greater participation of students with SEN is the boundary wall separating curriculum-based practice for mainstream classrooms and

the more specialised needs-based practice for students with SEN. Another barrier is the increasing severity of problem behaviour among students with SEN who are accessing mainstream classrooms. These barriers impose an increasing burden on classroom teachers.

The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation, 1994) urged nations to provide inclusive schooling for all students. It projected the idea that a 20-year period would be sufficient to achieve the building of inclusive school communities throughout the world. Around the Pacific Rim, countries have formulated policy guidelines to deliver an inclusion agenda. In various ways, these countries are pursuing a coherent framework for professional practice consistent with their education systems. The particular features of the inclusion agenda and framework for practice stretches from mass schooling to inclusive education to behavioural support for those learners whose behaviour affects learning outcomes and classroom harmony.

Within this book, inclusive education is viewed as an active process for reframing practice. This perspective is derived from the present position of the United Nations on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. Specialist settings evolved much of the successful pedagogy, curriculum, and organisational practice base for educating students with SEN. The shift towards inclusive settings for instructing diverse learners brings with it the need for schools to change existing ways of working.

> Inclusion involves a process of systemic reform embodying changes and modifications in content, teaching methods, approaches, structures and strategies in education to overcome barriers with a vision serving to provide all students of the relevant age range with an equitable and participatory learning experience and environment that best corresponds to their requirements and preferences. (United Nations Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities General Comment No. 4, in Hehir et al., 2016, p. 3)

Special education has established a large and effective practice base for its person-centred approach to the needs and preferences of specific individuals with developmental disabilities and difficulties. Person-centred education, with its individualised instruction and strength-based approach, has been articulated in an extensive literature published towards the end of the twentieth century, mostly in the USA. Learning outcomes that address the urgency of a young person's immediate needs have fostered a practical emphasis on what works rather than what doesn't (Vandercook, York, & Forest, 1989). At the same time, the philosophical aspirations of a person-centred value for self-determination have justified the long-term commitment towards improving quality of life (Freeman et al., 2015). Special schools, often staffed by people with a strong interest in helping children with severe disabilities, provided a setting for the development and appraisal of specialist practices, procedures, and policies distinct from the practices commonly used in regular school environments.

A systematic and explicit technology of teaching has evolved alongside person-centred values and practices. For example, three instructional methodologies have been found to be highly effective teaching practices for students with SEN. These practices have involved intense teacher-student interaction during teacher-directed lessons, close monitoring of student progress within and across these lessons, and

precise analysis of the individual's learning and behaviour within the classroom. Students with SEN have responded well to instruction when task analysis has been used to break down learning activities into manageable chunks and thus to present lesson content in a simpler structure and sequence.

Formative evaluation of student progress towards individual curriculum goals also has improved student outcomes: Teachers have recognised that it is good practice to collect data on success on each step within a task-analysed learning activity and to track the level of assistance required to succeed at each step. Applied behaviour analysis has been a third major methodology for obtaining meaningful change to student learning and behaviour. This technology, when carefully planned and implemented, ensures that learning behaviours pinpointed for attention are socially important, observable, and measurable.

These instructional practices are designed to be relevant and socially valid across educational systems and schools. They have been distinguished from other practices considered (a) promising but still reliant on an emergent body of evidence and (b) controversial and lacking empirical data. Special education practice inventories also have contained more complex service delivery patterns, organisational structures, and programming principles (Beamish, 2008). For example, practices such as maximising opportunities to make choices, teaching new skills in the context of daily routines, and planning collaboratively with parents and therapists were identified by teachers at a large Queensland special school who adapted a state-wide listing to benchmark practice in their school and suites of classrooms (Beamish & Bryer, 2012).

The crossover into inclusive schooling has achieved the physical placement of students with SEN alongside typically developing peers but has presented both students and staff with ongoing challenges. First, many special educational practices did not efficiently transfer into the regular classroom of diverse learners: The instructional knowledge and practice of special education have continued to be separated from that of regular classroom teachers (Sailor & McCart, 2014). Second, the development and documentation of inclusive practices for teaching diverse learners has been slow to evolve: "Despite global and national policy efforts, the practice has been sporadic and elusive" (Sailor, 2017, p. 1).

One comprehensive review of inclusive education literature for the 1980s through to the 2000s examined teachers' use of research-informed practice. This review suggested that there has been little meaningful translation from research into practice (Grima-Farrell, Bain, & McDonagh, 2011). Educators trying to implement sustainable research-informed practices in real-world settings did not fully appreciate and apply the theory developed by researchers. Lack of appropriate professional development and dissemination of research knowledge has restricted the uptake of that understanding into teacher practice. Second, research-informed practices have not been integrated into teacher preparation programmes.

A sociocultural review of international research (2000–2009) on professional development about inclusion revealed little attention to the organisational complexity of inclusive schooling (Waitoller & Artiles, 2013). Most studies ignored the critical elements that produce better student outcomes (e.g. engagement and participation, quality of relationships among teachers and students, opportunities to learn and

develop meaningful identities afforded to students). The main focus of these studies on elements of teaching did not consider the presence of strong boundaries between the respective approaches to practice of regular and special educators. Waitoller and Artiles highlighted the working relationships between regular and special educators in professional development aimed to facilitate the shift to a more inclusive organisation. They called for collaboration between regular and special education teachers and their respective communities of practice, in order to negotiate inclusive goals and resolve tensions: They proposed to call these collaborations a "boundary practice" (p. 344). They also called for more effort to recognise and resolve clashes between visions of child development and learning informing their respective pedagogical and curricular practices: They proposed that regular classroom teachers can act as "boundary brokers" (p. 345) in research partnership with other brokers (e.g. special education teachers, school psychologists, teacher educators) in an inclusive organisation.

The advent of the whole-school approach also fostered the idea of structural changes in the organisation of education for all students. It has been proposed that a well-designed comprehensive approach to school-wide practice requires integration of current research on everyday classroom routines of instruction, assessment, and classroom management (McIntosh & Goodman, 2016). Three main areas for reorganisation have been identified. First, changes in delivery of curriculum to multi-tiered instruction have focused on lessons geared to the differentiated needs of diverse learners. Second, changes in social organisation have focused on co-teaching staff teams and cooperative student groups to facilitate teaching and learning. Third, changes in communication with family and neighbourhood (school-community partnerships) have focused on building trust and teacher-parent engagement.

From these organisational changes have emerged new areas of practice. The emergent understanding of inclusive schooling is emphasising the capacity of school systems to provide the structures, interventions, and instructional practices that are differentiated for all students at risk of school failure and relevant to their specific needs (Sailor & McCart, 2014). Accommodation of new practices with system changes into more inclusive schooling is now accepted as a critical aspect of the school improvement agenda. Three different kinds of examples of innovation and school reform relevant to this book are (a) the use of multi-tiered systems of supports for students with different levels of needs, together with (b) the differentiated curriculum and assessment provided by Universal Design for Learning, and (c) co-teaching practice for an inclusive classroom from initial planning of lessons to assessment of outcomes.

Bridge Between Research and Practice

Throughout the twentieth century, developmental processes and disorders, learning and learning difficulties, and risk-and-resilience influences on student behaviour and future wellbeing have been well described and explained by behavioural and

social scientists. However, understanding and use of research-informed intervention to improve student outcomes in real-world classrooms for diverse student populations have continued to lag behind knowledge and theorising (Achenbach, 1978; Lerner, 2015). The practical utility of experimental research in the classroom, fair access to manualised programmes for those schools and teachers wanting to use them, and practitioner-friendly dissemination of up-to-date research have continued to be persistent concerns for classroom teachers. New issues of barriers to implementation and sustainability of effective practice have surfaced (Blasé, Dyke, Fixen, & Bailey, 2012). For a school attempting to maintain and regenerate initial changes, examples of these issues occur when resources are redirected to other programming initiatives and when training in a new approach to practice must be renewed for current and new staff.

Researchers, service providers, and families have sought effective ways, through inclusion, to enhance the educational opportunities of all students and to counteract educational exposure to cumulative developmental risks. Families have wanted their child to learn social and emotional skills for functional interactions with family, peers, employers, and the general community: Acquiring cognitive skills in functional literacy and numeracy without behavioural disruptions of academic skill building is not their only goal for their child's inclusion in mainstream schooling. Teachers have wanted their classrooms to run smoothly and their students to be productively engaged in learning activities. Researchers have wanted to contribute to both academic scholarship and community wellbeing. Their shared aspirations to help students with SEN succeed in a least restrictive environment have graduated to more sophisticated ideas about who intervenes and how intervention works.

There have been lively discussions about the relative importance of the research rigour and treatment fidelity of implementation science (Fixen, Naoom, Blasé, Friedman, & Wallace, 2005) compared to the greater flexibility and real-world fit of improvement science. The emerging multidisciplinary field of implementation science has taken up the challenge about how to translate research knowledge into practice (Cook & Odom, 2013). Treatment fidelity (i.e. faithful implementation of a programme in a setting with carefully selected characteristics) provides a way to demonstrate programme effectiveness and thus promote the uptake of interventions of proven effectiveness into routine practice. In research investigating implementation methods and strategies, protocols have been developed about how to engage practitioners with a new practice and motivate them to use the practice and about how to ensure that practitioners act thoughtfully in the implementation of a new practice and perform it with procedural precision.

At the same time, improvement science is another emerging field investigating the research-to-practice gap (Lewis, 2015). This research explores how teachers convert action learning about their practices into professionally meaningful knowledge about how to improve student outcomes. Acceptance of evidence-based tools and practices in particular educational settings may require adaptation that is sensitive to local needs and complexities. A well-known example of continuous adaptation of teacher practice is the Japanese system of lesson study, which involves K-8 Japanese teachers in a routine but intensive collaborative process of designing,

teaching, and reviewing lessons (Hiebert & Stigler, 2017). Cycles of reflection and collegial feedback encourage steady improvement in the outcomes of classroom teaching, which is helpful in including diverse learners. Improvement science, however, is not equivalent to selective and preferential introduction of parts of a manualised programme. Instead, this latter approach to educational reform represents chaotic and piecemeal implementation of a research-informed practice and its protocols, and it is typical of the failure of much potentially exciting reform.

It has been acknowledged that teachers acting as individual agents of change in Western reforms can lead to uncoordinated elements of practice (Hiebert & Stigler, 2017). The problem with the Western focus on teachers rather than the teaching process was illustrated in a study of continuous improvement research in two high schools in the USA (Tichnor-Wagner, Wachen, Cannata, & Cohen-Vogel, 2017). Many plan-do-study-act cycles of small changes produced improvements in the academic and social-emotional performance of students. However, the teachers in this study felt that their participation in the plan-do-study-act innovation was disconnected from their daily work. Although they recognised the value of the cycles for improving their practice, their comments highlighted the need to reorganise school infrastructure to address issues related to time, training, and data collection. Tichnor-Wagner et al. concluded that these teachers encountered practical difficulty integrating other people's tools and objectives into their established working routines and described them as "boundary crossers" (p. 25). This case makes it clear that crossing a boundary between established practice and new practice requires adjustments and allowances for change, which, in turn, requires considerable thought and preparation.

Teachers and Their Practice

Today's teachers need a rich repertoire of strategies to interact effectively and sensitively with every student in their class. For evidence-based practices such as instructional strategies, the narrow focus of research and the specific elements presented in lesson use are workable for many teachers and likely to be implemented successfully with many students. Yet, everyday experiences for diverse learners with few additional risks are not always based on research-informed knowledge about practice pedagogy and collaborative teaching that have been found to be helpful for inclusive schooling. Teacher knowledge and skill mediate between student risk and learner access to inclusive education.

Teachers need to be able take at least equivalent care to offset risks that increase student vulnerability, in an additive fashion (i.e. more need, more support). Students with SEN present with different kinds of educational needs and severity of disability. Students with SEN and other students in a classroom also may present with either socioeconomic disadvantage or minority status associated with undervalued cultural, ethnic, and indigenous characteristics. They may be at risk from exposure to abuse and neglect or from living in a rural and remote place with reduced access

to educational resources. For example, a student with SEN from an ethnic minority family living in a rural area is at more risk than a student with SEN from a middle class family living in a city.

Teaching has to be regarded as a form of practice based on ethical norms; it should not be regarded as a form of production (Grundy, 1987). Technical competence in curriculum management is the main basis of the adaptive capacity claimed for the Western-trained teacher to know and do well in any classroom context: A professional ethos of the autonomy and independence of the individual teacher is the justification for taking responsibility for a classroom and its learning outcomes. However, the reliance on the energy, creativity, and personal style of teachers in Western classrooms rather than their application of teaching processes and protocols has made it difficult to evaluate their efficacy.

The ongoing focus of much initial teacher preparation on the technical skills to teach a lesson, manage a class, and assess learning continues to support Western ideas about adaptive capacity. These skills can be sufficient to achieve short-term production goals. From the early twentieth century, there have been ongoing debates about the role and status of teaching. The best of practice and scholarship needs to inform each other in order to advance the quality of teaching, to avoid attrition from the profession, and to strengthen the virtuous community in ethical schooling. Themes for debate continue to feature (a) experiential and craft-prescribed knowledge of skilled practitioners versus teachers as action researchers systematically improving their own professional knowledge and practice, (b) teacher education in a school-based apprenticeship to current practitioners rather than a more critical university-based study of knowledge and practice, and (c) the role of teachers in either maintaining social order or challenging social inequities. Yet, an overemphasis placed on basic technical competence at entry to this profession can distract some teachers from the pursuit of longer-term professional learnings, which is essential to the success of inclusive education.

Inclusion has introduced varied and unpredictable working conditions for teacher work. The context-specific organisational features of many practices recommended in special education settings do not adapt easily to inclusive settings. Families of practices embedded within traditional regular education need reorganisation (Kemmis, Edwards-Groves, Wilkinson, & Hardy, 2012). For example, inclusive practice ecologies combine in new coordinated ways to address the needs of all students. This approach also has the potential to provide high-quality instruction in general education classrooms. It distributes resources efficiently but flexibly to meet student needs. It employs school-wide data systems to monitor student progress. Case studies of effective inclusive schools from the UK (Farrell, Dyson, Polat, Hutcheson, & Gallannaugh, 2007) and the USA (McLeskey, Waldron, & Redd, 2014) demonstrate the committed and sustained whole-school efforts that are needed to reorganise practice ecologies for inclusion.

Teachers are expected to interpret events in their busy mainstream classrooms and to find ways to manage unexpected disruptions. All regular classrooms experience the "wild triangle" of teacher-peer-task interactions identified by Ball and Forzani (2007). These interactions comprise major aspects of classroom ecology.

Teachers can recognise and predict some behaviours arising from a student's interactions with that individual teacher, their particular class of students, and a set of tasks to be learned and assessed. Teachers also can establish predictable routines that encourage student self-management within and across class activities. However, any student's interactions with the teacher, peers, and learning tasks throughout a school day and from day to day can trigger apparently surprising "out of the blue" events. Therefore, preparing supports and interventions that help a student with SEN adapt to mainstream interactions is an important task; this forethought can also help other students in their classroom interactions.

Kemmis (2009) challenged the notion that teacher action consists of the performance of technical tasks with static, linear progress through a series of routine everyday activities. Teachers as action researchers engage in a dynamic process of acting and then reflecting on action to bring about beneficial change in their own practice and, working with other teachers, in the educational system in which they practise. This process revisits and refines practice in a metamethod that cycles through repeated phases of an action, reflects on the effectiveness of a practice through each cycle of learning from action, and spirals back over that previous action in a better way. Continuous refinement of the methods of action research together with the collection and interpretation of student data can converge towards an even better understanding of practice and its many external influences from cultural thinking, social connection, and economic forces in play (Kemmis, 2010).

The ongoing debate about the status of teachers and their practice can be traced back to discussion about reactive and proactive approaches to teaching and instruction in regular education (Rohrkemper & Good, 1987a, b) and in special education (Donnellan, LaVigna, Negri-Shoultz, & Fassbender, 1988). Teachers have been engaged in to-and-fro bridge crossings between teacher-valued knowledge and research-informed practice. For example, co-teaching is part of a set of recommended practices that teachers in regular and special education have been slow to embrace. Despite mounting evidence of effectiveness, this social practice may be viewed by teachers as complicated and time-consuming to implement. It also sits outside the established boundary around teacher autonomy within a classroom. On the other hand, punishment has been part of a set of reactive practices that teachers in regular and special education have been unable to relinquish.

Co-teaching as an Example of Proactive Practice

Early recommendations to shift instructional practice towards proactive strategies of teaching gave value to roles not only as a planful, reflective, and data-driven instructor but also as a socialiser of better behaviour (Rohrkemper & Good, 1987a): They stated that "The more proactive decision-making and behavioural strategies that a teacher engages in, the more predictable the classroom environment becomes" (p. 460). However, the prevailing approach to behaviour and its management in classrooms has not encouraged teachers to make this shift. Combining and

recombining the professional skills and resources of general and special educators in a shared classroom is one way to design useful learning experiences and outcomes for students with and without SEN.

Co-teaching is a research-informed inclusive practice, which is an innovative version of the traditional team teaching arrangement (Beamish, Bryer, & Davies, 2006). Villa, Thousand, and Nevin (2008) have advocated several benefits of this multi-element practice. It fosters a positive sense of classroom community; improves students' positive attitudes, social skills, and academic learning; and facilitates teachers' professional growth, personal support, and motivation. Collaborative partnering between regular and special education teachers has proven to be effective in meeting the demands of diverse learners including those with SEN (Solis, Vaughn, Swanson, & McCulley, 2012). Collaboration can enhance class interactions as a learning community and staff interactions as a team. Individual teachers with knowledge and enthusiasm for co-teaching can lead and inspire whole-school improvement.

Social dynamics within effective co-teaching teams blur the typical roles of regular and special education teachers and their respective responsibilities for whole-class curriculum versus students with SEN. This blurring promotes the sharing of knowledge and expertise across a co-plan, co-teach, co-evaluate cycle of action learning and shared reflection. Sharing the load of planning, instruction, and assessment, whether across a specific unit of work or across a period of the school year, improves conditions for teaching and learning. Ongoing collaboration among team members enhances communication and feedback loops, which, in turn, promotes the use of new ways of working within a community of practice. Thus, co-teaching relationships can alter the ecology of inclusive practice across a class, a year level, and a school (Kemmis et al., 2012).

This proactive reorganisation of inclusive practice can bring together implementation science and improvement science. Working together equally helps regular and special education teachers to adapt their own practice to each other's practice instead of maintaining their separate roles and responsibilities (i.e. curriculum managers for the whole class and managers of differentiated curriculum for students with SEN in that classroom). Acting as "boundary riders" who maintain fences between professional territories prevents two-way sharing of knowledge and its translation into action. Co-teaching can also move regular and special teachers towards joint ownership of student outcomes and towards active learning from each other's strengths with a mixing of rigour and fit-for-purpose adaptation. In this way, co-teachers can become effective boundary brokers of inclusive practice (Waitoller & Artiles, 2013).

Punishment as an Example of Reactive Practice

Punishment-based practices are research-informed practices that rarely improve learning productivity or reduce misbehaviour. Schools often lack a shared and systematic understanding of the meaning of discipline as education in socially

acceptable behaviour rather than suppression of misbehaviour (Bear, 2010). From the 1960s, these practices have continued to be employed with students of all ages and abilities, despite having been shown to have negative or minimal benefits for meaningful student outcomes (Maag, 2012). It appears that teachers may value the practice as a powerful and easy-to-implement tool with quick effect within a classroom (Knight, 2009): Effects are mostly short-term, and consequences are often unpredictable. Punishment has relatively little educative value to students as an instructional tool in the learning of more socially acceptable behaviour. Otherwise, punishment often remains a default option for teachers.

In modern usage, teachers have access to an extensive repertoire of punitive strategies to reduce misbehaviour and deal with crisis situations. Sidman (1999) traced the historical origin of this Western preference to public medieval punishments that were employed to communicate the severe cost of wrongdoing and challenges to authority (e.g. torture and exile). Many Western countries ban physical punishment in schools, but alternative emotionally damaging strategies include nonverbal frowns and gestures, chronic verbal nagging, melodramatic threats of severe consequences, and punitive reinforcement-based procedures such as detention (adding an unpleasant consequence for misbehaviour) and response cost (removal of personally valued privileges for misbehaviour). Various strategies used to exit a student from a classroom include a short break from the room (e.g. office disciplinary referral to administration), seclusion within the school, temporary suspension from school, and permanent exclusion.

Traditional use of punishment in schools continues to be promoted as both (a) the centrepiece of a "behaviour management" approach in authoritarian school procedures and (b) a "last resort" for teachers who lack alternative ways of managing behaviour that threatens classroom safety and challenges the wellbeing of self and others in the classroom. Everyday use of punitive strategies in real-time decision-making in the act of teaching serves to confront, intimidate, and coerce students. These actions can provide the appearance of teacher control of the classroom, correction of unruly behaviour and emotional outbursts, and student submission to authoritarian demands for compliance.

Cautions about punishment are many, varied, and longstanding (Bear, 2010). Teachers underrate the side effects of using punishment (e.g. teaching aggression; fostering negative emotions in teacher, student, and peers; and undermining day-to-day teacher-student relationship and opportunity to foster longer-term mutual respect). Overreliance on negative consequences to manage behaviour informally teaches students to avoid punishment and to hate the learning environment and everyone in it (Colvin & Scott, 2015). Both teacher and student escape further mutual negative interactions by engaging in more escalation of "go away from me" aversive interactions (e.g. building negative chains of problem behaviour, punishment, more misbehaviour, more punishment, etc.). Punishment is not prosocial, does not improve self-monitoring in the longer term, does not model respectful behaviour, lacks sensitivity to the many reasons for misbehaviour, does not train teachers in good practice, does not regulate student emotions, and does not create a positive school climate.

From the 1980s, teachers have been invited to shift instructional delivery away from reactive practice towards more proactive teaching (Rohrkemper & Good, 1987a). Reactive practice has continued to value the teacher's role as instructor who tries to minimise behavioural interference with instruction rather than as a socialiser of better behaviour. There is an ongoing need for a more proactive, reflective, and planned stance to replace (a) teacher reactivity to unanticipated and mainly negative events during the interactive or ongoing phase of instruction, (b) unplanned actions in disciplinary encounters with students, and (c) quasi-moral decisions to withhold positive reinforcers from students judged as capable but condemned as disengaged and unproductive.

Western Perspectives on Students and Their Schooling

In Western society, there is broad alignment between developmental research, beliefs about what teachers do, and community expectations with respect to student wellbeing, learning, and behaviour. Important longitudinal research into school success has identified three indicators: (a) friendly and prosocial interactions with classmates, (b) achievement of reasonable learning outcomes, and (c) good conduct in the classroom (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). It is widely believed that regular teachers can develop key competencies appropriate to student age, address the wide range of learning needs in any classroom, and handle misbehaviour. The community expects that school leavers will be well-adjusted, literate, and productive citizens.

There has been increasing understanding of the extent and variety of the vulnerabilities of students and of the inappropriateness of some practice in meeting their basic needs. For example, longitudinal data from the Australian Temperament Project show that "at any one time-point, approximately 25% of all students exhibit significant adjustment difficulties of some sort" (Sanson, 2016, p. 24). Moreover, today's schools are dealing directly with the traumatised, disconnected, and antisocial behaviours of abused and neglected children. Furthermore, many schools continue to use punitive rather than positive practices with some students (e.g. learning disabled; hyperactive-impulsive-aggressive or aggressive-impulsive-anxious; anxious and depressed; mood disordered) who have always been in classrooms (Bryer & Signorini, 2011).

Student wellbeing, learning, and behaviour can be affected by the school environment in positive and negative ways. Social-emotional, intellectual, and behavioural differences within and among students, arising from biopsychosocial processes in development, can be increased or reduced. Success in traditionally valued academic literacy and numeracy outcomes of schooling can be linked to psychological and emotional strengths. For all students, including those with SEN, a positive school environment, catering for individual difference, and teaching for academic and social-emotional outcomes are imperatives (Wang & Degol, 2016).

Wellbeing has gradually become a popular idea for school improvement because it broadens the formal purpose of schooling to include personal development and

social relationships for all students and for their teachers. Learning is returning to popularity among researchers who emphasise collaborative teacher expertise in helping all students make good academic progress rather than endless conversations about distractions from learning in their classrooms (e.g. more assessment, more technology, more school choices, lower class size, longer school days, and performance pay incentives for teachers). Unproductive behaviour that interferes with academic learning and social connectedness has dominated informal and formal conversations among teachers throughout the modern history of schooling.

Wellbeing

Wellbeing, psychological strengths, and resilience to stress and adversity are becoming increasingly popular topics for school improvement. Discussion about these prosocial topics is beginning to balance the existing concern about youth welfare for distressed students who are coping poorly with negative life events. Related school topics of mental health promotion, prevention, and intervention (McMillan & Jarvis, 2017) and an assess–plan–implement–evaluate teaching cycle for social and emotional learning (Beamish & Bryer, 2017) also help to expand the traditional focus on academic achievement and acquisition of traditional curriculum content to encompass social connectedness and emotional warmth across the school community. These ideas have begun to soften the traditionally rigid boundaries between teachers and students and have lessened the sole focus on student achievements in the cognitive aspect of learning.

A caring and child-centred vision for education emerged from the gradual spread of interest in social justice and equity (Wright, 2014). Between the late 1960s and the 1980s, interest in preparing young people for a rapidly changing world suggested integration of psychological and emotional health and development into a broader educational base for curriculum development. Within a whole-person approach, self-confidence was considered essential to the student's capacity to learn, and physical, emotional, and intellectual development were considered indivisible parts of curriculum development and delivery.

The emergent construct of student wellbeing places the student at the centre of school experience in a comfortable, happy, and healthy state of being. It is a person-centred construct. It refers to a sustainable state characterised by a high level of satisfaction with self, learning experiences, relationships, and the school experience in general. Wellbeing is an umbrella term for many positive terms associated with different theoretical perspectives. The complexity of the notion of wellbeing and its multiple physical, mental, and social-emotional dimensions is evident in eight domains identified by Danker, Strnadová, and Cumming (2016, p. 67).

1. Positive emotions deal with feelings such as joy, contentment, interest, and affection; from either social interactions or interest in school activities and curriculum.

2. Negative emotions concern worries about school, complaints, and anxieties.
3. Engagement is a multidimensional concept consisting of psychological, academic, behavioural, cognitive, and affective components; sense of school belonging, time spent on school-related activities; school attendance and adherence to school rules; and enthusiasm and effort devoted to learning.
4. Relationships concern positive interpersonal relationships with peers, teachers, and parents.
5. Accomplishment addresses the student's sense of capability in doing everyday tasks and experiencing a sense of competence and achievement when pursuing meaningful goals.
6. Mental health addresses depressed mood and suicidal thoughts; the regularity with which students experience negative emotions such as gloominess, anger, loneliness, and misery.
7. Intrapersonal domain is about sense of self; emotional regulation, self-esteem, and resilience.
8. Access to resources covers technological tools, highly qualified teachers, positive learning environment, and services and programmes that are affordable and appropriate.

Student ideas about wellbeing at primary and secondary levels of schooling emphasise being safe, being happy, being loved, and being healthy: At primary school, they also want to be listened to, and, at secondary level, they want a voice in decisions affecting them (Anderson & Graham, 2016). Previously, Compas, Hinden, and Gerhardt (1995) found that most students feel happy in childhood through into adolescence. A small number of adolescents progressed along a declining path (i.e. happy in childhood, miserable in transition, and worse in adolescence and young adulthood). Some students with SEN are more likely to appear unhappy because they experience anxiety and fearfulness about actual and perceived threats in the school and classroom environment, intolerance of uncertainty, and difficulties in regulating their emotions (Boulter, Freeston, South, & Rodgers, 2014).

Mental health is frequently paired with wellbeing. Increasing availability of data in the USA, the UK, and Australia reveals the prevalence of developmental disorders in school communities and the ongoing and worsening outcomes of difficulties without appropriate treatment. Less than half can access services from school or elsewhere. For every student in clinical distress, there are more students who are stressed and not coping well with the ordinary stresses of life. Mental ill-health can interfere with participation in daily activities, and exposure to bullying and related reluctance to attend school can worsen outcomes for students anywhere on the continuum to one or more developmental disorder or other psychosocial disabilities of executive attention, anxiety, and conduct. It is even more likely that students with SEN will develop a mental health difficulty.

Learning and Behaviour

Learning as an important construct for teacher practice has become popular again after a long period out of the limelight. Advances in psychological and social learning theories throughout the twentieth century established a conceptual framework for adjusting the environment around a student and for explicitly teaching better behaviours that reduce interference with learning. However, the 1970s emphasis on child-focused discovery learning in Piagetian and post-Piagetian constructivism focused on the role of the student in making meaning from their personal explorations. For several decades, this view of students as their own teacher overshadowed the behaviour in context emphasis of learning theories. Teachers also adopted a strong prejudice against using reward-based strategies because they believed that reward could manipulate students to act against their own interest in learning (Strain & Joseph, 2004).

Modern definitions of learning reject public and professional fallacies about learning (Hattie, 2015a) and call for more science about learning (Hattie, 2015b). Hattie and Yates (2014) disputed the privileging of student action, discovery, and experience over student practice for learning, development of relationships, and teaching expertise. Adult-designed practices that value opportunities for successful learning are highly relevant for students with SEN. Elmore (2016, p. 531), an important school reformer, also argued that most educators are "blissfully unaware" of the growing science of learning. He now views learning as a profoundly developmental practice that is complex, slow, and multilayered. He supports a reform-minded learning system that is always changing and improving its teacher practices and school procedures and distinguishes this view from a more traditional education system that reworks ideas and evidence to the realities of existing institutions.

A major international review of studies of school achievement revealed that popular practices often make little contribution to student progress throughout a school year (Hattie, 2015b). Because the range of learning within a grade can cover several year levels, Hattie stressed that every student deserves to make a year's worth of progress in a school year. Teachers not only underestimate students' difficulties in completing tasks but also underestimate students' emotional pain and distress about their learning struggles (Hattie & Yates, 2014). Teachers frequently expect students to understand what is involved in a task and do not provide sufficient detail about information important to the task activities, its sequence of information, and specific task language. Learners need the classroom to provide a safe environment to learn from errors without being punished. Teachers need to create many opportunities to learn, and classroom learning is slow and effortful. Learning tasks are difficult, and overlearning of complex tasks requires explicit teaching. All of these considerations about the learning environment offered by a teacher are salient to the learning and wellbeing of diverse learners.

Previous longitudinal evidence has shown bidirectional effects between how students learn and how they behave (Hinshaw, 1992). Bidirectional causation allows some potential for academic difficulties to trigger behaviour problems and for

behavioural problems to trigger academic difficulties. Given that academic and behavioural problems can leak into each other, these crossover effects can magnify the frequency and intensity of a student's difficulties academically and behaviourally. Reciprocally, improvements in behaviour can improve academic engagement, confidence, and learning; similarly, improvement in academic learning can result in more productive student behaviour (McIntosh & Goodman, 2016).

The persistent and progressive problem of student disengagement from schooling through late childhood and adolescence has been investigated through a short-term longitudinal study following students from Year 7 into Year 8 (Wang & Eccles, 2013). Findings revealed complex, multidimensional links between teaching practices and learning outcomes. Evidence showed that student engagement in learning is not only person-centred but also interacts with the teacher-prepared classroom environment as operationalised in its instructional practices. This study provided a sophisticated demonstration that individual students can present with different profiles of engagement. These profiles can affect learning at the same time and in concert with various instructional supports and adjustments provided to every learner in the diverse classroom.

The multidimensional ways in which students feel, act, and think as learners was the basis of differentiation of and interactions among three aspects of student profiles of engagement with learning. Confirmatory factor analysis verified emotional, behavioural, and cognitive factors in a student profile. Wang and Eccles described differences in (a) emotional reactions to and interest in valuing of school activities, (b) behavioural actions towards school and learning (e.g. attending class and completing schoolwork, concentrating and working hard, and participating in extracurricular activities), and (c) cognitive investment in learning (e.g. self-regulated and strategic approach to learning; mental effort to master concepts and exert effort to understand complex ideas). Structural equation modelling showed various pathways by which five aspects of practice in the multidimensional school context, as perceived by individual learners, can affect these three aspects of engagement. These aspects can either increase or decrease each student's developing sense of belonging in the social environment (emotional), autonomy as learners (behavioural), and competency to succeed (cognitive).

Because academic ability in this study was found to moderate engagement profiles, Wang and Eccles (2013) pointed out that motivation and engagement of low-performing learners may require enhancement to counter greater anxiety and helplessness. They reported that facilitators of engagement likely to be more critical to these learners in a classroom involve clear teacher expectations for the learners, consistent and predictable teacher responding to student input, and simpler and more structured instructional strategies. For students with SEN, problems associated with executive functioning lead to difficulties in understanding, which then contribute to inattention to task and poor engagement. By extension from the low-performing students in this study, effective inclusion of students with SEN may require close attention to these classroom adjustments.

In its broad themes, this sophisticated analysis was consistent with the Western focus of wellbeing, learning, and behaviour outlined in this chapter and with devel-

opmental success indicators (relationships, academic achievement, and classroom conduct) previously discussed by Masten and Coatsworth (1998). Moreover, it also confirmed that learner engagement benefits from the same kind of classroom practices previously identified by Hattie (viz. caring and emotionally encouraging teachers and peers; instructional opportunity for active choice and personal meaning; and clear, predictable, and organised classroom management). Furthermore, this analysis also showed how adjusting specific aspects of these instructional practices to learner needs can strengthen a student's perception of positive relationships with others, confident belief in developing autonomy as a learner, and sense of personal competence in learner actions.

Behaviour-enhancing practices that actively encourage learners to behave appropriately have yet to acquire the popularity and prevalence of behaviour-managing practices. Punitive practices that result in student marginalisation and exclusion limit meaningful opportunities to learn and acquire social-emotional competence. Teacher training in a prosocial approach to discipline remains poor, misbehaviour does not improve, and teacher habits do not change in line with research-informed literature. Teachers in both regular and special education continue to frequently report student disengagement from learning tasks and low-level disruption of the learning environment (Scott, 2017; Sullivan, Johnson, Owens, & Conway, 2014). Despite educational investment in promoting wellbeing and learning, there is continuing evidence that unproductive student behaviour interferes with engagement in learning and that mainstream teacher practice needs to become more involved in educating students for behavioural success.

Synthesis

This chapter provides a synthesis of ongoing debates about educational practice over generations of teaching and research. The unresolved and recurring nature of many of these issues indicates that behavioural support can advance the sense of connectedness to schooling, teaching, and learning for all students, including those with SEN. In this introductory chapter, it has been recognised that there is current need for evidence-based teaching to promote student wellbeing, learning, and behaviour.

In Part 2, Chap. 2 outlines the history and science of behavioural support developed in the USA. It is noted that, whereas the USA uses the American spelling of behaviour, the British spelling is used generally in this book. Behavioural support, moreover, is the term used throughout this book to refer to derivatives of positive behaviour support (PBS), a proactive, preventative, and proven approach to bringing about behaviour change. Behavioural support also claims to be universal; it has been introduced into other English language countries and into Europe. Its introduction into the Asia-Pacific Rim provides an opportunity to test its boundaries.

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Part II
USA

Chapter 2
Emergence of Behavioural Support in the USA

Wendi Beamish and Fiona Bryer

Abstract Over three decades, the positive behaviour support approach, together with its practice base, has been methodically developed, applied, and researched within elementary and secondary schools in the USA. The approach was initiated to better address the severe and challenging behaviours presented by students and adults with developmental disabilities, and the framework has been expanded to meet pressing needs to keep schools safe and free from antisocial behaviour and bullying. The 1997 IDEA legislation in the USA mandated this approach for all students whose problem behaviour inhibits productive learning. Historically, the 1960s theory of applied behaviour analysis and the 1980s philosophy of nonaversive behavioural intervention gave rise to a new value-based technology providing behavioural support for individuals. Positive behavioural support (PBS) technology advanced as key dedicated groups of people strengthened the reach and relevance of behavioural support to individuals within and across systems. Tracing the work of LaVigna and Willis through their Institute for Applied Behavior Analysis and that of Horner and Sugai as codirectors of the federally funded Office of Special Education Programs Technical Assistance Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports illustrates the breadth and ongoing development of PBS. The shift into a school-wide approach fostered three tiers of behavioural assessment and intervention planning for behaviour and academics, with Tier 2 supports and Tier 3 intensive interventions providing positive and at times prevailing outcomes for many students with SEN.

Keywords Applied behaviour analysis · ABC · Environment · Positive behaviour support · Multi-tier continuum · USA

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Introduction

Research and practice on behavioural support in the USA spread from a comprehensive and personalised approach to improving the learning and wellbeing of individuals with significant disabilities into a systematic problem-solving approach scaled up to work with school systems, education institutions, and state infrastructures. The movement arose in the 1980s to better address the challenging and extreme behaviours presented by individuals with developmental disabilities. It then advanced to a strong behavioural technology of ABC analysis, functional behavioural assessment (FBA), and functional analysis (FA). This technology of behavioural support, which concerns measurement and planning, is distinct from adaptive technology in special education, which is associated with equipment and sensory motor aids. A rich strategy base for assessment and intervention in schools accompanies and builds upon this behavioural methodology. Academic and social outcomes of assessment and intervention for all students can include improvements in learning engagement, positive social interaction, and supportive school climate.

A technology of practices and procedures for managing behaviour change grew over previous decades (Sugai et al., 2000). Access to this technology facilitated the shift from behaviour modification and behaviour management to behavioural support and its proactive, preventative, and educative approach to changing behaviour. Specialised and restricted discipline knowledge of applied behavioural analysis (ABA) and behavioural theories of learning mediated the shift to behavioural support and its scaled-up application of supportive practices and procedures to schools and systems within and across schools, districts, and states.

Federal legislation in the USA targeted all students whose problem behaviour inhibits productive learning. Education rather than simple behaviour reduction was mandated in the 1997 legislation for Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA; Public Law 105-17). This legislation specified the need for functional behavioural assessment and behavioural intervention plans based on a principled understanding that the complex social context in which problem behaviour occurs means changing the educational system around that behaviour and involving important people from that system to help make changes to the system (Drasgow, Yell, Bradley, & Shriner, 1999).

Yet, this legislation preceded the knowledge and training needed by schools and their staff to deliver this approach to help change the lives of those individual students whose problem behaviour was related to their severe disability. The PBS revolution triggered by the 1997 public law also transformed the lens used by schools and teachers to work on the problem behaviour of all students across the diverse school population. Schools were experiencing pressing social needs to keep schools safe and free from violence, antisocial behaviour, and bullying. A substantial and ongoing injection of federal and state funds for research and development in schools directed the evolving application of this framework over the next decade to recognise and meet these needs.

The two key terms used in the USA for this approach are positive behavioural support (PBS) and positive behavioural interventions and supports (PBIS). PBS is the term commonly used to refer to intensive support for individuals with problem behaviour. "PBS is a practical, science-based approach to understanding and ameliorating problem behaviour in individuals across the lifespan" (Lucyshyn, Dunlap, & Freeman, 2015, p. 3). By contrast, PBIS is the term used first in 1996 by the US Department of Education and has continued as the preferred term in successive IDEA acts. PBIS refers to "a multi-tiered behavioral framework used to improve the integration and implementation of behavioral practices, data-driven decision making systems, professional development opportunities, school leadership…and evidence-based instructional strategies" (US Department of Education, 1996 as cited in Office of Special Education Programs Technical Assistance Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports, hereafter OSEP Technical Assistance Center on PBIS, 2015, p. 5). The whole-of-school involvement of PBIS encouraged school-wide PBS (SWPBS) and school-wide positive behavioural interventions and supports (SWPBIS) as optional and school-friendly terms. It is noted again that the USA uses the American spelling of behaviour, whereas the British spelling is used generally in this book.

History of PBS for Individuals

Table 2.1 shows the shift from the traditional 1960s approach of applied behaviour analysis using aversive procedures, through the 1980s emphasis on nonaversive values and procedures, to the 1990s synthesis of principles and practices. Specific contributions from each era have strengthened the reach and relevance of behavioural support to individuals within and across systems. An important feature of the PBS movement is that specific cadres and networks of people in the USA have guided its development, from the 1980s case-based focus on individual assessment and planning to the 2000s school-wide focus on tiered assessment and related multi-tiered supports and interventions. Behavioural support terminology and related acronyms, however, have been relatively stable over time.

The movement began as a shift away from traditional ways of managing extremely challenging behaviours and use of the least restrictive treatment model (Foxx, 1982) towards a manifesto for positive and educative interventions. In particular, two small groups of dedicated researchers valued humane, effective, and practical solutions for problem behaviour. Evans and Meyer (1985) focused on interventions for students with significant disabilities including multiple disabilities, whereas LaVigna et al. (1989) worked with children and adults with severe behaviour problems in residential, school, and community settings. Horner and colleagues then integrated the previous technologies for individualised behavioural assessment and planning and fused these technologies with nonaversive values and person-centred planning under the umbrella of what they termed "positive behavioral support" (Horner et al., 1990, p. 126).

Table 2.1 Key dedicated groups by contributions

Groups	Contributions
Foxx and colleagues (1982)	*Model* of *Least Restrictive Treatment* (LRT) organises a continuum of behavioural procedures according to level of intrusiveness, aversiveness, and severity; from differential reinforcement (Level 1) to physical restraint, exclusionary timeout, and overcorrection (Level 3)
	Coordinator of assessment and intervention is a competent behaviour analyst (typically ABA[a]-trained psychologist)
	Data collection compares baseline measurement of behaviour with intervention data in order to determine effectiveness of a selected procedure
	Intervention plan selects one single LTR behavioural procedure based on a review of treatment literature, mostly published in JABA[b]
Evans and Meyer (1985)	*Model* uses *a decision flowchart* organised into three levels, from urgent behaviours requiring immediate attention (Level 1; e.g. self-injurious) to behaviours that may warrant intervention (Level 3; e.g. developmentally delayed)
	Coordinator of assessment and intervention is the teacher as school-based decision-maker using local expertise and problem-solving
	Data collection emphasises case-based, contextualised judgements at level-specific decision points
	Intervention plan uses one of two methods: either ecological approach (rearrange environment) combined with curricular approach (teach positive alternative behaviour) or curricular approach combined with negative consequences for presence of behaviour paired with reinforcement for absence of behaviour
LaVigna, Willis, and colleagues (1989)	*Model* is *nonaversive* and requires a comprehensive behavioural assessment and a multi-element intervention plan
	Coordinator of assessment and intervention is a competent behaviour specialist (typically IABA[c]-trained professional)
	Data collection emphasises a comprehensive functional behavioural assessment involving background information (e.g. student competencies, history of behaviour, reinforcement inventory); behaviour measurement to calculate schedules of reinforcement; ABC and ecological analyses to establish the function of behaviour
	Intervention plan comprises multi-element treatments across a 4-column format: rearranging environment, positive programming (teaching adaptive behaviours, functionally equivalent or related skills, and coping skills), direct treatment (reinforcement- or stimulus-based procedures), and situational management to keep everyone safe when the behaviour occurs including an emergency procedure
Horner, Sugai, and colleagues (1990)	*Model* is a synthesis of previous work, and it promotes lifestyle improvements for the individual with minimal use of punishment
	Coordinator of assessment and intervention is a professional with PBS knowledge
	Data collection during the functional behavioural assessment emphasises ABC and functional analyses to establish the *when* and *how* of the behaviour in order to build and then test a hypothesis of *why* the behaviour is used; proposes obtain and escape as the two major functions
	Intervention plan is proactive with multiple components (e.g. the 3-column prevent-teach-respond format)

[a]ABA denotes applied behavioural analysis
[b]JABA denotes Journal of Applied Behaviour Analysis
[c]IABA denotes Institute for Applied Behavior Analysis

In Table 2.1, the historical contributions of each cadre are presented through multiple lenses. Respectively, these lenses comprise theoretical model, principal coordinator of behavioural assessment and intervention, emphasis of data collection, and structure used for planning interventions. It can be observed that ABA has provided the continuing theoretical thread in the emergence of PBS technology.

In contrast to Foxx and the acceptance of aversive strategies within a controlled environment, the other groups adopted an ecological perspective on the behaviour of an individual within a natural and meaningful social context. Hence, they based assessment and intervention on a person-centred philosophy and values such as respect for personal dignity, individual preferences, and quality-of-life outcomes. Person-centred planning shares the decision-making effort of the educational team with the individual and their family (Vandercook, York, & Forest, 1989). This collaborative planning process is sensitive to what is important to the student now, and, as time progresses, increasingly targets development of future-oriented skills related to personal goal setting, self-determination, and self-advocacy (Freeman et al., 2016).

In ABA practice, antecedent-behaviour-consequence (ABC) principles of learning theory are systemically applied to facilitate positive behavioural changes. Behaviour is defined as observable and measurable actions by an individual, learned as a result of interactions with the environment, and influenced by a myriad of environmental factors. Antecedents are the triggers or conditions that happen just before the behaviour occurs; antecedents are whatever initiates that behaviour. Consequences are outcomes that occur immediately following the behaviour; they are whatever helps to maintain the behaviour for that person. Thus, ABC analysis identifies events that occur just before or just after the behaviour; they are whatever is present or absent in the immediate environment that respectively triggers and maintains the behaviour. The ABC analysis of the behaviour in its context during a functional behaviour assessment (FBA) also allows for deduction about the function of that behaviour, which is used to drive the intervention plan.

In PBS practice, ecological analyses provide important information about the individual and ongoing setting events in the environment. These events operate in a longer time frame and do not happen just before or just after the behaviour. Within the individual, student biology (e.g. sleeping pattern, disability-specific behaviours) and learning characteristics (e.g. levels of happiness and frustration) constitute internal setting events. Within the environment external to the individual, setting events may involve physical conditions (e.g. noise, lighting), student-staff dynamics (e.g. peer group composition, staff competence), and social factors (e.g. opportunities for interaction, quality of relationships). Learning-related setting events in the classroom include a student's interface with the curriculum (e.g. reasonable access to preferred activities, reassuring level of structure and predictability) and learning activities (e.g. level of task difficulty manageable for a particular student, level of reinforcement). Teacher awareness of the influence of setting events on classroom behaviour and performance of learning tasks can help students to acquire and maintain successful interactions.

Beyond the ABC analysis, this ecological information enriches background awareness. The theoretical basis for ecological analysis derives from the biopsychosocial model that locates an intricate and variable range of intrapersonal and interpersonal issues within (a) immediate environmental concerns, (b) longer-term causes, and (c) exacerbating biological, psychological, and social factors. Ecological analysis is considered a critical part of the FBA process. The rich information obtainable within this broad view of behaviour helps to better understand why the individual acts in this way (i.e. the communicative function of this problem behaviour). Once the function of that behaviour has been determined, a formal hypothesis is written and tested by controlled manipulation of antecedent and consequent factors in the environment (i.e. functional analysis). Positive replacement behaviours are then designed for use within the hypothesis-based intervention plan.

Branching Pathways of Action

Branching pathways of action to progress PBS theory and practice have been taken by the LaVigna-Willis and Horner-Sugai groups outlined in Table 2.1. Both groups have shared long and rich careers in behavioural support. The pathway taken by the LaVigna-Willis group as international trainers deserves close attention insofar as their influence extends into the Asia-Pacific region. For the purposes of this chapter, the pathway taken by the Horner-Sugai group as system-building and capacity-building researchers is fundamental to educational aspirations to provide support for all school-age students.

The LaVigna-Willis group through their Institute for Applied Behavior Analysis (IABA) became community-based service providers, professional trainers, and expert consultants for individuals with the most severe and challenging behaviour. LaVigna, Willis, and colleagues used their comprehensive model for individuals with severe and challenging behaviour to develop an extensive series of multimedia training packages and assessment guides, which they personally delivered to Western audiences over the last two decades. Gary LaVigna established the basic framework of his nonaversive and educative approach in the 1970s and 1980s while he was principal of an autism-specific school in California (LaVigna, 1980).

> If our goal were simply to eliminate behaviour problems, a ‘flaming arrow through the heart’ would suffice as a complete and effective technology. Our philosophical goal is not to create a non-behaving person but, rather, to develop behaviors that will contribute to the individual’s ability to live an independent, productive, and dignified life. (LaVigna, 1980, pp. 136–137)

LaVigna has maintained his commitment to applied behaviour analysis and the nonaversive approach. He has refined his strategy base for multi-element programming, comprehensive FBA, emergency management, and staff consistency in intervention implementation. He has continued to disseminate this approach in partnership with Willis, mainly by scaling up IABA training programmes for people

interacting with high-need individuals directly (e.g. family, therapists) and indirectly (administrators, educators). Key academic publications about IABA theory and technology include journal articles (e.g. LaVigna, Christian, & Willis, 2005; LaVigna & Willis, 2005, 2012), chapters (LaVigna & Willis, 1992; LaVigna, Willis, & Donnellan, 1989; LaVigna, Willis, Shaull, Abedi, & Sweitzer, 1994a), and books (Donnellan, LaVigna, Negri-Shoultz, & Fassbender, 1988; LaVigna & Donnellan, 1986; LaVigna, Willis, Shaull, Abedi, & Sweitzer, 1994b; Liberman & LaVigna, 2016).

From the late 1980s to the present, a 2-week summer intensive in Assessment and Analysis of Severe and Challenging Behaviour has provided advanced IABA competency-based training in Los Angeles. Participants have included psychologists, behavioural consultants, and other qualified professionals from Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the UK, Norway, and Spain, as well as those from the USA. From the early 1990s, LaVigna and Willis have travelled outside the USA to present a tailored series of four seminars to a broader audience of professionals working in early intervention, schools, and adult and residential services. Training programmes have been supported by the IABA website and biannual international conferences. An IABA newsletter (1995–1998) provided a mechanism for continued IABA contact with people who attended training activities. It contained genuine case studies, procedural protocols, and critical reviews of fundamentals (e.g. antecedent analysis and its role in FBA; anger management and teaching its replacement behaviour, assertiveness training).

As service providers, LaVigna, Willis, and the IABA group have valued consistent and faithful implementation of behavioural support programmes. They have continued to emphasise the need to review the quality of service that staff provide to individuals. They have offered a specialist seminar in *Periodic Service Review* (PSR) and related PSR book (LaVigna et al., 1994b), which is based on the principles of total quality management. The PSR highlights explicit procedures for clear explanation of expectations for staff, a performance monitoring system acceptable to staff, and the design and implementation of a system of staff training. This review provides recommendations about how to improve the provision of services.

In summary, the IABA approach to behavioural support for individuals is essentially a clinical model that requires in-depth knowledge of behavioural technology. Users of this model need to understand and apply advanced ABA technology such as reinforcement-based (e.g. reinforcement schedules, differential reinforcement) and stimulus-based (e.g. stimulus transfer, satiation) procedures. Over the last 25 years, the LaVigna-Willis group have provided substantial case-study evidence that the IABA approach to positive behavioural support works with the most severe and challenging behaviour (LaVigna & Willis, 2012).

The path taken by the Horner-Sugai group moved PBS towards SWPBS at system, school, classroom, and teacher levels. As they scaled up SWPBS, they moved towards progressively more teacher-friendly assessment protocols and intervention strategies. In common with IABA, comprehensive assessment protocols, staff training procedures, and careful review of service quality were core processes that were

geared to assure long-term sustainability. In contrast to IABA, they obtained funding through large and ongoing government grants, they pursued academic roles in research and training, and they focused on support systems in schools catering for the diverse range of students. Horner and Sugai, through their positions with the University of Oregon and their role as co-directors of the influential national OSEP Technical Assistance Center on PBIS, became lead researchers in university consortiums that refined PBS and, in compliance with federal law, established multi-tiered SWPBS in states and districts around the USA.

Horner, Sugai, and colleagues moved quickly to develop research-based networks in universities across the USA, in order to methodically develop, apply, and document PBIS in elementary and secondary schools. As leaders of the federally funded technical assistance centre and website (www.pbis.org), they disseminated SWPBS systematically to states and educational districts within the USA. A series of teacher-friendly books, under the guidance of Horner, promoted the practicality of behavioural assessment and planning in special and regular public schools. Over the decade, continuing efforts were made to simplify the rationales, resources, and forms that support dissemination and adoption of this movement in educational systems.

For example, O'Neill, Horner, and colleagues (1997) introduced a wider school audience to a post-1997 revision of the handbook on the functional behavioural assessment and planning process for individuals together with recommended formats. This handbook did not require advanced knowledge of behavioural science and technology. Instead of the previous comprehensive IABA-style assessments with their intense emphasis on direct observation, it substituted assessment interviews of staff and the student, together with some observation as needed to supplement interview data.

Repp and Horner (1999) extended these guidelines by providing considered ways of conducting hypothesis-based FBAs to support individuals ranging from preschoolers, students with significant and profound disabilities, adolescents, and also to adult sex offenders. For preschoolers, for example, they proposed assessment of preventive environments, increasing levels of fun and engagement, and consideration of the child's preferences. For students with significant disabilities, they outlined the kinds of levels and cycles of alertness that characterised the student's behavioural state. Therefore, they positioned use of interactional programmes, teachable periods, medications, and assistance devices around the student's behavioural states.

Early Consolidation of PBS for Individuals

In 1999, there were four major aspects of consolidation of behavioural support for individuals with disabilities. First, an academic updating of the classic Horner paper by Carr, Horner, Turnbull, and colleagues (1999) provided a report card on five research questions about PBS (applicability, evolution, effectiveness, intervening

variables, consumer-responsivity). They gave specific answers to these five questions (viz. applicability in typical settings, evolving use of assessment prior to planning, useful increases in positive behaviour, improved outcomes through reorganisation of environment, more focus on consumer goals) and presented these answers within the conventional format of a research report (viz. introduction, method, results, discussion, summary, and recommendations).

Second, a free and detailed manual by Ruef, Poston, and Humphrey (1997) was broadly circulated in hard copy format. This manual allowed trainers to present a 90-minute awareness-building workshop on positive behavioural support to teachers, parents, and direct service providers. They challenged the focus on problems within the individual in traditional behaviour management and disputed the judgemental myths common to this approach (e.g. blame the child, suppress bad behaviour). The rationale of the workshop contrasted that negative thinking with the alternative focus on changing the systems, settings, and skill deficiencies contributing to problem behaviours in the "positive" approach of behavioural support. The scripted workshop included overheads, handouts, and other resources and went online in 2004.

Third, a free and online step-by-step guide in assessment, planning, intervention, and evaluation by Hieneman et al. (1999) provided capacity building in schools and districts. Competence in functional behavioural assessment and behavioural support planning was essential for the trainers facilitating the five-step process for activity-based learning by behavioural support teams. The steps comprised identifying goals, gathering information, developing a hypothesis, designing a support plan, and implementing the plan. Each step included the theoretical rationale, ground-rules and hints, an activity, a checklist of the critical elements of that step, and a sample format.

In designing a support plan (Step 4), for example, they recommended the use of the competing behaviour model, provided an example, and conducted a workshop activity; in line with hypothesis testing, they asked participants about how the environment can be adjusted, what replacement skills need to be taught, and what consequences will help to encourage the replacement behaviour rather than the problem behaviour. Finally, in Step 5, they addressed crisis management and generalisation to ensure durable changes in behaviour.

Fourth, the 1999 launch of the *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions* (JPBI) provided subscribers access to the most current research and training information. JPBI provided an outlet for sharing evidence of intervention effectiveness and for discussing common issues of applications in the field. This journal consolidated publications that previously were spread across many high-quality journals in the fields of education and disability.

Together, these four sets of consolidating documents provided a springboard for the movement to advance its agenda. These materials served to synthesise research on the PBS process and thus educate trainers about theory (Carr et al., 1999), provide readymade training materials for trainers to introduce parents and professionals to the PBS strategy base (Hieneman et al., 1999; Ruef et al., 1997), and provide a scholarly vehicle (JPBI) to spread research and training in an ongoing way.

Later Expansion of PBS for Individuals into Schools

Systematic refinement and elaboration of the basic approach in subsequent work has enabled regular teachers and schools to obtain a better understanding of the ideas and therefore participate with more confidence in its implementation. Crone and Horner (2003) recommended a behaviour support team around the individual student within the existing school organisational structures. They simplified the tools and forms with the intention of establishing capacity within a school. Moreover, they presented their version of a simple functional behavioural assessment within the framework of building PBS systems in schools. Furthermore, they provided operational protocols for team structures and procedures for a core team (administrator, behavioural specialist, staff representative) to work in partnership with action teams (regular teachers, parents, others).

Crone, Horner, and Hawken (2004) broadened the reach of this school systems approach for students who do not respond to school-wide rules and expectations and who exhibit "persistent but not dangerous patterns of problem behavior" (p. 1). Their introduction of the Behavior Education Program (BEP) proved to be a popular and highly effective intervention in elementary schools. A second edition of their book (Crone, Hawken, & Horner, 2010) featured new user-friendly tools, an array of handouts for staff, and fidelity measures for implementation not only in elementary schools but also in preschools and high schools.

Carr et al. (2002) outlined the applied science basis for PBS practice in addition to enhancing their research synthesis of the PBS process (Carr et al., 1999). They echoed the basis of PBS in the combination of ABA, principle of normalisation, and person-centred values previously advanced in the Horner et al. seminal paper. They also revisited the collective differentiation of nine critical features present in previous literature that, together, form the cohesive uniqueness claimed by PBS. They extended the vision of PBS assessment and planning to new populations.

Moreover, Carr et al. (2002) envisaged a different format for the future of training: Instead of university-based training of experts, they followed the principle of ecological validity and recommended on-site training of local school-based teams in meaningfully solving real-life problems and in continuing the duration of training to a reasonable level of competence. Hence, state-wide training teams were established to instruct and coach teachers and other school staff in PBS principles and techniques and their integration into the broader school infrastructure (George & Kincaid, 2003). This PBS framework and related technology for restructuring school practice enabled more positive and participatory school climates, more inclusive practice for teachers, and more authentic outcomes for students (Anderson, 2003).

Anderson, Brown, and Scheuermann (2007) developed a synthesis of the competencies required by PBS practitioners working with individuals with chronic problem behaviour. At the first international conference in 2003, the membership of the Association for Positive Behaviour Support, based on JPBI subscribers, consulted

with PBS experts and Jacki Anderson's group to formulate the PBS standards. These standards were nested within six areas of professional practice: Foundations of PBS (inclusion, function of behaviour, person-centred approach), collaboration and team building, basic principles, data-based decision-making, comprehensive person-centred and functional behaviour assessments, and development and implementation of comprehensive, multi-element behaviour support plans. Their original listing has remained virtually unchanged and forms the structure of a current guide for individual positive behaviour supports (Brown, Anderson, & De Pry, 2015).

A survey of a large group of behavioural experts (Michaels, Brown, & Mirabella, 2005) identified the most serious barriers to effective practice in the PBS field as training (in PBS, functional behaviour assessment, and ABA) and ideology (related to philosophy, attitudes, and understanding). Other important barriers included treatment fidelity (long-term change, consistency of implementation, and generalisation to more settings) and systemic changes (i.e. changes required at organisational levels). Capacity building and faithful implementation for work with individuals and individuals in school contexts are two critical sets of facilitators to sustainable PBS reform, a topic that will be explored in Chap. 3. Other minor challenges to everyday reforming activities were, nonetheless, pragmatically important to teachers. They included scarce resources (i.e. time and money), issues about collaboration (i.e. with families and among team members), and difficulties related to assessment of outcomes (i.e. measuring and evaluating effectiveness). The standards of practitioner competence developed by Anderson and colleagues have provided specific direction about how to address these challenges in a systematic way.

School Tiered Approach

At the turn of the century, the PBS approach expanded into a multi-tiered system of integrated school-wide supports (SWPBS, SWPBIS). The notion of a tiered continuum of supports aligned with increasing intensity of need was first introduced by Walker, together with Horner, Sugai, and other colleagues (1996). The inspiration for this continuum was drawn directly from tiered levels of community health delivery (viz. health services that target primary, secondary, tertiary levels of prevention, respectively). In 2000, a model for school-wide behavioural intervention was articulated by a large team lead by Sugai and Horner, within the OSEP Technical Assistance Center on PBIS. The model has been restated and further elaborated across time.

A principled elaboration to the model was provided by Sugai and Horner (2002, 2006) who spelled out the defining elements of SWPBS. The overarching element was and remains outcomes for all learners. This focus on learner outcomes is fuelled by three other overlapping elements that work together to deliver valued and positive outcomes not only for students but also for staff engaged in the process. These contributing elements comprise (a) data gathered and used by school teams to solve

problems relating to, for example, attendance, bullying, additional supports for students with SEN, and academic performance; (b) teacher practices that provide successful supports and interventions; and (c) school system as the organisational structure across whole-of-school, in-class, out-of-class, and individual settings for problem behaviour.

Concurrently, the Response to Intervention (RTI) movement was triggered by two public laws, the *No Child Left Behind Act of* 2001 and the *Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act of* 2004. This academic RTI continuum of tiers for assessment and instruction provided a renewed focus on academic instruction, particularly literacy and numeracy. It progressed from core differentiated instruction and progress monitoring for all students to supplementary instruction for small groups outside the regular classroom at more frequent intervals and more intensive, explicit, and individualised assessment and instruction. These tiers, therefore, also comprised a parallel and complementary format to that of SWPBS.

Multi-tiered systems of support (MTSS; see, for example, Hawken, Vincent, & Schumann, 2008; McIntosh & Goodman, 2016; Sugai & Horner, 2009) blended these two parallel approaches. This blending has called for schools to take an holistic approach to academic learning as well as social, emotional, and behavioural development throughout the years of schooling. This blending serves to protect a school against competing initiatives that can drain collective energies away from implementing the protocols for organisational change. The academic-behavioural blending also encourages alignment of policies, programmes, and practices in the school improvement plan at classroom, school, and district levels. The MTSS reform provides a comprehensive framework for meeting the needs of all students, including students at risk and students with high support needs. Thus, the framework of the MTSS reform can revitalise school and teacher interest in inclusive education, collaboration between regular and special education teachers, and a preventive perspective towards academic and behavioural domains of learning (see Chap. 1).

Strong similarities exist between these academic-behavioural systems, with their teaching-learning focus and differentiated instruction across a continuum of universal prevention, targeted supports, and intensive interventions. Moreover, adoption of these dual systems across the school and within classrooms has important benefits for both students and staff. For example, the model (a) promotes providing supports rather than waiting for students to fail or develop more serious problem behaviours and (b) strengthens school and staff capacity to better manage learner diversity (Beamish & Saggers, 2017).

Figure 2.1 provides a visual representation of a three-tier dual academic-behavioural systems model recognised throughout the USA (Simonsen et al., 2010; Sugai, La Salle, Freeman, Simonsen, & Chafouleas, 2016). The triangular representation displays the numerical pattern of student needs expressed as a percentage of the student population and includes key language conventions. In Tier 1, universal supports (bottom portion of right-hand side triangle) are directed at the entire student community in a school and are focused on obstructing unproductive behaviours before they occur (primary prevention). In Tier 2, supports and interventions

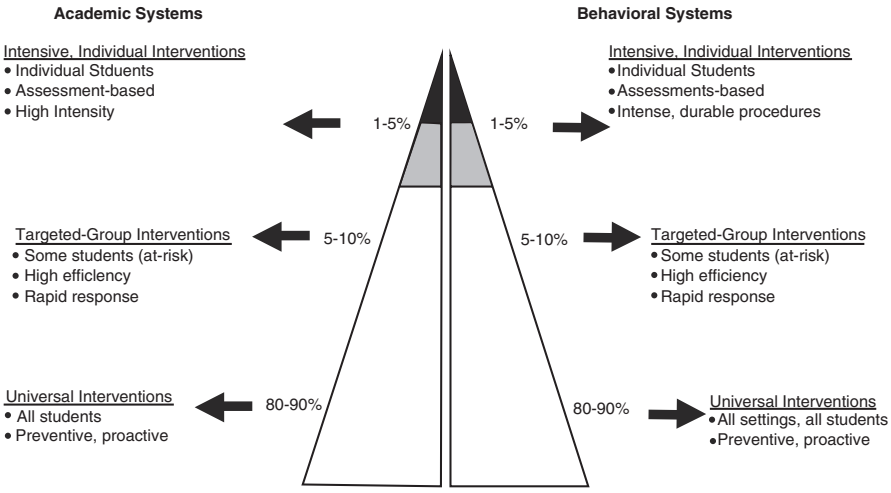

Fig. 2.1 School-wide system for effective service delivery. (Copyright by www.pbis.org. Reprinted by permission)

target small groups of students at risk of increasing unproductive and problem behaviours (secondary prevention). In Tier 3, interventions (top portion of the triangle) are intense and personalised for individuals with chronic problem behaviours (tertiary prevention). When schools adopt the tiered framework, they have a structure to manage behaviour and academics from tier to tier. Classroom teachers can combine Tier 1 practices efficiently with practices from the higher tiers: Because they can access practices from all tiers as needed to support their students towards appropriate behaviour, there is less tendency to suspend learning activities to deal with disruption.

Tier 1 Behavioural Supports

The intent behind Tier 1 is to provide a platform for the successful inclusion of students with SEN while communicating expected behaviour and providing behavioural supports that help all students to "stay good". At this foundational level, core supports are clustered around the united and explicit teaching of a set of positive expectations and behaviours across the school environment (classroom and non-classroom) by all school staff (teaching and non-teaching). An integrated school-wide system is needed to deliver this approach. The main features comprise (a) discipline policies and practices, (b) social-emotional learning programmes, and (c) data gathering and monitoring processes (National Education Association Policy Brief, 2014).

"How to" recommendations for Tier 1 planning, implementation, and evaluation in current print and web-based material draw substantially on the essential guidelines articulated by Sugai and Horner (2002, 2006). Three pivotal elements are (a) the establishment of a coordination team with representatives from administration, teaching staff, individual/s with behavioural expertise, students, and families; (b) the provision of ongoing staff development; and (c) the linkage of school-wide to class-wide practice.

Key activities for the school community start with the generation of a small number of doable and student-friendly school-wide behavioural expectations such as Be Safe, Be Responsible, and Be Respectful (Lynass, Tsai, Richman, & Cheney, 2012). Then, the school designs a matrix of behaviours specific to settings, and these expectations are taught formally across all school settings so that all students know exactly what is expected of them. Students who meet these expectations must be rewarded and acknowledged within a school-wide positive reinforcement system. Conversely, students who frequently breach these agreed and taught specific expectations need to be discouraged by a range of fair and immediate consequences (e.g. brief corrections, reteaching of expectations).

Classroom teachers then use these school-wide expectations strategically as a guide to proactively organise their classrooms (Simonsen & Myers, 2015). The teacher also can select other evidence-based practices useful in that classroom for horizontal integration with the school-wide behavioural expectations and their specific in-class versions. Moreover, ABC analysis of practices provides a basis for teacher-directed actions and interactions (Simonsen, Fairbanks, Briesch, Myers, & Sugai, 2008). Within the ABC conceptualisation of student behaviour in classroom contexts, rules and related management practices can be operationalised by breaking them down into their component ABC steps or elements (Slider, Noell, & Williams, 2006). Tools such as routines analysis, which is based on the ABC format for collecting data, can be used to observe and assess problem behaviours that infringe on everyday class routines and disrupt the flow of instruction-and-learning activities (Scott, Anderson, & Alter, 2012). Because teachers can specify student actions demonstrating safe or responsible or respectful behaviour in particular classroom activities, they can increase the likelihood of appropriate behaviour by adjusting aspects of the classroom learning environment to better engage students in productive activity.

Beneficial "big picture" outcomes apply for the school community, staff, and students. From the perspective of the school, the consistent implementation of Tier 1 supports for encouraging expected behaviour and discouraging rule infringements fosters a responsive school climate where everyone belongs and boosts school safety, particularly in the major topics of violence and bullying prevention. From the perspective of classroom teachers, the consistent implementation of Tier 1 supports builds teacher-student rapport through trust and mutual respect, enables the setting of class rules aligned with the school-wide expectations, and promotes a caring and reinforcement-rich learning environment that increases student engagement and motivation. From the student perspective, the consistent implementation of Tier 1

supports not only encourages active engagement in learning to solve social-behavioural problems and make sound decisions but also enables the majority (approximately 80–90%) to have their social-emotional and behavioural needs met at school. Taken together, Tier 1 outcomes involve successful classroom interactions for most students, their teachers, and the school as a whole.

Tier 2 Behavioural Interventions and Supports

A small group of the student population (5–10%) typically do not respond sufficiently to Tier 1 supports. They continue to display a range of low-level externalising behaviours that teachers view as disengaged, disruptive, or defiant behaviours (Stormont, Reinke, Herman, & Lembke, 2012). Internalising symptoms of anxiety and depression are associated with the less visible but no less important communication of social-emotional and behavioural distress. As a consequence, these "at risk" students, including some with SEN, can be provided with more frequent, intense, and targeted group-delivered supports and interventions (see intermediate level in Fig. 2.1 triangle).

In addition, adaptations of ABC strategies from Tier 1 supports can deliver extra supports for individual students in the classroom with specific ABC profiles of behavioural risk. For example, using visual supports for students with ASD helps them to better understand instructions, attend to and complete tasks, and reduce performance anxiety. Similarly, teaching "better behaviour" to students with conduct problems helps to build their knowledge and skills to choose more productive behaviours. Also, increasing the density of positive reinforcement for students with ADHD provides extra encouragement to stay focused and engaged with learning.

"How to" recommendations for Tier 2 planning, implementation, and evaluation are evolving. To date, Stormont et al. (2012), BCSD Administrative Leadership Institute (2014-2015), and Knoster and Drogan (2016) have offered schools and teachers the most comprehensive and practical guidelines for assessment and intervention. These authors all encourage the use of simple screening tools to establish the need for Tier 2 intervention and the use of a "basic" FBA to identify the ABCs and to establish the function of the behaviour in order to match the intervention to a particular student need. They also agree with Hawken, Adolphson, Macleod, and Schumann (2009) and Anderson and Borgmeier (2010) about the guiding principles or features for interventions, although they present these aspects in different clusters and sequences. Core principles revolve around the need to provide explicit instruction, mostly in small groups, and to ensure that there are ample opportunities for students to practice and receive feedback on both the targeted skill and to undertake ongoing social skills training.

In addition, identification of a Tier 2 intervention emphasises involvement of the family and selection of an intervention that requires low effort by teaching staff. Social skills programmes commonly used by staff as Tier 2 supports can involve interpersonal problem-solving, self-regulation and self-monitoring, and behaviour

contracts as needed by students at risk. A well-known example of an evidence-based intervention is the Check-In Check-Out (CICO, also known as the Behavior Education Program; Crone et al., 2004, 2010): CICO features a morning meeting with a mentor to set behavioural goals and an afternoon meeting to review feedback about those goals (Bruhn, Lane, & Hirsch, 2014).

Outcomes from Tier 2 supports and interventions are more specific and apply mostly to individual students, classroom teachers, and classroom peers. For individual students, reductions in their low-level externalising and internalising behaviours mean that they can better engage in class routines and learning activities. For class teachers, reduced disruption in the room means that students can better focus on teacher instruction and student learning as can other members of the class. Taken together, Tier 2 outcomes contribute to a caring and productive classroom environment and interactions.

Tier 3 Behavioural Interventions

A few students (1–5%) in schools, including a considerable number with SEN, fail to respond or respond poorly to Tier 1 and Tier 2 supports. Intensive and specialised interventions, therefore, are planned and delivered on an individualised basis to these students in order to gradually reduce their high-risk or chronic problem behaviour over a period of time. Behaviours include physical aggression towards others, severe self-injury to self, and symptoms related to high anxiety and depression. Students on the autism spectrum, together with those experiencing intellectual disability, deaf-blindness, and social-emotional disorders, are more likely to require Tier 3 interventions (see top right level in triangle).

"How to" recommendations for Tier 3 planning, implementation, and evaluation are highly developed and have been introduced in this chapter's section on *History of PBS for individuals*. Planning begins with the conduct of a comprehensive FBA, with early guides being provided by Willis, LaVigna, and Donnellan (1993), O'Neill, Horner, and colleagues (1997), and Repp and Horner (1999). More teacher-friendly books quickly followed (e.g. Chandler & Dahlquist, 2002; Watson & Steege, 2003). Later volumes then focused on both FBAs and behaviour intervention plans (e.g. Riffel, 2011; Umbreit, Ferro, Liaupsin, & Lane, 2007).

Behaviour intervention plans (BIPs) have typically featured a 3-column format for organising strategies into an integrated plan. The 4-column format of multi-element treatments for high-need individuals was designed by LaVigna et al. (1989). Over time, an adaptation of this format became a popular template known as the prevent-teach-respond (PTR) format (Ayres & Hedeen, 2003; Janney & Snell, 2000, 2008). Components of PTR are antecedent alteration of classroom environmental factors and triggers (P), teaching and reinforcing replacement behaviours along with any other skills functionally relevant to the problem behaviour (T), and quick responding (R) to address the situation calmly when escalating behaviour occurs by, for example, redirecting the student to the learning activity and defusing emotional

disruption. Research confirming the social validity of PTR for school-age students (Dunlap, Iovannone, Wilson, Kincaid, & Strain, 2009) and for young children (Dunlap, Strain, Lee, Joseph, & Leech, 2018) has established the value of PTR as a standardised programming model of positive behaviour support.

Tier 3 outcomes, first and foremost, provide powerful and, at times, life-changing successes for individual students and their families. As behaviour is often regarded as the core barrier to access and participation within school environments, successful interventions at this level facilitate learning alongside classroom peers and provide opportunities to experience the same outdoor and extracurricular activities as other students in the school. For older students, successful intervention is a gateway to community inclusion (e.g. eat out with their family, join Scouts and Girl Guides, go to the movies, take part in work experience).

The current status of Tier 3 has been summarised by Hieneman, Moore, and Christians (2017). They identified five key features: (a) team involvement of key stakeholders from home, school, and community; (b) assessment of patterns contributing to the problem behaviour and its functions; (c) comprehensive behaviour plans combining proactive and preventive strategies, teaching replacement behaviours and desired supplementary skills, and management of contingencies when a problem behaviour occurs; (d) lifestyle changes enhancing individual's quality of life throughout changes in systems that support them; and (e) data-based decision-making using objective and reliable information rather than impressions or assumptions to determine whether the intervention is producing the desired impact.

A number of key websites provide Tier 3 planning tools and examples of plans that address these five key features. Four examples show the range of contributors:

OSEP Technical Assistance Center on PBIS https://www.pbis.org/school/tier-3-supports

University of Delaware Positive Behavior Support Project https://www.cesa7.org/sped/discoveridea/topdocs/cecp/problembehavior2/text2.htm

University of South Florida, PBIS project http://flpbis.cbcs.usf.edu/

Technical Assistance Center on Social Emotional Intervention (TACSEI) http://challengingbehavior.fmhi.usf.edu/explore/pbs/process.htm

Synthesis

In this chapter, it is evident that key players in the USA appear and reappear and that partnerships and teams form and reform over the decades. Their sustained effort over 25 years has led to the development, dissemination, and implementation of the theory and technology related to PBS. Their data-driven and outcomes-based processes have ensured that school teams can apply the approach with fidelity across the USA. From 1997 onwards, these efforts have been strongly and consistently supported by federal laws and federal funding of a national hub (OSEP Technical Assistance Center on PBIS, located at www.pbis.org).

The movement has incorporated practices and tools from PBS into a school-wide framework. Yet, Tier 3 is still the core of PBS with its specialised knowledge, skill, and experience in FBA and BIP. Therefore, the translation of the sophisticated knowledge and skills involved in intensive assessment and multi-element interventions into inclusive classrooms remains challenging. In the next chapter, the scaling up of PBS and its multi-tiered framework in the USA is reported.

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Chapter 3
Scaling Up Behavioural Support in the USA

Fiona Bryer and Wendi Beamish

Abstract The systematic introduction of a multi-tiered continuum of services and supports has offered a cost-effective solution to the range of behaviour problems in American schools. From 2000 onwards, the strengths of school-wide positive behaviour support (SWPBS) have come from the careful documentation of procedural guides for implementation within schools and a corresponding emphasis on the building of capacity within the school community to deliver that implementation. Research has continued to demonstrate the viability of this problem-solving approach to local educational contexts across the USA. The effectiveness of SWPBS has been demonstrated by the increasing number of schools undertaking this approach to continuous school improvement and the decreasing number of student disciplinary problems in those schools. Moreover, there is evidence that schools demonstrating higher fidelity of SWPBS implementation have fewer behaviour problems and more sustainability. A new range of measures have arisen from the research facilitation of online data collection to track behaviour change and plan further improvement of practice. School teams now have access to a comprehensive online inventory that measures their school's fidelity of implementation across all tiers. Schools and teachers can check their cultural responsiveness to the instructional and behavioural needs of their diverse students. Schools can assess their sustained implementation of SWPBS. Capacity building for teachers in classroom implementation of multi-tiered supports continues to advance.

Keywords Positive behaviour support · Multi-tiered supports · School-wide · SWPBS · Implementation · Teams · Capacity building · USA

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Implementation and Capacity Building in Schools

The strengths of SWPBS come from the careful documentation of procedural guides for implementation within schools and a corresponding emphasis on the building of capacity within the school community to deliver that implementation. Much reform of educational policy relies on the school and its community to use its own financial and human resources to progress that reform before moving on to the next agenda item of the system. SWPBS needs policy support from external and in-house administrators, but scaling up PBS from a specialist professional working with an individual student to a school community working with all students required a more systematic and step-by-step process. The challenges for SWPBS come from the clear recognition of the need to embed this multifaceted framework into the complexity of the existing system and the people within that system and the explicit efforts to address those challenges within school implementation and capacity-building processes.

The SWPBS framework offers a school an alternative approach to problem behaviour that does not depend on the controlling practices of seclusion, suspension, and exclusion. It offers a number of system efficiencies while actively recognising that each school has its own unique culture and heterogeneous community of members. These efficiencies come from procedural documentation based on ongoing research in schools and ongoing use of school data to problem-solve and strengthen the school improvement experience. The implementation blueprint (OSEP Technical Assistance Center on PBIS, 2010) provides detailed information for schools across three areas (content knowledge about SWPBS, systems and their organisational features, and action planning and self-assessment tools).

At the same time, capacity building within the school community must accompany any actions related to school implementation. Quality training and technical assistance with professional development are essential to the success of infrastructural change to the procedures, training resources, and measurement tools provided to improve the school climate, social-emotional development, and safety of all students within a school. Adoption of the SWPBS framework within a school makes reciprocal demands for training about PBS theory and collection of school data about behaviour for systems analysis and action planning. Hence, the SWPBS framework can only be operationalised when the school community makes progressive decisions about where to build capacity, particularly among teaching staff and various school teams. It is only when implementation and capacity building occur alongside each other that staff, students, and other members of the community change their interactions with each other so that they can develop more positive relationships around behavioural support.

Procedural guides for implementation of SWPBS by school teams, evaluation of improvements in school capacity to implement, and related professional development activities have been developed by the OSEP Technical Assistance Center on PBIS and published on the www.pbis.org website. Between 2002 and 2010, school leadership teams adopting SWPBS as part of their school improvement plans were able to refer to initial blueprints for implementing (OSEP Technical Assistance

Center on PBIS, 2010) and evaluating SWPBS (Algozzine et al., 2010). Blueprints were assembled from early learnings from demonstration schools and ongoing research in schools and districts successfully implementing SWPBS.

Content knowledge in the 2010 implementation blueprint for school use emphasises the SWPBS framework and its defining elements, while 11 considerations for implementation of evidence-based practices and systems outline key principles. For example, the guide calls for a working give-and-take relationship at the school level between policy (planning infrastructural changes) and practice (implementing SWPBS with fidelity to the recommended procedures). The guide also recommends protocols for problem-solving and team-based action planning in five distinct phases of the implementation process.

Table 3.1 provides an overview of the procedures and protocols involved in progressing through each of these five phases from the perspectives of both implementation and capacity building. Schools are advised that successful implementation of all SWPBS phases routinely takes 3–5 years. This extended period is a public recognition of the complexity of changing whole-school culture and practice. It is also an acknowledgement of the systemic nature of the change processes within and across phases and, hence, of the critical need to ensure success and avoid failure in technically specified, school-agreed, and contextually relevant activities of SWPBS school reform. Above all, the five phases of implementation and capacity building outlined in Table 3.1 must achieve genuine data-based outcomes for students through implementation and capacity-building activities.

The complementary evaluation blueprint (Algozzine et al., 2010) confirms the intention for implementation and capacity building to progress simultaneously in a school. The blueprint provides a range of measures for monitoring the progress of implementation for fidelity of practice, durability of outcomes, and sustainability of improvements. The blueprint also provides a parallel range of measures for building school capacity through support team operations and staff training activities. Five areas of effective SWPBS implementation are identified in this evaluation model. The first area is concerned with supports required, provided, and received in the context. The second area examines professional development provided, used, and valued in school training inputs that result in practice changes. The third area monitors changes in behavioural and academic outcomes demonstrating the impact of SWPBS on students. The fourth area used to assess effectiveness of SWPBS implementation examines long-term changes: The focus of this area is demonstration of key aspects of sustainability involving (a) educational practice and policy in the system, (b) district capacity to replicate practice reform, and (c) school capacity to sustain practice changes and improve social and academic outcomes for students.

The fifth area outlines a set of measures of the fidelity of implementation. They include indicators of effectiveness related to (a) programme design and resource allocation, (b) changes in practice arising from professional development, and (c) before-during-after implementation data. Key measures include (a) the Self-Assessment System (SAS) that provides a whole-school perspective on the extent of implementation across all school environments, (b) the School-Wide Evaluation Tool (SET) that assesses behaviour support features in place within the school, (c) the Benchmarks of Quality (BoQ) tool that assesses Tier 1 supports in a school from

Table 3.1 SWPBS phases of implementation and capacity building

Phases	Implementation	Capacity building
1. Exploration and adoption	Specific pre-planning activities and assessment are undertaken in order to establish the readiness of the school for implementing SWPBS	There is school agreement to pursue a change in practice and to undertake a self-assessment of staff capacity to implement SWPBS
	Staff buy-in (80% staff agreement recommended) is examined together with contextual factors such as community needs together with school data systems, resourcing, and expertise	School team understands contextual relevance of PBIS to school concerns; school commits to PBIS and identifies its existing strengths and team resources for each tier
2. Programme installation	Preparatory planning activities for initial SWPBS implementation are undertaken	District-led initial professional development (PD) activities for all staff and for leadership team are established
	Activities involve available funding and start-up costs; available resources (material and staff); development of supporting policy, operational procedures, and data system; and the documentation of a 1–3 year action plan	School action plan for PD is linked to district improvement plan
		Installation of initial systems, data-based decisions, and practices of tier teams is focused on visibly meaningful change in student behaviour in that tier
3. Initial implementation	Targeted implementation is initiated and documented	PD activities focus on core content knowledge and key skills building in targeted areas of implementation are determined and provided by district team
	High levels of support come from school leadership team and external technical assistance (TA) team	Manageable level of implementation by everyone in the school is established by targeting a contextually important priority within the tier
4. Full implementation	Implementation across the tiers is gradually expanded with increasing support from school leadership team and decreasing support from external TA team	PD activities parallel implementation expansion across the tiers and are responsive to patterns in student outcome data
	Fidelity of implementation and student outcome data are reviewed at least monthly	Patterns detected in the school's data guide the operation of systems and choice of range of interventions
5. Innovation and sustainability	Sustainable levels of SWPBS implementation across all tiers are achieved with attention being given to cultural, contextual, and financial factors	PD activities are ongoing and responsive to staff turnover, changes in student behaviour, together with data on student outcomes and implementation fidelity
	SWPBS is fully integrated into school policies and operations	Student outcomes within each tier are sustained by ongoing revision and updating of practices and systems in response to changes in student behaviour, staff turnover, or other contextual challenges to school

commitment to crisis management, (d) the Team Implementation Checklist (TIC) that informs school teams about the progress and extent of SWPBS implementation, and (e) the Individual Student Systems Evaluation Tool (ISSET) that assesses SWPBS features relevant to each tier.

A 2015 updating of the implementation blueprint is split into two separate documents (OSEP Technical Assistance Center on PBIS, 2015a, 2015b). First, the Foundational and Supporting Information (Part 1) adds teaming and coaching as critical links between school teams as the infrastructural supports on the one hand and student benefit as the end-goal on the other hand. These additions further emphasise the importance of capacity building to the effectiveness of SWPBS implementation. Other content knowledge from the earlier document is revisited and, in parts, elaborated. Culture and contextual relevance are noted in both versions as influences that may either facilitate or inhibit implementation but receive no further elaboration: Responsivity to situation-specific problems and solutions seems to be addressed in team decision-making based on local data.

Second, the Self-Assessment and Action Planning (Part 2) is a comprehensive revision of guidelines for an annual review and updating of the SWPBS action plan: A facilitator conducts this review with the school leadership team. The 2010 blueprint listed 38 items being assessed in the school and an action planning template for a state or district leadership team. The 8 areas to be assessed in the 2015 version has been expanded to 54 items across 10 areas involved in the school action plan: leadership teaming (9 items), stakeholder support (4 items), funding (3 items), policy and systems alignment (8 items), workforce capability (5 items), training (7 items), coaching (5 items), evaluation and performance feedback (7 items), behavioural expertise (3 items), and local implementation demonstrations (3 items).

Evidence of School Effectiveness

The primary success of SWPBS implementation in the USA is that it has gone to scale so rapidly from early projects carried out in demonstration schools. For example, the number of Illinois high schools implementing SWPBS grew from 8 in 2006 to 200 in 2013 (Swain-Bradway, Pinkney, & Flannery, 2015). In early 2018, the PBIS website posted a statement that 26,000 schools in 48 states across the country are implementing SWPBS. Scaling-up experiences have helped to clarify several important aspects of implementation. Implementation for each tier cycles through the five phases from exploration to sustainability. The school team must revisit any activity within a phase in which problems are occurring problems. Implementation also advances in a spiral rather than a linear manner from sustainability of one tier back to exploration for the next tier. Adjustments and revisions made to improve implementation are driven by data gathered in concert with implementation phases. Success in Tier 1 implementation is essential for progression to Tiers 2 and 3 (Horner et al., 2014). Yet, at each school, the timeline for each implementation phase and for each tier is flexible.

The actual effectiveness of SWPBS implementation is being monitored as part of the systematic data collection process for improving student behaviour, adjustment, and academic achievement. The ongoing analysis of the effectiveness of multi-tier SWPBS implementation continues to confirm reductions of disciplinary problems (i.e. days of office referrals, in-school suspensions, and out-of-school suspensions). Researchers have begun to report that schools demonstrating higher fidelity have fewer behaviour problems and more sustainability (Childs, Kincaid, George, & Gage, 2016). Moreover, the accumulation of online data from thousands of schools has facilitated the design and testing of more advanced measures.

As indicated previously, capacity building runs in parallel with each school's implementation of phases and tiers of SWPBS. Lewis et al. (2016) provide a blueprint of training and professional development activities. It spells out the distinctive roles of district teams, state teams, and school teams. It gives details about training content, supporting materials and tools, and team outcomes for each implementation phase and for each tier. It specifies that all professional development in a district must be aligned contextually with that district's goals. It stipulates that:

> all professional development activities should produce measurable outcomes that reflect (a) team implementation fidelity and (b) desirable student outcomes. Failure to account for these two fundamental professional development outcomes is likely to result in school teams, for example, taking on too much too soon; decreased interest, commitment, and participation; omitting key professional development features; failure to adapt to changing conditions and progress data; and ultimately, limited implementation integrity and limited student benefit. (Lewis et al., 2016, p. 8)

Since 2010, research and evaluation in schools have recognised capacity-building issues related to the context of implementation. These issues include some teachers being slow adopters (Horner et al., 2014), the greater complexity of implementing SWPBS in secondary schools compared to that in elementary and middle schools (Bohanon, Gilman, Parker, Amell, & Sortino, 2016; Swain-Bradway et al., 2015), and the higher effectiveness of SWPBS in smaller rural schools than larger urban schools with their greater diversity and challenges (Nese et al., 2016). Allowance for contextual issues between schools has ranged across school size, student mobility, number of years implementing SWPBS, socioeconomic status, ethnicity, competing initiatives, brevity of professional development, etc. Moreover, the contextual mix of school demographics and supports for sustained implementation has been found to predict abandonment of SWPBS implementation (Nese et al., 2016).

Fidelity and Cultural Responsiveness of SWPBS

School teams now have access to a comprehensive online inventory that enables self-monitoring of their school's fidelity of implementation across all tiers. School coaches also have an option to address cultural concerns about implementation fidelity as relevant to the composition of the student body in a particular school district (e.g. majority Latino-, African-, or Asian-American). Now that many schools

have adopted SWPBS, access to a psychometrically sound tool will allow schools to self-rate the quality of their efforts to fully implement this framework, to monitor their progress from year to year, and to identify specific steps that improve their implementation. This initiative to transfer data-gathering resources into the direct control of a school encourages active participation in making decisions about the school's implementation priorities and in adapting implementation to local sensitivities.

The development of the SWPBIS Tiered Fidelity Inventory (TFI; Algozzine et al., 2014) enables assessment of systems-level interventions in a school. This tool includes aspects of previous measures in the evaluation blueprint (see Algozzine et al., 2010). The TFI is teacher-friendly, reliable, and valid (Massar, McIntosh, & Mercer, 2017; McIntosh et al., 2017). Its ten subscales have been shown to be independent measures of SWPBS features within and across the three tiers. That is, tier-specific versions of teams and evaluation subscales can be used individually, as part of a tier, or together across all tiers as a whole measure. There are also subscales specific to a tier, which assess Tier 1 implementation, Tier 2 interventions, and Tier 3 resources and support plans. Hence, the TFI provides schools with many options for using TFI as part of their decision-making and future action planning.

Schools can choose to add the PBIS Cultural Responsiveness Companion (CRC; Leverson, Smith, McIntosh, Rose, & Pinkelman, 2016) to their TFI self-assessment. Given that behaviour change in SWPBS requires teaching better behaviours that replace problem behaviour, culturally responsive schools and teachers should be actively aware of the instructional and behavioural needs of their diverse students. Many schools in the USA continue to encounter difficulties obtaining equitable student outcomes; under-resourced and underserved schools may have social and cultural issues with disproportionate representation of ethnic minority groups in disciplinary problems, economic disadvantage in family advocacy for their child, and instructional challenges for teachers providing socially relevant learning experiences (Banks & Obiakor, 2015; De Pry & Cheeseman, 2010).

> Classrooms are not culturally neutral terrains, but rather are constructed around sets of norms, values, and expected behaviours that are culturally bound. Likewise, students bring into the classroom a host of culturally bound expectations about learning and behaviour. Classroom norms and expectations often align with White middle-class values and orientations such as individual praise…, individualism…, and linear thinking and communication patterns…. (Banks & Obiakor, 2015, p. 84)

Awareness of such expectations gaps prompted this recent initiative to design a Cultural Responsiveness Companion. The CRC field guide for trainers and coaches offers a counter to unintentional but inappropriate assumptions about racially charged sensitivities in school communities (e.g. lack of a path to higher education, youth relations with a local police force, child health services). In this first version, 14 features of the SWPBIS Tiered Fidelity Inventory are targeted and mapped onto 5 core cultural concepts (identity, voice, supportive environments, situational appropriateness, and data for equity). In the guide, each CRC item is linked to both a TFI feature and a culturally responsive expression of that concept, and the cultural appropriateness of the item is elaborated. For example, a TFI item on professional

development (viz. formal PBS training and practice) is linked to an identity concept (i.e. training processes focused on historical context and present-day issues specific to an underserved student population). As with the reference to cultural context in the Foundational and Supporting Information (Part 1), there appears to be little evidence of formal documentation of the use of this companion to the implementation guide and its benefits in increasing the effectiveness of a school's implementation and the sensitivity of its capacity building to classroom interactions.

Sustainability of SWPBS

For over a decade, McIntosh and colleagues have been designing and rigorously validating "a measurement tool to assess important school- and district-level constructs related to the sustained implementation of school-wide behaviour practices in schools" (Kittelman, Bromley, Mercer, & McIntosh, 2019, p. 73). The School-Wide Universal Behavior Sustainability Index: School Teams (SUBSIST) is yet another online self-report tool available to both SWPBS school team members and district coaches at different stages of implementation of universal supports: initial implementation (first year), institutionalisation (2–4 years), and sustainability stage (5 or more years).

Kittelman et al. (2019) reported that four factors predict sustained implementation. In this study, school team members and district coaches from 14 states and from 454 to 788 schools provided data (Kittelman et al., 2019), with 25% of these schools having implemented SWPBS for at least 5 years. Within the school, two predictive factors were school priority and school team use of data (e.g. data are reviewed regularly at team meetings). Across the school district, the other two factors were district priority and district capacity building (e.g. school teams and new personnel are provided with professional development in SWPBS at least once every year). Schools in the sustainable phase of SWPBS have showed successful implementation in the first year and higher scores on school priority and school team use of data in their initial implementation than other first-year schools (see, also, Lewis, McIntosh, Simonsen, Mitchell, & Hatton, 2017).

The four enabling constructs featured in SUBSIST measurement, involving school priority and use of data and district priority and training, have been found to be stable and consistent over years of implementation (Kittelman et al., 2019). Moreover, self-report data from school teams have been found to relate to more direct measures used by schools, which confirms the effectiveness of the reporting by SWPBS school teams. It has been observed that self-reported use of data by the school team converges with actual use of data; similarly, it has been observed that district capacity building by SWPBS team members converges with more direct reports of district-level training and coaching. Areas noted for further investigation include identification of predictors of school abandonment from missing data on Year 2 implementation and identification of predictors specific to many longer years

in the sustainable phase (collapsed in the study by Andreou, McIntosh, Ross, & Kahn, 2015, into a single group of schools that implemented for 5 or more years).

Other large data sets of schools examined by McIntosh research teams have obtained comparable longitudinal psychometric analyses of the SUBSIST measure (e.g. McIntosh, Mercer, Nese, & Ghemraoui, 2016; McIntosh, Mercer, Nese, Strickland-Cohen, & Hoselton, 2016; Turri et al., 2016). In the first example, McIntosh, Mercer, Nese, and Ghemraoui (2016) found that sound implementation leads to sustainability and that the more schools in a district that are implementing SWPBS, the better the outcomes, suggesting that a larger community of practice has benefit for implementation. They also suggested a facilitating effect of an early emphasis on fidelity and later emphasis on building staff capacity, respectively, to account for the fragility of those schools that abandoned SWPBS in its first and third year. In a predictive study of sustained implementation of Tier 1 SWPBS in 860 schools, McIntosh et al. (2018) identified adequate implementation fidelity and better team use of data for decision-making in Year 1 as the strongest predictors of sustained implementation in Year 3.

Synergies between sustained implementation and capacity building have been indicated in interviews with 17 experienced SWPBS team members in a rural district with a 15-year history with SWPBS (Andreou et al., 2015). All 17 SWPBS team members had many years implementing SWPBS in either the district office (as administrators and consultants) or elementary schools (as special educators and general educators). This qualitative exploration of specific behaviours or observable happenings identified 13 categories of critical events experienced by staff and students that helped or hindered sustained implementation.

Enablers and barriers in these categories occurred in different proportions. According to participants, events in one category also increased the importance of other categories. For example, access to observable and measurable data fostered professional autonomy and further motivated staff to increase positive reinforcement; effective teams provided the organisational facilitation for the team to meet and report back to the school about achievement of goals. Nine categories of comments were considered to be more helpful. These categories were continuous teaching of expectations, positive reinforcement, SWPBS team effectiveness, staff ownership, adaptation of daily practices to fit the school context, active networking with SWPBS peers in school and beyond, involving new personnel, active use of data for planning, and access to external expertise.

For two categories, interviewees reported experiences in these two categories that could either enable or interfere with effectiveness. That is, maintaining SWPBS priority as a valued practice in the school and involvement of district and school administrators attracted both positive and negative comments, distributed fairly evenly. Barriers to sustainability were identified in two categories. Staff turnover was a barrier if SWPBS was not explained to new staff. Conflict of personal and mistaken beliefs was another barrier if, for example, administrators dealt with behaviour and office discipline referrals (ODRs) were being used to punish students rather than to collect data valuable for future planning.

The stability of the SUBSIST tool over several years means that school teams and external coaches can identify actions to correct low scores on any of the enabling SUBSIST constructs. Moreover, schools with good scores on the four constructs can limit their need to reassess sustainability to contextual changes (e.g. team turnover, changes in district funding, and training supports). Yet again, the research facilitation of online data collection to track behaviour change and plan further improvement of practice that characterises the PBS movement has accompanied the scaling-up of SWPBS by state, district, and school over time. With each new tool, the PBS movement strengthens the research base of behavioural support and opens up avenues for further research and identifies the enablers of more sustainable practice. Analyses of these large data sets are still in progress.

Emerging Issues for SWPBS

There is current concern that some schools, districts, and states in the USA may bureaucratise practice decisions about Tiers 1, 2, and 3 assessment and intervention activities (Knoff, 2017). Opportunities to cross tier boundaries to deliver early intervention "before students fail" may be ignored. Evidence about actual student outcomes of SWPBS implementation may be sidelined. Given continuing staffing gaps in behavioural support expertise needed to meet the rising number and diversity of students struggling with school expectations, Knoff suggests that some education departments may be overstating actual legal requirements associated with gaining access to the higher tiers in the continuum of student need for support. Consequently, student access to the most appropriate tier of assessment and intervention can be delayed, and opportunities to meaningfully support students with SEN can be lost. Knoff also criticises the ongoing neglect of capacity building of general education teachers in order that they can lead the entire process with effective practices when provided with minimal support.

There is an impressive range of studies showing the benefits of Tier 1 supports and some Tier 2 supports (Lewis et al., 2017). However, there is also emerging speculation about multi-tier integration of class-wide practices associated with the three-tier convention and its 80–90% estimate of student responsivity to Tier 1 supports (see Chap. 2, Fig. 2.1). When districts are disadvantaged, schools are underresourced, and teachers are overwhelmed; then the nature and extent of problem behaviour can reduce student responsivity to Tier 1 supports. If the disputed territorial boundary between Tiers 1 and 2 expands downwards, it is likely to smother the effectiveness of behavioural expectations practice in improving the classroom climate and defusing conflict.

Recent reviews raise concerns about the quality of multi-tier data available for class-wide application of behavioural expectations in general education settings (e.g. Arden, Gandhi, Edmonds, & Danielson, 2017; Bruhn, Lane, & Hirsch, 2014). For example, there are questions about students apparently nonresponsive to Tier 1

behavioural expectations and about the value of integration of higher-tier social-emotional supports for specific groups of students with class-wide implementation of universal supports. There are also questions about the access of Tier 3 students with SEN to Tier 1 lessons about expected behaviour and about the access of Tier 1 students to behavioural practices found to be effective supports for Tier 3 students.

Classroom boundaries of behavioural support practices need to be permeable so that universal practices can spread freely up the tiers to support and include students with higher needs. On the other direction, specialised Tier 3 practices can extend into Tier 2 and even Tier 1 supports as needed by an individual student. In the middle tier, practices can facilitate more positive experiences for students at risk of academic and behavioural failures and for their teachers. There is some research and analysis addressing issues of vertical integration of evidence-based practices. For Tier 1, there is evidence that extra coaching can improve teacher motivation and skill to implement everyday behavioural expectations with nonresponsive students (Reinke et al., 2014). For Tier 3, there is case study evidence that adaptive training in SWPBS lessons about expected behaviour using Universal Design for Learning is beneficial to individual students with SEN in general classrooms (Loman, Strickland-Cohen, & Walker, 2018). Moreover, a recent review has confirmed the effectiveness of behavioural interventions such as the Good Behaviour Game, token economies, and interdependent contingencies in increasing both teacher efficacy and appropriate student behaviour in the general classroom (Chaffee, Briesch, Johnson, & Volpe, 2017).

In order to justify the extra costs and demands on classroom resources from implementation of Tier 2 supports, data about student need needs to tap into multi-method and multi-informant evidence from a mix of behaviour screeners, permanent academic products, and teacher nominations as well as ODRs (Bruhn et al., 2014). Students with challenging social and emotional behaviours (EBDs) at elevated risk for school failure and early exit from school, including students with internalising behaviours who are experiencing academic stress, may need broader MTSS interventions that address academic and social vulnerabilities (Lewis et al., 2017). Within classrooms implementing a Tier 1 behavioural plan, therefore, assumed and hoped-for connections between behavioural support strategies from upper to lower tiers, and vice versa, need to be teacher-friendly for daily activities as well as geared to deliver effective outcomes for students.

Teacher Capacity Building and Classroom Implementation

It continues to be the case that the complexities of instructing diverse learners effectively while supervising their behaviour and classroom engagement (Reinke et al., 2014) bring teachers "under intense pressure to deliver extraordinary outcomes in the face of limited budgets, restricted resources, conflicting stakeholder priorities, and constant bureaucratic barriers" (Arden et al., 2017, p. 271). Teachers' wellbeing

is an important outcome of SWPBIS implementation. For example, Ross, Romer, and Horner (2012) reported significantly lower levels of burnout and significantly higher levels of efficacy in elementary teachers in schools implementing SWPBIS with fidelity. Educational research on implementation science in classrooms, however, continues to report that teacher stress influences implementation fidelity (Larson, Cook, Fiat, & Lyon, 2018).

At the same time, classroom teachers may benefit from more training about behavioural support practices and more technical assistance for effective implementation of SWPBS. For example, in one analysis of longitudinal data from 1122 schools in the state of Florida, Childs et al. (2016) found that two specific subscales of the BoQ measure of Tier 1 fidelity of implementation predicted student disciplinary outcomes at a school. First, Childs et al. proposed that more school faithfulness to its data entry plan and availability of more efficient and accurate data about problem behaviours and the school settings in which these problem behaviours are occurring may explain the positive linkage to better behaviour. Second, they commented that the reason why the actions of its individual teachers within their classrooms predicts poorer disciplinary outcomes may be that "the SWPBIS process starts with foundational work, the process is developed and implemented across the school, and then the process extends to the classroom setting *as the last area of impact*" (Childs et al., 2016, p. 96; italics added). Third, about 50% of student behavioural outcomes from SWPBS implementation arise from the classroom. Taken together, these Childs et al. analyses demonstrate that the actions of individual teachers continue to be a critical influence on the success of SWPBS.

Various lines of research have addressed the success of individual classroom teachers in building and maintaining capacity for behavioural support. Recent reviews of teacher practice have not only recognised classroom realities of problems in learning and behaviour but also sought to identify evidence-based practices. There is wide-ranging but scattered coverage of topics about the effectiveness of building teacher capacity in multi-tiered interventions. For example, training of individual teachers has been linked to enhanced skills, confidence, knowledge attributions of problem behaviour to changeable outcomes, and positive emotional response to student behaviour (MacDonald & McGill, 2013). Changing teacher beliefs about problem behaviour of students with SEN has been linked to improved implementation of evidence-based practices (Cook, Lyon, Kubergovic, Browning Wright, & Zhang, 2015), and the faithful implementation of these practices has been linked to improved student outcomes (Arden et al., 2017). Moreover, in addition to ongoing and rigorous SWPBS data collection by teams within the school and district, there is some recent evidence that teachers can improve student outcomes by self-assessing the quality of differentiated instruction in their classrooms. Two examples involve the use of a teacher self-monitoring checklist (Nelson, Oliver, Hebert, & Boharty, 2015) and reflective teacher feedback from an online measure of student opportunity to learn (Kurz, Elliott, & Roach, 2015).

Another aspect of SWPBS effectiveness is the substantial growth of research interest in evidence-based practice in the classroom and its dissemination into classroom behavioural support (Scott, Anderson, & Alter, 2012). Some of this research

has arisen from enrichment of SWPBS practices recommended for the universal Tier 1 teaching repertoire (e.g. Reinke, Herman, & Stormont, 2013; Simonsen & Myers, 2015). Other researchers have clarified effective operational features of familiar everyday practices such as classroom rules (Alter & Haydon, 2017). Related research has explored teacher-friendly surface practices that can prevent disruptive behaviour such as teacher use of positive morning greetings (Cook et al., 2018).

Versions of the PBS triangle have been used to outline ideas about how the three-tiered framework can help teachers to organise their repertoires of classroom behavioural supports. For example, Sayecki and Brown (2011) presented a table of preventative practices to communicate behavioural expectations for the whole class, teacher strategies to respond to challenging behaviours, and intensive FBA supports for high-need individuals in the classroom. Simsonsen (2011) identified five evidence-based practices critical to preventative classroom management (i.e. routines, rules, active student responding, acknowledgement of appropriate behaviour, and redirection of inappropriate behaviour). She workshopped this set of practices at the international PBS conference and posted the workshop online.

Two direct applications to school-wide training tiers of teacher practice have presented single case studies with small numbers of volunteer teachers. Common features of these studies included training in similar combinations of tiered practice lists, behaviour coaches or peer teachers, in-class training methods and observation of teacher behaviour, goal-setting to improve a specific effective practice, data collection on that practice by the teacher, and performance feedback from the coach or teaching peer (Mitchell, Hirn, & Lewis, 2017; Simonsen et al., 2014). Both studies emphasised the value of university instruction in tiered evidence-based practices in behavioural support and technical supports for school-wide professional development. Both studies promoted two ideas likely to motivate change in teacher practice: (a) teacher teaming helps teachers increase their implementation fidelity in the classroom, and (b) the use of various tools for observing classroom behaviour enables ongoing monitoring and feedback about teacher practice and student responsivity to that practice.

For example, Simonsen et al. (2014) outlined three tiers of self-management techniques and self-assessment tools for improving specific praise. This study applied multi-tiered assessment to teacher practice rather than to student need. Training activities for teachers at "Tier 1" were based on universal screening of teacher behaviours (e.g. some version of a classroom walk-through checklist together with inspection of available student data). These teachers then received explicit training and self-monitoring of evidence-based practices, together with regular review to give feedback on performance skill and evaluate skill data. For a targeted group of "Tier 2" classroom teachers who were not implementing skills such as specific praise being used by most other teachers, Simonsen et al. proposed self-management training in ABC analysis. Specifically, these teachers could select a specific skill, set a goal for improvement, design a strategy for skill use (e.g. self-prompting), and collect self-management data. Their improvement in practice was

evaluated with self-management data, external observations of a weekly walk-through checklist, and review of outcome data on student behaviour. It was also recommended that teachers with major challenges in organising classroom management could receive "Tier 3" support with data-driven consultation. Two of the four middle school teachers who volunteered for this case study needed higher-tier assistance via enhanced self-management supports with antecedent coaching and email prompts. Simonsen and colleagues also noted that classrooms, teaching schedules, and the quality of measures of classroom practice are contextual challenges to capacity building.

Synthesis

In Chap. 2, it was evident that key players, partnerships, and teams in the USA fostered the emergence of positive behaviour support and its transition into schools. The movement has incorporated practices and tools from PBS into a school-wide framework. In this chapter, it is now evident that the scaling-up has provided a new set of tools and a related data base that can be used to guide the efforts of school teams to sustain implementation over several years. In particular, it has been shown that careful use of data by the school team and active capacity building across the district are factors that have helped to assure sustainability. There is ongoing expansion of scaling-up for sustainability and for introducing research on practice into the schools. For example, analyses of longitudinal research on school teams are suggesting ways in which schools can sustain their implementation of SWPBS over several years. Also, there are early efforts to transfer SWPBS decision-making and future action planning from external guidance into school ownership and action.

Tier 1 of SWPBS is well-established in research and practice, but its success depends on accurate and ongoing data, teacher commitment and competence, and, where possible, capacity within the school to support the delivery of SWPBS rather than rely on external supports. Tier 2 is an emergent field of evidence-based practice and classroom research. It involves a wide variety of preclinical social-emotional disorder and mild-to-moderate disability in modern classrooms, and there is much uncertainty about how to streamline Tiers 1 and 3 practices for their diverse needs. Finally, Tier 3 and its intensive interventions is still the core of PBS practice for students with SEN. More empirical investigation of inclusive teacher practice in behavioural supports is needed.

Scaling-up within American schools has included recognition of cultural issues and international outreach into Europe, Australasia, and Asia. The viability of SWPBS outside the USA and its social contexts as a universally effective movement is yet to be determined. The importation of PBS and its multi-tiered framework into Australia is reported in Part III of this book.

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Part III
Australia

Chapter 4
Behavioural Support in Australia

Wendi Beamish and Fiona Bryer

Abstract In the present Australian context, behavioural support for students with SEN is filtering through government and nongovernment educational systems as the complexity and number of students with problem behaviours in schools have increased. Historically, models for managing problem behaviour progressed from ABA-based behaviour modification for individual students with significant disabilities to more positive and ethical approaches. In the 1990s, the Americans LaVigna and Willis from IABA introduced professional audiences across the country to comprehensive training in individualised interventions for students with severe and challenging problem behaviours. Their multi-element intervention planning was based on detailed data gathering, functional behaviour assessment, and nonaversive procedures. This initiative gave rise to capacity building within several Australian universities that prepare specialist teachers for intensive behavioural assessment and intervention. Subsequently, visits by American leaders of the school-wide behavioural support movement such as Sugai and Lewis presented the multi-tiered whole-school approach to education department staff in several states and later to special education audiences at national conferences. Over the past decade, many Australian education systems and schools have adopted the school-wide model, adapted it to their local contexts, and rebadged it as Positive Behaviour for Learning (PBL). Some clusters of schools are starting to cooperate to share the administrative tasks and training activities. Development has been hindered by the absence of large-scale federal funding and national and state legislation, as provided in the USA.

Keywords Intensive intervention · Positive behaviour support · PBL · School-wide approach · Australia

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Australian Context

The relatively small and multicultural population of Australia is distributed around its coastline, mostly in the capital cities of its eight states and territories. More than a quarter of its 24 million citizens were born overseas. Permanent European settlement was established in 1788, and the states federated into a commonwealth in 1901. From that time, the states have continued to hold considerable power independent of federal oversight, which creates boundaries and barriers to nation-wide service delivery across education, health, and welfare. The independent authority of these systems of government and their bureaucracies has been shaped by the geographical distances between state capitals in this large island continent and their historical differences related to distinctive sociocultural communities. Hence, the scattered and idiosyncratic characteristics exerted from state to state have a strong and competitive effect on how action to reform special education has filtered throughout this country.

States have control of education, but a federal ministry of education influences policy and processes. The states use tax income to fund their government schools, supplemented by federal allocations. A very large nongovernment sector comprising Catholic education and independent schools also receive funds from the federal level. Each sector features primary, secondary, and special schools. Specialist government-run schools for students with sensory disabilities (visual, hearing, and physical impairments) established in the 1940s were the earliest to transfer their more cognitively capable students to inclusive primary and secondary settings in the 1950s (Ashman & Elkins, 1994). Nongovernment schools specialising in autism and intellectual disability in some states date back to the 1950s. For example, Aspect in New South Wales has continued to operate autism-specific special schools for children with autism and satellite classrooms in regular schools (Roberts, Keane, & Clark, 2008), and Endeavour Foundation in Queensland was the largest nongovernment service provider for children and adults with intellectual disabilities from the 1950s to the 1980s (Reynolds, 1984).

Notably, it has been the entrepreneurial roles of individuals in education sectors and university institutions that have fostered innovation in special education practice, research, and training. The ecological "glue" binding special educational services together in the USA (e.g. Office of Special Education Programs Technical Assistance Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports) is incompatible with our state-based systems. Reforms to nationalise school curriculum, professional standards for teachers, and national insurance for disability support have occurred in the last 5 years. For the most part, the rise and fall of institutional advances in best practice for students with special educational needs (SEN) have relied on the commitment and energy of individuals such as principals, administrators, teacher educators, and researchers. For example, pioneering groups of individuals in Queensland set the national agenda for research and training in special education. At the University of Queensland (Fred and Eleanor Schonell Educational Research Centre), researchers undertook long-term studies in areas such as learning

to read, learning difficulties, and Down syndrome from the 1950s. At Griffith University (formerly Mt. Gravatt College of Education), key academics and master practitioners worked together to build a national profile in special educational practice from the late 1970s.

History

In Australia, dealing with problem behaviour displayed by individuals with SEN has followed a path similar to that of the USA (see Chap. 2). However, the approach to problem behaviour known as positive behaviour support (PBS) was much slower to be adopted, and a tiered approach to problem behaviour for all students in a school has been embraced even more slowly. Moreover, the staggered uptake of these two approaches across states, sectors, and institutions has hindered change in teacher training and practice and, therefore, has reduced benefits to students. Furthermore, Australia has borrowed directly from the American research, opting for an adopt-and-adapt model without Australian research validating PBS applications in the special and regular schools of this country.

From the 1960s to the 1980s, the traditional approach to modification of problem behaviour known as applied behaviour analysis (ABA) has been recommended practice for students, schools, and adults. American visitors such as Bud Fredericks (1979) and Foxx (1982) outlined the basic steps for intervention to Australian audiences; these steps comprised pinpointing the problem behaviour, taking baseline data, selecting a single research-based strategy, and implementing the strategy while measuring behaviour change. This focus on a single strategy that promised to reduce problem behaviour gave rise to some choices of aversive practices that involved restraint and time-out (see Table 2.1). Consequently, many special educators became comfortable using these intrusive practices focused on external control of students and their behaviours of concern.

Ideas imported from the USA and the UK spread more positive and ethical ways of supporting students with SEN and problem behaviour across the country. Guides for teachers such as those by Evans and Meyer (1985) from the USA and Zarkowska and Clements (1988) from the UK introduced notions such as teaching a better behaviour that replaces the problem behaviour (e.g. raise hand instead of calling out). In addition, Zarkowska and Clements (1988) focused on the importance of incorporating ways to enhance self-monitoring and self-management in order to enable students to develop an internal locus of control. At the same time, these guides recommended keeping antecedent-behaviour-consequence (A–B–C) concepts derived from ABA programming, in order to rearrange the environment to prevent triggering the problem behaviour (i.e. A–B antecedent control) and to reinforce the occurrence of the replacement behaviour (i.e. B–C consequence control).

Regular schools were even slower to respond to new ways of supporting students with problem behaviour. Classroom teachers in primary and secondary schools were routinely provided with one-off professional development in behaviour

management. The model of student choice for responsible behaviour promoted by American psychiatrist Glasser (1992) leads to the widespread adoption of a disciplinary practice of sending students to a Responsible Behaviour Room to reflect on their problem behaviour and make better choices. The model of respectful teaching and collegial support developed and disseminated by Australian educator Bill Rogers over two decades became popular with teachers, because Rogers used humorous cartoons and other whiteboard scribbles and modelled good and bad practices for interacting with students in classrooms and other school settings in his workshops and real-life DVD presentations (e.g. Rogers, 1995, 1998, 2009, 2015). Another model of positive teaching developed in the UK by Wheldall, Merrett, and Houghton (1989) and Merrett and Wheldall (1990) targeted teacher responses to everyday "minor" but recurring behaviour in the classroom. Its systematic application of a 5-step ABC approach empowered teachers to pinpoint problem behaviour in their own class, define better behaviours, assess the context supporting the behaviour, develop strategies to change classroom antecedents and student consequences, and evaluate effectiveness.

At the same time, the Institute of Applied Behavioral Analysis (IABA) approach developed by LaVigna and Willis changed Australian thinking about ways of working with people presenting with severe and challenging behaviour. In the 1990s, individual Australians such as the Victorian clinical psychologist Gary Radler attended the IABA 2-week summer intensive (long-form training) in California: He disseminated this approach to his government service, workshopped it at a national conference on special needs, and went on to offer PBS Services to organisations, families, and individuals (gradler.com.au). Yearly visits by LaVigna and Willis across the states on the eastern seaboard from Queensland to Tasmania then established the IABA model of comprehensive assessment and planning. Through the 1990s, thousands of professionals from many services and disciplines applied this training and materials in their workplaces (see Chap. 2). The New Zealand Ministry of Education paid LaVigna and Willis to train psychologists in the approach and then used a structured train-the-trainer model to disseminate to the school level (LaVigna, Christian, & Willis, 2005; Meyer, 2003). However, the Australian departments of education in their six states and two federal territories did not take advantage of this training.

Instead, initiatives to apply the IABA approach came from specific individuals who were working with high-need persons who were clients of different health and education organisations. In Victoria, Radler worked with Hudson (Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology) to deliver team-based interventions to 134 people with intellectual disability in Victorian institutions and reported a 75% success rate in evaluation of 3-year outcomes (Hudson, Jauernig, Wilken, & Radler, 1995; Hudson, Wilken, Jauernig, & Radler, 1995; Radler & Hudson, 1996). In Tasmania, Crates and Spicer (2012) who worked in a state-wide adult disability service (Anglicare) confirmed that they could train their staff in this nongovernment service using the train-the-trainer model used in New Zealand. Like Radler, they moved on establish a private practice for adults with a disability (Positive Behaviour Change Solutions, poschange.net).

University Research and Practice

Academics in psychology and special education at most universities across Australia have used aspects of the behavioural support literature from the USA in their teaching and research. In the main, this use has been piecemeal; application of PBS practice to teaching in schools, districts, and states has been scattered; and research has not prompted a national agenda to address widespread concern about problem behaviour in schools and productive engagement in classroom learning. What follows provides examples that illustrate the scope of Australian work in this field.

Individuals from several universities have drawn attention to various aspects of training in behavioural support to deal with challenging behaviours such as "who and what" to train. Prior to an appointment at Macquarie University, educator Stephenson (1997) reported that a behavioural consultant could use functional behavioural assessment (FBA) as a tool to support teachers in a special school catering for students with moderate-to-high intellectual disability. At the University of Queensland, ABA researcher Sigafoos and colleagues recommended preservice university training in a behavioural support approach including function-based assessment, in order to help teachers understand the challenging behaviour of students with SEN (Sigafoos, Einfeld, & Parmenter, 2001). At Newcastle University, Arthur and colleagues testified that a state-wide workshop helped district teams to design more effective behaviour support plans for the challenging behaviour of students with intellectual disability in government schools (Arthur, Bruveris, Smith, & Stephenson-Roberts, 2002).

Contribution by Griffith to Specialist Training

At Griffith University, Beamish established a long-standing and coherent programme of IABA-based special education training based on the approach developed by LaVigna and Willis. She initiated action research projects in schools to explore implementation of behavioural support at Tier 3 (intensive intervention for individual students) and Tier 1 (school-wide supports for all students). Her early adoption of the IABA approach began with her attendance at a 1991 IABA-based workshop conducted by Radler and then at a 1993 seminar series conducted by LaVigna and Willis. Her teaching programme for special education teachers at preservice and in-service levels provided competency-based coursework in PBS in conjunction with other specialist courses in nonverbal communication and ABA. She employed a Case Method of Instruction approach (Elksnin, 2001; Lengyel & Vernon-Dotson, 2010), which requires an FBA of a student with SEN enrolled in a school (primary, or secondary, or special) and use of that data to design a behaviour support plan and, for many cases, to implement and evaluate the plan.

This approach to teacher education at Griffith University is an example of how the practice of Australian special educators draws directly on PBS literature from the

USA. It shows an active response to the open call for university training in behavioural support (see Sigafoos et al., 2001). The Griffith programme not only delivers theoretical and philosophical content (the what) but also devotes equal time to the rationale for practice (the why) and competency elements within the practice (the how). It also shows that building practice in behavioural support is important for teachers because it allows them to focus on instruction and learning rather than to dissipate valuable instructional time reacting to problem behaviour. Evidence-based practice in behavioural support ensures that Griffith graduates are workplace ready.

Over 25 years from 1993 to the present, it is estimated that over a 1000 special educators have successfully completed this course. During this period, PBS-trained teacher mentors have assisted both preservice and in-service teachers undertaking casework in practicum schools. Changing modes of university delivery of courses have meant that behavioural support content has been delivered in face-to-face, blended, and online modes. The study guides for this PBS course have been revised and updated annually in order to incorporate current material from a rapidly growing literature. In the first decade, the face-to-face mode of delivery allowed close and progressive consultations about assessment and planning before and during special education practicum (e.g. final-year course for preservice teachers). Online delivery has expanded access to teachers across Queensland, to teachers in New South Wales and, to a lesser extent, in other Australian states, and also to postgraduates teaching in international settings. In concert with these changes, study guides have been modularised into chunks for weekend self-directed learning. Recently, interactive quizzes and YouTube examples have augmented the content of these guides. Online communication between Beamish and students doing case study preparation off site has used previous face-to-face experiences to continue to provide instructional feedback and has employed mechanisms such as LinkedIn to maintain contact as they work in the field.

Some in-service training has supplemented this university coursework. For example, a senior educational officer from the state department of education made personal contact with Beamish in 2005 and requested assistance to build capacity in behavioural support in all regions of the state ranging from metropolitan to regional and remote districts. The specific concern was ways to support the increasing number of students with SEN who presented with such challenging behaviour that they could not be taught alongside other students. The education department then sponsored behaviour consultants—either leading teachers or guidance officers—to attend a week-long intensive in behavioural support at Griffith University. Later, in 2009, another educational officer from a metropolitan region requested a variation of PBS coursework for her small group of behaviour specialists. These specialists provided direct support to schools with students who exhibit significant problem behaviour (including those who are suspended from school or at risk of being suspended because of behavioural issues). They not only undertook the self-directed postgraduate PBS course but also participated in three face-to-face learning circle group discussions (Lovett & Gilmore, 2003). Data about new-found tools and practices considered useful for casework in schools and for consistent implementation

across the region were gathered and reported at the International Association of Applied Behaviour Analysts Conference in Sydney (Beamish & Bryer, 2009).

Initial design of the PBS course adopted, as a whole, the IABA clinical model: It used its comprehensive assessment guide, video training package, and textbooks (Donnellan, LaVigna, Negri-Shoultz, & Fassbender, 1988, for FBA and related technology; LaVigna, Willis, & Donnellan, 1989, Chap. 5 for positive programming). Over time, generations of detailed study guides for coursework and linked practicum activities incorporated the Horner and Sugai material on their more sustainable FBA protocols and checklists that reduced valuable assessment time. The IABA materials were later replaced by dedicated textbooks, first that of Umbreit, Ferro, Liaupsin, and Lane (2007) who documented the essential processes of doing an FBA and a Behaviour Intervention Plan (BIP) within the school context and, later, that of Riffel (2011), who provided examples of practice across the school years.

Another variation in course content involved the move from teaching the 4-column IABA plan format to the more teacher-friendly 3-column prevent-teach-respond (PTR) format (Dunlap, Iovannone, Wilson, Kincaid, & Strain, 2009): Whereas the 2-week IABA intensive could provide extended instruction about the theory behind using reinforcement- and stimulus-based procedures (e.g. differential reinforcement of other behaviour, DRO; satiation), emerging university constraints imposed on lecturing time meant that there was limited opportunity for direct and explicit instruction about these procedures needed for the direct treatment column. Table 4.1 (Ben's plan) provides an example from the study guide on how to design and document a BIP using the 3-column PTR format. This example of an FBA-based plan is for an adolescent with high support needs, who hits or pushes peers in order to avoid participating in school activities. The plan shows how (a) data from the FBA are used to make changes to the classroom environment, (b) reinforcement is integrated into teaching the replacement skill and related skills, and (c) strategies are put in place to respond to the problem behaviour when it occurs. The plan also models how sufficient detail is needed in each of the PTR columns so that parents and staff involved in the implementation of the plan understand all aspects of the plan.

Versions of this PBS course have responded to the changing needs of teachers throughout their careers from preparation for beginning to teach to becoming school leaders. Specific versions of this course for Tier 3 intensive behavioural support have been developed for undergraduates with a major in special needs (primary) and learning support (secondary). Versions appropriate to graduate programmes have been designed for postgraduate, school-age (graduate certificate level), and early years (Master of Education, Early Childhood). Since 2015, the flow-through of previous graduates who have completed the Tier 3 PBS course has resulted in addition of a Tier 2 stream to the school-age course for these postgraduates, so that they can continue to advance their specialist skills.

In 2016, a new Masters of Special Needs and Intervention was designed to address contemporary Australian issues related to educating students with SEN. These issues involve more students being placed into inclusive settings and some regular teacher graduates being upskilled for specialist roles. This programme

Table 4.1 Example of a BIP for an adolescent with SEN

	Behavioural intervention plan	
Name: Ben G		
Date: April 2010		
Goal: During health and physical education sessions, Ben will self-monitor his behaviour and have no more than one instance of pushing or hitting per fortnight		
Prevent	**Teach**	**Respond**
Provide an overview of activities to be undertaken at the beginning of each HPE session	*Take-a-break programme*	When any *early signs of objection* (face grimacing, agitated hand movements), remind Ben about the reward he is working towards
	Script with Ben how to raise hand and request a break; create a visual support	
	Role play using scenarios	
Give Ben a specific responsibility at the beginning of each HPE session	Capture sequence on video, have Ben install on his iPad, and encourage watching on arrival at all subject lessons	If *signs increase*, encourage Ben to use his visual support to request a break and then undertake his relax sequence
Commence HPE session with low energy activities	Introduce peer coaching when relationships develop	When Ben either *pushes or hits*, institute a redirection sequence: ignore behaviour-redirect to task-provide positive feedback for re-engagement
	Reinforce Ben with a sticker for requesting a break during any subject lesson	
Provide some choice within each HPE session, especially in relation to ball or high energy activities	*Relax programme*	If *pushing or hitting persists*, Ben is to be taken to the responsible thinking room and episode to be recorded in the incident book
	With Ben, identify preferred self-calming strategies	
Provide clear expectations about transitioning from one activity to another, specifically monitor Ben's transitions, and give him positive feedback for transitioning in a calm manner	Capture sequence on video, have Ben install on iPad to watch and self-rehearse	
	Add sequence to visual support card with Ben for instant rehearsal under staff direction	
	Reinforce Ben with a sticker for undertaking relaxing sequence during any subject lesson	
Keep Ben separated from Henry; he is the preferred target for hitting	*Reward programme*	
	Ben to earn stickers for requesting break and self-calming. Stickers placed on Reward card. When card is full, Ben to spin wheel for one of three chosen rewards	
Increase density of reinforcement for appropriate interactions and class participation throughout the school day	*Friendship programme*	
	Use sociograms to identify a few peers who like or tolerate Ben and pair with Ben for group work across subjects	
	Embed tactics on handout (Goldstein's Friendship Program) to set occasion for friendship building	

is offered to postgraduates who have completed the graduate certificate, including the PBS course, and who either want to further refine their skills or have aspirations of holding leadership positions in schools. One of these courses is focused on the whole-school approach and Tier 2 interventions in the areas of academic and social-behavioural intervention for externalising and internalising behaviours. A textbook published by Stormont, Reinke, Herman, and Lembke (2012) is used for modules on Tier 2 interventions.

Action Research for Practice at Griffith

Two Griffith academics, Beamish and Bryer, have undertaken research to inform teacher practice as part of their regular workload. They led several action research projects in partnerships with staff in Queensland government schools within driving distance from the university. The main aim was to provide local evidence about PBS practice and inform practice in PBS courses. A second aim was to disseminate findings to audiences at state, national, and international conferences and to publish the work in Australian journals. The first set of projects examined issues in Tier 3 interventions within different government educational settings (specialised preschool, special school, and primary school). Another project examined the engagement of school staff in establishing Tier 1 supports at a government secondary school.

Time, teaming, and training were identified as three imperatives for effective implementation of PBS processes and practices across these settings. These projects involved reaching out to schools, their principals, and staff as partners. In building staff capacity, time was provided for staff to plan, teaming of key players facilitated implementation, and PBS training improved knowledge and skills leading to success. Sometimes, project implementation faltered, but the documentation of local practice was always helpful to inform Griffith students about research into practice and to engage teachers and administrators in action research on problem behaviour.

Time, teaming, and training first emerged as core themes in the successful implementation of a plan for a 4-year-old girl with Williams syndrome (Beamish, Bryer, & Wilson, 2000). She was enrolled in a specialised preschool (early intervention centre). A 9-month period of time was needed to illustrate the structured IABA process, from conducting a comprehensive FBA and designing a 4-column plan of behavioural intervention to implementing and reviewing the intensive intervention into tantruming behaviour. Data were collected at the child's home, the preschool, and the regular preschool to which the child was transitioning. Both the child's parent and the preschool teacher participated actively in data gathering and data monitoring activities throughout the intervention. The FBA showed that the tantrums served to attract adult attention. The intervention reduced tantrums at home and in the specialised preschool. However, it was less effective at the regular preschool where staff did not try to support the girl by fitting her PBS intervention into their programme. Instead, they applied their traditional behaviour management strategies by trying to control the child to fit into their programme.

Time, teaming, and training were also core themes in building staff capacity over a 4-year period in a special school in a provincial city (see Bryer & Beamish, 2005). It provided education for adolescents 12 to 19 years with high support needs stemming from intellectual or multiple disabilities, including autism. The basic teacher-to-student ratio in this school was 12 teachers for 60 students. The principal initially used the school funds for professional development to enrol five staff members including the principal and the guidance officer in the PBS postgraduate course at Griffith University. These staff formed a study group and collaborated to complete theoretical and practical course requirements. By the end of the semester, the school had a group of key staff who understood the theory of PBS and could provide technical leadership and assistance for problem behaviours across the school.

The special school principal then capitalised on his new PBS team in several ways. He established a PBS support committee that worked in tandem with whole-of-staff meetings. He altered school policy to incorporate PBS processes in the mandated school behaviour plan. He released classroom teachers for a day to develop a new PBS plan for a student with the technical assistance of a PBS-trained teacher and him. He prioritised PBS training to improve PBS knowledge and skills, with all staff attending internal training during pupil-free days and some staff attending external conferences and workshops. Over this period, the improved quality of PBS plans and the improved school climate (e.g. staff discussion of positive reinforcement and student experience of positive reinforcement) justified the time allocated to training and team building.

The themes of time, teaming, and training were applied differently by a Griffith PBS-trained graduate who was a Head of Special Education Services (HOSES) at a primary school in a low socio-economic area (see, also, Bryer & Beamish, 2005). The basic teacher-to-student ratio in the specialised unit was 3.5 teachers to 30 students in a total student population of 600. Given that this HOSES lacked the critical mass of PBS capacity available in the previous project, she harnessed her time-team-train resources as best she could. In addition to the mini-team in her unit that catered for students with identified disabilities, she used the school's special needs committee as a quasi-PBS team to discuss and review the behaviour of students in regular classes who either displayed dangerous and chronic behaviour or presented with severe emotional and behavioural difficulties. The HOSES also provided informal PBS training to classroom teachers as she gathered minimal function-based data and designed a realistic behaviour plan for a student in that class. These outreach activities allowed only limited time to make effective use of existing school resources. The outcomes of these consultative efforts included fewer school suspensions and reduced classroom use of reactive strategies (e.g. detention tickets), but some teachers experienced workload challenges in implementing the plan for students with explosive and highly disruptive behaviours.

Sharing information about these three projects and their outcomes followed a similar pattern. In each case, following the action research design of these projects, school participants copresented at conferences and contributed to related papers. In the preschool case, the mother and teacher participated in a national early childhood intervention conference with Beamish. The Beamish et al. (2000) publication has

continued to be used as an example of practice in PBS coursework. In both the secondary special school case and the primary school case, the school principal and the HOSES copresented with Bryer and Beamish at a state special education conference, and a combined paper was published in conference proceedings (Bryer, Beamish, Hawke, Kitching, & Wilson, 2003).

The triad of time, teams, and training also affected a project exploring SWPBS readiness in a large state secondary school in a disadvantaged and multicultural community. Over a 3-year time span, school staff, district personnel, and a university research team undertook pre-planning activities and assessment and introduced basic concepts and practices of SWPBS to all school staff. These elements addressed the content of Phase 1: Exploration and Adoption (see Chap. 3, Table 3.1). The impetus for this initiative arose from exposure to SWPBS at two international conferences held in 2003: First, Bryer, Beamish, and a district officer attended sessions on SWPBS at the first international PBS conference at Orlando, Florida, and, subsequently, the Griffith academics, district personnel, and a deputy principal from this project school networked with Jacki Anderson, a Californian founding member of PBS in the USA, who delivered keynote presenters on inclusion and PBS at an international conference of Cognition, Learning, and Special Education on the Gold Coast (Anderson, 2003). Immediately following the second conference, the Griffith team accompanied by Anderson visited the secondary school to open discussion about the possibility of commencing a SWPBS project.

District officers shared information about a 2002 district review of intervention in problem behaviour and were keen to use this school as an example within the district to improve inclusion and reduce challenging behaviour. This complex but typical secondary school had a basic teacher-to-student ratio of 68 to 1800, with teachers supported by a principal, 3 deputy principals, 12 heads of department, the HOSES of the special education unit, a large pool of teacher aides, community support staff for indigenous and Samoan students, a police officer, and a nurse, with itinerant support from one-and-a-half full-time positions for guidance officers and 2 district social workers.

Engaging the school community in the project took almost 18 months (Bryer, Beamish, Davies, Marshall, Wilson, & Caldwell, 2005). At the beginning of the 2004 school year, the principal and school executive tasked a deputy principal to canvass whole-school agreement to explore aspects of SWPBS preparation. Phase 1 activities over 6 weeks involved a series of meetings. First, a meeting with the school executive was followed by a structured discussion with the 22-member school leadership team about the pluses and minuses of this whole-school project. Third, a pupil-free day for all school staff was devoted to SWPBS department-level discussion and feedback to the leadership team, and a steering committee was then formed. These activities produced three outcomes: The school was informed and gave in-principle agreement, data on the behavioural practices operating within the school were gathered and shared with the school community, and steps were taken to introduce some basic tools and to build staff capacity to use these tools.

One of the results of the School-Wide Evaluation Tool was the passive presence of the few positively phrased school rules in the consciousness of staff and students.

Results of a staff survey of Effective Behaviour Systems also indicated staff agreement about the need to share data on problem behaviour with staff and behaviour management team. These findings prompted a day of SWIS training for all deputy principals and the HOSES and circulation of a staff manual about SWPBS expectations drafted by a deputy principal. However, individuals in the school, district, and university began to redirect attention to other pressing aspects of their workload during the extended time taken to inform and train the school community. A mini-team within the school did not coalesce around formal adoption of SWPBS and preparatory planning activities to install the programme (Phase 2).

Contribution by Griffith to Classroom Training

Preservice teacher capacity to design and practise productive interactions in regular and inclusive primary classrooms became the focus of an innovative Behavioural Support course with an embedded end-on practicum and online self-appraisal of knowledge and skills. From 2007, a safe and supportive environment became one of ten standards of professional registration for Queensland teachers that required that preservice teachers demonstrate knowledge and skills on each standard for provisional registration. Bryer began to assemble a PBS-oriented third-year undergraduate course to build competence and confidence in primary classrooms, as a companion to the intensive special education programme at Griffith University.

The impetus for this kind of course came from the first international PBS conference and its early report of behavioural and academic student outcomes from SWPBS and its ABC-based signals about expected behaviours (e.g. posters and songs fostering high expectations across the school), explicit teaching of rules across school settings, and active and creative rewarding of students for meeting behavioural expectations. Other influential meetings included (a) an introduction by Los Angeles Unified District administrators to the Sprague and Golly (2004) text for staff training workshops for their SWPBS programme and (b) an introduction to an established New Zealand initiative in SWPBS by a PBS-trained SWIS facilitator (Savage, Lewis, & Colless, 2011).

Conference presentations tracked progress in course development from its rationale for PBS within a classroom (Bryer, 2006a), different ways that high-achieving third-year preservice teachers develop data-based plans for their practicum classes (Bryer, 2010), to changes in online self-ratings of competence on a safe and supportive standard before and after course completion (Bryer, Lang, & Shepherd, 2012). The common context of teacher practice in a primary classroom meshed with developmental tasks about learning, peer relations, and social conduct in classroom settings (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). It also meshed with the ecological anchors of the teacher-peers-tasks triad holding together the classroom as a learning environment against highly variable and unpredictable interactions within this triad and its surrounding community (Cohen, Raudenbush, & Ball, 2003).

Universal teacher practice was framed in ABC terms to demonstrate the suite of proactive principles underlying multicomponent interventions (Bryer, 2006b) and to tailor prevention and early intervention to the behavioural issues typical of regular classrooms (e.g. being off-task, squabbling with peers and otherwise hindering their learning, and ignoring or defying teacher instructions). The empirical successes of ABC practices from positive teaching (Merrett & Wheldall, 1990) and, later, the successes of positive programming in ABC and FBA practice (Snell, 2005) provided the basic framework for this flexible, problem-solving approach to course design. Moreover, an ABC lens was also used to observe and remediate the risky behaviours affecting students with neurodevelopmental disorders such as oppositional defiant and conduct disorders, ADHD, and anxiety disorders: Risky behaviours associated with these disorders (e.g. disobedience, impulsivity, and withdrawal) are always present in regular classrooms, but the Tier 2 needs of these students are mostly underserved.

While the course maintained its ABC themes and direction towards a sound foundation for future practice, it became progressively more technically based as more PBS resources became available in the USA. A PBS text for classroom teachers explicitly listed classroom principles (Scott, Anderson, & Alter, 2012) consistent with the course emphasis: to improve the quality of classroom life and advance child development and to prevent problem behaviour within classroom ecology and its instructional activities. A course for first-year secondary preservice teachers, but without a practicum, used a similar educative approach to improving prosocial adolescent behaviour with SWPBS and social-emotional learning (Bear, 2010).

A core text by Australian-born Colvin (2004) delivered strategies for maintaining lesson flow in a calm classroom (e.g. students attending to instructions, self-managing with familiar routines, and succeeding at learning tasks more than 70% of the time). A course website provided reading resources on effective strategies (e.g. McDougal, Chafoulas, & Waterman, 2006; Simonsen, Fairbanks, Briesch, & Sugai, 2006; Slider, Noell, & Williams, 2006) as well as lectures, DVDs on behavioural practices, tutorial sheets working through Colvin's cycle of acting-out behaviours with the goal of keeping problem behaviour from escalating over the border into Tier 2 riskiness, as well as tools for practicum.

For example, lectures outlined the case for supportive management of problem behaviours common across classrooms in Australia, the UK, and the USA, identified ABC strategies for Tier 1 universal prevention, and profiled ABC interventions for various behavioural disorders. The first module of lectures outlined ABC/FBA/PBS ideas for teacher practice in the classroom and in the upcoming practicum. The middle module of lectures examined antecedent strategies, triggers, and ABC steps to precorrect problem behaviour; strategies for teaching behaviour and social-emotional skills; and effective use of positive consequences including behaviour-specific praise. Final lectures provided extra resources for teaching behaviour in the classroom that used instructional resources for teaching a socioemotional learning curriculum (Beamish & Bryer, 2014, 2017), provided matrix examples of plans (i.e. ABC strategies for use with three common problem behaviours), and reviewed

PBS-based practicum criteria and course assessment tasks to be adapted to practicum classrooms from preschool to primary year 7.

DVDs provided a bridge between lectures and tutorials, because they tapped into a rich resource of effective classroom strategies, demonstrated by presenters with different styles and instructional methods (e.g. stories, modelling, classroom simulations, and role plays). Tutorial groups prepared to respond to various acting-out behaviours by role playing good and bad examples of strategies to interrupt and redirect acting out and then to negotiate with the student a path to recovery (e.g. debrief student about triggers and alternatives to getting angry).

Weekly visits to a classroom before block practicum enabled the preservice teacher to observe and analyse classroom routines, identify relevant ABC strategies for interacting with students in the class, and embed these strategies into lesson plans. Over the days, they completed a simple fill-in sheet (i.e. when, time; where, place; who, people present; what, routines; how, rules for routines) to monitor the classroom ecology and then summarised the patterns into a 4-column planning sheet (settings, antecedents, behaviours, consequences) to guide their method of teaching lessons and other strategies of interacting with students during the block practicum.

Direct knowledge about research-informed practices helps preservice teachers identify time-critical interactions among classroom events, choose a small set of strategies in which they have confidence, and adjust their plan as needed from their broad awareness of universally desirable strategies. Whereas traditional classroom management often can leave preservice teachers vulnerable to their own troubled feelings and beliefs about problem behaviour, behavioural support allows them to enjoy a sense of professional wellbeing while supporting students' wellbeing. A coherent basis for future practice provides efficient and effective ways to negotiate, for all students in inclusive classrooms, success in learning, harmony with classmates, and trust in the teacher. This course recognises that PBS, whether school-wide or class-wide, or Tier 1 or Tier 2, is neither a strategy nor a curriculum but a decision-making framework for developing interventions and implementing them through tiers of preventative supports.

Contribution by Other Universities

The first large-scale study of SWPBS in Australia was a partnership between the University of Western Sydney and the Department of Education and Training New South Wales Western Sydney Region (DET WSR). This study was blended with ongoing research programmes at University of Western Sydney on self-concept (Marsh, 1994) and student engagement and motivation (Martin, 2001). Preliminary visits by Sugai in 2004 followed by Lewis in 2005 introduced the model to school principals across the WSR region: Lewis later published a review of sustainability of positive behaviour interventions in the USA with the NSW partners (Yeung et al., 2016). Four waves of training and implementation across 31 primary, secondary,

and special schools in this region were documented in a report (Mooney et al., 2008). Lewis and Newcomer from the University of Missouri provided external consultancy.

The approach emphasised the pivotal roles of the regional leadership and regional coaches. The strategic plan of the region was focused on a quality teaching model of professional learning and a cluster approach to local school groups managing student behaviour trialled in 2003. Research on learning (motivation and self-concept) was also well-established in the university. Thus, the regional team named the project, Positive Behaviour for Learning (PBL). This rebadging aligned with Positive Behaviour for Learning in the UK and, more recently, Positive Behaviour for Learning (PB4L) in New Zealand.

Two research questions examined school implementation and changes arising from the overseas model at a regional and school level. With respect to the first research question, Mooney et al. reported that implementation improved consistency in teaching behaviour, making referrals, and collecting data. When coaches supported the school PBL teams at clusters of primary and secondary schools, the connection between schools facilitated shared behavioural expectations. For example, schools shared artwork on a Citizens, Achievement, Respect, Safety (CARS) logo. There were few modifications to the approach, except for adjustment of administrative language (e.g. administrator to principal, bathroom to toilet).

Two other questions examined the effect of the PBL approach on student outcomes and staff attitudes to learning as well as behaviour. Research data for Question 2 showed improved student liking for school (academic self-concept) and more planfulness (motivation to study) in four primary schools compared to two other schools on a wait list (Yeung, Mooney, Barker, & Dobia, 2009) and more student discussion about rules, more positive perception of behaviour management, and better self-reported behaviour in four primary schools and eight secondary schools implementing PBL (Yeung, Barker, Tracey, & Mooney, 2013) compared to wait list schools (two primary and four secondary). Satisfaction of staff and parents with PBL indicated general agreement about PBL usefulness, satisfaction, and recommendation to other staff.

Christensen-Foggett (2017) conducted interviews with 12 principals and 6 assistant principals for behaviour management and surveyed 150 staff within 6 local management groups in clusters of primary and secondary schools in NSW. She used these data to argue that schools need to implement a positive and consistent approach to managing student behaviour across school-wide, non-classroom, classroom, and individual systems. The website of the state department currently shows that PBL training has occurred in approximately 940 government schools (42%). These schools are spread along the NSW coastline and mostly in metropolitan areas. In NSW, key universities such as Macquarie and Newcastle are providing specific training for teachers in behavioural support, while the University of Melbourne and Monash University are now offering PBS courses in Victoria.

The initiatives in NSW have been at the forefront of implementation in Australia. States such as Queensland have followed suit and established a state-wide centre to support the introduction of PBL in interested schools. Chapter 5 provides insights

into the uptake of school-wide PBL within the context of current policy and a whole-school approach. Chapter 6 provides a perspective by an autism-specific nongovernment body, because this NSW agency is actively providing behavioural support to students on the autism spectrum and providing PBS training to staff locally and abroad.

Conclusion

In Australia, there is a continued focus on problem behaviour (e.g. Sullivan, Johnson, Owens, & Conway, 2014) and student disengagement (Angus et al., 2010; Goss, Sonnemann, & Griffiths, 2017) at the expense of teacher practice to deal effectively with problem behaviour. A series of Ombudsman reports and reviews from the three largest states (Deloite Access Economics, 2017; NSW Ombudsman, 2017; Victorian Ombudsman, 2017) highlight the over-reliance on exclusionary discipline in our schools paired with the limited use of positive behavioural practices. They all recommend more capacity building for teachers and school leadership teams to "manage" behaviour.

This continued focus on behaviour management in isolation from classroom behaviour support as part of a comprehensive behavioural approach (Myers, Sugai, Simonsen, & Freeman, 2017; Simonsen & Myers, 2015) is part of a continued misunderstanding in Australia about managing the problem behaviour of individual students rather than supporting better behaviour for all students. Federal guidance in the form of policy and funding for research and technical assistance is needed to bring about change in our education systems and schools. In the next two chapters, case studies provide narratives about approaches to behavioural support for students with SEN in our education systems.

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Chapter 5
Behavioural Support in an Australian Government Sector

Lorna Hepburn

Abstract Problem behaviour in Australian schools is a frequent topic of public discourse and media coverage. Educational reports have highlighted concerns in relation to classroom management, student disruption, and disengagement, and government statistics show high rates of student suspension. While educational policies in the state schooling sector promote a proactive approach to behaviour support, with most jurisdictions recommending the uptake of Schoolwide Positive Behaviour Support (SWPBS), the implementation of such policies at the school and individual student levels can be less than optimal. In Queensland, Positive Behaviour for Learning (PBL) is endorsed as the local version of SWPBS, and almost half of Queensland state schools have received training in school implementation of positive behaviour support practices. However, lack of formal systems to support implementation has resulted in inconsistent attention to monitoring and fidelity of implementation. In addition, a tension exists between traditional approaches to behaviour management, with a heavy reliance on exclusionary sanctions for those students with the most challenging behaviours, and adoption of PBL, which emphasises a preventative continuum of behaviour support for all students. This chapter will provide an overview of the current status of positive behaviour support in Queensland state schools and offer implications for future directions.

Keywords Behaviour · Schoolwide · Positive behaviour support · Positive Behaviour for Learning · Policy · Queensland

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Introduction

There is a common perception in Australia that student behaviour in schools is deteriorating, with high rates of non-compliance and aggression. However, Australian research shows that the main behavioural issues facing teachers are actually low-level disruption and disengagement from learning (Beaman, Wheldall, & Kemp, 2007; Sullivan, Johnson, Owens, & Conway, 2014). While these behaviours may not seem as serious as more intense or aggressive behaviours, they are still cause for concern, due to the negative impact on student learning and on teacher wellbeing (Geving, 2007; Hastings & Bham, 2003). A significant amount of time in schools is spent managing such behaviours (Office of the Western Australian Auditor General, 2014), and a common response is to remove students exhibiting such behaviours from the learning environment. Such actions are cause for concern, given that exclusionary discipline practices are likely to be counterproductive, resulting in increased student disengagement from learning. Disturbingly, a disproportionate number of students with special needs receive disciplinary sanctions that adversely affect their learning (Deloitte Access Economics, 2017).

In Australia, a funding allocation for education, including for public, independent, religious, and private schools, is provided by the federal government. It then falls to state or territory governments to provide the majority of educational funding and be responsible for the operation of the public, or state, schools in each jurisdiction. Independent, religious, and private schools are largely self-managing and report to a governing board or committee, while each state has an established educational bureaucracy responsible for oversight of all state schools within its jurisdiction. While the federal government provides national guidelines for student wellbeing (Australian Government Department of Education and Training, 2018), there is no nationally mandated policy for provision of student support. Subsequently, non-state schools and each state and territory develop their own policies and procedures for behaviour support. Nonetheless, recent reports point to the existence of similar practices for responding to student behaviour across state jurisdictions (Deloitte Access Economics, 2017; NSW Ombudsman, 2017; Victorian Ombudsman, 2017).

This chapter will focus on the state (i.e. government) schooling sector in Queensland, the third most populated Australian state. Schooling is compulsory for all children between the ages of 6 and 16, and schools in Queensland are structured around primary (years P–6) and secondary (years 7–12) education. In 2018, there were 918 state primary schools and 185 state secondary schools. In addition, there were 92 combined schools, predominantly in remote and regional areas, catering for a variety of combinations of years P–12. Throughout the state, there were also 45 special schools for the education of students with severe disability, including an intellectual disability (Queensland Department of Education, 2018g). State schools in Queensland are overseen by the Queensland Department of Education (DoE), with decision-making largely devolved to the local level. Regional directors, in seven geographical regions throughout the state, are responsible for the enactment

of policies in schools, with guidance and support for schools coordinated by a regional office. Regions provide a number of support services, such as access to inclusion coaches and educational advisers, but principals take ultimate responsibility for individual school management and outcomes.

In the Queensland state schooling sector, students with special needs mainly attend primary, secondary, or combined schools. Currently, a minority of students with severe disability are enrolled in special schools, although a recent trend Australia-wide has seen an increase in special school enrolments (Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, 2017). Around 85% of students with a verified disability in Queensland schools are enrolled in primary and secondary settings (Deloitte Access Economics, 2017). Students with a disability in Queensland schools may attend all regular classes, attend all classes in a special education program (SEP), or attend a combination of regular and SEP classes. The model in place depends to a large extent on the school culture and leadership, staffing allocations, and the needs of individual students, with substantial variation across Queensland state schools in use of inclusive practices and understanding of positive behaviour support (Deloitte Access Economics, 2017).

Policy Background

Queensland state schools are bound by Commonwealth (federal) and state legislation and guided by Queensland DoE policies pertaining to behaviour support for all students, including those with special needs. The *Disability Discrimination Act 1992* and the *Disability Standards for Education 2005* take a broad view of disability, to include disorders or malfunctions resulting in a person "learning differently" from others or that result "in disturbed behaviour". Over the course of the last two decades, there has been a strong commitment at the policy level to inclusive education. In 2008, all state and territory education ministers agreed to *The Melbourne Declaration on Educational Goals for Young Australians* (Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs, 2008) in recognition of the need to provide personalised learning that aims to fulfil the diverse capabilities of each student.

The current Queensland DoE framework to assess and provide support to students with a disability is known as the Education Adjustment Program (EAP). Students must be verified in one of six categories of disability under this system to receive additional funding for educational adjustments to enable access to learning. These categories are (1) visual impairment, (2) intellectual disability, (3) speech language impairment, (4) hearing impairment, (5) autism spectrum disorder, and (6) physical impairment (Queensland Department of Education, 2019b). In addition, the Nationally Consistent Collection of Data (NCCD) recognises students with a wider range of disabilities, as defined by the DDA, who receive educational adjustments on a long-term basis, with a proportion of additional funding provided to schools for this group (Queensland Department of Education, 2019c).

All Queensland state schools are expected to provide a curriculum accessible to all students, including those with a disability, and to make reasonable adjustments to ensure that all students can succeed. Queensland DoE policies, such as the *Inclusive Education Policy* (Queensland Department of Education, 2018d) and *P-12 Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Framework* (Queensland Department of Education, 2018e) promote the right of all students to a safe and supportive learning environment, recognising individual needs. A recently released independent review of disability in Queensland state schools recommended more explicit reference, at the policy level, to school responsibilities in relation to students with a disability and clearer guidelines for schools on the enactment of legislative requirements, including use of inclusive practices in schools (Deloitte Access Economics, 2017).

Queensland DoE encourages schools to take a whole-school approach to behaviour support, through implementation of Schoolwide Positive Behaviour Support (SWPBS), known locally as Positive Behaviour for Learning (PBL). In a whole-school approach, all of the school community works together to establish, teach, and acknowledge agreed behavioural expectations and respond consistently to problem behaviours. Behaviour is explicitly taught, in the same way as academics are taught, through instruction, modelling, and practice. Almost half of Queensland state schools have received initial PBL training, with 42% considered to be implementing PBL (Deloitte Access Economics, 2017). Professional development for PBL implementation is provided by regional PBL coordinators, with ongoing support accessed through a network of school-based PBL coaches and the establishment of school leadership teams. However, the large number of schools in each region, and the sometimes vast geographical distances between schools, make consistent monitoring of implementation and targeting of support difficult. Although PBL has been endorsed in principle by Queensland DoE, the practice of handing responsibility for implementation directly to schools, without consistent monitoring and evaluation, has resulted in uneven and inconsistent implementation of positive behaviour support across state schools.

A Whole-School Approach

The whole-school approach to behaviour support is promoted in Queensland DoE behaviour policy and procedures (Queensland Department of Education, 2019a). State schools are expected to develop a schoolwide behaviour plan collaboratively with the school community and to review it regularly. The school behaviour plan describes the school's whole-school evidence-based approach to promoting positive behaviour and maintaining teaching and learning environments that support learning and wellbeing for all students (Queensland Department of Education, 2018f). Queensland DoE behaviour policy draws heavily on the research underpinning SWPBS, with a 3-tiered approach aimed at matching behaviour support to identified needs. Within this model, universal support is provided to all students through the establishment of clear expectations which are taught and reinforced, along with clear

guidelines on consistent responses to problem behaviours and agreed referral pathways. Targeted support is provided to groups of students requiring additional support for a specific need or period of time. Individual support is provided to those students requiring intensive intervention. Behaviour policy requires schools to provide differentiated behaviour support to all students, including those with a disability. However, clear guidelines laying out how schools can achieve this expectation are not provided, although the requirement for schools to collaboratively develop a school behaviour plan is intended to support the development of a detailed school policy.

The school behaviour plan describes the school's approach to behavioural support and the systems in place to provide differentiated behavioural support to all students. Schools are provided with a template and an exemplar to guide them in documenting this procedure. Schools set out their agreed expectations and systems to teach and reinforce these to all students. The template also assists schools to document what they deem as unacceptable behaviours and the consequences for breaching the school expectations. In addition, the inclusion of a differentiated teaching visual in the template requires schools to document their continuum of support for all students. In practice, the content provided by schools has often been generic, and school behaviour plans have often been used to support delivery of disciplinary sanctions and enforcement of school policies in relation to behaviour.

School Approaches to Behaviour Support

Behavioural support in Queensland state schools has traditionally been approached reactively, in that behaviour is often addressed only after a pattern of problem behaviour is established. Typically, students with problem behaviours will be referred either to an administrator to enforce a consequence or to a guidance officer to assess support needs. Many schools, particularly secondary schools, have a withdrawal room where students are sent when problem behaviour in the classroom disrupts student learning. Although the purpose of having such a room may be to allow the student to reflect on his/her behaviour and work out a plan to re-enter the regular class, in reality such withdrawal options often result in students missing significant amounts of learning, with the same students spending more and more time in withdrawal rather than in the classroom.

Problem behaviour is typically seen as needing to be punished, usually through use of school sanctions such as detention, withdrawal, or suspension (and in a minority of cases, exclusion) for more serious or repeated infractions. At the same time, schools seek support for students demonstrating problem behaviour, usually through the school's guidance officer or other support staff, such as chaplains, youth health nurses, and school-based police officers. Referral to an outside agency is also a common practice, especially for students with identified needs, for example, in relation to mental health or family issues. Most schools establish a student welfare team to case manage students identified as needing individual support, and students with behavioural difficulties will sometimes have an individual behaviour support

plan developed, although such plans vary in quality and adherence to evidence-based principles. Students with a disability will often be case managed separately through the school SEP and may have a teacher aide allocated to support them in class, at least for part of the time. When serious behavioural challenges are identified, whether or not a disability is present, funding for additional support may be provided on a temporary basis from the Queensland DoE regional office.

Behaviour policy and guidelines encourage schools to work proactively on preventing problem behaviour. Yet in practice, many schools see behaviour only as a problem that must be dealt with, either through consequences or provision of individual support. Schoolwide systems may be documented, but not consistently implemented throughout the school. Often the principles of PBL are not well understood, with an overemphasis on clarifying expectations and ensuring consistency of consequences. The fundamental tenets of positive behaviour support, such as taking a functional view of behaviour, valuing diversity, and building positive relationships with students, are often ignored. PBL was introduced into Queensland schools in 2005 in an attempt to focus on more preventative, proactive approaches to student support. While many schools have embraced PBL on paper, the reality is that in many cases the framework has been overlaid over existing practices, with no real change in school cultures. Currently, PBL schools are just as likely as non-PBL schools to suspend students for disciplinary infractions (Deloitte Access Economics, 2017). There is still limited understanding in schools of the fundamental principles of applied behaviour analysis (ABA), which underpin whole-school PBL. The relationship between the school environment and problem behaviour is not well understood, with a tendency to locate the problem in the child or the home situation (Sullivan et al., 2014). The importance of positive school culture and an understanding of the importance of classroom ecology tend to be glossed over, meaning that a deep understanding of the role of adults in nurturing student development, taking into consideration individual needs and difference, is often missing. This situation is partially due to a lack of understanding of evidence-based practices for behaviour support, with no clear guidelines that translate policy to practice, as well as a lack of systems support for capacity building in functional behaviour assessment and positive behaviour interventions (Goss, Sonnemann, & Griffiths, 2017).

In theory, the schools that are implementing PBL establish systems that help to prevent the majority of problem behaviours through the explicit teaching of the prerequisite social-emotional skills needed in order to demonstrate the established expectations for behaviour. PBL schools should also regularly monitor the use of practices to teach and reinforce expectations, as well as practices to respond quickly, calmly, and consistently to problem behaviour. Training in the essential features of PBL, including positive and consistent classroom management and effective interventions, is provided to PBL schools by regional coordinators, along with the provision of monitoring and data collection tools to evaluate progress and outcomes. School teams are then tasked with developing local systems to enable effective implementation of the PBL framework. Regional support is designed to encourage effective implementation of the positive behaviour support framework, including consistent use of evidence-based practices for classroom management and function-

ally based interventions. This approach focuses strongly on the need for solid foundations for positive behaviour support to be in place in order for targeted and individual support to be effective. However, without ongoing access to expert coaching support for PBL implementation, many of the messages provided in professional development sessions become diluted or distorted, meaning that the foundations for positive behaviour support practices in schools may be shaky or missing.

Teacher Capacity

Teacher capacity in effective behavioural support is mainly developed through initial teacher education and subsequent in-service training, which includes formal professional development as well as formal and informal mentoring and collegial learning (Goss et al., 2017). The lack of evidence-based content on behavioural support in Australian pre-service teaching courses has been documented (O'Neill & Stephenson, 2014), and many principals report that beginning teachers lack skills in classroom management (Queensland College of Teachers, 2015). A recent survey of high school teachers in Queensland found that less than half thought that their pre-service teacher training had provided them with a good grounding in classroom management (Hepburn, 2019). In an attempt to address these concerns, Australian guidelines for initial teacher education have recently been developed and agreed to by states and territories (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2016). In addition, AITSL Teacher Standards (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2013) endorse the need for teachers to be able to differentiate teaching and to manage challenging behaviour.

Classroom teachers are expected to manage minor behavioural issues within the classroom, sometimes without clear guidelines on how to achieve this expectation. Although schools develop procedures for responding to problem behaviours, and referral pathways for teachers to follow, not all schools provide teachers with professional development in classroom management strategies or promote proactive strategies for behavioural support. Historically, Queensland DoE has provided courses such as *The Essential Skills for Classroom Management* but has left implementation up to individual schools. At a regional level, professional development and coaching in effective behavioural support may be offered to schools, but alignment of priorities and initiatives is left up to individual schools, with no coordinated leadership on this imperative at either state or regional levels. Thus, the necessity for effective classroom management and positive behaviour support as key components of effective instruction (Cooper & Scott, 2017) is an implicit assumption, rather than an explicit agenda led by educational leaders at all levels. The recent *Disability Review* recommended increased systems support and better professional development for teachers, finding that schools and teachers lack understanding of the link between learning and behaviour and that they struggle with implementation of a whole-school approach to behavioural support, including how to differentiate instruction (Deloitte Access Economics, 2017).

Cultural Influences

The predominant cultural view of student behaviour in Queensland means that behavioural support tends to be characterised as "behaviour management", reflecting the tendency to use a reactive approach in schools. Behaviour is often seen as separate to the main business of the classroom, with little attention given to the reciprocal relationship between behaviour and learning. Zero tolerance and "get-tough" approaches have been popular with politicians and the wider community, despite messages from policy makers and regional leaders about the ineffectiveness of student suspension and exclusion. Students with behavioural issues are often withdrawn from the classroom to see specialists or administrators within the school or sent to alternative settings provided by regions or private providers. Such students are often seen as deliberately disruptive or out of control and best removed from the learning environment for the sake of the group. Government statistics (Queensland Department of Education, 2018e) and other research (Angus et al., 2009) suggest that removal from the learning environment is often a result of ongoing low-level disruptive and disengaged behaviours, rather than more intense or serious behaviours, such as aggression. In addition, students with a disability in Queensland state schools are more likely to receive a disciplinary sanction or to be subject to a restrictive practice (Deloitte Access Economics, 2017). This trend is concerning, given the inverse relationship between suspension and positive learning outcomes (Noltemeyer, Ward, & McLoughlin, 2015).

Approximately 10% of all students enrolled in Queensland state schools are indigenous (Aboriginal, Torres Strait Islander, or both), based on self-report at the time of enrolment (Queensland Department of Education, 2018g). The majority of students from indigenous backgrounds are enrolled in schools in the Far North Queensland region, but many attend schools throughout the state. Centralised data are not available on number of enrolments from other cultural groups, but many schools report substantial numbers of students from Polynesian, African, and Asian backgrounds. In some schools, students from non-English-speaking backgrounds make up more than half of total enrolments (e.g. Woodridge State School, 2017). Some schools embrace cultural diversity and use the PBL framework to put in place support programmes designed to meet the needs of all students, including those from diverse backgrounds. Cultural adaptations to PBL have enabled many schools to improve learning and wellbeing outcomes for students with diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds, including indigenous learners. However, there is anecdotal evidence that factors relating to culture, disability, and experience of trauma are not always given due consideration in disciplinary decision-making in Queensland state schools.

Schools are required to collect data on academic testing, attendance, suspensions, exclusions, and cancellations of enrolment for students identified as being in out-of-home care, students with a disability, and indigenous students, but currently only the data in relation to indigenous students is published. These data indicate that indigenous students lag behind nonindigenous students in achievement in the

National Assessment Program for Literacy and Numeracy (NAPLAN), for all measurements (reading, writing, and numeracy) and across all year levels tested (Queensland Department of Education, 2018a). Attendance rates for indigenous students are also lower than for nonindigenous students, and indigenous students are more than twice as likely to receive a disciplinary consequence such as cancellation of enrolment, suspension, or exclusion (Queensland Department of Education, 2018g). Such disproportionality in disciplinary actions in schools has also been noted for students with disability, and recommendations have been made requiring policy makers to disaggregate data in order to better monitor and address disparities in the treatment of groups within the state schooling system (Deloitte Access Economics, 2017).

Future Directions

At the symbolic level, there is strong commitment in the Queensland state schooling sector to the ideals of inclusivity and positive behaviour support. Queensland DoE policies reflect the importance of developing safe and supportive learning environments for all students and embrace a whole-school, differentiated approach to learning and behaviour. Such policies outline the key components of positive behaviour support and recognise the importance of explicitly teaching and acknowledging expected behaviours. In every region, a PBL regional coordinator has been appointed to provide regular professional development for PBL implementation to schools and to mentor a network of school-based coaches who are charged with providing guidance and technical assistance to school teams. Such structural support is an important first step in promoting consistent use of positive behaviour practices in state schools. At the practical level, schools, for the most part, recognise and accept the principles of positive behaviour support, but they often lack the in-depth knowledge needed to enact policy into practice. The current funding model means that each school must build its own behavioural expertise, with limited capacity in regions to provide additional services. While resources, such as professional development packages, are available to schools, the associated systems to support implementation are often missing. Many schools simply do not have access to the information needed to develop an equitable, evidence-informed approach to behaviour support.

In recent years, "evidence-based" terminology has been adopted by policy makers with exhortations to schools to use "evidence-based practices". Queensland DoE has established an *Evidence Framework* and developed *Standards of Evidence* to help schools select research-informed practices to drive school improvement (Queensland Department of Education, 2018b). While the provision of such information on research-informed practices is important, it is not sufficient by itself. Systems must be put in place to support effective implementation of such practices in schools. Principals and other school leaders need quality, ongoing professional development in how to identify, select, and adapt research-informed practices to match the needs of the local community and to align with school vision and goals.

The ability to critically analyse the evidence of effectiveness is critical and requires higher-order thinking skills as well as the availability of time to critically engage with the available information. In schools, this time is seldom provided, resulting in patchy implementation of promising practices and insufficient attention to monitoring and evaluation. In order for professional learning to take place, teachers need time to practise using and adapting new strategies; they need allocated time to collaborate with colleagues, to give and receive feedback, and to reflect on their changing practice. The expectation that schools use evidence-based practices is only the first step in achieving positive outcomes for students. Even practices with the strongest research evidence will not succeed if they are not implemented as intended (Fixsen, Naoom, Blase, & Friedman, 2005). Attention must be given to building the systems to support implementation and to the effective use of data to monitor implementation.

Building staff capacity to use research-informed practices will take time and commitment. Pre-service teaching courses must include content on positive behaviour support, differentiation, and proven practices. In addition, ongoing professional development and opportunities for professional learning, taking into consideration cultural and contextual needs, must be made available. The opportunity now exists to provide further leadership and guidance to schools on how to integrate support for behaviour and learning in practice. At the policy level, there needs to be an explicit rhetoric, which emphasises the inextricable link between learning and behaviour and which recognises the importance of classroom ecology. Schools must be encouraged to focus on behavioural outcomes in the same way that they examine academic outcomes. This message would be strengthened by having regional leaders, in their regular conversations with school principals, emphasise the relationship between evidence-based practices for behavioural support and for effective academic instruction and outcomes. A stronger emphasis on positive behaviour support would help signal to schools the importance of an integrated approach, recognising the need for behaviour to be taught as vigorously as academics and for responses to problem behaviour to be functionally based and take into account individual student needs.

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Chapter 6
Behavioural Support Within an Australian Non-government Organisation

Tom Tutton

Abstract This chapter will describe how positive behaviour support (PBS) is delivered within an autism-specific non-government organisation (NGO), Autism Spectrum Australia (Aspect), which operates a large independent school system for students on the autism spectrum. The delivery of positive behaviour support (PBS) in Australia has traditionally been led by state-based government services in the disability sector, with mainstream education increasingly favouring whole-school PBS. As an NGO, Aspect has the opportunity to develop PBS policy and practice for its schools based on state, national, and international best practice. PBS can be delivered at an individual and an organisational level. Aspect has adapted PBS to be delivered in different formats specifically to meet the needs of individuals on the autism spectrum of different ages and abilities who are supported in family and community as well as educational settings. Adaptations have developed through constant reflections on evidence and practice to ensure that PBS is easily understood, practical, person-centred, and autism-specific. Aspect has also prioritised a coordinated whole-of-organisation approach to PBS, developing environments for all students that prevent challenging behaviour and supporting staff to implement PBS.

Keywords Positive behaviour support · Autism · Non-government organisation

Overview

Autism Spectrum Australia (Aspect) was established in 1966 as the Autistic Children's Association of NSW. The founding school, the Aspect Vern Barnett School for Children with Autism, opened in Forestville in 1971. In 2018, Aspect is a national autism-specific non-government organisation providing a range of

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services across the age and autism spectrum. Services include information and workshops, diagnostic assessments, psychology, occupational and speech therapy, parent and family support, and personalised community and employment support for adults. Aspect also has a network of autism-specific schools and satellite classes and educates over 1000 students each year.

Aspect Research is the organisation's designated research facility. It directly contributes to Aspect's practice through collaborative research, literature reviews, structured evaluations of new services and practices, and staff support for research. It also hosts and participates in conferences.

Aspect has clear mission vision and values that drive practice. Aspect's purpose is titled "a different brilliant", which involves understanding, engaging, and celebrating the strengths, interests, and aspirations of people on the autism spectrum. As thinking and research about autism have moved away from a deficit- and disorder-based approach, Aspect has increasingly focussed on the strengths and interests that are inherent in autism and welcomed the broader understanding of the vale of neurodiversity.

Aspect runs nine independent schools across Australia, which include over 100 satellite classes. Satellite classes are autism-specific classes operated by Aspect; they are directly supported by an Aspect school but situated on the site of a mainstream school (government, independent, and Catholic). All learning environments are tailored to the specific needs of students on the autism spectrum. Class sizes are small with a high teacher-to-student ratio of 1 teacher to 6 students. All students have an Individual Education Plan that includes their strengths and capabilities and their autism-specific needs across different environments.

A multidisciplinary learning support team organises school support. The team comprises school principal, coordinators, teachers, psychologists, and allied health staff. The team includes someone with positive behaviour support (PBS) experience. PBS is delivered throughout Aspect using a whole-of-organisation approach.

Aspect schools operate on a transition model. Ideally, students enter an Aspect school where they learn social-emotional, school-readiness, and academic skills with the aim of gradually transitioning to a less specialised school environment. In 2003, Aspect schools started to monitor a group of students who had transitioned to new educational settings. A transition survey was developed to investigate if the students were still attending the same school and what key strategies were being used. The results showed that 94% of students who had transitioned were still attending the same educational setting after 2 years (Carter et al., 2014).

Legislation

The main historical legislation that is relevant to behaviour management in NSW schools is the Education Act 1990, disability discrimination legislation, work health and safety legislation, and the Ombudsman Act 1974. The work of schools is guided

by the *Disability Standards for Education* 2005 and *National Standards for Disability Services* 2013. All Aspect schools deliver the Australian Curriculum and undergo regular education audits by, for example, the NSW Education Standards Authority. Aspect schools have to demonstrate that they meet the requirements relating to providing a safe and supportive environment by implementing policies and procedures that govern codes of conduct for members of the school community, with specific reference to behaviour management, complaints or grievances, and policies related to the discipline of students.

Needs of Students

Aspect schools support students across the age and ability range. It is thought that up to 30% of students may have "twice exceptional" or "savant" abilities, based on the prevalence of savant skills found in a group of adults on the autism spectrum (Howlin, Goode, Hutton, & Rutter, 2009). Students may have a variety of other supports needs, complex histories, and life impacts from outside school. Many students have not been well understood or supported and have struggled to cope in mainstream school settings.

Given the heterogeneity of the autism population, there can be no "one size fits all" approach (Odom, Boyd, Hall, & Hume, 2010). Students need a broad and flexible approach that acknowledges that, within a set of standard procedures and core curriculum, different teaching tools, interventions, and techniques may be used as needed at different times during a student's development. The approach needs to recognise that the learning environment, curriculum, and persons interacting with the individual all influence their development (Wong et al., 2014).

Aspect Comprehensive Approach to Education

The organisation has internal policy guiding curriculum. The policy for Aspect's Comprehensive Approach (ACA) is individualised for education as the ACA-E and is the basis for all autism-specific teaching and learning across Aspect schools. The ACA-E is a specialised educational approach to teaching students on the autism spectrum. Five principles underpin the ACA-E:

1. It is applicable to all students with autism.
2. Interventions support all areas of the student's development and are based on assessment and evaluation of individual needs.
3. The approach is a positive and supportive model rather than a deficit approach, acknowledging the learning preferences, strengths, and interests of students with autism.

4. The approach involves co-operation and collaboration between parents/carers and professionals.
5. The approach is based on ongoing reference to research and clinical literature and may therefore be inclusive of other interventions.

The key elements of ACA-E have come from a combination of 50 years of practice and recommendations found in comprehensive reviews of research and evidence-based practice. The key elements are individual planning, learning and participation, structured supports, positive behaviour support (PBS), health and wellbeing, transition and inclusion, specialist collaboration, family, and community engagement.

The embedding of all elements of the approach in all Aspect schools is ensured by the Continuous Improvement Self-Review Framework. The Framework includes an internal self-review and an audit that all Aspect schools are expected to undertake. The ACA is written up in a manual that is presented in sections, referring to each of the key elements and the ACA Continuous Improvement Review. Each section is continually improved on a scheduled basis including use of new research and practice.

Positive Behaviour Support

The organisation has internal policy guiding behaviour. There is a specific policy for positive behaviour support that contains procedures on the use of and monitoring of restricted practices. Policies are regularly updated, and new evidence-informed practices are introduced continually. Aspect uses positive behaviour support as defined in the PBS literature, and the organisational approach develops as the literature develops. This approach enables the organisation's PBS practice to continually develop to meet good practice. The delivery of positive behaviour support (PBS) in Australia has traditionally been led by state-based government services in the disability sector, with mainstream education increasingly favouring whole-school PBS. As an NGO, Aspect has the ability to develop schools' PBS policy and practice based on state, national, and international best practice.

Aspect has adapted PBS to be delivered in different formats specifically to meet the needs of individuals on the autism spectrum of different ages and abilities who are supported by family and the broader local community as well as by educational settings. Adaptations have developed through constant reflections on evidence and practice to ensure that PBS is easily understood, practical, person-centred, and autism-specific.

In schools, PBS is generally delivered as part of a whole-school approach along a continuum of intensity of support using a three-tiered model (Sugai & Horner, 2002). In the USA, school-wide PBS is known as positive behaviour intervention and supports (PBIS). In NSW, it is referred to as positive behaviour for learning (PBL), but the content is very similar. There has been little research about the imple-

mentation of PBIS in autism-specific or other alternative settings, although it is growing. In many of these settings, there are adaptations to the three-tiered model.

These adaptations can incorporate a range of autism-specific supports that prevent challenging behaviour as a Tier 1 support, encourage quick response PBS interventions using FBA to design an early intervention behaviour plan as a Tier 2 support, and utilise more intensive, comprehensive, and individualised wraparound interventions at Tier 3.

> Many elements of the traditional PBS model are relevant to children and youth with ASD (e.g., small-group instruction, individualized interventions); however, several aspects need to be adapted to address the core characteristics of ASD. (Neitzel, 2010, p. 248)

Tier 1

Typical PBIS Tier 1 strategies include the identification, teaching, and reinforcing of positive behavioural expectations. Aspect incorporates this approach. However, it currently occurs on a class-by-class basis rather than consistently across a whole school. Aspect's Tier 1 PBS supports are mostly environmental supports that are delivered on a whole-school basis to prevent challenging behaviour. PBS is based on an understanding that challenging behaviour in people with autism does not sit within a person as a function of their disability but rather is part of a complex interaction between the person, their environment, and their experiences (Hastings et al., 2013; Jahoda, Willner, Pert, & MacMahon, 2013).

Environments where people have their specific needs met routinely experience less challenging behaviour. These supports are written into the ACA and, for example, include predictable visually structured environments, visual communication supports, and proactive and reactive sensory accommodations. These supports are considered to be akin to the ramps, elevators, widened doorways, and height-accessible facilities that everyone understands that people who use wheelchairs have a right to in every environment.

All schools incorporate some teaching of emotional regulation into the curriculum. The variety of programmes includes the 5-Point Scale (Buron & Curtis, 2003), Zones of Regulation (Kuypers, 2011), or Westmead Feelings Program (Ratcliffe, 2011; Wong et al., 2018) depending on the specific needs of the students in a class. In these whole-class programmes, all students are taught to recognise emotions in self and others, develop emotional literacy, and then learn skills and strategies to cope with different levels of emotional experience. The programmes typically use a range of visual supports to identify categories of emotions and develop matched regulation strategies for individual students. These are used on a planned and responsive basis as needed and often incorporate a student's interests. In addition, all students have an individual education plan that describes their quality of life and their autism strengths and needs. Therefore, every student receives a personalised learning approach.

Tier 2

Aspect has a structured referral system from initial challenging behaviour to school-based learning support team (LST) to implementation and review of strategies. The LST consists of school principal, coordinators, and allied health professionals who share experience in autism, PBS, and a range of specialist supports. The LST reviews referrals using data-based decision-making and ongoing student monitoring. Aspect's LSTs provide support to teachers who complete a basic functional behavioural assessment and multi-element intervention (OSEP, 2000).

Aspect schools offer a range of additional student supports on an as-needed basis. These supports include social skills, anxiety management, and social problem-solving programmes such as Secret Agent Society Social Skills Training Program (https://www.sst-institute.net). Many students receive additional one-to-one support to help promote learning specific skills, through either Aspect therapists or external support services (e.g. NDIS-funded Occupational or Speech Therapy).

Within the model, PBS is best completed as soon as challenging behaviour emerges. Therefore, it is considered an integral part of a teacher's role. However, there is evidence that many school PBS plans have serious flaws (Van Acker, Boreson, Gable, & Potterson, 2005). Flaws include poor operational definition of challenging behaviour, failure to identify the hypothesised function of the behaviour, and a significant number not taking the function of the behaviour into consideration when developing the plan. Without a simplified approach, PBS is likely to continue to be applied inconsistently or inadequately (Scott, Alter, & McQuillan, 2010).

Figure 6.1 shows Aspect's tool for basic functional behavioural assessment and PBS planning for a student. Aspect has designed a simple and structured approach to Tier 2 PBS using three one-page templates that incorporate elements of PBS contingency diagrams (e.g. Mattaini 1995). These templates have been developed to meet evidence-based criteria for PBS plans (e.g. McVilly, Webber, Paris, & Sharp, 2012) such as behaviour being defined in observable terms, descriptions of typical antecedents and consequences leading to an understanding of function, and a matched multi-element support plan. Templates are used as per the typical individual PBS sequence including teamwork and goal setting, assessment, and intervention, with monitoring and review.

The best PBS plans are ineffective unless they are put into practice consistently and with fidelity in the everyday world of the person. Aspect has developed simple implementation checklists to support teachers to put strategies into place consistently. Research into the effectiveness of checklists in complex situations as well as emerging research in this area (Taylor & English, 2010) is incorporated in these checklists.

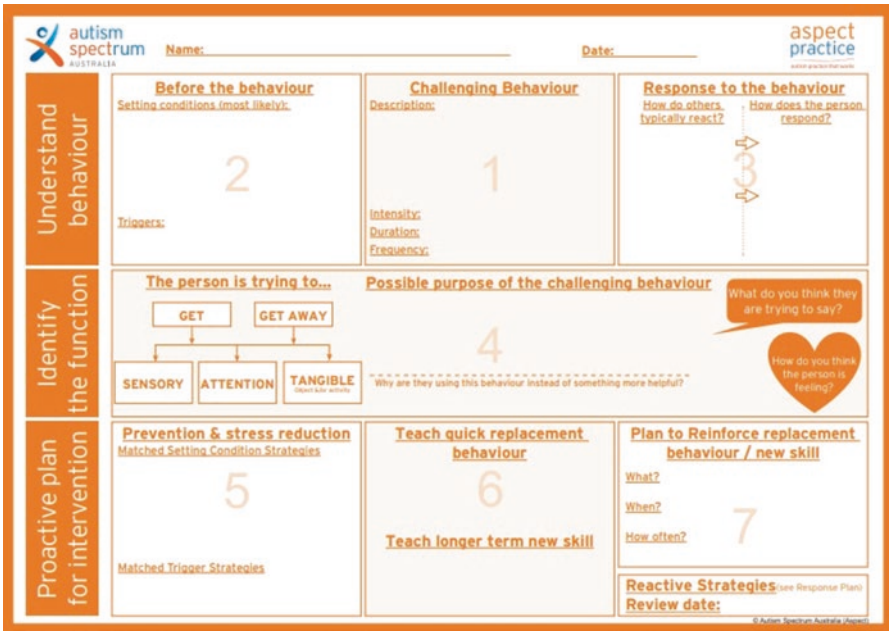

Fig. 6.1 Aspect's functional assessment and intervention planning tool
Note. This image of the Aspect tool is shared freely on the Aspect PBS webpage, and the author of this chapter is the internal Aspect "owner" of the PBS page as the National Manager of Aspect Practice

Tier 3

Aspect supports students at the Tier 3 level using the "wraparound" or case management approach that includes a coordinated approach across all of the settings in a person's life and a comprehensive approach that takes account of the whole context of a young person and their family (Becker-Cottrill, McFarland, & Anderson, 2003). This approach is most effective when families are supported with experienced community-based case management staff. This kind of support seems increasingly unavailable with the NSW Government having withdrawn from service provision. Aspect has piloted specialist clinics with Westmead Children's Hospital as an additional Tier 3 support.

Restricted Practices

Sometimes, Aspect school staff need to use crisis management strategies to keep individual students safe. This practice might be holding them so they don't run out into the road or moving them away from an area to somewhere calm and safe so they do not injure themselves. Aspect has a duty of care to ensure that we protect all of the people who use our services and follows a strict safeguarding policy to protect staff and service users.

Since 2009, all Aspect schools have routinely monitored restricted practices as defined and required by the NSW disability sector in the Ageing Disability and Health Care Policy and Practice Manual for Behaviour Support as part of a whole-organisation approach to the monitoring, reduction, and elimination of restricted practices where possible. This approach is incorporated into the Aspect organisational PBS policy, which is available on the Aspect website at https://www.autismspectrum.org.au/pbs.

This policy has been put into place because these safety strategies have the potential to be misused. For example, they may be used as an immediate quick fix rather than only as the last resort in a crisis, become overused and relied on, be used as a substitute for positive behaviour support strategies, or become a permanent part of a person's support, even when they might not be needed. When strategies are misused, there are often profoundly negative consequences for the people that these strategies are meant to help.

Every Aspect school has a nominated person who supports staff to monitor the use of restricted practices. All restricted practice is monitored by a central authorisation panel that includes executive staff, PBS specialists, and an external "independent" representative. All applications for the use of restricted practices have to include parent/carer consent, individual education plan, appropriate use of positive behaviour support with evidence of implementation, a crisis plan, and data on the use of any restricted practice. Restricted practices can only be authorised for a maximum of 6 months before they are reviewed again. Our goal is to remove the use of these practices over time with improved support and increased positive behaviours and skills for our clients. An internal review of restricted practice use in 2016 found that 3% of Aspect students experience restricted practices.

Staff Training

All school staff receive a basic induction in the Aspect Comprehensive Approach, which includes the PBS chapter. Initially, an interactive online module is used. Then, one-to-one training is provided on the site of the school. All staff receive a minimum of 1 day of PBS training annually, held on staff development days. Initial training covers the whole-school PBS approach and covers Aspect's PBS forms and processes as set out in the ACA. Annual PBS refresher training varies in content to

maintain staff interest as well as to address the needs of specific schools and feedback from the ACA-E self-evaluation survey. This training might focus on specific topics such as using data to work out function or focussing on implementation of plans. All staff receive mandatory accredited crisis de-escalation and safety training on an annual basis. Training records are kept centrally to ensure adherence to policy. Training is delivered by Aspect PBS specialists who work in or with the Aspect school system.

Since 2017, Aspect has piloted PBS training that introduces a competence component whereby staff must demonstrate PBS competencies and are given feedback on performance (Parsons & Rollyson, 2012). There is emerging evidence that good practice in PBS training for teachers to develop PBS plans can be effective (e.g. Strickland-Cohen & Horner, 2015). This process uses the definition, description, demonstration, and the practice and feedback process of competence training, and video scenarios are used to teach and assess the competence of staff. Competence is measured by assessing the quality of the behaviour support plans developed by staff from a video scenario and then a known student against criteria set out in the Behaviour Support Plan Quality Evaluation Guide (BSP QEII), which aims to improve the technical quality of plans (McVilly et al., 2012).

Aspect has also collaborated with a national government-funded service provider, Positive Partnerships, to develop a free online PBS module to support Tier 2 PBS intervention, which is used by Aspect school staff as refresher training. Experienced staff and the learning support team provide substantial on-the-job support for staff working in more challenging situations. Aspect schools also receive additional on-site training from visiting PBS specialists. This training includes classroom observations and group feedback to staff. Information is shared across the organisation through private organisational social media. Increasingly, training is targeted towards specific competence requirements for staff, recognising that not all staff need the same type and level of skills in PBS (Denne et al., 2013).

Collaboration with Parents and Others

Families are contacted very early in the process of developing behaviour support plans. School coordinators understand that families are the most committed, enduring, and knowledgeable source of support and are vital contributors to planning (Dunlap, Newton, Fox, Benito, & Vaughn, 2001). The process of functional behavioural assessment and intervention is best completed as a team, and parents share information that contributes towards the understanding of the behaviour. PBS seeks to build the capacity of families to understand and contribute to the PBS process and enable them to continue to problem-solve independently into the future. Aspect schools offer family training and support, either individually or in family workshops on an as-needed basis.

Aspect is involved in partnerships and consultancies to share theory and practice of education, including PBS with schools and school systems in the Asia-Pacific region. One mechanism to share information is a study tour. Tours allow staff from schools visiting Aspect to hear ACA-E theory and then to experience it in practice in the schools. Aspect hosts and participates in conference about autism, education, and positive behaviour support. This work is coordinated by the Aspect research team within the context of the ACA framework, with the aim of disseminating good practice.

Future Direction

Implementation

Since 2015, the number and range of formal reports into the education for students with disabilities indicate the strength of community and policy interest:

- Schools for All Children and Young People: Report of the Expert Panel on Students with Complex Needs and Challenging Behaviour in ACT (2015)
- NSW Ombudsman Inquiry into behaviour management in schools (2017)
- NSW Parliament report into Education of students with a disability or special needs (2017)
- Review of education for students with disability in Queensland state schools (2017)
- Investigation into Victorian government school expulsions August (2017)

Because no organisation is immune to the types of practices highlighted in these reports, Aspect staff review this information and consider recommendations. One key recommendation from these reports is that all schools need to implement whole-school PBS with fidelity, to be able to demonstrate that they are doing so with data collected and with these data being used to continually improve their practice.

While Aspect has a measure as part of the ACA to review PBS practice, it currently lies outside of the established PBS literature. To meet this recommendation, Aspect has developed a research proposal to independently evaluate the implementation of PBS in Aspect schools using the SWPBIS Tiered Fidelity Inventory (Algozzine et al., 2014) and Staff Perceptions of Behaviour and Discipline (SPBD; Feuerborn, Tyre, & King, 2015). There are always challenges maintaining consistency of positive attitudes and practice throughout a large organisation, and this research should further support a consistent approach to PBS across all Aspect schools. It is common to find that students with more severe disabilities and special education staff (Shuster et al., 2017) are not included in traditional mainstream whole-school PBS approaches. Aspect hopes to be able to adapt these approaches to enable students on the spectrum to participate in school-wide PBS.

Inclusion

Despite PBS requiring stakeholder involvement (Gore et al., 2013), people with disabilities have not often been included in PBS processes. It is common to find that traditional mainstream whole-school PBS approaches are not including students with more severe disabilities and special education staff (Shuster et al., 2017). Aspect hopes to adapt these approaches to enable all students on the spectrum to participate in school-wide PBS.

Aspect schools are developing approaches to include students at multiple levels in the design and delivery of PBS including the monitoring of restricted practices. To support this process, Aspect has also introduced a person-centred framework to support the everyday interactions of staff with people on the autism spectrum. Autism Initiatives in the UK developed this model (see http://www.autismminitiatives.org/what-we-do/our-approach/five-point-star.aspx). It encourages staff to take the perspective of the person they support to guide calm respectful autism-friendly interactions.

These developments will be part of the continual development of Aspect's PBS practice through our schools. Results will be embedded in the Aspect's Comprehensive Approach in order to promote consistency across all schools. Our practice and research are aimed to continue to provide best opportunities for people on the autism spectrum.

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Part IV
Asian Countries

Chapter 7
Behavioural Support in Singapore

Anuradha Dutt, Levan Lim, and Thana L. Thaver

Abstract Singapore follows a dual educational system consisting of mainstream schools and special (SPED) schools to better cater to the diverse needs of students with varying disabilities. SPED schools were initially supported by charity organisations starting in the 1960s but later came under the collaborative governance of the Ministry of Education (MOE)–Singapore, Voluntary Welfare Organizations (VWO), and the National Council of Social Service (NCSS). The Singapore educational landscape has evolved significantly with the enactment of specific policy changes to accommodate the escalating prevalence of students with disabilities. Changes are observed in terms of increased funding for professional training programmes, hiring of more school personnel, and redevelopment of the schools' infrastructure to improve service delivery for students with disabilities. Given the existing dual educational system in Singapore, this chapter describes (a) the historical and current systemic arrangements for educating students with disabilities, (b) variations in professional training provided to school personnel in behavioural supports across mainstream and SPED schools, and (c) a critical evaluation of the strengths and challenges experienced by school personnel when implementing behavioural supports in schools while highlighting future directions for research and practice that are pertinent to a multicultural context like Singapore.

Keywords Behavioural support · Disability · Professional training · Singapore

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Introduction

Both teacher training and research studies conducted in Singapore include some aspects of behavioural support. More generally, the dual education system distinguishes services for students with moderate to severe disabilities in special (SPED) schools and services for students with milder disabilities in mainstream schools. In Singapore, the terms "disability" and "special needs" are used interchangeably. Policy-based improvements in teacher practice and educational resources for both sectors have been intensified since 2005, a few months after Prime Minister Lee Hsien Loong announced the vision of an inclusive society with an explicit reference to persons with disabilities. A whole-school approach is adopted in most mainstream schools in Singapore that delivers a Multi-Tiered System of Support (MTSS) to all students. Students with behavioural and instructional needs in SPED schools receive intensive one-to-one supports, which share features of the MTSS academic-behavioural service model promoted in the USA. Research and training in SPED schools are exploring teachers' need for training in Functional Behavioural Assessment (FBA) and Positive Behaviour Supports (PBS). Within mainstream schools, there is an emergence of behavioural approaches in addition to humanistic and cognitive approaches to better support psychological needs of students with disabilities. There is considerable scope to strengthen the knowledge base in behavioural supports, the systematic implementation of behavioural support strategies, and rigorous monitoring of the progress of students with disabilities in both mainstream and SPED schools in Singapore.

Context

Singapore is a developed island city-state that ranks as one of the most prosperous nations in the world (Poon, 2015). Despite its relatively small size, it houses 5.4 million people from different ethnic backgrounds, namely, the Chinese, Malay, and Indians. Although this nation lacks in natural resources, its rapid growth over the past few decades could be attributed to the emphasis placed on its people and their development. To ensure that Singapore continues to thrive in a competitive, global market, the government's expenditure on education has been of utmost priority. According to the Program for International Student Assessment of the Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2016), Singapore ranks among the highest in educational achievement in economies across the world. The emphasis on academic excellence continues to be of paramount importance in the Singaporean culture. Singapore has followed a dual educational system, comprising mainstream schools and SPED schools (Lim & Nam, 2000). SPED schools cater to children with moderate to severe disabilities between the ages of 7 and 21 years. Currently, there are 19 SPED schools in Singapore educating more than 5000 students with moderate to severe developmental disabilities (List of SPED Schools, 2018).

The educational landscape in Singapore has evolved much since its independence in 1965. In the early 1960s, SPED schools and sheltered workshops for individuals with disabilities were under the purview of charity organisations or voluntary welfare organisations (VWOs). However, in 1988, the Minister of Education, Dr. Tony Tan, took on the responsibility to consider problems and needs of individuals with disabilities to help them integrate into society. He chaired the Advisory Council for the Disabled, and recommendations for the special education sector were submitted via the Report of the Advisory Council on the Disabled: Opportunities for the Disabled in November 1988 (Lim & Nam, 2000). One of the recommendations in the report was more involvement of Ministry of Education (MOE)–Singapore in the administration of SPED schools. This significant move within the special education sector changed the perception of SPED schools from a welfare provision towards an educational one. Currently, all 19 SPED schools are under the collective dominion of the MOE, the National Council of Social Service (NCSS), and various VWOs. Suggestions for practice to improve educational opportunities for students with special needs have included better teacher-student ratios in SPED schools and an increase in support staff such as rehabilitative staff and school psychologists (Lim & Nam, 2000).

Several changes in policy and service delivery for students with disabilities have also been initiated since Prime Minister Lee Hsien Loong's explicit reference to a vision of Singapore as an inclusive society, during his 2004 inaugural speech. With the aim of enabling students with disabilities to reach their full potential and eventually becoming contributing members of society, the Singapore government pledged greater support for children with disabilities across SPED and mainstream schools. This support came in the form of significant increases in funding allocated towards professional development of school personnel and restructuring of schools for children with disabilities (Chen & Tan, 2006). These efforts continued to be supported by the government of Singapore via the establishment of the first Enabling Masterplan (EM1; 2007–2011). The Steering Committee of the Enabling Masterplan in 2007 was led by representatives from the private and public sectors including members from various VWOs. The EM1 aimed to consolidate and expand programmes and services for children with disabilities. They included development of early intervention services, increasing subsidies for early intervention, extending SPED schools to students up to 21 years, and integrating services under the joint leadership of the Ministries of Health and Education. Other recommendations concerned financial and human resource supports for job placement, as well as training and employment of individuals with disabilities post-school years. Additional efforts via this report included increasing barrier-free access to buildings and public transportation to individuals with disabilities (Poon, 2015).

More recently, the MOE recognised the need to provide more customised support for students with severe disabilities in SPED schools and for students with challenging behaviours who require greater attention and care from teachers and support staff (Ministry of Education, 2011). According to a press release "Uplifting Pre-School and Special Education" (Ministry of Education, 2011, para 8), NCSS, in collaboration with MOE, increased resources for SPED schools through a new High Needs Grant since April 2011. This increased funding was used to enable SPED

schools to hire additional teaching associates for students with high needs in SPED schools, thereby ensuring smaller teacher-student ratios in SPED classrooms (MOE, 2011, para 9). Subsequently, the Enabling Masterplan 2 (2012–2016) continued its focus on early intervention, special education, transition plans from school to vocational training, employment opportunities for individuals with disabilities, community integration, and caregiver support (Poon, 2015).

Currently, there is no special education legislation in place for behavioural supports that is similar to legislation followed in the USA such as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA, 2004). What has been in existence is the Compulsory Education Act that has been implemented since 2003 whereby all typically developing children are mandated to be enrolled in mainstream schools by the age of 7. A recent report by MOE (November 2016), as announced by the Ministry's website, stated that the Compulsory Education Act will be extended to children with moderate to severe disabilities from 2019 onwards. This announcement marks a significant milestone in Singapore's efforts towards providing equal and appropriate learning accommodations for all children.

Capacity Building

Given the dual educational system followed in Singapore, various school personnel are involved in providing educational services to students with disabilities across mainstream and SPED schools. Mainstream schools are serviced by Allied Educators in Learning and Behavioural Supports (AED-LBSs) and Teachers trained in Special Needs (TSNs) as well as by coordinators in literacy (Learning Support Coordinator, LSC) and Math (Learning Support in Math, LSM) and allied school counsellors. SPED schools are staffed by special school teachers (SSTs) and teacher assistants. Educational Psychologists provide services to students with disabilities across both school systems. The current educational system for training professionals for a career in special education requires training for careers in both mainstream and SPED schools. Training of relevant professionals is the responsibility of the National Institute of Education (NIE), a teacher education institute within the Nanyang Technological University of Singapore, in collaboration with MOE (Walker, 2016).

Becoming an AED-LBS in a mainstream school or a SST in a SPED school requires a Diploma in Special Education (DISE). The DISE is a 1-year programme that consists of coursework that includes the identification of disabilities, assessing the strengths and weaknesses of students, planning interventions, and evaluating the effectiveness of instructional programming for students with disabilities. To enter the DISE programme, trainee SSTs need to be teaching in a SPED school. Following entry into the programme, both trainee SSTs and AED-LBSs are required to complete nine courses and a 10-week teaching practicum. To cater to the different teaching and support needs of the SSTs and AED-LBSs, both groups receive common yet differentiated content. Unlike SSTs, AED-LBSs are placed in mainstream schools

following graduation. Therefore, their coursework includes preparation of Individualised Educational Plans (IEPs) for students with disabilities, planning of "pull out" lessons, and working with mainstream school teachers to implement evidence-based practices to better support students with disabilities in their mainstream classrooms (Walker, 2016). Typically, interventions covered across these courses follow a Response-to-Intervention (RTI) model of monitoring the effectiveness of interventions and reaching student goals as proposed in their IEPs.

An Advanced Diploma in Special Learning and Behavioural Needs is also available to AED-LBSs and SSTs who have worked in the school system for multiple years. This 1-year in-depth programme offers five courses on evidence-based practices, behaviour management, technology and special needs, understanding school contexts and practices, and a research-to-practice project. The emphasis in this programme has an applied focus whereby students attend courses at NIE for 2 days a week and subsequently translate what they have learned into practice in their schools.

Certification in special needs support such as the Teacher trained in Special Needs (TSN) provides teachers with a deeper understanding of special needs and ways to differentiate the curriculum to meet the needs of diverse learners, such as students with autism spectrum disorders, attention deficit and hyperactivity disorders (ADHD), learning disabilities, emotional and behavioural difficulties, and physical/sensory disabilities. The TSN programme comprises one foundational module and three disability-specified courses. In light of the higher incidence of students with ADHD and learning disabilities, both these courses are currently compulsory.

Graduate level masters programmes are also offered at NIE in the field of special education and applied psychology to provide in-depth study of current research in knowledge-based theory and practice. One such programme is the Master of Arts in Applied Psychology (MAAP) programme. This 3- to 4-year programme equips its graduate students with skills in psychoeducational assessment, literacy interventions, and behavioural interventions typically used in schools for students with disabilities who require more intensive, one-on-one support within the MTSS model. The coursework consists of four core modules, four electives, two practicums in schools, and one dissertation. Students who complete this programme become registered educational psychologists in Singapore's school systems.

Although NIE offers several diploma, degree, masters, and doctoral level programmes in the fields of special education and psychology, other non-profit organisations (e.g. Autism Resource Centre, ARC) and various ministries within the government (e.g. Ministry of Social and Family Development, MSF) provide numerous workshops for continued professional support and development. These workshops help teachers update their skills and tool kits to provide better service delivery options to students with disabilities within their classrooms. Skills learned via these workshops include modules on functional communication training, teaching students with disabilities choice-making skills, use of prompting procedures, evaluating preferences and interests to motivate students, etc.

Tiers of Support

A whole-school framework is typically employed in mainstream schools across Singapore to promote an environment of wellbeing and healthy learning for students beyond academics (Chong, Lee, Tan, Wong, & Yeo, 2013). This framework is similar to the multi-tiered RTI model whereby the intensity of interventions provided is matched to the severity of a student's learning or behavioural issues, or both (Gresham, 2004). Typically, the service delivery model followed across the mainstream schools in Singapore comprises a three-tiered approach that involves support at the primary, secondary, and tertiary levels.

Services across all tiers are addressed by personnel within each school with little or no external support. At the primary level, universal programmes aiming towards proactive identification of at-risk children and mental health prevention are adopted for all students across a school. At the secondary level, support for learning, emotion, and behaviour is provided to at-risk children via "pull out" groups or small-group remediation programmes. Tertiary level interventions involve one-to-one support for students with severe learning and behavioural needs. In mainstream schools, secondary and tertiary level supports are typically provided by AEDs (learning and behavioural support), school counsellors, educational psychologists, and TSNs staffed in the school. In SPED schools, in-class tertiary level support is provided by SSTs, teaching assistants, and educational psychologists.

School-wide programmes at the primary level involve affective and pastoral care programmes infused within the general curriculum. A social-emotional learning (SEL) framework for these programmes was initiated by the Ministry of Education in 2005 (Social and Emotional Learning, MOE, n.d.). The SEL framework complements other humanistic, cognitive, and behavioural approaches adopted as secondary level interventions in mainstream schools. Content within the SEL framework can include life skills training, character and citizenship education, service learning, and Community Involvement Programs (CIP). Typically, these programmes aim to encourage students to develop adaptive skills and strategies to manage common day-to-day challenges related to the negative effects of peer pressure, cyber wellness, healthy means of emotional regulation, as well as fostering empathy and concern for others. Critical to the SEL framework is the development of five core socio-emotional and behavioural competencies among students (i.e. self-awareness, social awareness, self-management, relationship management, and responsible decision-making). In the implementation of school-wide interventions, teachers work to incorporate SEL principles in their lesson plans via project work, group activities, and classroom behaviour management practices (Chong et al., 2013).

Secondary level interventions focus on more specialised care and help for at-risk children across academic and behavioural domains. At the first level of secondary interventions, teachers may provide a mix of differentiated instruction, employ behavioural management strategies, or involve parents to provide optimal support to address a student's learning and behavioural needs. If these measures seem ineffective, remediation initiatives outside the classroom that move beyond instructional

programming provided by teachers are employed (Chong et al., 2013). For instance, remediation plans via small group instruction are provided by AED-LBSs or allied school counsellors to improve a student's interpersonal functioning, on-task engagement, stress reduction, conflict management skills, and improved literacy skills (e.g. School-based Dyslexia Remediation, SDR). These programmes usually follow an eclectic mix of humanistic, behavioural, or cognitive-behavioural approaches to intervention (Chong et al., 2013; Yeo & Choi, 2011).

In situations when learning and behavioural issues still persist, tertiary level or individual intervention plans are selected. In these circumstances, either school counsellors or AED-LBSs, or both, may work individually with the student or liaise with external professionals or agencies to provide appropriate intervention services to students and their families. In the same vein, SPED schools use tertiary level interventions for their students with moderate to severe disabilities via Individualised Educational Plans (IEPs).

Practice

School-wide programmes adopted in Singapore's mainstream schools usually aim to foster a safe and healthy learning environment for all students. For instance, a few schools adopt approaches such as Transactional Analysis (TA) and Positive Psychology to strengthen favourable teacher-student relationships and create a culture of care within their school community (Strengthening Positive Teacher Student Relationships: Learning from Journeys of Seven Schools, n.d.). Anecdotal reports from school staff that implemented the TA approach indicated that understanding the different ego states, considering a student's life script, altering one's ego state to achieve more effective communication, and using TA strategies such as "positive strokes" among colleagues and students have resulted in an affirmative teaching and learning environment. Similarly, constructive gains in student wellbeing that were reported by school personnel embrace the Positive Psychology philosophy of Positive Emotions, Engagement, Relationships, Meaning, and Accomplishment (i.e. PERMA model). School teachers and students reported that strategies such as engaging in mindfulness exercises, using character strength vocabulary, and participating in gratitude activities, have created a heightened state of self-awareness and self-management among members of their school community.

Secondary level interventions such as restorative practices are also used with students who require more specialised care in mainstream schools (Strengthening Positive Teacher Student Relationships: Learning from Journeys of Seven Schools, n.d). Some schools that focus on assisting students to rebuild strained relationships with their parents, teachers, and peers employ this approach as an adaptive behaviour management model. Activities such as "circle time" are used to teach (i.e. explore ideas in a nonthreatening environment), support (i.e. train social and emotional skills), and redirect (i.e. address issues) students' efforts towards repairing and rehabilitating strained relationships.

Tertiary level supports in mainstream and SPED schools adopt various function-based behavioural models such as Applied Behaviour Analysis (ABA) and structured teaching approaches (School Based Support: Launch of the AMS-MOH Clinical Practice Guidelines on Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder, n.d.). These approaches use several antecedent or proactive-based strategies (e.g. visual schedules, timers, rules on expected behaviour, pre-corrections, organised work areas, etc.) and consequence or reactive-based strategies (e.g. reward charts, token economy, etc.) to help students replace inappropriate classroom behaviours with more socially acceptable alternatives. These function-based approaches and strategies are taught in the various teacher training programmes at NIE such as the DISE and SST diploma programmes.

Contributions

Special education in Singapore has achieved significant milestones in the past 50 years since its independence (Chen & Tan, 2006; Lim & Nam 2000; Poon, 2013; Walker, 2016). These advancements include allocation of more funds for improved access to services and supports for different disabilities, new policy initiatives and changes, new teacher training programmes in special education, renewal and restructuring of physical infrastructure of various SPED schools and early childhood centres, greater financial support for staff, innovations in instructional programming via mobile technology, and growing parent movements. Despite these developments, Singapore's special education sector still has a long way to go towards creating and designing services that are comprehensive, equitable, accessible, and inclusive for all students.

A major challenge that persists is the lack of in-depth training and expertise in special education among school staff in mainstream and SPED schools. Although NIE provides foundational knowledge in special education via its diploma and certificate programmes for AED-LBSs, SSTs, and mainstream teachers, more comprehensive on-site training and coaching to manage diverse needs of students with special needs in both mainstream and SPED schools are needed. Hence, to address these training needs, Dutt, Chen, and Nair (2018) conducted an exploratory study to investigate the level of skills and training needs reported by 378 SSTs and 38 teaching assistants in FBA and BIPs within 7 SPED schools in Singapore. This study was funded by the Office of Educational Research, NIE. Results of this study indicated a high need for training among SSTs and teaching associates in (a) effective behavioural intervention strategies to manage severe challenging behaviours (e.g. differential reinforcement procedures), (b) behaviour assessment procedures to identify the function of challenging behaviours (e.g. direct and indirect measures used in an FBA), and (c) skill training programmes to teach functional skills to replace chal-

lenging behaviours (e.g. use of various graduated prompting procedures). Being the first study of its kind in Singapore to explore training needs of SPED school personnel in this area of behavioural supports, the results of this study provide insightful evidence to inform the creation of professional development programmes in FBA and BIPs, customised to the diverse training needs of various groups of school personnel. Currently, a second study by Dutt and colleagues is underway, which evaluates the effectiveness of a customised web-based training programme in behavioural supports across SSTs in SPED schools within Singapore. Components of training are based on the needs assessment results obtained in the previous study. Based on the results of these studies, it is evident that there is a call for SPED school personnel (i.e. AED-LBSs and SSTs) to receive training with intensity equal to, if not greater than, their mainstream school teachers (Poon et al., 2013; Steering Committee, 2011; Walker & Musti-Rao, 2016).

The RTI model is a problem-solving approach to address the needs of students with diverse academic and behavioural needs across the three different tiers of support (Musti-Rao, Hawkins, & Tan, 2011). Although mainstream and SPED schools use the tiered system of support to deliver various interventions using different approaches (e.g. positive psychology, behavioural approaches, etc.), school personnel are not rigorous in using progress monitoring tools in order to make decisions on the success or effectiveness of the various interventions provided. Possible reasons for the lack of progress monitoring in schools could be the limited number of SPED support staff allocated to each mainstream school (Walker, 2016) and the high drop-out rates of SSTs in SPED schools due to lower salary incentives when compared to their general education counterparts (Lim & Nam, 2000). Hence, the insufficient emphasis on data-driven approaches to service delivery and the dualistic nature of services make it difficult to provide constructive and inclusive learning accommodations to students with special needs.

Currently, services are provided by various government and non-government agencies and organisations. The integration and accessibility of these services for children with special needs can be further improved to provide a more holistic system of care and support. For instance, assessment and various therapies such as occupational therapy, speech therapy, and physical therapy are not provided in-house at SPED or mainstream schools. Families must usually approach hospitals and medical centres to access these services. Furthermore, the lack of communication between the various professionals involved in the care of children with disabilities makes it difficult to provide holistic and effective services to families in need. Hence, this fragmentation of services calls for a shift in a multidisciplinary approach to a transdisciplinary model to ensure comprehensive, coordinated, and accessible service delivery options to all children with disabilities (Chen & Tan, 2006).

Conclusion

This chapter provides a synopsis of the many positive changes within the special needs context in Singapore since 2005 that have increasingly promoted whole-school and system-wide infrastructural support for students with disabilities in both mainstream and special schools. These changes have enabled the emergence of PBS as an ecologically valid and viable approach to addressing learning and behavioural needs of students for teachers and other allied professionals in Singapore. There is certainly more to be done to improve and maintain fidelity of practice in instructional and behavioural supports, and this chapter has noted its progress and limitations in the field of special needs education in Singapore.

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Chapter 8
Behavioural Support in the Republic of Korea

Yoon-Suk Hwang, Jeong-Ah Ku, Mi-Jin Song, and Jae-Eun Noh

Abstract The provision of learning support for students with challenging behaviour has been an ongoing practice in Korean special and inclusive education settings. However, it was only recently that behavioural support was specifically included in the Ministry of Education's special education policy. For example, improvements in the capacity of special education teachers to provide behavioural support were documented as a focus area in the 4th Special Education 5-year Development Plan (2013–2017). Subsequently, Education Offices have developed and distributed behavioural support manuals to teachers of schools within their jurisdiction. The recent developments also include a shift in behavioural support practices. Current practices stress the importance of the context and environments within which students' problem behaviour take place. This is a noticeable change from traditional approaches, which place a focus on an individual student who exhibited problem behaviours. In this chapter, we examine characteristics of positive behaviour support (PBS) in Korea; the social and educational backgrounds that necessitated the new initiatives in behaviour management; newly introduced and implemented behavioural support policies for students with disabilities; educational, administrative, and financial support for behaviour management; and research conducted to investigate the effects of PBS interventions in Korean education settings, along with school members' experiences of participating in and implementing PBS. We conclude this chapter with future directions for PBS in Korea.

Keywords Positive behaviour support · Challenging behaviour · Disability · Education · Human rights · Korea

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Introduction

Challenging behaviour is a pressing issue in Korean education. Challenging behaviour not only compromises academic, social, and emotional development of students who exhibit and are exposed to such behaviour but also creates barriers to the implementation of successful inclusive education (National Institute for Special Education, 2003). In addition, students' challenging behaviour has been frequently documented as a main stressor to teachers and a major contributor to teachers' motivation to leave the teaching profession (Sharplin, O'Neill, & Chapman, 2011). Over the past 30 years, positive behaviour support (PBS) has been established and administered in the USA to support behaviour management of people with disabilities (Dunlap, Sailor, Horner, & Sugai, 2009). PBS refers to the application of positive behavioural interventions and systems to achieve socially significant behaviour change (Sugai et al., 1999). The essential goal of PBS is to improve the quality of lives of people who receive its supports and participate in interventions (Dunlap et al., 2009).

PBS has been recently applied in Korean education as a new initiative in the management of students' challenging behaviour (Park, 2013). In this chapter, we examine characteristics of PBS in Korea; the social and educational backgrounds that necessitated the new initiatives in behaviour management; newly introduced and implemented behavioural support policies for students with disabilities; educational, administrative, and financial support for behaviour management; and research conducted to investigate the effects of PBS interventions in Korean education settings, along with school members' experiences of participating in and implementing PBS. We conclude this chapter with future directions for PBS in Korea.

Characteristics of Positive Behaviour Support

The major characteristic of PBS in Korea is its top-down and policy-driven planning, which has contributed to the active research in schools and other educational settings and across all three tiers of support. A succession of 5-year plans has advanced inclusive education systematically. The introduction of PBS to inclusion in the 4th Special Education 5-year Development Plan (2013–2017) allowed the Metropolitan and Provincial Offices of Education to lead the process of piloting PBS in schools (Ministry of Education, 2013). More recently, inclusive education support teams under Special Education Support Centres are offering consultations on PBS interventions as planned in the 5th Special Education 5-year Development Plan (Ministry of Education, 2017a).

An exemplar pilot program supported by Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education showed that an established PBS team, comprising a special education professor, special education teachers, professional counsellors, therapists, and social workers, provided a variety of services to help both inclusive and special schools to become

equipped for the development and implementation of PBS programs tailored to meet school requirements (Lee, Park, & Park, 2015; Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2016, 2017). Services include PBS training support, school consultations, meeting with parents, and supervision for student mentors, university students who were recruited to provide one-on-one mentoring to students with disabilities. In the case of inclusive schools, supports are given to special classrooms only, special classrooms and inclusive classrooms together, special classrooms and all classrooms in the same year together, or to the whole school (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2016).

Such attempts sparked interest in systematically and collaboratively managing the problem behaviour of students with disabilities and brought changes to service provision. A shift in focus was observed from an individual student who exhibits problem behaviour to the context and environments within which his or her problem behaviour takes place (Lee, 2015). This refocusing led to the seeking of improvements in practices for behaviour management by changing school culture, working with parents of students with disabilities, and building community-based support networks.

The strength of this top-down and policy-driven approach lies in its expeditious establishment of behaviour management practices by reaching schools across the country. It also could provide most special teachers with opportunities to learn about PBS and apply it to their teaching practices. Despite its efficiency and benefits, this top-down approach can pressurise unprepared teachers and schools to implement PBS, even though they are aware of the difficulty of behaviour management and of their lack of expertise (Park, 2013).

A second characteristic of PBS in the Korean context is that PBS programs have been mostly led by special education (Lee, 2015). Because PBS refers to a process of developing behavioural support plans and building school culture for both elimination of problem behaviour and improvement in social and academic achievement, collaboration is a key for its successful implementation. In this respect, school-based PBS programs, particularly in general schools, are lacking in their development of working partnerships with other systems (Lee et al., 2015). It is not a simple process for general schools to initiate and implement such programs with only a couple of highly motivated teachers or dispatched experts.

Human Rights of People with Disabilities and PBS

Historically, challenging behaviours have been viewed as residing within an individual, and restrictive and punitive behaviour management have been applied to reduce such behaviours (Sugai et al., 1999). Positive behaviour support emerged in the 1980s when the disability rights movement and normalisation movement called for deinstitutionalisation of people with developmental disabilities and advocated their right to community living and employment to achieve a life as culturally normative as possible (Morris & Horner, 2016). Such movements established two

principles of an effective intervention for people with disabilities; it should be functional for all people and decrease undesirable events as well as promote lifestyle outcomes that are substantive, lasting, and self-determined (Morris & Horner, 2016).

Awareness of the human rights of people with disabilities coincided with the introduction of PBS in Korea. As the 3rd Special Education 5-year Development Plan (2008–2012) approached its end, the scandal of young students with hearing impairment having been sexually assaulted for 5 years by a school principal and other staff members captured public awareness (Woo & Kim, 2016). The Ministry of Education stationed special education experts at each Metropolitan and Provincial Office of Education to run a monitoring team for the protection of human rights of students with disabilities and to conduct site inspections. This policy was embraced in the 4th Special Education 5-year Development Plan, and debates on the importance of problem behaviour reduction have arisen out of concerns regarding how to protect human rights of students with disabilities and ensure quality inclusive education.

Policies on human rights protection have been diversified since media attention on sexual assault. In the beginning, protection policies were centred around operating a monitoring team with professionals, but, later, they were expanded to include monthly monitoring reports to a human rights protection team in the Korea National Institute for Special Education, nationwide workshops for monitoring teams, and an annual competition for human rights case studies (Ministry of Education, 2017a). Recently, the human rights protection monitoring team was renamed as the human rights supports team (Ministry of Education, 2017a). The subsequent 5th Special Education 5-year Development Plan strengthens the authority of human rights support teams, consisting of police officers specialised in sexual violence, parents or guardians of students with disabilities, sex education experts, and professional counsellors (Ministry of Education & Incheon Metropolitan City Office of Education, 2017). Their function is to prevent and intervene in school violence (e.g. sexual violence) during formal- and after-school hours as well as to be called in as advisors or people for reference.

Policies for Behaviour Management

In the Republic of Korea, the 4th Special Education 5-year Development Plan (2013–2017) started to embrace the notion of PBS in policies. The first driving task of the Plan is the enhancement of educational capacities and the improvement of educational outcomes in the field of special education. The other three driving tasks of the Plan are advancing special education support (Task 2), creating a human rights friendly atmosphere for students with disabilities (Task 3), and reinforcing the competence of students with disabilities in active social participation (Task 4). A target to achieve Task 1 is promoting the professionalism of special education teachers. Suggested supports for this target include the development and

distribution of the intervention guidelines for behavioural problems by type of disabilities (Busan Metropolitan City Office of Education, 2014), provision of behaviour intervention teacher training by the types of disabilities, and establishment of PBS research societies.

The Korean Ministry of Education announced the 2017 Special Education Operations Plan (Ministry of Education, 2017b), a yearly plan to achieve the 4th Special Education 5-year Development Plan. The 2017 Operations Plan acknowledged the importance of professional development for special education teachers and explicitly referred to "positive behaviour support" when suggesting teacher training for behaviour management. The Operations Plan also includes suggested actions for Metropolitan and Provincial Offices of Education. Actions include the provision of training supports for key areas of special education and the establishment of collaborative research societies for inclusive education in the areas of curriculum, individualised education, and behaviour support.

Following the direction of the 4th Special Education 5-year Development Plan and the 2017 Special Education Operations Plan, the National Institute for Special Education and the Gyeongsangnam-do Provincial Institute for Special Education (i.e. the only provincial institute specialising in special education) provide special teachers with basic and intensive training programs for problem behaviour intervention and PBS to achieve policy objectives set by the Ministry of Education. Each Metropolitan and Provincial Office of Education attempts to implement policies by utilising training programs of the National Institute for Special Education (group training, remote training) and by making plans for in-house training programs. Outcome analysis of the 4th Special Education 5-year Development Plan showed that disparities in individual teacher capacities, challenging behaviour in students with special education needs, and inappropriate measures to deal with problem behaviours hinder the effectiveness of inclusive education (Ministry of Education, 2017a).

The Korean Ministry of Education announced the 5th Special Education 5-year Development Plan (2018–2022) in December 2017, which continues to emphasise the necessity of teacher training for behavioural support for students with special education needs as part of teacher professional development. The 5th Special Education 5-year Development Plan also aims to strengthen inclusive education by forming inclusive education support teams in Special Education Support Centres, increasing the number of regional support centres to provide tailored education services to meet students' diverse learning needs by disability types, and operating a treatment support team that consists of doctors, academics, and therapists. The roles of the treatment support team are to assess the functions of students' challenging behaviour and equip teachers and parents of students with challenging behaviour with knowledge and skills of behaviour management (Ministry of Education, 2017a). Other roles include the provision of counselling services and organisation of training to inform how to restructure school environments in a way that is conducive to implementation of systematic and comprehensive school-based positive behaviour support (Ministry of Education, 2017a).

Educational, Administrative, and Financial Support for Behaviour Management

The 2015 revised Special Education Curriculum (National Curriculum) offers guidelines for teaching and learning students with special education needs (Ministry of Education, 2015). The guidelines suggest the use of PBS, assistive technology devices, and communication aids when necessary to increase student participation. They also provide detailed information on how to manage challenging behaviours in line with achievement criteria and teaching-learning methods. Examples of the guidelines include problem behaviour reduction and desirable behaviour formation carried out during Physical Education and Rehabilitation (one of the elective subjects). They involve prevention of maladaptive behaviour, promotion of positive behaviour through behaviour management, encouragement of student participation in play and activities to promote adaptive behaviour, and implementation of PBS based on functional behaviour assessment (FBA).

The Korean Ministry of Education has systematically introduced a new way of managing problem behaviour since the launch of the 4th Special Education 5-year Development Plan. The first stage in 2014 involved the development of behavioural support manuals and booklets (Busan Metropolitan City Office of Education, 2014) and the distribution of the materials to special schools and inclusive schools with special classes (Ministry of Education, 2016). A total of 14 special schools were then selected to pilot PBS programs in 2015–2016, and successful programs were introduced to special schools and inclusive schools with special classes (Ministry of Education, 2016). Lastly, implementation of PBS programs was extended to 173 special schools nationwide with financial support in 2017 (Ministry of Education, 2017c). Special grants were allocated to each special school catering for students with (a) intellectual disabilities, (b) emotional and behavioural disabilities, and (c) visual, hearing, and physical impairment (Ministry of Education, 2017c). The Korean Ministry of Education distributed the special grants to individual schools via the Metropolitan and Provincial Offices of Education. The special grants were used to support activities required for the development and implementation of PBS, such as devising PBS intervention programs tailored to meet learning requirements of students at individual, classroom, and/or school levels and employing staff to deliver intervention programs.

Research on PBS: Intervention Studies

With the growing interest in PBS in Korea, the first research paper on PBS was published in 2000, and the amount of research has rapidly increased since 2008 (Chung & Noh, 2011). Studies on PBS programs in the Korean context sought to

understand the effects of PBS for children and students with diverse challenging behaviours (Kim & Park, 2014; Lee & Lee, 2015, 2017; Yoo & Lee, 2016), for teachers (Cho, 2007; Kim, 2014; Kim, 2008; Son & Park, 2015), and for external experts or their PBS-related experiences (Kim, Kim, & Park, 2015; Park, 2013).

The majority of studies implemented class-wide PBS in diverse contexts, such as inclusive day-care centres (Lee & Lee, 2017; Bae, Lee, & Cho, 2016; Choi, 2016), kindergartens (e.g. Kim et al., 2016), and primary schools (Lee & Lee, 2015; B. K. Kim & Park, 2017; Y. R. Kim & Park, 2014, 2017). This research expanded its reach to preschoolers as well as school-aged students. Positive outcomes have been reported as demonstrated by decreases in problem behaviour (e.g. self-injury, aggressive behaviour, out-of-seat, and non-compliance) and increases in desirable behaviour (e.g. social skills, self-monitoring, and respectful behaviour).

School-wide PBS was implemented in an inclusive primary school (Moon & Lee, 2016) and a special school (Y. R. Kim & Park, 2014). Findings of both studies demonstrated intervention effects for students who received individual support (e.g. decreases in problem behaviour) as well as all students exposed to universal support (e.g. increased satisfaction with school life). Individual support involves students with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (So & Kim, 2016), cerebral palsy (Kim et al., 2016), intellectual disabilities (Yoo & Lee, 2016), and autism spectrum disorders (Y. R. Kim & Park, 2014). Some studies suggest the potential of PBS in general schools to prevent school violence (Kim & Noh, 2013; Kim & Ahn, 2017; Son & Ju, 2012).

It is noticeable that universal support for all students regardless of disabilities is offered class-wide or school-wide as well as individual support for a target group and target group intervention (e.g. B. K. Kim & Park, 2017; Y. R. Kim & Park, 2017). However, the majority of PBS intervention studies provided short-term interventions (ranging from 2 to 9 months) with limited number of intervention sessions. In addition, it is unknown whether such intervention programs generate long-lasting effects. These limitations warrant further examination of systematic intervention programs and their sustainable intervention effects.

Research on PBS: Experience of Implementing PBS

The lived experiences of those people implementing PBS are an important concern in the adoption of this movement. Recent studies examined perceptions and experiences of implementing PBS. Thematic analyses generated five themes: (a) Understanding of problem behaviour, (b) understanding of PBS and its application, (c) challenges of implementing PBS, (d) perceived benefits of PBS, and (e) requirements for successful implementation of PBS. These themes were similar to the kinds of concerns raised in the USA (Bambara, Nonnemacher, & Kern, 2009; Broskey, 2017).

Understanding of Problem Behaviour

Problem behaviour itself was observed in students placed in inclusive classrooms regardless of disabilities, although problem behaviour exhibited by students with disabilities can have particularly detrimental effects on their peer relationships, learning, and development (Lee, 2015). Out-of-seat behaviour, self-stimulation behaviour, shouting, non-compliance, and helplessness are often observed in young children with disabilities (Lee, 2015), while interrupting behaviour, self-stimulating behaviour, aggressive behaviour, and sexualised behaviour are reported for primary school children (Park, Park, & Kim, 2017).

Understanding of PBS and Its Application

A survey study with 400 secondary teachers found that, despite the interest in PBS reported by the majority of teachers, only 27% applied PBS to their teaching practices (Baek, 2014). One qualitative study presented teachers' negative attitudes towards PBS, capturing their resistance to change, the feeling of being burdened with workload pressure, and scepticism about its applicability to students with severe disabilities (Park, 2013). Special teachers are taking responsibility and are playing a leading role for PBS planning and implementation, which is possibly because PBS has been driven mainly by special education professionals, and they are trying to build their capacity by studying further at graduate school or making good use of published papers (Lee, 2015).

Challenges of Implementing PBS

Special education teachers found it challenging to implement PBS because of difficulties in intervention, working conditions, and human resources (Kim et al., 2015; Lee, 2015; Park et al., 2017). Such difficulties are often closely related. The lack of model programs and time-consuming interventions combined with increased workload and overcrowded curriculum created hardship for special education teachers to implement PBS successfully. They encountered difficulties in building a collaborative relationship with key people constituting students' ecological environments (Kim et al., 2015; Lee, 2015). Special education teachers also reported other constraints such as inadequate skills and experience in PBS, insufficient long-term and continuous support, and the lack of understanding and shared responsibility by school staff. Having no tangible outcome of implementing PBS programs also lowered their self-confidence (Lee, 2015).

Perceived Benefits of PBS

Despite such challenges, special teachers involved in PBS noted its benefits. Identified benefits of PBS include meaningful collaboration among teachers, parents, and external experts and improved relationship with students and acquaintances (Kim et al., 2015). Other benefits include improved quality and quantity of resources that students receive from their acquaintances, acquisition of knowledge and skills, network building, and personal reward and personal growth (Kim et al., 2015).

Requirements of Successful Implementation of PBS

PBS training participants stressed the importance of school-based PBS in the form of universal support, although they acknowledged the necessity of individual support with a long-term targeted approach (Lee, 2015; Lee et al., 2015). They noted administrative support and human resource support as ingredients for successful implementation of PBS. They pointed out that raising teachers' interests in PBS and their awareness of the potential benefits of PBS does not necessarily lead to successful PBS practices but that the provision of practical information about the implementation and collaboration skills does help (Baek, 2014; Kim et al., 2015). Additional suggestions for successful implementation of PBS concern long-term and systematic support (Kim et al., 2015), the development of manuals and protocols to ensure the participation and collaboration of key people (Lee, 2015), organisation and operation of PBS teams, administrative support (Lee, 2015; Park et al., 2017), and PBS training for parents and teachers (Park et al., 2017).

Remaining Issues and Future Direction for Policies

Considering the characteristics related to behaviour management policies and the collective experience of implementing PBS, three suggestions can be made to address remaining issues: (a) long-term school-wide support and school-wide PBS combining both universal support and individual support, (b) changes in special education-driven policies and the top-down approach to policies, and (c) greater focus on how to contextualise PBS to meet implementation requirements of Korean education settings.

Given that the 5th Special Education 5-year Development Plan includes plans for more expanded PBS programs and greater support for practical application than the 4th Plan, positive changes are expected. Planned activities include raising the status of the Special Education Support Centre under each Metropolitan and Provincial

Office of Education to Metropolitan and Provincial Institute of Special Education, which will become a key agency for PBS implementation by organising training for key areas of special education, building networks of community-based professionals for inclusive education, and mobilising human and financial resources for behaviour management, human rights protection, prevention of school violence, and sex education (Ministry of Education, 2017a).

Future policies should ensure systematic implementation and expansion of PBS programs through the provision of long-term support for human, administrative, and financial resources (Ministry of Education, 2018). The provision of such support can encourage key people who are part of the students' ecological environment/s to implement PBS in a collaborative manner. This bottom-up approach is expected to address a potential danger of taking the top-down approach and special education-led policies, which will better ensure quality and fidelity of PBS intervention. In line with this direction, the annual budget for PBS programs in 2018 is secured to the similar size of the budget in 2017 (Ministry of Education, 2018). Discussed policies are expected to contribute towards context-appropriate adaptation and implementation of PBS programs.

Conclusion

There has been much discussion about PBS in Korea. Until 2012, attempts to apply PBS to educational settings were largely made by individual teachers, schools, and researchers. In the last 5 years, the Korean Ministry of Education put PBS high on the education agenda, as seen in its inclusion of PBS in the medium- and long-term Development Plans and the development and distribution of guideline books for problem behaviour intervention. A key influence on schools' recent interests in PBS was the decision made by the central government, such as the Ministry of Education and the National Office of Education, to allocate special grants to sponsor teacher training and to pilot PBS programs in selected schools.

This centralised approach created opportunities as well as challenges for teachers and schools in Korea. PBS in Korea spread rapidly despite initial resistance due to the centralised dissemination approach and its being developed in Western settings. This approach entailed issues of contextualising PBS to individual school environments and adapting it to the Korean context. The universality of managing problem behaviour may have outweighed the specificity of cultural differences. Awareness of human rights of people with disabilities over time and the gaps between human rights standards and traditional approaches to the problem behaviour of people with disabilities may have contributed to acceptance of PBS as a key behaviour intervention practice. Given that PBS has spread in Korea within a short period of time, it will be important to objectively examine its practicality and effectiveness and to monitor the sustainability of its effects.

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Chapter 9
Behavioural Support in Mainland China

Nan Zhu and Guanglun Michael Mu

Abstract Learning in Regular Classroom (LRC) is an indigenised form of inclusive education in the Chinese context. Over three decades of LRC practices, children with special needs have become increasingly visible in regular schools. In recent years, behavioural support has been recognised in Chinese special and inclusive education. Educational inclusion has been acknowledged in policy-making, but policy discourses are more descriptive than prescriptive. Educational practice has used behavioural support methods to reduce problem behaviours of individual students with special educational needs (SEN), and teacher standards have referred to behaviour management, but preservice and in-service training has not been focused on building teacher capacity in behavioural support. Researchers have studied behavioural support for individual students with special needs in Mainland China and have published empirical evidence on the effectiveness of widely used Western interventions (e.g. applied behavioural analysis, functional behavioural assessment, and positive behaviour support) in the Chinese context.

Keywords Behavioural support · Learning environment · Teacher education · Learning in Regular Classroom (LRC) · Mainland China

Introduction

As a sharp contrast to the image of an emerging economic giant, China has yet to develop a proactive and progressive education system of quality and equality that can ensure education rights for all children, especially those with special educational needs (SEN). Most children with disabilities were traditionally

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accommodated within a special education system. Since the *Reform and Opening-Up Policy* in 1978, special education scholars and practitioners have had increasing opportunities to communicate discourses, practices, and theories about inclusive education with the Global West and with the USA in particular. In the late 1980s, the "Learning in Regular Classroom" (LRC) programme became a nationally institutionalised form of inclusive education in China. Since LRC commenced, a growing population of special needs children has received education in regular schools. As more and more students with SEN in urban China access additional support in resource classrooms in regular schools, special education schools are actively involved in outreach efforts to identify and support children with SEN in economically disadvantaged communities (e.g. rural and remote regions). However, behavioural support has come to the attention of Chinese inclusive education only in recent years.

This chapter presents a panoramic and penetrating overview of policy, research, and practice in relation to positive behaviour support (PBS) for students with special educational needs in China. To clarify, PBS generally refers to the application of positive behavioural interventions and systems to achieve socially meaningful and desirable behaviour change (Sugai et al., 2000). The chapter has four parts. First, a review of special education policies and legislation affecting students with SEN shows an openness to inclusive education. Second, research and practice pertinent to PBS for these students have been focused on tertiary interventions for individuals rather than primary prevention for schools through universal programmes and secondary prevention programmes for groups of students at risk (Horner, Sugai, Todd, & Lewis-Palmer, 2005). Third, inspection of the effect of Western evidence-based interventions on student behaviours in the Chinese context highlights the strengths and challenges of PBS for students with SEN. Finally, some implications for policy and practice are considered.

Policy and Legislation Related to Special Education

Unlike many developed countries that typically have specific and explicit legislation about special education (e.g. Individuals with Disability Education Act [IDEA] in the USA, 1990), China does not have a national overarching special education law to legitimate the need for, and the use of, behavioural interventions and supports for students who are thwarted by, or at risk of, problem behaviours that impede school success. However, more generic laws such as the *Compulsory Education Law* (The Central People's Government of People's Republic of China [PRC], 2006) and the *Law of Protection of Persons with Disabilities* (National People's Congress, 2008) address the education, social integration, employability, and wellbeing of individuals with disabilities.

In the absence of specific legislation about special education, the 2006 Compulsory Education Law has defined a zero-rejection principle of school admission of children with disabilities. It urges more funding and investment in special

education to provide better classroom equipment and resources for students with special needs. The *Law of Protection of Persons with Disabilities*, issued originally in 1990, was a milestone legislative document in the field of special education. It was the first law that stipulates the rights of children with disabilities regarding rehabilitation, education, vocational training, and social life (National People's Congress of the PRC, 1990). It also provides a legal basis for the promotion of prevention, early diagnosis, and appropriate evaluation and treatment of persons with disabilities. In its revised version, this law explicitly stresses the improvement of the LRC programme (National People's Congress of PRC, 2008).

Another legal document with important implications for Chinese special education is the *Regulation on the Education of Persons with Disabilities*, promulgated by the State Council in 1994 and revised by the State Council in 2017. This regulation is focused on educational provision for students with special needs during different stages from preschool education, through compulsory education, to vocational education and tertiary education. Other regulations that stress the education rights of students with special needs include the *Recommendations for Accelerating the Development of Special Education in China* (State Council of the PRC, 2009) and the *Plans for the Improvement of Special Education 2014–2016 and 2017–2020* (State Council of the PRC, 2014, 2017).

These legal documents consistently respect, recognise, and regulate equal educational and civil rights of children with SEN. Nevertheless, the rhetoric used in these documents presents more like advocacy than specification. The mechanism for implementation of these laws and policies is yet to be fully established. Hence, there is much flexibility and vagueness when they are translated into practice. To the best knowledge of the authors, there is only a brief mention of behavioural support for students with special needs in the Professional Standards of Special Education Teachers (Pilot; Ministry of Education of the PRC, 2015). It is stated that teachers should use behavioural management strategies (e.g. PBS) to prevent and intervene in the problem behaviours of students with special needs. To date, there is a lack of policy detail about the approaches to positive behavioural intervention, support, and assessment for the educational benefits of students with special needs.

Positive Behaviour Support in Mainland China

Special education schools accommodate half of school-attending children with special needs (Ministry of Education, PRC, 2017a, b). In order to address the individualised behavioural needs of students in special education schools, several researchers have employed structured functional behaviour assessment (FBA) together with PBS to manage the diverse behaviours of children with SEN (Goh & Bambara, 2012). In regular schools, it remains the case that the increasing intensity of academic competition and the lack of PBS capacity among teachers do not encourage the cost-effective solution offered by systematic, multitiered school-wide PBS (SWPBS) to a range of problem behaviours among students in the USA

(Horner et al., 2005; Sugai & Horner, 2009). Although a handful of elementary schools in Beijing have applied this approach (Liu, Wei, & Liang, 2012), the outcomes for students and the schools remain largely unknown.

Over three decades of LRC practices in regular school, children with SEN have become increasingly visible. At the present time, it has been argued that inclusive education practices in regular classrooms are constrained by the neoliberalised education logic that celebrates competition and performance in high-stakes tests, which, in turn, deprofessionalises LRC teachers (Mu et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2017). Hence, institutional and structural barriers for implementing SWPBS and a lack of educators with capacities for implementing SWPBS have plagued inclusive education practices in regular schools.

Research and practice have been focused on the benefits of comprehensive behavioural assessment and intervention for individual students with SEN. This relatively recent body of work has paid considerable attention to autism spectrum disorders (e.g. Chen & Xu, 2016; Gu, 2013; Huang, 2011; Liu, 2007; Shao & Hu, 2015; Sun, 2008; Sun & Wei, 2011; Wang & Wang, 2015; Xiao, 2015; Zan & Xie, 2007). Other studies have been focused on students with intellectual disabilities (e.g. Yang, 2011; Zhu & Zhang, 2014; Ma, 2016). One case study used PBS to include a student hearing impairment in a regular class (He, 2014).

Some of the earliest demonstrations of individualised positive behaviour support (IPBS) were addressed to students with autism. For example, Liu (2007) worked in a special education school and tested the effectiveness of IPBS on a child with autism who performed repetitive and stereotyped behaviours and self-injurious behaviours. Results showed that problem behaviours of the child decreased markedly after a 3-month intervention. In addition, the study indicated that IPBS should also aim to alter environmental variables either triggering or supporting challenging behaviours. Zan and Xie (2007) drew on FBA to intervene in the challenging behaviours of an autistic child in a special education school. Results across a 2-week intervention suggested that IPBS contributed to an overall decrease in serious challenging behaviours, including striking his head, sucking his arm, jumping, throwing things, lying on the floor, and leaving his seat during class time. Similarly, Sun and Wei (2011) used an A-B design[1] to study the effect of FBA-based intervention on decreasing self-injurious behaviours of children with autism.

In addition to the control of self-injurious behaviours, other recent studies have demonstrated the effectiveness of IPBS in reducing repetitive and stereotyped behaviours of children with autism in special education school settings (Gu, 2013; Xiao, 2015). Beyond the domain of special education school, IPBS seems to be equally effective for children with autism in home settings. For example, both Huang (2011) and Chen (2013) claimed the effectiveness of IPBS in ameliorating

[1] An A-B design is a two-phase design composed of a baseline (A phase) with no observable change in the targeted behaviours, followed by a treatment or intervention (B phase) on these behaviours. If there is a measurable change in behaviours after the introduction of intervention, when compared with the baseline measures, it is probable, but not proven, that the intervention is responsible for that change.

problem behaviours during bedtime routine and enhancing positive social behaviours of children with autism.

The benefits of IPBS have also been reported in students with intellectual disabilities. In special education classrooms, Wan (2007) used FBA to intervene in the problem behaviours of three students with intellectual disabilities. Intervention packages included modifying curriculum and teaching strategies, training functional communication, and providing differential reinforcement for alternative behaviours across language and mathematics classes. There was a remarkable reduction of problem behaviours by the three students. In a special education school, Yang (2011) used an A-B-A design[2] to validate the effect of FBA-based IPBS for two youths with intellectual disability and autism spectrum disorder, respectively. Their inappropriate sexual behaviours (touching the genitals and masturbating in public) decreased dramatically. Zhu and Zhang (2014) used a multiple baseline design across behaviours to show that FBA-based, individualised behaviour intervention strategies, including antecedent control and consequence management, significantly decreased the problem behaviours of a child with intellectual disability in a special education school.

Given the consistent empirical evidence of the potential of IPBS, scholars have conducted similar studies to help preschool children with aggressive and inappropriate behaviours in classroom settings (Shi & Lin, 2015; Yao & Zhu, 2010; Yang, Zhu, & Cao, 2012; Zeng & Wu, 2015) and in home settings (Li, Ni, & Zan, 2017). Findings of these studies have aligned strongly with those conducted in special education school settings. Attempts, though limited, have also been made to develop IPBS for children with mild disabilities in LRC settings (e.g. Li & Ai, 2015; Xiong & Cui, 2014). For example, Xiong and Cui (2014) used an A-B design (withdraw design) to demonstrate a significant decrease of challenging behaviours by a child with mild intellectual disability.

In brief, a steady stream of empirical work has consistently suggested the potential of IPBS in the Chinese context. Most individual behavioural assessments and interventions for students with special needs are FBA-based—a common feature that distinguishes IPBS from other behavioural approaches (Bambara, 2005; Carr et al., 2002). The majority of interventions have involved multiple components with a combination of antecedent-, teaching-, and/or consequence-based strategies. These multicomponent, FBA-based interventions indicate the growing awareness of the complexity of the nature of the learning environment and the emerging understanding of the preventive and instructional strategies (e.g. teaching replacement behaviour, training in coping strategies, etc.) in the field of IPBS. Yet, SWPBS largely remains absent due to structural and institutional constraints. The context-specificity of SWPBS may explain its negligible application in China.

[2] An A-B-A design is the most powerful of the single-subject research designs showing a strong reversal from baseline (A) through treatment (B) to baseline (A) again. If the variable returns to baseline measure without a treatment and then resumes its effects when reapplied, the researcher can have greater confidence in the efficacy of that treatment.

Challenges and Implications

Despite the persuasive evidence of the benefits of IPBS, many problems remain. First and foremost, the development of IPBS, and of PBS in general, calls for urgent legislation and policy-making in China. Unlike the USA and many other Western countries where specific and comprehensive special education laws and policies have long been put in place to institutionalise the need for, and the use of, PBS, similar efforts remain overwhelmingly fragmented and incomplete in China. There is no clear regulatory or executive mechanism to ensure behavioural support to students with SEN. The shaky foundation of legislation and policy-making results in a significant lack of resources and an unsound support system for appropriate design and effective provision of behavioural support to students with SEN. Education governments at various levels (e.g. Office of Special Education Programs, Ministry of Education) have yet to budget for the development of PBS in both special and regular schools and have yet to establish technical assistance centres to provide material and technical resources for educators to implement behavioural support.

Second, most interventions were designed and implemented by researchers, with few teachers involved (e.g. He, 2014; Shao & Hu, 2015; Yang et al., 2012; Zhu & Zhang, 2014). International discourse about the development of IPBS programmes emphasises the need for reliable implementation of these programmes by core agents in inclusive education, teachers in particular, in order to address each individual's special needs in each individual's unique environment (Bambara, 2005; Carr et al., 2002). Although the pilot version of the Professional Standards of Special Education Teachers (Ministry of Education, 2015) requires special education teachers to use behavioural management strategies such as PBS for the benefits of students with SEN, preservice teacher preparation and in-service professional training are not robust enough to advance teacher knowledge and skill in this domain. In most preservice special education programmes, only one unit in the curriculum is related to basic behaviour management. Didactic approaches prevail in in-service professional training. In socio-educationally developed regions (e.g. Beijing, Shanghai), PBS seminars may be organised for teachers in special schools and regular schools, but only in a sporadic and random way. There is little, if any, systematic in-service training in the principles of PBS available to teachers in special education schools and in LRC contexts and, therefore, little opportunity for hands-on instruction and practice.

Last but not least, evidence-based PBS requires further development. PBS knowledge and practice in China are largely built on empirical research with preschool- or school-attending children with intellectual disabilities and autism disorders. Much less is known in regard to the effect of PBS across a range of disabilities, particularly those associated with older students with challenging behaviours. School professionals are exposed to limited research literature. Conceptualisation, operationalisation, and evaluation of indigenised multitiered PBS warrant more research and practice. Successful examples of PBS need to be shared in a wider context. Yet, further development of PBS in China, and perhaps in the global context

in general, has to grapple with many conundrums. When educational budget is tight and educational resources are inadequate, then tensions between educational equity that is more attentive to the schooling of traditionally disadvantaged children (e.g. students with SEN) and educational quality that is more attentive to schooling for all students continue to trouble policy-makers, school professionals, and educational scholars (Mu et al., 2013). How to better perform PBS in an increasingly neoliberalised education system remains a puzzle.

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Chapter 10
Behavioural Support in Hong Kong

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Abstract The positive behaviour support (PBS) movement in the USA provides a framework for improvement in the interpretation and management of challenging behaviour in school students. The education system in Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (HKSAR) has some of the infrastructural features to introduce behavioural support for students with disability, for students with developmental disorders affecting classroom participation and learning, and for students with other behavioural challenges. System policies in the HKSAR provide a whole-school and multi-tier approach for mainstream education, a dual system of special schooling for students with identified disabilities, and an opportunity for ordinary mainstream schools to volunteer for inclusion. Teacher training provides a system of university education and professional development. However, the academic success of learners remains the primary concern of the current system, and this pedagogical emphasis affects teacher practices. Whereas academic and behavioural aspects of education are mutually supportive in the PBS movement in Western education, exposure to school-wide positive behaviour support in the HKSAR system is superficial. A small number of applied behaviour analysis therapists have an observation-to-treatment approach to the development and learning of child clients but reach only a small number of families with the economic resources to seek assistance outside the school systems.

Keywords Evidence-based practice · PBS · Confucian ideology · Hong Kong SAR

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Introduction

Chinese students in the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (HKSAR) of the People's Republic of China have been considered to be both disciplined and hard working in the classroom. The Hong Kong population of 7.4 million residents comprises 93.6% ethnic Chinese living in a total land and sea area of 2754 km^2(Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department, 2018). In the 2017–2018 academic school year, 362,049 students were enrolled in 581 primary schools with average class size 27.4, while 330,804 secondary students were enrolled in 506 secondary schools with average class size 27.6 (HKSAR Government Education Department, known locally as the Education [Department] Bureau [EDB], 2018a, b). Academic achievement is the pedagogical emphasis of modern mainstream teacher education (Tait, Mundia, Fung, & Wong, 2014; Ling, Mak, & Cheng, 2010), and teacher practice in managing problem behaviour is affected by historical Confucian valuing of respect for teachers and their teaching (Jiang, Liao, Zhou, Fang, & Shen, 2012).

HKSAR teachers believe that knowledge delivery and inquiry are their role. They are likely to attribute failure in academic performance to causes under the control of the student, such as low effort and poor study habits (Ding, Li, Li, & Kulm, 2010). Given that classroom misbehaviour is most likely to be ascribed to internal and controllable causes in students, teachers in this region are reported to feel less responsible to a student with problem behaviour than to a student with academic failure (Ho, 2004). Moreover, they often respond to problem behaviours with poor action plans and unsustainable implementation that disrupts classroom learning.

Teachers may intervene when they sense that a student's problem behaviour is affecting their teaching, but they do not manage behaviour in a systematic way. They tend to ignore nondisruptive behaviours such as inattention and continue with their instruction (Zhang & Shen, 2007). When students are overtly misbehaving in class (e.g. out-of-seat, calling out, or defiant behaviour) and are experiencing academic failure, teachers and parents are more likely to blame the failure on a lack of student effort (Chen, Huang, Wang, & Chang, 2012). Moreover, teachers in Hong Kong may feel angry and use suppressive strategies such as reprimanding and punishing (Meng & Liu, 2010) when disruptive behaviour occurs (e.g. out-of-seat behaviour, talking out of turn).

Sample statements reporting on common teacher responses to a student swearing and telling lies in the classroom were gathered from teachers at a professional development workshop on support services run by the Education Bureau (2012). One primary school teacher reported, "If a student is disrespectful in class, I make them stand at the back of the room until the end of the lesson, or I would punish them severely by asking them to stand in the playground until the end of the assembly". A secondary teacher explained, "I would scold him and suspend him from school". Another secondary teacher stated, "I would ask the Discipline Teacher to take him away".

Although classroom teachers are "not allowed to impose corporal punishments on students" (Save the Children, 2009, p. 37), these forms of punishment are not uncommon in class (Romi, Lewis, & Roache, 2013). In particular, Hong Kong teachers tend to use disguised corporal punishment (e.g. standing in the classroom, standing in the playground, detention in lunch time) and psychological punishments (e.g. mock, insult, ignore) to cause emotional discomfort or distress (Jiang, 2015). Another common strategy used in East Asian schools is to use peer pressure to suppress a disturbance (Tian, 2013). Although the students were aware of the reason for the punishment and although many students experienced lowered self-esteem, only 37% actually improved their behaviour after the set punishment (Meng & Liu, 2010; Yao, Wang, & Wen, 2008).

Guidance and Discipline Services

Frustration about behaviour management is a major cause of teachers' anxiety and stress (Jiang et al., 2012), and HKSAR teachers have been reported to feel a low sense of accomplishment when dealing with behaviour management (Shen et al., 2009). A dilemma for teachers in this region is the conflict between (a) teaching all children for all-round development and responsibility of students for their failure and (b) maintaining class order without punishing disruptive behaviour. A whole-school approach to guidance and discipline was adopted in ordinary primary and secondary schools in Hong Kong from 1992, as recommended in the Education Commission Report No. 4 (EDB, 1990). Its aim was teacher collaboration in creating a caring and inviting learning atmosphere within which to maximise student potential, develop self-esteem, and foster healthy growth. Policy guidelines for all government schools refer to a comprehensive four-part student guidance service (EDB, 2012).

1. Policy and organisation uses a guidance team.
2. Personal growth education uses school-based education.
3. The supportive guidance service provides teachers with professional development in handling students' difficulties.
4. Additional services in schools support students with educational needs either individually or through group work.

The Guidance and Discipline Section (GDS) of the EDB provides informational resources and references for schools and teachers in general and for specialty topics such as student suicide and school bullying. The GDS encourages the forging of partnerships with teachers, school administrators, guidance and discipline personnel, social workers, and parents. At the same time, rather than dictate a preferred behaviour management practice, the GDS urges school communities to devise their

own school discipline policy and measures. The GDS also offers professional consultation, school-based teacher training, experience sharing, seminars, talks, learning groups, workshops and training courses, regional network meetings, and visits to schools. Other ongoing support services include certificate courses for guidance and discipline teachers and guidelines on a comprehensive student guidance service. Guidelines for Student Discipline (2013) are posted at http://www.edb.gov.hk/en/teacher/student-guidance-discipline-services/principles-guidelines/guidelines-on-student-discipline/index.html.

Social workers are the main profession employed in the GDS for primary schools. In secondary schools, guidance teachers offer students in need, empathy, care, and support to help them to improve their problem behaviour, and discipline teachers enforce school discipline policy. Strict, firm, and "tough" discipline teachers and kind, caring, and "soft" guidance teachers appear to transmit conflicting values to students and contradictory messages to the school teaching staff (Chung, 1998; Hue, 2001; Hue & Kennedy, 2012; Kwok, 1997; Wong, 1997). According to Hue and Kennedy (2013), calling upon the services of discipline teachers is the most common corrective practice for managing problem behaviours, with no room for guidance techniques in the classroom.

Special Education Services

In the early 1960s, the EDB launched special educational services in Hong Kong. The current policy is that "The aim of special education in Hong Kong SAR is to provide children having special educational needs (SEN) with education services to help them develop their potential to the full, achieve as much independence as they are capable of, and become well-adjusted individuals in the community" (EDB, 2016, p. 1). Between 1960 and 1990, only a small number of students with SEN were given specific support in primary and secondary education schools. However, the 1995 publication of the Equal Opportunities and Full Participation white paper on rehabilitation enhanced funding for seminars on topics such as differentiation, evidence-based and inclusive practices, adapted facilities, and programme supports for teachers of students with SEN (Forlin & Sin, 2010).

The 60 special schools in HKSAR serve different categories of students, with 41 schools for students with intellectual disability, 7 each for students with physical or social needs, 2 each for students with visual or hearing impairments, and 1 hospital school providing case-by-case support for students at 18 separate hospitals. In 2016, the class size in special schools ranged from 8 to 15 children per class, depending on the special needs of the children. In the absence of legislation specifically addressing the education of students with SEN in Hong Kong (Legislative Council Secretariat, 2014), some special schools also act as resource centres to support the teaching staff of ordinary schools that cater for students with special educational needs.

Inclusive Educational Services

Progressively, after students with SEN were included in a 1996 Disability Discrimination Ordinance (DDO), a sequence of policy actions has structured whole schooling for integrated education. In 1997, a 2-year pilot project on integrated education conducted by the EDB sought to accommodate the learning of students with SEN within a whole-school approach. In the 1999/2000 school year, an integrated education programme was extended to other ordinary schools. In 2001, the Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC) issued the Code of Practice on Education under the DDO with two key objectives: (a) to facilitate public understanding of the rationale behind the DDO and (b) to clarify the rights and responsibilities of the concerned parties to prevent and eliminate disability discrimination. In 2004, the Whole-School Approach of Integrated Education initiated by the Hong Kong Government was aimed to strengthen team spirit among teachers and other school stakeholders in order that they share duties to cater for individual students with SEN (Lau, 2012). Finally, a 2010 Operation Guide published by the EDB provided guiding principles and practices for ordinary schools to help regular teachers cater for students with SEN via integrated education.

Table 10.1 illustrates the increasing enrolments of students with SEN in both ordinary primary and secondary schools. Despite the implementation of integrated education in Hong Kong having gradually reduced the pressure on special schools to offer places to students with SEN (Lau, 2012), it simultaneously increased the pressure on ordinary schools to accept more students with SEN. For example, since 2009, the number of enrolled students with impairments such as ASD and ADHD has risen considerably in ordinary primary schools (Tait, Fung, Hu, Sweller, & Wang, 2016). However, there has been limited creation of community support services such as resource centres, information centres, online information, or educational advisors for special education (Tait, 2014). Although EOC has long voiced the opinion that students with SEN should have access to equal learning opportunities, a recent study by Chow (2014) indicated that over 60% of school principals felt that their schools did not receive enough government resources to implement integrated education effectively.

Table 10.1 Students with SEN in ordinary primary and secondary (2009–2010, 2013–2014)

School year	School level	SLD[a]	ID[b]	ASD[c]	ADHD[d]	PD[e]	VI[f]	HI[g]	SLI[h]	Total
2009–2010	Primary	7910	760	1480	1490	170	50	340	1520	13,720
	Secondary	5050	710	570	740	190	90	470	180	8000
2013–2014	Primary	8190	750	3310	2850	120	30	260	1880	17,390
	Secondary	9890	930	1660	3010	240	100	400	210	16,440

Source: Controlling Officer's Reply Serial No. EDB356 for the special meeting of the Finance Committee

[a]SLD = specific learning difficulties, [b]ID = intellectual disability, [c]ASD = autism spectrum disorder, [d]ADHD = attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder, [e]PD = physical disability, [f]VI = visual impairment, [g]HI = hearing impairment, [h]SLI = speech and language impairment

Confucian Heritage Influence on Special and Inclusive Education

The origin of the concept of special education in Chinese history can be traced back for more than 2000 years. The first document to record an acknowledgment of the existence of people with disabilities appeared in the ancient Confucian text "Liji" (Book of Rites, 476–770 BC), in which it was recommended that "People should respect and support less fortunate individuals (e.g. widows, orphans, 'handicapped' and sick individuals) and treat them as their own children" (Piao, 1992, p. 35). Explanations of the causes of disability in Confucian texts were incomplete, but common and persistent superstitious beliefs about individuals with disabilities refer to magical powers, talent to predict fortunes, and ability to drive out evil spirits (Chen, 2017).

Confucian ideology, focusing on adjusting human relations and emphasising benevolence and order, gradually came to occupy a dominant position in Chinese society. Rulers began to pursue the political principle of ren zhe wei zhen, xian zheng can ji (仁政為真,殘疾敬先) (translation = the governor, with benevolent ruling of the country, should support the handicapped first; Cao, 1988). For many centuries (Ye & Piao, 1995), Chinese people have lived by the virtues of zunlao, ciyou, furuo, zhucan (尊老,慈幼,扶弱,助殘) (translation: respect the elderly, be kind to children, support the weak, and help the handicapped). Piao (1991) claimed that the Confucian ideology of respecting human rights of survival and advocating public concern for disability is more than ten centuries older than the practice of equality initiated in the West. For example, Confucian-based treatment of individuals with disabilities in ancient Hong Kong and PRC has been viewed as relatively kinder than abandonment or killing of infants with disabilities in ancient Sparta (Yang & Wang, 1994).

Nonetheless, under the hierarchical feudal pyramid of roles that has dominated Hong Kong history, anyone with an obvious form of a disability still occupies the lowest social status (Piao, 1992). In many sections of the HKSAR community, a disability is viewed as a punishment placed upon the individual in retribution for that person's wicked ancestral heritage or past-life sins (Tait, 2014). Thus, there is a great deal of stigmatisation attached to identification of a behavioural disorder. Emotional problems are also attributed to parents having a weak character, and Chinese parents of children with emotional-behavioural disorders are frequently blamed for their poor parenting skills (Tait et al., 2014). Such children are also considered to be disrespectful to their parents and to their teachers. In some cases, a child's problem behaviour is blamed on evil spirits or heavenly punishment. Other notions still believed to cause disabilities in the newborn include having an unbalanced diet, eating food that should be avoided, or experiencing emotional disturbance during pregnancy. Such cultural stigma not only creates barriers to Hong Kong Chinese families seeking help but also, and perhaps more important, leads to denial of the presence of any emotional-behavioural disorder in a child.

Hong Kong is a city that is strongly influenced by traditional Chinese values and culture. One of the core values in traditional Chinese society is maintaining face (面子) (mia `n zi). Face can either be lost or saved. Losing face inflicts personal damage, leading to disharmony not only in the core family but also in the extended family (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). In the traditional Chinese hierarchical structure, junior family members tend to play the role of enhancing the face or honour of senior family members. Consequently, having children with any developmental difficulty affects not only the child's parents but also extends to loss of face for the whole family. The intensity of this belief means that family members are often unwilling to disclose information about their child having any perceived "difference", in fear of the shame and discrimination that would be cast upon them and their extended family members (Fong & Hung, 2002). Traditional Chinese medicine, practised in China for over 2000 years, was the main form of medical treatment in Hong Kong before the introduction of Western medicine in the last 100 years. While Western medicine is the mainstream treatment used by the majority of the community, there is still a cultural tendency for parents of children with SEN to seek an alternative Chinese medicine treatment in the hope that it will cure their child of their disability once and for all.

Inclusive Policy and Practice in Ordinary Schools

In broad terms, inclusive changes in ordinary school practices in Hong Kong have been consistent with the multi-tier, whole-school aspects of US-based behaviour support known as SWPBS (Luk & Cheng, 2009). Implementation of inclusive education began on a voluntary basis in 1997, in line with the worldwide trend and with pressure from parents of students with SEN (Forlin & Sin, 2010). In respect to the Confucian valuing of interpersonal relationships, schools have been allowed a voluntary participation policy for inclusive education. Consequently, the Confucian culture of "educating regardless of abilities" and the Christian principle of "loving all" still continue to influence school leaders' decisions about whether or not to participate in inclusive education (Poon-McBrayer, 2012).

Increasingly, ordinary primary and secondary schools are applying the philosophy of Confucianism to teaching for the purpose of encouraging the acceptance of children who have emotional-behavioural disorders into integrated education classrooms (Leung, 2013). Over time, sympathetic attitudes towards these students who are not eligible for specialist supports have emerged within the HKSAR Chinese culture, although the Confucian philosophy of self-discipline still profoundly influences teachers' management of classroom problem behaviour. However, both systematic social concern and use of positive teaching techniques in HKSAR schools have yet to accompany this sympathy.

The American model of resource room teachers supporting, advising, and co-teaching with general education teachers was piloted in HKSAR ordinary schools for 2 years (Poon-McBrayer, 1999), and this model then progressed into a three-tier

model of service delivery (EBD, 2008). The three-tier intervention model has since been underpinned by the response-to-intervention model and is a key feature of the inclusive education policy in Hong Kong (Legislative Council Secretariat, 2014). The HKSAR inclusive education model, "learning in the regular classroom", was primarily a pragmatic means to increase access to education for the large number of children with disabilities who were previously denied education (Deng & Poon-McBrayer, 2004; Xiao, 2007). After HKSAR's EOC (2001) developed the Code of Practice on Education, legislation stipulated that local educational establishments cannot discriminate against a student with a disability. However, under the current policy of voluntary participation, most ordinary schools do not participate in inclusive education (Poon-McBrayer, 2017a).

Tier-related monetary incentives have been provided to encourage more voluntary school participation in order to transition towards a comprehensive inclusive schooling programme and away from separate provision for students with SEN. For example, from the 2006/2007 school year, the staffing ratio of student guidance personnel has been either 1 full-time guidance teacher for each primary school with 18 classes or more or a half-time position for a guidance teacher for each primary school with 5 to 17 classes. From the 2012/2013 school year, a Top-up Student Guidance Service Grant has been provided for all public sector primary schools with five or more classes. This top-up grant is calculated at HKD$15,000 (AUD$3000) annually per class. For schools with at least 18 classes, in addition to one full-time student guidance teacher, an amount of HKD$15,000 is provided for each class starting from the 18th class. For schools with fewer than 18 classes, in addition to a half-time position for a guidance teacher, an amount of HKD$15,000 is provided for each class starting with the fifth class.

Multi-tier strategies are used to manage order and discipline, which are viewed as essential elements of academic learning in the Chinese classroom. Because respect and obedience are deeply rooted values in HKSAR education, behaviours such as refusing or failing to carry out instructions and talking back or arguing with the teacher are perceived as unacceptable, disrespectful towards teachers, and offensive to authority in Hong Kong schools. Disruptive behaviours are viewed as irresponsible and lacking motivation to learn (Sun & Shek, 2012). They include out-of-seat behaviour, clowning around, forgetfulness, inattentiveness (e.g. day-dreaming, looking out of the window), playing with personal items, overactivity, withdrawal, slowness, uncooperativeness, being late to class, copying homework, and habitual failure to complete or submit homework tasks.

Tier 1 support refers to quality teaching in the regular classroom for students with transient or mild learning difficulties. The kind of techniques that have been suggested to support all students with SEN under the Tier 1 model include seating them in the front row and reminding them to keep their desks tidy so as to minimise any source of distraction, repeating the instructions if necessary so as to ensure students' understanding, keeping eye contact to draw the student's attention while talking to them, and asking the student to repeat the salient points of the instructions. When a student with SEN does not show improvement with the use of these Tier 1 supports, teachers are encouraged to advance the child to Tier 2 support.

Tier 2 support refers to "add on" intervention for students assessed to have persistent learning difficulties, including those students with SEN. Techniques for this tier may involve small-group teaching and pull-out programmes for targeted students with greater learning or behavioural difficulties. Often, a whole-school team will decide what the programme contains and who will implement it. Strategies used by school guidance teachers to provide additional support include small-group learning, collaborative teaching, cooperative learning, whole language approach, differentiated teaching, peer tutoring, study skills and self-learning abilities, and the use of alternative teaching resources. Because children requiring this level of intervention are often recommended to attend a special school, obstacles to behavioural intervention at the Tiers 2 and 3 levels may arise from parents, who may be reluctant to accept a diagnosis of an emotional or behavioural disorder such as ASD (Tait et al., 2016): Such a diagnosis is likely to lead to having to withdraw their child from the ordinary school. In a related finding by Wang et al. (2012), only 20% of parents reported that they would contact their child's teacher or a specialist if needing help.

Tier 3 support refers to intensive individualised support for students with severe learning difficulties. Intensive support is only provided in special schools in Hong Kong for students who exhibit serious problem behaviour during the learning process. After discussion with the child's parents, the special school staff will provide more intensive individualised support measures and formulate individual educational or learning programmes (IEPs/ILPs). Interventions reportedly designed for Tier 3 behaviour management support in Hong Kong focus on sensory integration approaches (Chang & Saroff, 2017). A learning support grant is available at the rate of HK$20000 (BP1666) per student per year, with a basic provision of HK$120000 (BP10000) for the first one to six students requiring Tier 3 support (Forlin, 2010). At this level, all students require an individual education plan and are able to access short-term placement in special schools.

Most students with ASD are educated in government schools. Approximately 30 non-government organisations provide supportive services to children with ASD (Mak & Kwok, 2010). The Heep Hong Society provides services for children with ASD and uses a TEACCH approach for children aged between 2 and 6. A privately funded school for ASD, the Autism Partnership School, provides individualised services using principles of applied behaviour analysis (ABA), with intensive instruction for staff and multiple levels of staff expertise in ABA. Furthermore, several other private fee-paying non-government organisations (NGOs) such as the Autism Recovery Network and the Hong Kong Autism Society also provide small-group and individualised services using ABA principles.

Specialised NGO centres offer educational programmes for individuals with EBDs where ABA and other behavioural interventions seem to be the treatment of choice. Although there are quality control procedures for providers (Sun, 2013), training may be problematic. The criteria for the length of training in some centres lack an empirical rationale, and, as yet, there are no professional standards for determining who exactly can provide services such as ABA in Hong Kong. The lack of staff training in smaller organisations has been suggested as one of the reasons why

many children with behavioural disorders in the PRC fail either to make adequate progress or to exhibit significant improvements, even after receiving behavioural intervention (Huang, Jia, & Wheeler, 2013).

Understanding Behavioural Support

Until recently, exposure to the principles and practices of the behavioural support movement has been limited. However, a network established in June 2013 sought to introduce PBS to the local community and nearby region and to empower teachers and parents through training (Yip, 2016). Chinese classroom teachers in Hong Kong are concerned about how to discipline children with social and emotional problems exhibiting disrespectful behaviour in the classroom. Students exhibiting disruptive behaviour are often expected to "sort themselves out", with limited support from classroom teachers and from guidance and discipline teachers. In addition, ideas about involving parents in an educational team and generalising gains made in a classroom to home and community settings, which are common themes in Western countries, are not common in Eastern countries.

With limited access to quality information, when Hong Kong Chinese families do receive the news that their child might be at risk for a behavioural disorder, it is unlikely that they will fully appreciate what that means. Most booklets and online information containing relevant information about problem behaviour and developmental disability are English language texts. Very few sources of information have been translated for use in Hong Kong education and training (Huang, Zhang, & Xing, 2009). Consequently, support services for families raising children with SEN are underdeveloped.

Staff Training and Capacity Building

Initial teacher education is a critical time for preparing teachers to cater for diversity in the classroom. Not all universities in Hong Kong provide compulsory preparation in this area. The only tertiary institution to provide a 4-year undergraduate programme of study with a SEN specialisation is the Education University of Hong Kong. The University of Hong Kong, the Chinese University of Hong Kong, and the Hong Kong Baptist University offer single postgraduate units on behaviour management for secondary teachers. There are no similar units of study for primary teachers. There is little evaluation of the content and efficacy of any of these courses. New graduates continue to suggest that they are inadequately prepared for the real world of schools and classrooms (Forlin & Sin, 2010), and many institutions either choose to ignore inclusive practice and behaviour management in lieu of other discipline demands or suggest that such information is embedded within all of their practices (Forlin, 2012).

Given the limited SEN coverage in teacher education training and the voluntary participation policy in Hong Kong schools, it is the general consensus of teachers that students with problem behaviour should take responsibility for their learning behaviour, as is expected of their typically developing peers. However, a growing number of classrooms containing students with undiagnosed problem behaviours mean that teachers are beginning to find it necessary to develop some form of disciplinary strategy in response to the challenging nature of these problems. According to Poon-McBrayer (2017b), the most frequent strategy in Hong Kong is withdrawal or expulsion, or both, from the classroom.

Another common practice by regular school staff is to engage the services of GDS, usually social workers, to work with those students considered to be disruptive to the academic success of the class. In such situations, the classroom teacher refers a student to the social worker, who attempts to help that student improve classroom conduct. According to Forlin and Cooper (2013), when first meeting a student, the social worker generally tries to calm the student using basic counselling skills (i.e. empathic understanding, acceptance, congruence), and, within the process of the school's discipline policy, the social worker will then review the incident of misbehaviour with the student.

Previous studies in the USA (Hieneman & Dunlap, 2001; Kincaid et al., 2007) have pointed out that teacher buy-in to an intervention is the most important factor for implementation with high fidelity. Consequently, in order to ensure HKSAR Chinese teachers' commitment to effective behaviour management strategies, such as SWPBS, it is going to be necessary to provide sufficient training and other whole-school supports (e.g. school-based consultation). Furthermore, as teachers in Hong Kong tend to have a low sense of responsibility for student behaviour, if there is any prospect of importing behavioural support into East Asia, the training will need to be both ideologically meaningful and practical.

Conclusion

The practice of PBS needs to be considered with other important factors such as school culture, teacher readiness, and student population. Schools in Hong Kong need to establish multi-tiered behavioural supports step by step. Given the large size of schools and classes and the emphasis on self-discipline in traditional classroom management, initial efforts to establish Tier 1 routines may take a few years to become acceptable. Staff work load has become a major issue in Chinese teachers' negative attitudes towards inclusive education (Xiao, Liu, Chen, & Zhang, 2014). Tier 2 support needs to be timesaving, feasible, and applicable in different contexts. Given the scarce resources available for special services in current schools (Peng, 2011), the intensive effort, sufficient professional knowledge and experience of special education, and expertise in behavioural counselling or therapy may limit design and implementation of individualised support plans. These resources remain scarce in the contemporary school system in Hong Kong.

A further issue that exists in HKSAR where long-established pedagogies are entrenched is the inflexibility of existing practices and their incongruence with changes in teacher training (Forlin, 2010). Future developments are beginning to show a move towards strengthening the preventative approach via undergraduate teacher training. What is also needed is a retraining of the discipline teachers to coach and upskill regular classroom teachers in the PBS approach to discipline in line with the existing whole-school approach. Clearly, there is a need for greater collaboration between teacher training institutions and schools to ensure a better alignment in their pedagogies and practices.

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Chapter 11
Behavioural Support in Japan

Yoriko Kikkawa, Noriko Hirasawa, and Kenichi Ohkubo

Abstract Early in 2016, the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities was enacted in Japan. It made the establishment of an inclusive educational system a national priority and required Japanese schools and teachers to accommodate individual needs of students with special needs in schools. An adequate balance between individual and group needs has been challenging for classroom teachers dealing with behavioural needs of individual students while teaching a whole class. A traditional Japanese approach to teaching a lesson in regular classes has been aligned with and supported by the lesson study approach, whereby schools engage in professional development activities. These activities focus on cooperative planning and monitoring of students' learning progress in the selected curricular content over a school year. As part of lesson planning and preparation of instructional supports, teachers design and anticipate peer interactions among classmates. This social focus contrasts with the English-speaking countries (e.g. the USA, the UK, and Australia). For example, the use of school-wide positive behaviour support to improve student behaviours in English-speaking countries has been treated as an efficient foundation for including individual students with high needs in school. In Japan, there has been an increasing interest in this behavioural approach as a potential solution for addressing the requirements defined in the newly enforced law. It is proposed that mutually informed integration of the culture- and value-based practice of traditional lesson study with school-wide behaviour support can become a culturally appropriate approach to behavioural support.

Keywords Culture · Schools · Lesson study · Positive behaviour support · Japan

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Introduction

In Japan, behavioural support for students with special educational needs (SEN) is challenging especially in a classroom setting. There have been changes to national law and reforms to professional development that have fostered inclusive schooling. On the other hand, there has been an historical commitment to holistic education of individuals within their sociocultural context. Therefore, Western perspectives on the individual and the group do not adapt easily or directly into Japanese classrooms.

Public school teachers have reported learning difficulties or behavioural concerns in 6.5% of the population in a national survey of compulsory schooling across 6-year elementary and 3-year secondary school years (Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology: MEXT, 2012). An earlier report noted similar data and highlighted a lack of support for students with special educational needs in regular classrooms (MEXT, 2002a). Five years after the enforcement of a new system of special needs education, the 2012 report noted improved provision of support for students with SEN. However, it also stressed a need for further improvement in how to deliver effective group instruction (MEXT, 2012). In other words, they must have a clear way of dealing with individual needs while teaching the entire class.

The *Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities* came into effect in February 2016. An inclusive education system was held to be a national priority (Article 24). In this system, individuals with disabilities are not excluded from general education, have equal access to quality primary and secondary education in their local communities, and are provided with reasonable accommodation for individual needs. There are three educational priorities for individuals with and without disabilities to learn together through lifelong learning:

(a) The full development of human potential and sense of dignity and self-worth and the strengthening of respect for human rights, fundamental freedoms, and human diversity,
(b) The development by persons with disabilities of their personality, talents, and creativity, as well as their mental and physical abilities, to their fullest potential [and],
(c) Support for persons with disabilities to participate effectively in a free society.

Reconstruction of the special needs education system towards inclusion has to work with the mainstream educational culture of professional practice (Chokshi & Fernandez, 2004). In Japanese schools, almost all teachers are engaged in in-service professional development called *jugyou kenkyu*, or lesson study, to improve their everyday teaching (Lewis, 2016). Teachers form groups with a specific curriculum interest (e.g. mathematics, special needs education) within their school (Lewis, Perry, & Friedkin, 2009). Group members work collaboratively to improve a particular lesson that addresses overarching educational problems at the school, aligned with national educational emphases (Kikkawa & Bryer, 2013). Together, they plan

the lesson, teach it or observe another teacher teach it, and reflect on student engagement and ways to improve the lesson over time.

Prevailing cultural influences on current inclusive practice involve regular school commitment to (a) whole-person education, (b) classroom as community, and (c) lesson study. Lesson study contributes to delivery of whole-person education and is a mechanism of building school capacity in Japan, which has been integrated into university initial teacher education and in-school professional development. Although it is almost universally implemented in Japan (i.e. 99% of elementary schools, 98% of junior high schools, 95% of public high schools), use of school-based lesson study is not required by law and has been managed by schools with variations among schools, prefectures, and levels of schooling (Lewis, 2016).

Historically, Japanese education has pursued a philosophy that "group is essential for development of children" (Kikkawa, 2014, p. 50). Yoshida (2009) highlighted a need for research about *shūdan* for inclusive education. Although the direct translation of this term is "group", Yoshida regarded *shūdan*, in relation to special needs education, as (a) interrelationship between individuals and class and (b) interaction between lesson development and class building. According to Yoshida (2009), the interrelationship between individuals and class reflects a fundamental principle of classroom lessons in lesson study practice and teaching theory:

> The more an individual evolves, the more the class evolves; and the more the class evolves, the more an individual evolves. (Translated from Shimizu, 1997; cited in Yoshida, 2009, p. 122)

At the same time, Japanese researchers increasingly use practices from Western countries to respond to behavioural needs in Japanese schools. For example, positive behaviour support (PBS) was first implemented in 2000 and, since then, has progressively showed its effectiveness in Japanese special and regular schools (Hirasawa, 2009). However, a practical barrier to implementation of PBS has been resistance from Japanese schools and teachers. The strong sense of social-cultural educational value embedded in Japanese classroom practice has required Japanese researchers to search for a culturally appropriate way to apply the behavioural approach to the current educational system (e.g. Sugimoto, 2015; Wakui, 2007).

History of Special Education Services in Japan

In the mid-2000s, Japanese education and welfare endorsed a view of developmental disability consistent with the international movement towards inclusive education. Specifically, the first official documentation in Japan to define developmental disabilities that usually become apparent at an early age was the *Law to Support Persons with Developmental Disabilities* enacted in 2004. This law clearly mentioned the support necessary for a person with identified disabilities. Categories included autism, Asperger's syndrome, and other pervasive developmental disorders, learning disabilities/disorders, attention deficit hyperactivity disorders, and

other similar "cerebral dysfunctions" (Section 1 of Article 2; Japanese Ministry of Health Labour and Welfare, 2004). In 2011, the *Basic Law for Persons with Disabilities* was amended to include developmental disabilities legally into the national disability framework (Japanese Ministry of Health and Welfare, 2011).

A *Revised School Education Law* that promoted special needs education, *tokubetsu-shien-kyouiku*, was also issued in 2005 and enforced in 2007 (MEXT, 2007). Its major change was the naming of schools or classrooms for students or children with any disabilities. Whereas the previous law stipulated disability-specialised schools or classrooms depending on the category of disabilities (e.g. vision, hearing, intellectual disabilities, physical disabilities, and health impairments), the revised law renamed "Schools for Special Needs Education" without reference to categories and defined four options of student placement: (a) special needs education schools, (b) special needs education classrooms, (c) *tsūkyū* or resource room, and (d) regular education classrooms. This change reflected the national shift towards accommodating special academic, behavioural, and social needs of the students without intellectual disabilities who were enrolled in regular education classrooms without access to additional support and ineligible for educational support service under the previous system (MEXT, 2002a).

This change required schools and teachers to improve education for those students. More research and practice targeted students with developmental disabilities enrolled in regular education classrooms and resource rooms. This work differed from that developed and employed within the previous framework of *tokushū-kyouiku*, or special education (i.e. special schools and special classes). Some school tiered instruction for SEN has extended the traditional framework of special education in Japan; some research on special needs education has been informed by Western behavioural research and practice.

Tiered Instructional Practice

The principle of whole-person education that aims to foster wellbeing and learning for all students is somehow aligned with tiered instruction and with support for student behaviour in the classroom. Takemura (2011) suggested that the instructional practice and strategies considered effective for Japanese students can be aligned with a tiered system of behaviour support. With respect to the principles of lesson study focusing on improvement of teaching, Benedict, Park, Brownell, Lauterbach, and Kiely (2013, p. 23) outlined a possible integration of lesson study and response to intervention (RTI):

> The traditional features of lesson study cycle are provided along with practical steps that can be taken within each component to support general and special education teachers in aligning the curricula, goals, and strategies to RTI framework.

Table 11.1 frames lesson study practice within the school tiered approach (see Chap. 2). Overall, this practice is aligned with the educational values of Japanese

Table 11.1 Tiered approach to cultural practice

Tier 1: *School-wide lesson study approach to plan, implement, evaluate, and improve "teaching"; class management aiming to build class as community where students can ask for help and help each other*
Identify research topic (school-wide), learning aims (each curriculum area), and learning goals (class-specific)
Plan for a lesson plan with universal instruction for all students (clear and precise instruction) and well-organised learning materials and tools (visual support); includes a script of possible learning and teaching interactions in the class
Deliver a lesson to the class, while teacher actively observes, listens to, and questions students by using cooperative learning strategies (group-oriented contingencies; peer-mediated support) with either the entire class or small peer groups (*han*).
Evaluate teaching (a) focusing on ongoing improvements of teaching, (b) reflecting on the lesson as a whole, and (c) using pedagogical questions focusing on students' thinking and learning (how the class responds to teaching and interact with each other) and on teacher's teaching behaviours (how the teacher interacts with the class and deliver the lesson content)
Improve teaching, with findings included in the next plan
Tier 2: *Develop students' abilities to "learn within a group" (historically in special education classes and some recent work in mainstreaming classes and han) using individual support plan for students*
Plan for differentiated instructions, articulated within the lesson plan for the class
Assist the students involved in the group by using small-group activities (e.g. daily chores) to facilitate sense of group responsibility and leadership; using role play; incorporating individual interests in group activities; using small-group social skills training; modifying teaching methods (e.g. learning materials, options of responding) and learning content; using cooperative learning as above
Evaluate teaching: Same as Tier 1
Improve teaching: Same as Tier 1
Tier 3: *One-on-one support for jiritsu-katsudou (activities focusing on independence); conducted usually in pull-out situations such as resource rooms or corner of the classrooms*
This practice is more exposed to Western evidence-based practice than are Tiers 1 and 2

regular education and its strong emphasis on whole-person education (Kikkawa, 2014). Universal practice appears to be well established in Tier 1 lessons, and Tier 2 is strongly aligned with Tier 1, as Japanese teaching considers peer interactions within *han* group activities as integral to its wider commitment to the class as a community. However, within Tier 2, students with SEN engage in *han* in the small classes in special education settings, while some recent work has started considering *han* activities for students with SEN in regular education settings.

Thus, there is tiered awareness of instructional strategies for all students in the class, for groups needing extra support, and for individuals needing intensive intervention. Many evidence-based practices require one-to-one instruction with the target student. However, regular classroom teachers in Japan have expressed concern that they are not able to focus solely on the targeted student in the classroom environment where many other students are present (Okitsu & Sekido, 2007). Therefore, it appears that the linkage between Tier 3 and Tiers 1 and 2 is relatively weak,

because the use of evidence-based strategies for the instruction of individual students with SEN tends to fall outside traditional classroom practice.

Observation of regular classrooms in Japanese schools suggested that teachers view the classroom not only as a setting for their teaching but also as a direct means to teach through peers' mutual interactions during lessons (Matoba & Sarkar Arani, 2006; Sarkar Arani & Matoba, 2006). Moreover, small peer groups (*han*) have been used routinely in regular education to facilitate children's sense of group responsibility and leadership. Different levels of group responsibility and leadership are used to manage each class, each year group, and the school as a whole. Teachers use group activities where "children do activities together" to facilitate the children's experience and understanding of group responsibility and used peer support to develop positive peer relationships across the school community. This group-oriented practice has been developed and used as part of class management techniques and is recently used as support for students with SEN in regular education settings.

Instruction involves ongoing assessment in which "teachers observe, listen, and question to gather evidence of their students' learning as they teach" (Crockett, 2007, p. 612). The lesson study group undertakes ongoing and holistic assessment of student learning through their observation and discussion of a lesson, to create a productive moment of learning and teaching. This pedagogical view is student-centred and comprehensive.

> Pedagogical decision-making begins with concerns about student learning. Student thinking was never de-coupled from planning or teaching [the] lesson. Pedagogy was never de-coupled from student matters. (Crockett, 2007, p. 619)

The everyday practice of special educators is aimed to enrich (a) *shakaisei* or social nature, (b) engagement, and (c) independence in their students (Kikkawa, 2014). In-school research (i.e. lesson study) is used to explore the practical meaning of these whole-person aims, develop a lesson plan, identify teaching strategies to achieve the aim, implement the lesson, and reflect on how to improve their everyday practice (Kikkawa, 2014). As in traditional practice in regular classrooms (Crockett, 2007), student thinking and learning are always the centre of teachers' pedagogical decision-making. This student-centred lens also appears to be embedded in support for students with SEN in regular education settings. Fujino (2013) reviewed psychosocial interventions focusing on supporting social problems, which school-aged children with high-functioning autism spectrum disorders (ASD) had when they interacted with their typically developed peers. He found that, in contrast to Western literature focusing on skills building, the interventions conducted in Japanese schools were focused on supporting individuals by intervening in a wide range of individual problems closely linked to the participants' life histories and social conditions. For example, in a study by Okada, Goto, and Ueno (2005), which aimed to improve social cognition, junior high school students with Asperger's syndrome were guided to assess the social situation in which a problem had occurred, list solutions to the problem, role play each solution to predict the result, select the best solution, and practise the situation repeatedly.

Kikkawa (2014) observed that Japanese special educators teaching in classrooms for students with special needs work hard to establish a community, in which students work together without direct instruction by the teacher. Assessment is formative, diagnostic, and ongoing. Although these educators did not conduct formal quantitative data collection (e.g. functional assessment), close analysis of interactions by the students with peers, teacher, and learning content involved profound reflections about multiple members across a series of lessons. A qualitative but meaningful holistic understanding of classroom interactions between students and their peers, teacher, and learning tasks (Ball & Forzani, 2007) can be used to identify students' perspectives on why the particular interaction (good or bad) happened and then consider how to proceed with this interaction in the next lesson. This relationship-based, interpersonal approach to assessment and intervention appeared to be somewhat similar to pivotal response training (Koegel & Koegel, 2006) in that the teachers facilitate the children's social initiations with strategies of waiting, prompting behaviours and interactions without verbal communication, and scaffolding interactions.

Western-Informed, Evidence-Based Behaviour Support

The development of research and practice that is informed by Western literature has occurred in (a) institutions and research centres outside schools, (b) special schools or special education classes for students with intellectual disabilities, and (c) regular education classes and resource rooms. After the *Japanese Association for Behavior Analysis* was established in 1983, Japanese researchers started reporting studies of behavioural interventions for individuals with intellectual disabilities and ASD. Earlier studies were mostly conducted within research centres attached to universities or clinical institutes. From the 2000s, more studies were conducted within school settings, and teachers in special needs schools conducted most studies, which focused on interventions for individual students with intellectual disabilities (e.g. individualised instruction plan and social skills training).

Several Japanese reviews examined studies related to behaviour support in school settings (e.g. Dojo, Noda, & Sanomaru, 2008; Fukumoto & Ohkubo, 2013; Okamoto, 2014; Sugimoto, 2015; Takemura, 2011). For example, Dojo et al. (2008) reviewed 173 articles about behavioural interventions in school settings for children with developmental disabilities from 1990 to 2005. The review included 70 articles from four Japanese journals and 103 articles from seven Western journals related to applied behaviour analysis (ABA). The reviewers found that all studies were mostly focused on individuals in special needs education classes within elementary schools and highlighted a need for behaviour support in regular education classrooms. However, whereas non-Japanese studies focused more on task and learning engagement and social behaviour, Japanese studies focused more on communicative behaviour and self-management.

Studies of interventions to include students with developmental disabilities in regular education settings increased. For example, Fukumoto and Ohkubo (2013) reported more studies in regular education settings after 2006. However, there was concern that teacher skills in supporting an individual student with SEN overlooked other students in the class and fostered a psychological distance between the student with special needs and the class. In line with social-cultural pedagogy in regular education and in the previous approach to special education, Yoshida (2009) argued that classroom teachers also require skills in group instruction that enable individual students to participate in the "group life" of the class. Kawamura (2005) also argued that teachers should consider how to equip the students with skills to participate in the class instead of concentrating on student participation in the class (i.e. the process of individual development rather than the result).

Shijyou (2013) outlined the research trend after the transition into group-oriented contingency among diverse learners in inclusive classrooms as a medium to support individuals with developmental disabilities. She aligned this type of behaviour support with analysis of group dynamics in the class and highlighted a need to embed individual characteristics of students with and without special needs in lesson planning. Most teachers apply a social-cultural lens to build a "class as community" (*shūdan dukuri*). In regular education classrooms, the teachers arrange class interactions so that students with needs ask peers for help and so that the peers are willing to help those students (Shijyou, 2013).

It appears that a similar system of class-wide support has been developed for both a small class (i.e. special needs education class) and for a large class (i.e. regular education class). In special needs classrooms, teachers seek to establish positive and supportive relationships among students (Kikkawa, 2014). They carefully observe peer interactions and relationships, plan a lesson of group activity where students help each other, and facilitate peer interactions during the lesson.

In recent studies, there is increasing attention to more group-oriented practices (e.g. class- or school-wide approaches) in order to deliver behavioural support in the everyday classroom environment. Some studies reported that behavioural interventions using ABA-based practices (e.g. PBS, functional behaviour assessment) improve class-wide engagement in daily chores (e.g. cleaning, preparing school lunch) usually performed by students, which also contributed to the on-task behaviour of students with SEN (Tsurumi, Gomi, & Noro, 2012). These studies highlighted the effectiveness of combining class-wide and individual behavioural approaches to the behaviour of the target student with special needs.

Some researchers studied the effectiveness of class-wide social skills training (SST) in regular classrooms. For example, Ohkubo, Takahashi, and Noro (2011) conducted individual SST followed by class-wide SST. They reported that individual SST reduced the student's inadequate behaviours, while class-wide SST maintained the learned behaviour of the student as well as improved adequate behaviours of other students in the class. On the other hand, Sekido and Tanaka (2010) suggested that class-wide SST should precede individual SST, because class-wide SST can help the classroom teacher screen their class for students needing individual intervention. Onodera (2011) reported that class-wide instruction of peers improves appropriate responding to meltdown behaviour by a Year 5 girl. After the training,

the classmates changed their attitudes and reactions to the inappropriate behaviour, which then reduced the frequency of the problem behaviour.

While there has been an increasing school-university collaborative effort to study behaviour support practices in Japanese schools across Tiers 1–3, there is no formal system for implementing evidence-based practice such as ABA and PBS in Japan. It also appears that Japanese researchers and teachers are trying to blend the Western-developed evidence-based practices into their traditional framework of whole-person education by realigning it with value-based and group-oriented practices. The range of PBS strategies that have been investigated and trialled includes but is not limited to listed areas of research and practice:

- Functional assessment of behaviours was first used in a special education school setting in 2000 and, since then, has been used more often (Hirasawa & Fujiwara, 2000). However, this systematic assessment is not mandatory in Japanese schools and is still not practised widely in Japanese schools (Kato & Ogasahara, 2017).
- Some studies investigated the effectiveness of using ABA and other associated strategies for classroom management in regular education classrooms for students without special needs (Sugimoto, 2015).
- Universal design based on the idea that making lessons effective for students with special needs is also beneficial for other students. Strategies have included (a) clear learning objectives and procedures, (b) visualised learning materials, and (c) sharing of problems and thoughts (Takahashi, 2012).
- Class-wide intervention has been reported for peer-modelling (Ohkubo et al., 2011), screening of the class to identify students in need (Sekido & Tanaka, 2010), and peer-mediated support (Muranaka & Ogawa, 2016).
- TEACCH, which was first introduced to Japan in 1984 (Sasaki, 2000), attracted cultural resistance because it was different from conventional methods. However, the more successful results shown by this structured teaching, the more people accepted this practice. More recently, Japanese researchers have used this method within group social skills training for children with ASD (Ichikawa et al., 2013).
- Augmentative and alternative communication (Otani, 2005).
- SST and school-wide SST (Takemura, 2011).

Research on the effectiveness of these strategies for students is progressing, but it is piecemeal rather than systematic. These studies have highlighted the value given to these strategies by teachers in Japan. In particular, the perceived benefit of these strategies to facilitate group work with students has been and continues to be a filter for the use of these kinds of strategies. Further research is needed.

Capacity-Building Mechanisms with Lesson Study

As in other countries, Japanese educational reforms have emphasised teachers' contractual, professional, and moral accountability (Hooghart, 2006). Since 2007, schools are required to conduct self-evaluation of their educational activities and operation and provide public reports (MEXT, 2002b). A *Guideline for School*

Evaluation (MEXT, 2006) recommended third-party evaluation of schools conducted by professionals, who are not directly involved with the school (e.g. university professors, educational researchers, and other experienced academics). However, either many schools had yet to implement the evaluation process, or inconsistent processes have been used across schools (MEXT, 2008). When MEXT presented a plan-do-check-act model of school evaluation (i.e. PDCA cycle) to encourage schools to become more focused on school development, teachers responded to this national policy demand with intensive and advanced use of Japanese lesson study (Saito et al., 2015).

The school-wide system of lesson study and its systematised teacher-led research engagement fosters a culture of learning. A school-wide research topic is chosen by the school lesson study committee for the purpose of promoting students' long-term development, addressing national priorities, and meeting school concerns. Groups of classroom teachers across different grades and school leaders then decide on learning goals that lead to pedagogical questions relevant to their specialist curricula. Other educators such as experts from universities and senior teachers who have moved to another school can be invited to collaborate with a group. Teachers then develop a series of lessons with short- and long-term goals for individual students and for the class, and they address the questions through a cyclic process of teaching (Kikkawa, 2014):

1. A research teacher plans a lesson with other group members through study of curriculum content, development of teaching materials, and clarification of possible pedagogical strategies.
2. The research teacher teaches the lesson, while other members of the group observe (directly in the classroom and indirectly using videos).
3. All members engage in group discussion to evaluate aspects of learning and teaching aspects during the lesson.
4. The research teacher revises the lesson plan based on the evaluation of the previous lesson.

The main benefit of this school-wide approach is improvement of everyday practice as "lessons learned will become part of everyday teaching practice" (Ylonen & Norwich, 2012, p. 311). Kikkawa's special educators working with small classes of students with special needs designed lessons around the research topic of "facilitating students' learning satisfaction" identified by the school's lesson study committee. The overarching school-wide topic enabled teachers and other members of the group with different expertise to think together about how their everyday teaching assists students to achieve the long-term learning goals. Their ongoing group reflection about everyday classroom interactions helped to (a) acquire a better understanding of the needs of individual students and the class and (b) prepare differentiated materials and teaching methods (Kikkawa, 2014). The lesson study committee synthesised the research findings from different disciplines (e.g. Japanese literacy, social science, special needs education) to address the research topic, which is beneficial to future practice in the school. Finally, the involvement of university

professors brought insights of theories and practices beyond the school into the lesson study group and contributed to theory development.

Most Japanese lesson studies are published in professional publications for internal consumption. In recent decades, there has been increasing attention to lesson study practice across many Western (e.g. the USA, the UK, Canada, European countries) and Asian countries (e.g. China, Singapore, and Indonesia). Most studies have been focused on teachers' improving pedagogical knowledge and practice in the Western literature of regular education. Few studies have investigated the use of lesson study to improve teacher practice for students with special needs (Benedict et al., 2013; Ylonen & Norwich, 2012). Benedict et al. (2013) suggested that, with this process, teachers are able to (a) examine teaching and learning activities and interactions in a class, (b) reflect meaningfully on how far students are achieving content standards, (c) improve their abilities to modify instructions based on individual learning needs, and (d) implement strategies coherent across classrooms.

Strengths and Weakness of Current Practice in Japan

A policy change to *Teacher License Renewal Policy*, established in 2007 and implemented since 2009, requires teachers to renew their teacher licence every 10 years by participating in 30 contact hours of university-offered courses approved by MEXT. This reform particularly reflected the national emphasis on implementation of special needs education service to accommodate educational needs of students who were ignored in the previous educational system. Although there are few studies about professional development for behaviour support conducted in regular education settings, some researchers since the reform have reported positive effects of professional development training for early childhood education teachers about ABA (Tanaka, Baba, Suzuki, & Tanaka-Matsumi, 2014) and for preservice teachers about functional behaviour analysis (Ohkubo, Iguchi, & Ishizuka, 2015; Ohkubo, Iguchi, & Noro, 2011).

Yoshida (2009) suggested that teachers should prioritise *shūdan dukuri* (i.e. build a class as community) for lesson planning to enable students with additional individual needs to ask for help from peers in the class. In order to do so, teachers need to analyse everyday interactions and learning activities to identify possible approaches to support both individuals and group and to accommodate individual needs during group instruction. Although his idea is aligned with lesson study, the historical review of behaviour support suggested that *shūdan* was overlooked in the earlier development of inclusive practice.

However, some researchers have tried to reconceptualise this social-cultural approach as an alternative view of behaviour support that is different from that of Western behaviour intervention (Shijyou, 2013). Whereas ABA targets individual students with problem behaviours, the social-cultural approach requires classroom teachers to utilise naturally occurring interactions in the class to deliver a lesson to

the class. Teachers seek to understand how the difficulties of the students with developmental disabilities vary in different situations with different people and to identify the best way to support these students. Moreover, Oishi (2016) highlighted two-way consultation between teachers and specialists about behavioural support that emerged from a long history of school-university partnership (see, for example, Matoba, Shibata, & Sarkar Arani, 2007). That is, university academics lead consultation to assess behaviour and evaluate the outcome of behavioural interventions, and teachers implement the practice in their classrooms.

Furthermore, the Japanese view of evaluation appears to be different from the Western view. Kikkawa (2014) asked special educators to explore the meaning of outcomes and of *hyouka* or evaluation. They were focused on "holistic and critical views to see a child as a whole and a lesson moment as a whole" (Kikkawa, 2014, p. 241). Instead of gathering measurable information, these educators observed classroom interactions carefully and considered the reasons behind the students' response to teaching. They asked themselves pedagogical questions focusing on students' thinking and learning as well as on teachers' teaching behaviour. While an FBA is intensive and comprehensive, their responses highlighted a metacognitive emphasis on knowing about knowing and about understanding what we understand.

Future Direction

Despite an increasing number of experimental studies in school settings, no formal system has been established to implement either evidence-based practice or RTI in Japanese schools (Hirasawa, 2009). Like lesson study, political and organisational freedom given to schools contributes to the unique development of teacher work and practice in Japan. However, this freedom also has a risk that some schools do not provide sufficient and consistent support to students with special needs. Hirasawa (2009) reviewed papers about single-case studies using ABA-based behavioural interventions in Japanese schools. Since all of these studies involved all stakeholders who actually worked with the participants in local schools and showed positive outcomes from the interventions, she suggested that these studies are important evidence that demonstrates the usefulness and effectiveness of ABA-based behavioural interventions in Japanese schools.

There has been cultural resistance from schools and teachers towards application of cognitive-focused behaviour support. For example, Sugimoto (2015), who reviewed nine studies that implemented classroom management interventions based on behaviour analysis in Japanese regular classrooms, reported that classroom teachers valued the effectiveness of interventions but felt burdened to understand the ABA theories enough to implement the intervention. Moreover, he argued that the current system of only one teacher instructing one whole class of 30–40 students makes it almost impossible to implement class-wide interventions that require the teacher to monitor the classroom interactions and to evaluate the progress by themselves.

To establish the school-wide system for behaviour support, active and positive partnerships between resource room teachers and mainstreaming classroom teacher need to (a) build a positive relationship, (b) schedule time for sharing information, (c) improve classroom teachers' understanding of their role regarding behaviour support for students with SEN in regular classrooms, and (d) improve teachers' pedagogical skills of integrating individual support and class instruction during a lesson. It is also important to foster a positive perception of a resource room, so that students with special needs and other students value it as a place to develop strengths rather than accept their weakness (Miyashita, 2011). In particular, secondary students are less accepting because they prefer to be with peers and may need alternative classes after school. More can be done to encourage school-university partnerships because behavioural interventions are being implemented only in local schools where the researchers have personal connections or existing partnerships such as university-attached schools (Miyashita, 2011).

Furthermore, a survey conducted with school leaders, classroom teachers, and special needs education coordinators reported a desire to receive professional advice not only on how to support and instruct students with educational needs but also how to assess the needs of their student (MEXT, 2012). Lack of experience with functional behavioural assessment appeared to hinder effective transition to more systematised assessment of students with special needs: Teachers who took a professional development workshop on FBA in their own time reported difficulties in conducting the assessment in their schools as the practice, which requires a team approach, is not understood (Kato & Ogasahara, 2017).

It is recognised that poor adaptation by students with developmental disabilities into school life (e.g. behavioural risks, school refusal, being victimised) is linked to social isolation or poor adaptation in future life (Takemura, 2011). A nation-wide and school-wide system of behaviour support may be helpful but has yet to navigate established cultural values and practice. However, there is increasing interest in FBA and PBS for individual students with special needs.

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Part V
Conclusion

Chapter 12
Issues and Insights for the Asia-Pacific Region

Fiona Bryer and Wendi Beamish

Abstract The societies and cultures considered in this book deliver services and supports for students with SEN in many different ways. Equally so, education systems and their guiding policy and practice are varied. All countries are engaging in behavioural support initiatives and building local staff and school capacity. The blueprint for implementation and capacity building from the PBS movement in the USA provides a proven pathway to integrate existing efforts in learning reform, research on school practice, and training of practitioners. At this stage, it is possible to be optimistic about the spread of these early initiatives in PBS for both individuals and schools across the Asia-Pacific region. However, it is premature to compare case studies, and there is a long road ahead for universities, education systems, and government policy makers in these modern economies to achieve full implementation of PBS with sustainability.

Keywords Positive behaviour support · School-wide approach · Asia-Pacific region

General Observations

This final chapter explores the ways in which the behavioural support movement in the USA has crossed the Pacific Ocean into Australia and Asia. It has been observed that chapters and case studies have shared paths towards inclusion of students with SEN, research-informed teacher practice on inclusion, and philosophical ideas about student wellbeing, diverse learners, and problem behaviour in schools and classrooms. Themes under consideration in this chapter are the importance of behavioural support to whole-child learning; the importance of the methodologies of SWPBS implementation to whole-school improvement and effective change in

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educational systems outside the USA, and the importance of ongoing capacity building to research-informed teacher practice.

The four lenses on behavioural support in this book provide comparative narratives about this movement, whose focus shifted progressively from wider landscapes to narrower "portraits". The first lens came from the twentieth-century Western behavioural science and its continuing distractions to educational reform (Hattie, 2015). The second lens came from the process of systematic articulation of PBS in the twenty-first-century USA and its continuing efforts to expand into school mental health (Weist et al., 2018), family outreach (Garbacz, McIntosh, Vatland, Minch, & Eagle, 2018), and resource leveraging of demonstration projects into larger initiatives (Horner et al., 2019). The third lens came from the variable adoption and adaptation of aspects of PBS to support students with SEN in Australia and the continuing uncertainties across states, universities, agencies, and schools about ways to deal with problem behaviour. The fourth and non-Western lens came from the case studies showing the range of the twenty-first-century initiatives in policy and practice for students with SEN across disparate modern nation-states whose educational cultures already claim global excellence in teacher practice and student achievement.

Educating diverse learners, teaching everyone in a safe and supportive learning environment, and enhancing social and academic student outcomes through tiered academic instruction and tiered behavioural support have faced institutional issues in Western countries and their learning systems (universities, government education departments, education districts, schools, and classrooms) (Chap. 1). In the USA, the search for teacher-friendly answers to institutional challenges of problem behaviour affecting learning and disrupting classrooms (Scott, 2017) has resulted in multiphase blueprints for SWPBS implementation and capacity building. The PBS movement in the USA actively worked to shorten the typical 20-year cultural lag between acquisition of scientific knowledge and its implementation in practice by massive engineering of the infrastructural continuum of teacher-friendly supports to school as an organisation. The influence and expansion of this movement have been backed by high-level research commitment to programme fidelity and sustainability, by high-level investment in in-service coaching, and by systematic collection of data by teams of researchers in order to validate measurement tools, document effectiveness, and identify areas for improvement (Part II).

The PBS movement in the USA started with the value placed on the life- and person-centred education of individuals with disability and, in the present book, with the inclusion of students with SEN in the general community and its mainstream schools. As a movement, the development of tools to establish student need, monitor their progress, and evaluate educational outcomes grew out of its historical focus on intensive assessment and intervention for improvement in the quality of life of individuals. This enduring aspect of this movement has continued with IABA personnel and others who work with individuals with severe disabilities. The development of comparable but scaled-up tools to work with individuals in inclusive settings, particularly in schools, grew out of federal legislation and funding and the dedicated efforts of key individuals to maintain research integrity and to strengthen system capacity to deliver better educational supports. The principle behind this

change was that behavioural supports for all students in the education system have benefits for increasing the wellbeing of the some (Tier 2) and the few (Tier 3) in the school community. The multi-tiered continua of services across a whole school helped to make inclusion more feasible for students with SEN. The scope and sequence of these events grew out of the wealth of the country and the size of the population and, hence, its rich academic communities; it continues to be a "work in progress" that seeks to isolate tiers for immediate attention and demonstrate the factors that sustain implementation; and this powerful model for good educative practice in the USA has come to attract interest elsewhere.

The movement of PBS to Western and non-Western countries outside the USA has set very high expectations that test the universal application of PBS. Case studies across the Asia-Pacific region have acknowledged inclusion policies and government efforts to make educational provision for students with SEN in compulsory education for all students and special schools for those with severe disabilities. Without PBS intervention, issues with both trivial and more challenging student behaviour, teacher discomfort and stress about proactive interventions for misbehaviour, and lack of evaluation of student outcomes are similar across the region. In Australia (Part III), a focus on faithful adoption of behavioural support practices (intensive and school-wide) was evident in case studies of a PBL rebranding of behavioural support in a state education department and of PBS programme in a multi-school nongovernment agency for students on the autism spectrum. However, the small national population and long distance between state capitals, together with the lack of the rigour brought by formal research, publication, and preservice training, have compromised federal and academic unity across state education and teacher training at universities, programme fidelity, and the prospects for sustainability.

In the Asian case studies (Part IV), it is evident that education systems have established whole-school approaches to instruction and dual provision for special and inclusive schools. There is pioneering work on behavioural support that takes advantage of the PBS literature. However, the contexts in which practice and research in behavioural support are being developed are distinctively different, and different tiers and different service providers are involved. On the one hand, Hong Kong and mainland China have a weak orientation towards Western education. On the other hand, Japan has a home-grown culture of in-school professional development for teachers. Case studies in these countries have reported studies limited to intensive assessment and intervention for individual students with SEN conducted by a mix of individual ABA therapists (Hong Kong), graduate research students (Mainland China), and university-school partnerships within specific prefectures (Japan). Professional supports for frontline teachers have been provided in different ways, by educational psychologists focused on psychological wellbeing in Singapore, by social workers focused on family welfare in Hong Kong, and by special educators in Korea implementing new policy guidelines for students with SEN, who are also supported by treatment teams of doctors, academics, and therapists in new regional support centres.

Although ethical schooling in the USA has not been completely transformed through widespread PBS implementation and although low-level problem

behaviours continue to disrupt classroom teaching and learning (Scott, 2017), ongoing research shows that the PBS movement is viable across schools, regions, and states. It is interesting to observe that the Korean case study is the only one in this book to report accelerated adoption of PBS from the USA. The critical features of the successful introduction of this reform involve a combination of top-down policy about behaviour, national funding, forward planning for PBS implementation in schools over several years, an explicit government focus of professional training for special education teachers, and establishment of collaborative research societies.

Issues and Insights

Case studies by contributing authors reported the status of behavioural support in their respective states and countries. They outlined policy for students with SEN, tiers of support being used, evidence-based practices and cultural influences on these practices, staff capacity building, and future directions. These narrative accounts point to emerging issues and insights about the PBS movement into Asian and Australian education framed around inclusion, implementation of behavioural support, and staff capacity that were outlined in Chap. 1.

In particular, problem behaviour is an educational challenge to inclusive practice. The PBS movement and its comprehensive blueprint for SWPBS provide a way to cross the research-to-practice gap for students with SEN. An understanding of the Western conceptualisation of behavioural support narrows a training-to-practice gap in teacher competence and confidence to deliver meaningful outcomes for diverse learners.

Learning and Behaviour

Education in Asia and Australia is currently focused on student academic performance and testing. Whereas Asian countries are motivated to maintain their international leadership, states within Australia are under pressure to improve declining literacy and numeracy standards. The Response to Intervention (RTI) model of multi-tiered instruction is visibly dominant in countries such as Singapore and Hong Kong. Similarly, the Queensland state system uses a whole-school approach to curriculum provision for tiered levels of student need, from differentiated and explicit teaching of all students, to focused teaching of identified students, and to intensive teaching for small numbers of students (Queensland Department of Education, 2017; see Chap. 5).

Behaviour is viewed differently in Asia and Australia. In the Asian case studies, there is a strong emphasis on whole-child learning and all-round development. In the case of Japan, student behaviour and social skills are developed within the context of group learning activities. In the case of Singapore, affective and pastoral

aspects of the curriculum employ a social-emotional learning framework for all three tiers of student need. By comparison, peer tutoring and cooperative learning in Hong Kong classrooms seek to encourage student self-control and self-discipline. In Australia, however, an emphasis on productive behaviours is linked to student engagement, which appears to drive the preoccupation with management practices within classrooms.

It is only in Korea that a national policy on behaviour, as distinct from either inclusion or disability, is driving a behavioural support agenda for student learning. Inclusion policy in the Western literature (Chap. 1) has been beneficial for students with SEN when problem behaviour is not an adverse influence on their learning (e.g. comprehending complex instructions, regulating their interactions with others, and communicating their emotions and need for help). Federal legislation in the USA linking problem behaviour to learning continues to facilitate the growth of the PBS movement, because it enables learners with SEN to cope with classroom demands. National policy on student behaviour seems to be critical to effective inclusion reform across the region from Australian states through to Asian countries.

SWPBS Implementation

System change is a challenge to education systems across the region. Systems have an understandable investment in learning and achievement, and their common commitment to a school-wide approach to instruction and to inclusive education indicates awareness of the importance of system planning. If a school prioritises SWPBS in their school improvement plan, then the phases of implementation provided in the USA blueprint (see Chap. 3, Table 3.1) can guide the operational process from pre-planning activities through to gradual implementation across the tiers and to a fully integrated system within school policies and operations. In the USA, it is expected that SWPBS implementation through these phases takes 3–5 years.

Two case studies that mention SWPBS are Australia and Korea. Yet, discussion of the implementation process at the school level contains no data trail on phase-by-phase implementation and outcomes. In Australia, state education departments claim to be implementing SWPBS. However, the sequential completion of phases cannot be confirmed, because there is little publically available documentation or data about the SWPBS process, either in print or on websites. In Korea, the 5-year plan for special education has enabled some projects in SWPBS to be undertaken and has prompted a wave of research publication on student outcomes.

Every country in the region is reporting progress in Tier 3 implementation at schools, with some publication of research findings. This activity typically involves special education teachers and students with high support needs. For example, researchers in Singapore audited the FBA and BIP skills and training of special education teachers (Dutt, Chen, & Nair, 2018), which underpin Tier 3 services for students with SEN. However, the research-to-practice lag seems to be further drawn out by a misunderstanding, neglect, or ignorance of the link between research literature

and the idea of evidence-based practice. Issues of sustainability now being addressed in American schools require a more rigorous approach to implementation and more awareness of the kinds of barriers to be overcome.

In most Asian countries, opportunities for research to be published in local journals foster the research climate for and research base in behavioural support.

Capacity Building

Capacity building in the USA has been based on in-service training of teachers, with targeted coaching and behaviour teams with specialist knowledge and expertise in the local district and school. Because capacity building in schools is ongoing and pivotal to each phase of implementation, the blueprint spells out the professional development activities for all staff, for the leadership team, for the final phase of sustainability, and for professional development responsive to the needs of students and staff at the school (Chap. 3, Table 3.1). Preservice preparation of teachers in the USA is being scrutinised more carefully in line with consolidation of the behavioural base of class-wide practices.

Most case studies are signalling that university training in behavioural support is occurring at some level for special education teachers in their country. They also report that universities are providing basic coursework in behaviour management for some mainstream teachers. However, the gap between teacher knowledge and skills and the in-depth expertise that is needed to scaffold teacher collaboration in the implementation of behavioural support at any tier is recognised as a major challenge across the region. In Asia, Tier 3 assessment and intervention is still in its infancy, with individual researchers carrying out individual case studies in Mainland China and with Japanese teachers trying to make use of FBA training to assess the intervention needs of individual students in their schools. The cost of specialist training may constrain the huge scope for intensive training across Asia, but there are university proposals to introduce courses and web-based technologies that build specialist capacity (e.g. Singapore, Hong Kong, Korea).

In Australia, some specialist-trained special education teachers now contribute to behavioural support teams in mainstream schools. The traditional separation of classroom teachers as curriculum managers and special educators as relationship managers for individual students with SEN occasionally shifts to co-teaching partnerships sharing teaching roles in inclusive classrooms. However, this arrangement remains the exception rather than the general case for Tier 3 supports. Moreover, the skill set for regular and specialist teacher preparation and career promotion across all Australian states (AITSL, 2011) endorses teacher practice in the areas of learning (e.g. diverse whole-child development, differentiated instruction for all students, strategies for teaching students with disability) in a safe and supportive classroom (e.g. inclusive, organised, with a useful theory of challenging behaviour and overall concern for wellbeing and safety). While these Australian standards are consistent with the capacity building blueprint of SWPBS, professional guidelines for classroom

performance in Western education continue to be criticised for poor uptake of evidence-based practices and supports for intervention in student misbehaviour (Gilmour, Majeika, Sheaffer, & Wehby, 2018).

In order to advance the PBS movement across the region, capacity building needs not only urgent attention at preservice and in-service levels for teachers but also investment by education systems in professional development for regional administrators and school leadership teams.

Concluding Statement

In this concluding chapter, we do not offer unsolicited advice or impose specific recommendations because behavioural support is still emerging across the region. We encourage stakeholders in each country to consider their own needs and capacity to progress behavioural support in their own education systems and schools. We invite them to consider what they can learn from the reported experiences of other countries.

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