

Working with Students with Emotional and Behavioral Disorders

A Guide for K-12 Teachers and Service Providers

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Series in Education



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Preface

The authors first discussed this book project in depth in 2003 and began working on the earlier version in 2006. Vance Austin was both a part-time high school special education teacher and full-time college professor and Daniel Sciarra was a full-time college professor as well as a practicing clinical psychologist at the time. We shared a passion for the work of both investigating the causes and characteristics of students with emotional and behavioral disorders and helping to improve their social-emotional well-being and, ultimately, their lives.

In 2006, we agreed to produce a book on this important subject and completed the manuscript in 2009. The book was subsequently published in 2010. We were very gratified by the supportive feedback we received from teachers, college professors, school administrators, and even parents. Dan and I had several requests from college professors for a newer edition. In response, we developed a second book that included a focus on attachment theory and relational approaches in addition to our emphasis on the value of cognitive-behavioral theory (CBT). Nevertheless, we really wanted to revisit and update our first book to include some new “best practices” and address current issues impacting school-age children and adolescents. We felt that that book conveyed, most effectively, the knowledge and skills critical to teachers and related service providers working with students with emotional and behavioral disorders. To ensure that the book accurately reflected the most recent research and read smoothly, we invited Elizabeth J. Bienia to join our writing team. Liz has written extensively on topics from preschool to PhD, she has been an adjunct college professor, and currently works as an elementary school principal in Massachusetts. Her assistance has been invaluable.

The product of our collaboration is this thoroughly updated and revised book designed to help teachers and service providers work successfully with children who exhibit emotional and behavioral disorders affording them a repertoire of valuable, evidence-based interventions. Furthermore, because the book represents a synthesis of expertise, written from the dual perspectives of an experienced clinician and an educator, the school professional who reads it will better understand the role of both teacher and service provider, thus optimizing the coordination and effectiveness of the services that are critical to the success of these students. The book also blends the cognitive-behavioral approach to intervention with the important relational perspective provided in attachment theory.

The book explores the most prevalent behavioral disorders encountered by school professionals as they work with today's students. These high-incidence behavioral disorders will be addressed by type, and each will include a discussion of the relevant characteristics, causes, assessments, and treatment strategies. Features that are unique to this book include its acknowledgement of the need for a collaborative approach to these problems by all school professionals as well as the coordination of services provided by the classroom teacher and other service providers working with students with emotional and behavioral challenges. To date, few books, if any, have provided this holistic perspective.

Finally, the book is primarily intended as a guide for K-12 teachers and related service providers (i.e., school psychologists, school social workers, speech language pathologists, guidance counselors, and occupational therapists) working with children and youth that are experiencing emotional and behavioral problems. Since it is designed to inform, familiarize, and help prepare school professionals to work effectively with these students, it could be considered a prerequisite for more advanced clinical preparation. Much of the material has been class-tested in various counseling courses as well as a preliminary graduate course designed to familiarize general education teachers with approaches to working more effectively with students with emotional/behavioral disorders.

Chapter 1

Introduction

Focus Questions

- *Why is it so difficult to provide a comprehensive definition for “emotional disturbance,” and what are some of the contributing factors?*
- *Is there a behavioral profile of a child that warrants the classification “emotionally disturbed”? If so, what are the characteristic traits?*
- *What is a functional behavior assessment, and how is it applied to classroom intervention?*
- *What are some typical nontherapeutic teacher responses to misbehavior in the classroom, and how can these be positively transformed?*
- *How can teachers avoid conflict and help build a sense of community or shared responsibility in the classroom?*

Defining Emotional and Behavioral Disorders

Providing a comprehensive definition for emotional and behavioral disorders (EBD) is very difficult, primarily due to the following factors:

- Subjectivity in determining abnormal behavior, that is, what constitutes an atypical level of severity (intensity), duration, and frequency, and how we differentiate between abnormal behavior caused by abnormal or mitigating circumstances and abnormal behavior exhibited under normal or near-normal circumstances
- Effects of developmental change on the behavioral and emotional stability of an individual
- The tendency of federal and state education agencies to exclude children and youth who are considered “socially maladjusted” or who are “court adjudicated”
- The controversy surrounding certain diagnoses whose presenting characteristics are not deemed to be primarily emotional or behavioral (e.g., ADHD, autism spectrum disorder)

- The amorphous nature of the field and special education, in general
- The inclusion or exclusion of schizophrenia and other psychiatric diagnoses, depending on the predisposition of a particular state

Subjectivity in Determining Abnormal Behavior

The recommendation of experts in the field of EBD is to develop a profile of what normal behavior is under a certain set of circumstances and then to compare it to the behavior of a child in question. If there is a significant disparity, then it can be justifiably concluded that the child's behavior is abnormal and in need of remediation. Similarly, some researchers (Kauffman & Landrum, 2018) have recommended analyzing the child's behavior according to three evaluative criteria: (1) duration, (2) intensity, and (3) frequency. Problems exist, however, in the interpretation of what constitutes an excess in these three areas of analysis. In other words, "how long is too long?" in the case of a child who is depressed, for example, or what level of a behavior is "too" intense and indicates abnormality. Finally, how many times must a behavior be evident over a period of time to be considered "too" frequent? What are the lines or levels that demarcate unacceptable from acceptable behaviors? Can or should there be constant measurements for all behaviors and emotions, or must they be adjusted according to the different types of emotions and behaviors?

The Effects of Developmental Change on the Behavioral and Emotional Stability of an Individual

Equally confounding to the identification of EBD are the effects of physiological development that are particularly evident in preadolescence and adolescence. Most children, in fact, experience significant emotional and behavioral instability during this developmental metamorphosis. Kauffman and Landrum (2018) pointed out that most adolescents engage in some form of delinquent behavior and commit what might be referred to as "status" offenses. This mercurial state associated with adolescent development further complicates and obscures the notion of what constitutes "normal" behavior at this stage. Most adolescents, for example, engage in some form of risk-taking behavior that may include smoking cigarettes, underage drinking, early sexual activity, truancy, driving a car without a license or outside the restrictions imposed by the license, and the recreational use of controlled substances, to name but a few. Because a majority of youth participate in one or more of these "delinquent" behaviors, they compose the profile of normal behavior for

adolescents; thus, a young person who engages in or exhibits these behaviors should not be considered aberrant or “emotionally disturbed.”

The Tendency of Federal and State Education Agencies to Exclude Children and Youth Who Are Considered ‘Socially Maladjusted’ or Who Are ‘Court Adjudicated’

Youth who are considered to be socially maladjusted characteristically evidence behavior that conforms with conduct disorder. Many experts in the field have argued that if children and youth commit chronic acts of vandalism, property destruction, and violence in the community and display no concern for laws or the rights of others, such behavior is pathological and therefore evidence of an emotional disturbance (Borduin et al., 2017). Indeed, it seems rather paradoxical to imagine that such egregious behavior could be confined to expression in only one setting or social context.

The Controversy Surrounding Certain Diagnoses Whose Presenting Characteristics are not Deemed to be Primarily Emotional or Behavioral (e.g., ADHD, Autism Spectrum Disorder)

When experts in the field of special education consider appropriate classification, they usually evaluate the pathological characteristic that profoundly affects learning. Accordingly, some have argued for the inclusion of students who have attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), predominantly hyperactive-impulsive type, as well as more severe levels of autism spectrum disorder, as the behavior of children with these disorders tends to impede learning as well as socialization.

The Amorphous Nature of the Field and Special Education

The field study of EBD continues to be anomalous because of the varied and often discrepant views of its researchers and expert stakeholders regarding the requisite characteristics of its constituents. This lack of anonymity is evident when one reviews the major textbooks available on the subject. There appears to be significant variation in what types of disorders are included or excluded. Perhaps what is needed is a more concise universal federal definition of what constitutes the essential criteria of an EBD. The absence of such a definition has resulted in confusion in diagnosis and treatment as well as in the determination of incidence and prevalence rates.

The Inclusion or Exclusion of Schizophrenia and Other Psychiatric Diagnoses, Depending on the Predisposition of a Particular State

Several states do not recognize psychiatric disorders, such as childhood-onset schizophrenia, as appropriate for inclusion in the category of “emotionally disturbed.” Those states that do so hold that, in particular, due to its emotional lability and behavioral volatility, schizophrenia is appropriately included in this category.

The Implication of Including Socially Maladaptive Students

As mentioned earlier, many experts (Cloth et al., 2014; Kauffman & Landrum, 2018) have regarded the exclusion of socially maladaptive students from the category of “emotionally disturbed” as counterintuitive or paradoxical as these students display pathological behavior in the community and are often referred to as “juvenile delinquents.” The fact that these students, either through truancy or expulsion, are not well represented in schools does not obviate the fact that they are emotionally disturbed. In fact, the behaviors they display in the community are the same as those that characterize oppositional defiant disorder and conduct disorder, two subtypes of EBD that are found in students who receive special education services in the school.

Some authors (Cloth et al., 2014; Kauffman & Landrum, 2018) have contended that the reason for the exclusion of students deemed “socially maladapted” is rather insidious and relates to the fiscal restraints endemic to rising school budgets and sharp constituent criticism. Many investigators have suggested that including students who are currently considered “socially maladjusted” would increase the number of students receiving special education services by 3 percent, resulting in a substantial increase in school budgets (Gresham, 2005). Yet others have noted that simply not acknowledging the real social problem these delinquent youth represent is to deny the reality of our present situation, tantamount to hiding one’s head in the sand (Barnett, 2010).

The fact remains that, in states where children and youth deemed “socially maladjusted” are currently excluded from classification as “emotionally disturbed,” they become constituents of another and far more costly system—the penal and corrections complex (Musu et al., 2019). A comparison of the two systems reveals that the educational one has a far better rehabilitation rate than the juvenile justice system (Musu et al., 2019). In addition, the estimated per-student cost of educating a child with special education services averages, depending on the district, \$10,000 per year. The estimated cost to incarcerate an individual in a state correctional facility or juvenile detention center is “\$588 per day, or \$214,620 per year, a 44 percent increase from 2014” (Justice Policy Institute, 2021, n.p.), while the rate of recidivism

can be as high as 75% in three years (Seigle et al., 2014). This high rate of return to custody is due, in part, to the poor job of rehabilitation done by these correctional facilities. In fact, experts suggest that incarcerating a youth in one of these facilities for a minor offense accomplishes one thing with certainty - the individual will learn criminal type behaviors and emerge more likely to offend again (Jeong et al., 2014; Seigle et al., 2014).

In contrast, there is evidence that if effective school-based and family-based interventions are applied early for children and youth deemed “socially maladjusted” or “delinquent,” these individuals gain the academic and social skills necessary to avoid criminal prosecution and lead socially productive lives (New York State Division of Criminal Justice Services, 2003). For this reason, if “socially maladjusted” youth are included in the category of emotional disturbance, there is an increased probability that these individuals will be contributors to society rather than wards of it. In the long run, this proposition will almost certainly prove more cost-effective as well; alleviating any guilt of being short-sighted or ‘penny wise and pound foolish’ when it comes to the lives of children and youth and the betterment of society as a whole.

A Growing Field

Even with the exclusion of socially maladjusted children and youth from the category, the number of students classified as ‘emotionally disturbed’ continues to increase significantly (Williams et al., 2018). Part of this remarkable surge is a result of the increase in the identifications of children and youth with anxiety disorder; specifically, eating disorders, obsessive-compulsive disorder, and posttraumatic stress disorder (Williams et al., 2018). The rise in the number of students affected by these disorders is a result, in part, of the increase in environmental stressors such as the perceived proliferation of terrorism, the elevated toxicity levels in air, water, and foods, and the increase in society’s use of food as a means of control, escape, a measure of self-esteem, and as a reinforcement (Norton & Abbott, 2017).

Likewise, the number of students diagnosed with various types of pervasive developmental disorder, especially autism spectrum disorder, has risen sharply in the last decade (Xu et al., 2018). Though part of this is explained by more precise diagnostic identification criteria, some researchers have pointed to rising levels of environmental toxins and related genetic factors (Xu et al., 2018).

Furthermore, the increase in the number of students who have attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder has arguably contributed to the increase as well, particularly the ‘combined type’ and ‘hyperactive-impulsive type’ subcategories. The reasons attributed to the increase in the number of children and youth diagnosed with ADHD are controversial; however, most experts agree that there

are many more bonafide cases of the disorder identified per capita today than there were ten years ago (Danielson et al., 2018).

Finally, perhaps the fastest-growing contributors to the growing incidence of EBD are those described as ‘defiance disorders’ or ‘antisocial’ behaviors. Principal among these is ‘conduct disorder’ and its precursor, ‘oppositional defiant disorder.’ Most clinicians and experts agree that these disorders are closely correlated with ineffective parenting behaviors and family factors such as abuse and neglect on the part of parents or guardians (Szentiványi, & Balázs, 2018). Some research findings have pointed to the increase in single-parent households, which often imply diminished supervision, loss of same-sex role models, and decreased income and financial resources, as a principal contributor to the rise in conduct disorder among children and youth (Szentiványi, & Balázs, 2018). In addition, investigators have noted that the higher cost of living experienced nationwide, necessitating dual incomes and reduced child supervision, may also factor into the increase in the incidence of antisocial behaviors in children and youth in the United States (Szentiványi, & Balázs, 2018).

The Importance of Understanding Attachment Theory in Working with Students With Emotional and Behavioral Disorders

Attachment Theory as a Basis for Understanding

Many authors believe that attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969; 1980) can assist in understanding and intervening more effectively with students with emotional and behavioral disorders. Attachment theory posits that from early experiences with the primary caretaker/attachment figure, the child develops an attachment style, and this book suggests that the display of student’s difficult behaviors may have the child’s attachment style (especially one that is insecure) as an underlying factor (Bowlby, 1980). Not all emotional disturbance is the result of insecure attachment because behavior is and always will be multifactorial. Attachment theory, however, places the emphasis on environment and nurturance in contrast to the neurobiological theories of behavioral disorders.

Introduction to Attachment Theory

Darwin was very influential in Bowlby (1969) who understood attachment to mothers (primary caretakers) as a means of survival; securely attached children were more likely to survive and be less in danger. Over time, the child learns the best way to establish closeness with the mother even in the face of an unavailable or abusive parent (Rees, 2007). This results in different attachment styles all designed to help the child survive. The child is either securely or

insecurely attached based on the perception of the mother's availability; for example, a child whose repeated attempts at closeness with the mother have resulted in failure may withdraw and engage in deactivating strategies, a shutting down of the attachment system. While this would be considered an insecure attachment style, it is, nevertheless, the result of the child's need for survival and an attempt to feel securely attached. In this scenario, difficult behaviors manifested later in life are interpreted as attempts to keep others away, of cutting off relationships thus helping the individual feel safe based on their early experiences with the primary caretaker.

Attachment styles follow us through life and thus have a determining effect (Bowlby, 1980). The good news is that attachment styles can be changed, and teachers can play a crucial role in effectuating a child's transition from insecure to secure by providing a safe holding environment. This book considers teachers as attachment figures, and the relationship with student's as attachment bonds, ties that one individual has to another perceived as stronger and able to provide protection and help in times of need.

A secure attachment style is key to a healthy survival because Bowlby (1969, 1980) believed that the attachment system is related to other systems of survival, most notably the exploratory system. Secure children operate from a secure base and learn to explore the world early on through play and later through relationships with other children and the larger environment. This does not mean that such children are without fear. Their fears, however, are not excessive, and they are better able to manage the fears they do have.

While attachment theory can serve as an antidote to the genetic-biological determinism of disordered behavior so much in vogue today, there is the question as to whether the quality of the attachment bond is determined more by the infant's behavior or the mothers. In other words, an infant's difficult behavior could create an insecure parent because they would not know how to deal with such behaviors; therefore, a very difficult child temperament could compromise attachment. This is the nature side of the argument. The nurture side posits that a secure parent will provide sensitive and protective care even with a difficult child. Here, temperament is not primary, but rather the parent's ability to establish a secure attachment bond. In short, attachment theory places the emphasis on the primary caretaker because of the relative position she has in shaping the quality of the attachment bond (Bowlby, 1980).

The Strange Situation: The Emergence of Attachment Theory

Mary Ainsworth, a disciple of Bowlby, moved to Uganda in 1953 and began observations of Ugandan families where she recognized three distinct

patterns of attachment: infants who cried little and in presence of their mothers explored easily; infants who cried a lot even when held by their mothers and did little exploration; and infants who were seemingly indifferent to the presence of their mothers. From this experience, Ainsworth (1969) developed the “Strange Situation” experiment (Ainsworth, 1969), a 20-minute drama divided into segments: (1) mother and infant are in the playroom and joined by a strange female; (2) the stranger plays with the infant while the mother leaves; (3) mother returns and leaves with the stranger and the infant is alone; and (4) the stranger returns followed by the mother.

It comes as no surprise that the infants did more exploration of the playroom in the presence of their mothers rather than in the presence of strangers. More interesting, however, was the infants’ reaction upon reunification with mother. Some were angry after separation from mother and wanted contact but only to kick and scream. Ainsworth (1969) labeled this group ambivalent (later known as anxious or resistant). A second group avoided contact with mother upon reunification and was labeled avoidant. Later on, a third group of insecure attachment was added, disorganized/disoriented, to describe infants who exhibited fearful, odd, and conflicted behaviors such as falling to the floor, huddling and disoriented behaviors like freezing as if they were in a trance (Main & Solomon, 1990). This resulted in four distinct categories of attachment.

Secure Attachment

These children tend to be confident, attentive, eager, and resourceful explorers of the world around them. In the “Strange Situation,” they initiate contact upon reunification (activation of the attachment system) but then return to exploratory play (activation of the exploratory system). Their mental representation of the attachment figure is one who is available when needed.

Resistant Attachment

These children often appear distressed and preoccupied with the parent that prevents exploration. They suffer from hyperactivation of the attachment system constantly seeking contact but not comforted by it. They tend to be clingy, demanding, helpless, and dependent (Bergin & Bergin, 2009). As they mature, children with an anxious/resistant attachment style tend to have boundary issues, for example, always wanting to sit next to an adult or the teacher. As adults, they are hypervigilant, dependent, and tend to score lower on self-reports around job and view of self (Richards & Schat, 2011).

Avoidant Attachment

These infants were not distressed over the separation from their parent in the Strange Situation and tended to treat the stranger in the same way as the primary caretaker. While resistant children suffer from hyperactivation of the attachment system, the opposite is true for avoidant children. The deactivation of the attachment system is their defense mechanism against an attachment figure whom they perceive as uninvolved and unresponsive. Deactivation is lost hope for responsiveness from the mother. As they grow older, these children employ distancing strategies in dealing with others. They see others in a negative light, have difficulty with trust, and rely heavily on rational thinking. They tend to be very independent and avoid intimacy. In school, they tend to sit by themselves and rarely initiate contact with others. Based on their early attachment experience, they expect rejection from others leading to withdrawal and sometimes aggression since they tend to suppress their anger.

Disorganized Attachment

Labeled as such because they lack an organized attachment strategy, these children tend to come from high-risk environments. In the "Strange Situation," they evidence fear without solution becoming frozen, trancelike, clinging effusively or the opposite, leaning away avoiding any eye contact with the parent (Hesse & Main, 2000). This is the result of experiencing the attachment figure as frightening with physical and verbal abusive behaviors.

Children with a disorganized attachment style are highly represented in clinical samples and evidence more severe forms of psychopathology (e.g., dissociation, and borderline personality disorder). Further observations of disorganized children led to the classification of two types: punitive-controlling and caregiving-controlling (Main & Solomon, 1990). The first group tends to engage in hostile and aggressive behaviors designed to humiliate the parent into submission.

The second group are more internalized and want to protect the parent by being overly happy, helpful, or polite (Moss et al., 2005). The majority are the controlling type. They employ fight or flight defenses alternating between severe aggression and withdrawal to deal with their feelings of helplessness when confronted with frightening events. Since they feel they cannot rely on the attachment figure for protection, their extreme behaviors are a form of coping.

Internal Working Models

Early attachment experiences create expectations as to how one will be treated by others. Bowlby (1980) believed that these expectations result in internal working models (IWMs). Children with secure attachment histories

tend to see the world as safe, good, responsive and themselves as worthy of respectful treatment by others. Those with insecure attachment histories tend to see the world as not safe, unpredictable, and insensitive, and they deserve to be treated in kind. IWMs shape expectations from other attachment figures, (e.g., teachers) and therefore shape behaviors towards such figures.

For the purposes here, the question arises as to whether IWMs can be changed. The answer is probably yes, but it is not easy. Those with secure attachment histories can revise IWMs to meet the needs of a changing world, but those with insecure attachment histories find it much more difficult to do so. Bowlby (1969, 1980) had an interesting concept of trauma where he coined the term *defensive exclusion* that many children with insecure attachment histories engage in due to some form of trauma history. It is common belief that traumatic memories are stored differently in the brain in what is referred to as episodic memory as opposed to semantic memory. What the child wants to believe or what the parent wants him or her to believe about the traumatic event is stored in semantic memory, but the actual event is stored in episodic memory. When episodic memory erupts into semantic memory, children with a history of attachment trauma will begin to evidence difficult and hard to understand behaviors.

The good news is that teachers can play a role in the revision of IWM's as close relationships that serve as an antidote to insecure attachment can go a long way in contributing to the development of a more secure relational self (Simpson et al., 2007; Sroufe et al., 2005). Such individuals are labeled *earned secure*.

Attachment Theory and Development

The accepted belief among attachment theorists is that the early relationship with the primary caretaker has a significant effect upon the developing brain. These relationships form the basis for self-regulation (the ability to control emotional responses) and through observation of the attachment figure how to behave in relationships (Weinfield et al., 2008). Anger and anxiety are the two most common reactions to an unavailable caretaker and will follow the child through his or her development.

Academic Development

Emotional regulation is key to academic success; therefore, insecurely attached children will have greater difficulty succeeding the school. Their anxiety or anger makes them focus less on what the teacher is saying and more on threats to their safety. These children tend to have much higher absentee rates than securely attached children, another ingredient to academic failure.

Social Development

Securely attached children and adolescents have more stable, longer-lasting relationships than those with histories of insecure attachment. In the case of bullying, so common in schools, avoidant children tend to be perpetrators; Resistant children, victims; and secure children not involved in bullying one way or the other (Kurth, 2013).

Development of Psychopathology

Bowlby (1980) posited that the child's reaction to the unavailable caretaker had two phases: protest and despair. The first is marked by constant crying with the hope that the attachment figure will return and provide the safety that the child yearns for. The second, despair, is the realization that the situation is hopeless. The definition of attachment trauma is the child's experience of the primary caretaker as a potential source of danger rather than safety. The traumatic reaction is one of "detachment"; however, if this is unsuccessful in avoiding painful memories and emotions, the child can do the opposite: show intense hatred and aggression toward the parent and parent-like figures (i.e., teachers) (Kobak & Madsen, 2008). Teachers are encouraged to keep in mind that when students exhibit such rage towards them, it may be the result of attachment despair and/or a paradoxical attempt to contact an attachment figure (Johnson, 2008).

In the world of attachment theory, an emotional and behavioral disorder, much like the concept of its opposite (resilience), is not considered an inherited, immutable trait but the result of interactions and transactions between individuals and their environment. The interplay between environment and brain chemistry is the key to accepting attachment theory's explanation of disordered behavior.

Attachment Theory in the Classroom

Bowlby (1969) held that another person and/or institution could replace the primary attachment figure. Schools and teachers can be subordinate attachment figures and help insecure students find a safe haven for exploration. Howes and Ritchie (1999) explored the attachment behaviors of more than 3000 early schoolers and concluded the following:

1. Avoidant children were more interested in classroom materials than in the teacher or other children. They did not approach the teacher, so the teacher easily lost track of them. When the teacher approached, they acted as if they did not hear or notice the teacher. If requested to come to the teacher, they did so, but

quickly left. They did not call out to the teacher to show something. When hurt or upset they did not seek the teacher and even moved away if the teacher tried to comfort them.

2. Resistant children were irritable and fussy with the teacher for no apparent reason. These students often cried and were difficult to console, resisted classroom routines like cleaning up, and they clung to the teacher and cried if the teacher attempted to leave the room. Every bump or scratch brought tears. Students were easily frustrated by difficult tasks, they were demanding and impatient with the teacher, and often not satisfied with the teacher's attempt to respond to them.
3. Secure children accepted comfort if hurt or upset, molding their bodies to the teacher if held. They were apt to spontaneously hug the teacher, touch the teacher gently during play, and readily shared their activities with the teacher, showing things and welcoming entrance into play. Students asked for help if they needed it, read the teacher's face for information, and easily followed directives and acted sorry if the teacher spoke firmly to them. Finally, students made transitions smoothly and they were glad to see the teacher at the beginning of the day.
4. Near secure children displayed moderate avoidant behaviors and some secure behaviors. They distrusted their teachers, but conformed readily to classroom procedures, such that teachers did not perceive a problem in their relationships. This category could be thought of as 'attachment in the making.'

(Adapted from Bergin and Bergin, 2009)

The concept of parallel process can help us appreciate the challenges for teachers in developing supportive relationships with insecure students (American Psychiatric Association [APA], 2020). Parallel process means that children tend to recreate the same kind of relationship with attachment-like figures (i.e., teachers) that they had with their primary attachment figure. They behave in such a way to elicit the same response from the attachment-like figure that they experienced with the primary attachment figure. Schools are the primary place where children reenact and recreate their childhood memories; yet more important than what the child says or does, is the teacher's response that can ameliorate or worsen the behavior.

Response of Teachers

Secure teachers can create secure students! Their classroom environment allows for exploration where students feel comfortable challenging themselves, asking questions, and making mistakes from which they learn. All this leads to an increase in self-confidence and self-efficacy. The acceptance of a peer-rejected child and the provision of safety and support for a disorganized child has a positive impact on the student's school performance and aggressive behaviors. To meet these challenges effectively, the teacher will need to reflect on their own attachment histories.

Teachers with an avoidant attachment style, for example, will tend to have relationships with students that lack warmth, empathy, or trust. Remember that those with an avoidant attachment history have learned to be very independent and self-reliant that can result in having unrealistic expectations for students in regard to maturity and independence (Kennedy & Kennedy, 2007). On the other hand, teachers with an anxious, or resistant, attachment history run the risk of overinvolvement with students in contrast to the under involvement of teachers with an avoidant history. They replace the rigid boundaries of the avoidant teacher with diffuse boundaries because they want to be 'close' to their students, and they need their students to like them. In the most extreme cases, they will rely on their students for help with their own personal needs (Kennedy & Kennedy, 2007). To reiterate what has been said before about the contrast between these two groups, avoidant teachers will suffer from a deactivation of the attachment system, while anxious teachers suffer from a hyperactivation of the attachment system.

Mentalization for Teachers

To effectuate positive relationships with difficult students from an attachment perspective, teachers need to engage in mentalization. Mentalization is the ability to intuit mental states in oneself and another and, as a result, understand better each other's behaviors (Slade, 2008). "Mentalization is the opposite of being reactive; for example, when confronted with a student's difficult behavior, teachers who mentalize might ask themselves: what made this student talk like that to me? Is it something internal to them? Maybe they have a good deal of self-hate and their comment to me is simply a splitting off and projection of their own self-hate. Or maybe the vicious comment is the result of something going on between the two of us? Maybe it is linked to something in our past that has never been dealt with" (Austin & Sciarra, 2016, p. 27). Secure teachers are more likely to mentalize; while insecure teachers are more likely to react. Teachers who mentalize do not allow difficult student behavior to dictate their own behavior. They do not react; they reflect; they mentalize! "From an attachment perspective, teacher mentalization might ask

the following about a student's behavior: what is this behavior about? Does it appear to be the result of anger, anxiety, deactivation of the attachment system, hyperactivation of the attachment system? What, if anything, have I done to make the interaction better or worse? What is my first internal response? Do I want to rescue this student (usually the result of dealing with a highly anxious student)? Do I want to run away from this encounter (usually the result of an angry, hostile student)?" (Austin & Sciarra, 2016, p. 28).

Mentalization requires being in touch with one's feelings that are provoked by another's behavior. The anxious, or resistant, student may provoke in teachers a feeling of wanting to rescue immediately the student, a response that replicates the early attachment dynamics. "A mentalized response might be "I can't help you right now, keep trying on your own and in a little while I will take a look and review it with you" (Austin & Sciarra, 2016, p. 28). This response is designed to delay the immediate gratification so often sought for by students with an anxious attachment style.

Avoidant students can be very challenging since they are often dismissive of a teacher's efforts to help and support. "If the teacher personalizes this rejection (very likely for an insecure preoccupied teacher), the relationship can become quite toxic. How often have we heard a teacher saying something like the following: "I did so much for that student; I went out of my way to help; and look at the thanks I got" (Austin & Sciarra, 2016, p. 28). A secure teacher who mentalizes might intuit that this is an avoidant student and allow the student a certain amount of independence and simply state that if they want help, they can ask. If this response is reiterated, an avoidant student might be surprised that their rejection of the teacher is not met with the teacher's rejection, but the opposite. In this way, the teacher helps to create a more secure base.

Finally, there are the most challenging of all students - those with a disorganized attachment history. The hallmarks are extreme emotional dysregulation and behaviors that provoke fright in others, including teachers who tend to worry about the student's emotional stability. The fearful situation provokes the fight/flight response. Neither option is effective. If teachers want to flee, it is a pretty sure sign they are dealing with a disorganized student; however, a teacher who mentalizes will not react; rather, they will understand that such behaviors come from a history of pain and trauma.

Secure teachers have empathy for even the most difficult behaviors knowing they most likely reveal an abusive history. In the heat of the moment, it is impossible to reason with these students. "The best the teacher can hope for is to calmly deflect the behavior by saying something like the following: Now is not the time for us to discuss your behavior, but we both know something is very wrong, and perhaps with time we can figure it out. If it's ok with you, I'd like to

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Author Bios

Vance Austin, PhD, has worked for over 40 years with children, adolescents, and young adults who have learning disabilities, various emotional and behavioral disorders, and autism, as a child-care counselor, program coordinator, and teacher. He currently teaches part-time in a school for adolescents with emotional/behavioral disorders in Nyack, NY.

In addition, Vance has been a college professor at five universities and colleges and is currently a Professor and Chairperson of the Department of Special Education at Manhattanville College, in Purchase, NY. He has authored numerous articles and book chapters and has co-authored two popular textbooks on topics related to working effectively with students that have learning and behavior problems as well as co-authored two books with Daniel Sciarra: *Difficult students and disruptive behavior in the classroom: Teacher responses that work* (W.W. Norton, 2016) and *Children and adolescents with emotional and behavioral disorders* (Pearson Education, 2010) and has presented his research at national and international conferences. In addition, Vance is an editor for *Insights on Learning Disabilities: From Prevailing Theories to Validated Practices* and is on the editorial board for the *Journal of the American Academy of Special Education Professionals*.

Dan Sciarra, PhD, is Professor of Counselor Education and Chairperson of the Department of Counseling, Research, Special Education, and Rehabilitation at Hofstra University. He is both a licensed psychologist and a certified school counselor at the secondary level. Dr. Sciarra has worked for over 20 years with children and adolescent in school and community/clinical settings. He currently practices at the Child Guidance Center in Stamford, Ct where he provides bilingual (Spanish) counseling services to children, adolescents, and their families many of whom have a member(s) with a disability.

At Hofstra, Dr. Sciarra supervises practicum counseling students and teaches a course, among others, entitled "Contemporary Issues in School Counseling." Dr. Sciarra is the sole author of two books, *Multiculturalism in Counseling* (Peacock, 1999) and *School Counseling: Foundations and Contemporary Issues* (Thompson/Wadsworth, 2004) as well as two books: *Difficult students and disruptive behavior in the classroom: Teacher responses that work* (W.W. Norton, 2016) and *Children and adolescents with emotional and behavioral disorders* (Pearson Education, 2010) co-authored with Vance Austin. He has published numerous journal articles and book chapters in the field of

multicultural counseling. His current research involves the study of predictive factors in the post-secondary education status of Latinos.

Elizabeth J. Bienia, EdD, has served as an elementary school administrator and educator in various rural and urban settings in Massachusetts for more than 30 years, where she has worked to create positive learning environments for all students. As a building administrator, she has fostered partnerships with staff, families, various local businesses, and higher education institutions. Dr. Bienia has previously been a graduate adjunct professor at the Van Loan School of Education, Endicott College and the College of Our Lady of the Elms.

Dr. Bienia is a primary author on *Masculinity in the Making: Managing the Transition to Manhood* (2020); *The Burden of Being a Boy: Bolstering Educational and Emotional Well-Being in Young Males* (2020); *Acceptance, Understanding, and the Moral Imperative of Promoting Social Justice Education in the Schoolhouse* (2019); *The Empathic Teacher: Learning and Applying the Principles of Social Justice Education to the Classroom* (2019); *From Cradle to Classroom: A Guide to Special Education for Young Children* (2019); *The Potency of the Principalship: Action-Oriented Leadership at the Heart of School Improvement* (2018); *Dog Tags to Diploma: Understanding and Addressing the Educational Needs of Veterans, Servicemembers and their Families* (2018); *Stars in the Schoolhouse: Teaching Practices and Approaches that Make a Difference* (2018); *From Head to Heart: High Quality Teaching Practices in the Spotlight* (2018); *From Lecture Hall to Laptop: Opportunities, Challenges and the Continuing Evolution of Virtual Learning in Higher Education* (2017). She has also written book chapters on such topics as emotional well-being for students with learning disabilities, post-secondary campus supports for emerging adults, parental support for students with learning disabilities, home-school partnerships, virtual education, public and private partnerships in public education, professorial pursuits, technology partnerships between P-12 and higher education, developing a strategic mindset for LD students, the importance of skill and will in developing reading habits for young children, and middle school reading interventions to name a few. Additionally, she has co-authored and illustrated several children's books to include *Yes, Mama* (2018), *The Adventures of Scotty the Skunk: What's that Smell?* (2014), and many of the *I am Full of Possibilities* Series for Learning Disabilities Worldwide.

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