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EFFECTS OF DELAY FADING AND SIGNALS ON SELF-CONTROL CHOICES BY CHILDREN	46 47
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The current study is a systematic replication and extension of work by Schweitzer & Sulzer-	62
Azaroff (1988). The effects of delay fading alone and in combination with signals on choices	63
between larger, delayed reinforcers and smaller, immediate reinforcers by four children with lan- guage deficits were examined. For one of the two children exposed to delay fading alone, larger	64
reinforcers were selected at longer delays relative to the initial self-control assessment. For all	65
four children, the delay-fading-plus-signal condition resulted in selection of larger reinforcers at considerably longer delays relative to the self-control assessment	66
Key words: delay fading, self-control, signaled delays	67
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Self control can be defined as selection of (aggression) when aggression resulted in c	me 71 chin

26 Self-control can be defined as selection of 27 larger, delayed reinforcers over smaller, immedi-28 ate reinforcers (Rachlin & Green, 1972), and 29 can be increased via intervention. Signaling the 30 delay to the larger reinforcer has been shown to 31 reliably increase self-control. For example, Voll-32 mer, Borrero, Lalli, and Daniel (1999) found 33 34 35 36 that adolescents with severe behavior disorders impulsive behavior engaged in more

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ion) when aggression resulted in (or a 15-s video clip) immediately, and a 72 selfcontrol response (mand) resulted in three 73 chips (or a 30-s video clip) following an ⁷⁴ unsignaled delay. However, these same partici-⁷⁵ pants were more likely to mand and less likely 76^{-1} to engage in aggression when the delay to rein-77 forcement was signaled. For one participant, ⁷⁸ the delay remained constant at 10 s. For the ⁷⁹ other participant, the delay was gradually 80 increased from 10 s to 10 min. Ensuring main-⁸¹ tenance of desired behavior under delayed rein-⁸² forcement when immediate reinforcement is 84 concurrently available for alternative responses 85 is important because reinforcement may often 86 87 be delayed in home or school settings (Ghaemmaghami, Hanley, & Jessel, 2016). 88

Another method shown to increase selfcontrol is delay fading (e.g., Dixon et al., 1998; 90

Gokey, Wilder, Welch, Collier, & Mathisen, 2 2013; Mazur & Logue, 1978; Schweitzer & 3 Sulzer-Azaroff, 1988). Delay fading involves 4 providing choices between a smaller, immediate 5 reinforcer and a larger, immediate reinforcer, 6 the delay to which is gradually increased, or 7 between a larger, delayed reinforcer and a smal-8 ler, delayed reinforcer, the delay to which is 9 gradually decreased. For example, Schweitzer 10 and Sulzer-Azaroff (1988) found that six pre-11 schoolers were initially more likely to choose 12 one preferred item available immediately over 13 three preferred items available after a delay. 14 Following a procedure in which both options 15 were initially available immediately, and the 16 delay to the larger magnitude was gradually 17 increased in 5-s increments each time the larger 18 magnitude was selected during four out of five 19 trials, selection of the larger, delayed magnitude 20 increased. Because delays were signaled with both instructions about the contingencies 21 22 (i.e., the length of the delay and colors paired 23 with one immediate preferred item and three 24 delayed preferred items) and an indicator light 25 which remained on during the delay, delay fad-26 ing was not evaluated in isolation. In addition, 27 delay fading was discontinued for four of five 28 participants due to time constraints, as opposed 29 to participant responding (i.e., failure to choose 30 the delayed option on four of five trials). Thus, 31 the effects of unsignaled delay fading, which 32 continues until selection of the delayed option 33 is no longer maintained, are unknown.

34 The purpose of the present study was to sys-35 tematically replicate and extend the work by Schweitzer and Sulzer-Azaroff (1988) by exam-36 37 ining the combined effects of delay fading and signals and the isolated effects of delay fading 38 39 on the maximum delay at which four children 40 with developmental disabilities selected larger, 41 delayed reinforcers over smaller, immediate 42 reinforcers. Systematic replications may provide 43 additional information about the generality of 44 treatment effects, thus enhancing the external 45 validity of single-subject research.

46 47 METHOD Participants and Setting 48 Four male children, 3-5 years of age, were 49 recruited from a program for students with developmental delays. Teachers identified students with at least moderate receptive and $^{>1}$ expressive language delays who had difficulty 53 following directions and engaged in "impulsive" 54 behavior. Garrett had a medical diagnosis of autism and used limited language, mostly echolalia or one-word requests for preferred items. 20 Jonah had a medical diagnosis of autism, was nonvocal, and communicated using picture₅₀ exchange. Noah had a medical diagnosis of autism and an educational diagnosis of language 61 and speech impairment. He communicated using words, short phrases, and picture ⁶ 63 exchange. Diagnostic information was not available for Joel, but he engaged in disruptive 65 and off-task behavior (e.g., grabbing items 66 without permission, crawling under tables), and 67 emitted limited (mostly unintelligible) vocal behavior. All four children received services to address language deficits. Sessions for the present study were conducted in a room separate 71 from the classroom. 72 73 Measures and Data Collection 74 75

Choices between options were recorded, and data were summarized by dividing the number 76 of trials the child selected one option by the 77 total number of trials in each session, and mul-78 tiplying by 100. Data were also collected on 79 obtained delays to reinforcement during 20% 80 of sessions to evaluate procedural integrity. 81 Trained observers used digital timers to record 82 obtained delays. A trial was considered correctly 83 implemented if the obtained delay matched the 84 programmed delay to the second. Procedural 85 integrity was calculated within each session by 86 dividing the number of trials implemented cor- 87 rectly by the total number of trials and multi-88 plying by 100. Procedural integrity averaged 89 97% across participants. 90

1 Interobserver agreement data were calculated 2 for participant choices during at least 17% of 3 sessions for each participant. An agreement was 4 scored for a trial if two independent observers 5 recorded the same response, and mean agree-

6 ment across all evaluations and children was 7

- never less than 99%.
- 8 9

Experimental Design and Procedures 10

11 A concurrent operants arrangement was used 12 in each condition.

13 Preference assessment. A multiple-stimulus-14 without-replacement preference assessment 15 (DeLeon & Iwata, 1996) was conducted with eight edibles, identified as preferred via parent 16 17 report, to identify the three most-selected. The 18 children chose one of these three edibles prior 19 to each session as the reinforcer for that session. 20 These procedures differed slightly from those of Schweitzer and Sulzer-Azaroff (1988), who 21 22 allowed children to select rewards at the begin-23 ning of each trial and who did not use edible 24 items due to restrictions imposed by the school 25 setting.

26 *Exposure trials.* Prior to each session of the 27 magnitude assessment, delay-sensitivity assess-28 ment, delay-discounting assessment, and delay-29 fading and delay-fading-plus-signal treatments 30 (described below), the children were exposed to 31 the consequences of each option. One plastic 32 zip-top bag was placed in front of the child 33 with one of the options inside. The child was given the instruction, "Take that one." Once 34 35 the child touched the bag, the experimenter 36 removed the edible(s) from the bag and placed 37 it on the table in front of the child either 38 immediately or after a prespecified delay. The 39 order in which exposure trials were conducted 40 was counterbalanced across sessions. These pro-41 cedures differed slightly from Schweitzer and 42 Sulzer-Azaroff (1988), who provided two expo-43 sure trials per option prior to all assessment ses-44 sions as well as each time the delay changed

45 during delay fading.

Magnitude assessment. This assessment was 46 conducted to ensure sensitivity to reinforcer 47 amount and was similar to some trials of the 48 assessments conducted by Schweitzer and 49 Sulzer-Azaroff (1988). During each trial, one 50 and three pieces of the same edible were placed 51 approximately 30 cm in front of the child in 52 zipper bags, and the experimenter said, "Pick 53 one." Following selection, the experimenter 54 presented the item(s) as quickly as possible. 55 Five trials were conducted per session, and ses- 56 sions continued until the larger amount was 57 selected during at least 80% of opportunities 58 for three consecutive sessions. A total of three 59 or four sessions were conducted per child, all 60 on the same day. 61

Delay-sensitivity assessment. The 62 delavsensitivity assessment was conducted to ensure 63 sensitivity to delay and was not conducted by 64 Schweitzer and Sulzer-Azaroff (1988). On each 65 trial, the child chose between one edible deliv- 66 ered immediately and one edible delivered after 67 a 10-s delay. Unique discriminative stimuli 68 (i.e., index cards) were placed in each bag with 69 the edibles to enhance discrimination. Prior to each session, one stimulus was randomly 71 assigned to the immediate option and another stimulus to the delayed option. This pairing 73 procedure was similar to that used by Schweit- 74 zer and Sulzer-Azaroff during the second half of 75 the preassessment for all but one participant, 76 and during the postassessment for all partici-77 pants. Although stimulus-option pairings chan-78 ged across sessions, exposure trials were 79 conducted to pair stimuli with associated con-80 sequences. For Garrett, Jonah, and Noah, stim- 81 uli consisted of black and white index cards. 82 For Joel, preference for discriminative stimuli 83 was suspected, so stimuli were changed after he 84 vocally labeled one stimulus multiple times 85 within a single session or selected one stimulus 86 more than the other during at least two ses- 87 sions, regardless of the option with which it 88 was associated. Stimuli were changed to black 89 with white dots and white with black dots, to 90

red and yellow, to white with horizontal green stripes, and white with vertical green stripes until 2 preference was eliminated (i.e., vocal labeling did not occur, and Joel selected the immediate option during at least 80% of trials across three consecutive sessions). Five trials were conducted per session, and two to six ses- sions were conducted per day. If a child did not select the immediately available edible dur- ing at least 9 80% of trials across three consecu- tive sessions. 10 and preference for discriminative stimuli was not 102 suspected, and there was not an increasing trend 12 in selection percentage, the delay was increased 13 to 20 s.

Self-control assessment. This assessment was 14 conducted to measure self-control (i.e., choice of 15 three edibles delivered after a delay or one edible 16 immediately), and served as a baseline for the 17 subsequent treatment(s). It differed from the 18 delay-sensitivity assessment because the amount 19 of the delayed outcome was larger, and arbitrary 20 discriminative stimuli were not presented 21 (although differences in number of edibles may 22 have acquired discriminative prop- erties). On 23 each trial, options were presented inside clear 24 bags in front of the child, and the experimenter 25 said, "Pick one." If the child chose the bag with 26 one edible, the experimenter removed the edible 27 from the bag and presented it as quickly as possible. If the child chose the bag with three 28 edibles, the bag with one edible was removed, 29 and the selected bag remained visible during the 30 delay. If the child attempted to access the edibles 31 during the delay via reach- ing or manding, the 32 experimenter blocked access and said, "Wait," 33 after each attempt. Attention was otherwise not 34 provided. After the delay elapsed. the 35 experimenter removed the edibles from the bag 36 and presented them as quickly as possible. If the 37 child selected both options, bags were removed 38 and re-presented until a single option was 39 selected. If a child chose neither option within 5 40 s, "Pick one" was repeated. Children always made a selection fol-lowing the second instruction.

Each trial was followed by a pause to equate 46 intertrial intervals. The pause was 5 s following 47 selection of the larger edible, and was equal to 48 the delay to the larger edible plus 5 s following 49 selection of the smaller edible. Five trials were 50 conducted per session, and one to nine sessions 51 were conducted per day. When the child 52 selected the larger edible during at least 80% of 53 trials across three consecutive sessions, the delay 54 to the larger edible was increased from 10 s to 55 20 s, 40 s, and 80 s. This assessment ended 56 when the child selected the larger edible during 57 less than or equal to 60% of trials across each 58 of three consecutive sessions. 59

Delay-fading treatment. Noah and Joel were 60 initially exposed to a delay-fading treatment. 61 Sessions were identical to those in the self- 62 control assessment except the delay started at 63

5 s (similar to Schweitzer & Sulzer-Azaroff, 64 1988) and increased in smaller step sizes to 65 promote selection of the larger reinforcer. 66 When the child chose the larger edible during 67 at least 80% of trials across three consecutive 68 sessions, the delay increased by 5 s. If the child 69 chose the larger edible during at least 40% of 70 trials across three consecutive sessions, the condition ended. Once delays reached 80 s, four 72 73 trials were conducted per session to minimize session duration, and delays were increased if 74 75 the child selected the larger edible on at least three of the four trials across three consecutive 76 77 sessions.

Delay-fading-plus-signal treatment. For Noah 78 79 and Joel, this treatment began after delay fad-80 ing, and the initial delay equaled the last delay 81 that maintained selection of the larger edible. For Garrett and Jonah, this treatment began 82 after the self-control assessment, and the initial 83 delay was 5 s. The treatment was identical to 84 delay fading except a cell phone countdown 85 timer ("Clock" app on the SamsungGalaxy S5, 86 screen size 12.95 cm) was on the table. At the 87 88 start of a trial, the timer was face down approximately 91.4 cm from the participant. If the 89 participant selected the delayed option, the 90

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timer was moved face-up 30.5 cm from the 1 participant during the delay. Instructions about 2 3 the timer were not provided, but all children 4 had prior exposure to timers in their classrooms. Following a timer beep, the experi-5 menter removed edibles from the selected bag 6 7 and presented them quickly. Between one and 8 nine sessions were conducted per day. This 9 evaluation was terminated once a child no longer selected the larger reinforcer on at least 11 80% of trials across three consecutive sessions. 12 Shorter (Garrett and Jonah) and longer 13 (Garrett) delays were re-presented to demon-14 strate replicability and experimental control. 15

RESULTS

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18 Data from magnitude and delay-sensitivity 19 assessments are not shown (but are available 20 from the corresponding author upon request). 21 During the magnitude assessment, Noah, Joel, 22 Garrett, and Jonah selected the larger reinforcer 23 on 100%, 100%, 100%, and 93.3% of trials, 24 respectively, over the last three sessions. During 25 the delay-sensitivity assessment, Noah, Joel, 26 Garrett, and Jonah selected the immediate rein-27 forcer on 93.3%, 86.7%, 93.3%, and 80% of 28 trials, respectively, over the last three sessions 29 when the delay was 10 s (Garrett and Joel) and 30 20 s (Noah and Jonah). Thus, results verify 31 reinforcer sensitivity to magnitude and 32 immediacy.

33 Figure 1 displays results for Noah and Joel. 34 During the self-control assessment. Noah and 35 Joel were more likely to select the larger. 36 delayed reinforcer over the smaller, immediate 37 reinforcer when the larger reinforcer was 38 delayed up to 40 s and 20 s, respectively. Dur-39 ing the delay-fading treatment, larger, delayed 40 reinforcers were selected more often than smal-41 ler, immediate reinforcers as delays increased to 42 90 s (Noah) and 25 s (Joel). Thus, although 43 this intervention increased delay tolerance for 44 Noah, it did not noticeably increase delay tolerance for Joel. During the delay-fading-plus-45

signal treatment, preference for the larger, 46 delayed reinforcer was maintained as delays 47 increased to 100 s (Noah) and 40 s (Joel). 48 Thus, the signal increased delay tolerance only 49 moderately above that already produced via 50 delay fading. 51

Figure 2 displays results for Garrett and 52 Jonah. During the self-control assessment (first 53) condition). Garrett and Jonah were more likely 54 to select the larger, delayed reinforcer over the 55 smaller, immediate reinforcer up to delays of 56 20 s and 40 s, respectively. During the delay- 57 fading-plus-signal treatment (second condi- 58 tion), Garrett and Jonah were more likely to 59 select the larger, delayed reinforcer over the 60 smaller. immediate reinforcer as delays 61 increased to 70 s and 100 s, respectively. Pref- 62 erence switched once delays reached 75 s and 63 105 s for Garrett and Jonah, respectively. Simi- 64 lar patterns of selection occurred during replica- 65 tions, in which the first delay that no longer 66 maintained predominant selection of the larger, 67 delayed reinforcer (75 s; Garrett) and the last 68

delay that did (70 s and 100 s for Garrett and 69 Jonah) wer{ jolenesy mind. These results further

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Our results replicate and extend work by Schweitzer and Sulzer-Azaroff (1988) and support the notion that self-control is mutable and dependent on context. The delay-fading-plus-79 signal condition, when compared to the self- 80 control assessment, increased the delay that 81 maintained selection of the delayed reinforcer. 82 These results are similar to those obtained by 83 and Sulzer-Azaroff. Unsignaled 84 Schweitzer delay fading, which was not evaluated by 85 Schweitzer and Sulzer-Azaroff, increased the 86 maximum delay that maintained selection of 87 delaved reinforcers for Noah but had little or 88 no effect for Joel. Some variability within 89 phases may be related to reinforcer variability 90

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Figure 1. Percentage of trials in which the large, delayed reinforcer was selected during the self-control assessment, delay-fading (DF) treatment, and delay-fading-plus-signal (DF + Signal) treatment for Noah and Joel. At the bottom of each phase, the shorter duration indicates the delay to the smaller reinforcer and the longer duration indicates the delay to the larger reinforcer.

(participants chose among their top three preferred items). However, systematic changes in
selection did not co-occur with changes in
levels of responding; thus, it is unlikely that
variability within phases was influenced by
changes in preference.

The effectiveness of delay-fading (for one
child) and delay-fading-plus-signal (for all children) treatments may have been due to the
smaller step-size change (5 s) than those used
in the self-control assessment (10 s, 20 s, 40 s,
and 80 s). Smaller step sizes might be more
likely to maintain selection of the delayed reinforcer because delay increases may be less discriminable. The delay-fading-plus-signal

treatment resulted in selection of the larger reinforcer at delays of 100 s, 40 s, 70 s, and 77 100 s for Noah, Joel, Garrett, and Jonah, 78 respectively. However, it is unclear if these 79 delays mirror delays these individuals contacted 80 in their home and school environments. It 81 remains to be seen whether the increases in the 82 delay at which at which the larger, delayed rein- 83 forcer was selected over the smaller, immediate 84 reinforcer are clinically significant for these par- 85 ticipants or other children who are described as 86 impulsive. Future researchers might increase 87 these delays even further by providing preferred 88 items during the delay (Newquist, Dozier, & Neidert, 2012), or programming a response 90

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Figure 2. Percentage of trials in which the large, delayed reinforcer was selected during the self-control assessment 7_1 26 and delay-fading-plus-signal (DF + Signal) treatment for Garrett and Jonah. For Garrett, asterisks indicate points at 72 which the signal topography changed. At the bottom of each phase, the shorter duration indicates the delay to the smal-73 ler reinforcer and the longer duration indicates the delay to the larger reinforcer. 74

31 requirement between the onset of the delay and 32 the deliverv of the reinforcer (Dixon, 33 Rehfeldt, & Randich, 2003; Ghaemmaghami 34 et al., 2016).

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35 Effective methods for increasing self-control may be useful in schools. For example, it is in 36 37 students' long-term best interest to choose aca-38 demic work completion that produces delayed. 39 larger reinforcers (e.g., recess), in lieu of other responses (e.g., disruptive behavior) that might 40 produce immediate, brief reinforcers (e.g., peer 41 42 attention). This example illustrates how param-43 eters other than reinforcer magnitude may dif-44 fer across alternatives that produce immediate 45 and delayed reinforcement. Researchers have

examined how reinforcer rate, reinforcer qual- 76 ity, and response effort interact with reinforcer 77 delay to influence choice between concurrently 78 available alternatives (e.g., Neef, Bicard, & 79 Endo, 2001). Because choices between imme- 80 diate and delayed outcomes that differ along 81 multiple parameters may be common in school 82 settings, future research should evaluate signals 83 that are easy to deliver in a classroom. such as 84 contingency-specifying instructions (e.g., "Fini-85 sh your worksheet, then you can play").

The present results should be considered in 87 light of three limitations. First, sequence 88 effects must be considered. Repeated testing 89 90 alone may be responsible for some

intervention effects. Future researchers might 2 use multiple-baseline designs to evaluate the 3 effect of repeated testing. Second, for Noah 4 and Joel, within-subject replications of the last 5 value that produced preference for the delayed 6 option were not conducted. However, results 7 were replicated when reversals were conducted 8 for Garrett and Jonah. Future research might 9 include a control (i.e., no consequence) option to further demonstrate experimental control. 11 Third, in the delay-fading-plus-signal condi-12 tion for Noah and Joel, initial delays were not 13 reset to 5 s; thus, the probability that the sig-14 nal would acquire reinforcing properties may 15 have decreased, making this condition less 16 effective. 17 In summary, we replicated and extended

18 work by Schweitzer and Sulzer-Azaroff (1988) 19 by continuing delay fading until preference switched to the immediate option and by eval-21 uating delay fading in isolation for two partici-22 pants. Both delay-fading and delay-fading-plus-23 signal conditions produced moderate increases 24 in self-control. These results add to the research 25 on the use of signals and delay fading as methods for increasing self-control. 26

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