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ORIGINAL RESEARCH REPORT



Heart rate increase predicts challenging behavior episodes in preschoolers with autism

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ABSTRACT

Identifying triggers for challenging behavior is difficult in some children with autism because of their limited communication abilities. Physiological indicators of stress may provide important insights. This study examined whether heart rate (HR) predicts challenging behavior in children with autism. While wearing an electrocardiograph monitor, 41 children with autism aged 2- to 4-years participated in tasks designed to induce low-level stress (e.g. waiting for a snack). Coders identified 106 time periods during which challenging behaviors occurred and also coded 106 randomly selected time samples that did not include challenging behaviors. Thirteen (32%) participants exhibited challenging behaviors and were included in the study. Baseline-corrected HR was computed for each behavior/time sample. On average, children with autism showed a $22 \pm 16\%$ HR increase from baseline 58 ± 22 seconds before the onset of a challenging behavior episode. Peak HR change had moderate predictive utility (area under the curve = .72, $p < .001$). The increase in HR before challenging behaviors was similar for children of different characteristics (age, autism severity, expressive language ability, overall developmental ability). Results highlight the promise of using physiological stress to predict challenging behavior in preschoolers with autism; although, they need to be replicated in larger samples. Given recent advances in wearable biosensing, it may be useful to incorporate HR monitoring in autism intervention.

LAY SUMMARY

In children with autism, changes in heart rate (HR) may help us predict when challenging behavior is about to occur – but this hypothesis has not been well studied. In this study, HR increase moderately predicted challenging behavior in preschoolers with autism. Given recent advances in wearable sensors, it may be useful to incorporate HR monitoring in autism intervention.

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Autism spectrum disorder; challenging behavior; heart rate; biosensing; preschoolers; Laboratory Temperament Assessment Battery

Many children with autism spectrum disorder, a disorder of social communication impairments and behavioral rigidity (American Psychiatric Association [APA], 2013) exhibit challenging behaviors (e.g. Matson, Wilkins, & Macken, 2008; McTiernan, Leader, Healy, & Mannion, 2011), which can have a devastating impact on family well-being (Lecavalier, Leone, & Wiltz, 2006), predict teacher burnout (Hastings & Brown, 2002), and are the most frequent cause of hospitalizations (Siegel & Gabriels, 2014). Children with autism often have difficulty communicating their emotions (Hedman et al., 2012; Nuske, Vivanti, & Dissanayake, 2013); therefore, it can be difficult to infer when they are experiencing stress. Our research has shown less concordance between internal physiological arousal and external emotional communication in preschoolers with autism than in typically developing children (Nuske et al., 2018). As a result, it may be difficult for parents and teachers to know when to intervene to reduce oncoming challenging behaviors. Indeed, evidence-based approaches to

managing challenging behaviors emphasize the importance of understanding triggers (Doehring, Reichow, Palka, Phillips, & Hagopian, 2014; Machalicek, O'Reilly, Beretvas, Sigafoos, & Lancioni, 2007; Otten & Tuttle, 2010), but parents and teachers report that challenging behaviors surface without warning.

Many challenging behaviors may be a reaction to stress that can be detected through physiological signals. When stressed, one's HR increases, pupils dilate, skin sweats, the face heats up and heart rate variability (HRV) decreases (Bradley, Miccoli, Escrig, & Lang, 2008; Ioannou, Gallese, & Merla, 2014; Kreibig, 2010; Stern, Ray, & Quigley, 2001; Thayer, Ahs, Fredrikson, Sollers, & Wager, 2012). HRV is an established measure of regulated emotional responding in typically developing children, adolescents and adults (Appelhans & Lueken, 2006; Beauchaine, 2015; Berna, Ott, & Nandrino, 2014; Williams et al., 2015). In typically developing infants and preschoolers, HR and HRV have been found to be

associated with emotional reactivity and social skills, as well as behavior problems (Calkins & Keane, 2004; Cole, Zahn-Waxler, Fox, Usher, & Welsh, 1996; Eisenberg et al., 1988; Fox, 1989). Porges, Doussard-Roosevelt, Portales, and Greenspan (1996) first described that physiological dysregulation may have a causal relation to child behavior problems; this model has been supported in children at-risk for externalizing disorders (Calkins, Graziano, & Keane, 2007), children with conduct problems (e.g. Beauchaine, Gatzke-Kopp, & Mead, 2007), and children with reactive aggression (Scarpa, Haden, & Tanaka, 2010). In children with autism, one study found associations between lower HRV and behavioral problems (Van Hecke et al., 2009). Therefore, HR and HRV not only reflect objective measurement of emotional dysregulation, but may also be used to better understand, and even predict behavioral problems in children with autism and other disorders.

Preliminary findings also suggest the potential use of *in vivo* recording of HR and HRV to better understand behavioral problems as they occur in individuals with autism. Two single-case studies have shown elevated HR prior to challenging behavior episodes in autism and/or intellectual disability. HR was examined in the 5-second (Barrera, Violo, & Graver, 2007) or 15-second interval preceding the onset of challenging behaviors (Freeman, Horner, & Reichle, 1999; see also reanalysis of data using a 30-second window; Freeman, Grzymala-Busse, Riffel, & Schroeder, 2001). Although informative, if physiological arousal is to inform in-the-moment treatment planning, analysis of a longer time window is needed, to allow time to intervene. In their research on nine hospitalized youth with autism, Cumanasoiu et al. (2017) found a longer time window predicted aggression. It is not yet clear at which time point, before the onset of a challenging behavior episode, HR signals are most predictive of the oncoming behavior. Moreover, as these studies were conducted with youth or adults, it is unclear whether these HR predictors apply to young children with autism. HR signals may predict challenging behaviors in some children with autism with certain characteristics, rather than in all children with autism. Based on existing literature, we hypothesized that increase in HR and decrease in HRV would be associated with the onset of challenging behavior episodes in pre-schoolers with autism. We also explored whether this association varied by gender, age, autism severity, cognitive ability and expressive language ability.

Methods

Participants

Forty-one children with autism aged 2- to 4-years were recruited as part of a larger study on emotional reactivity and regulation (Nuske, Hedley, Tseng, Begeer, & Dissanayake, 2017; Nuske, Hedley, Woollacott, et al., 2017), and participated in tasks from the Laboratory Temperament Assessment Battery (Goldsmith, Reilly, Lemery, Longley, & Prescott, 1999; Goldsmith & Rothbart, 1999). Our previous studies focused on emotion regulation strategies and did not present any HR or HRV data. The tasks in the current study mimicked everyday life experiences requiring emotional regulation in low-

Table 1. Participant characteristics.

	<i>M</i> /ratio	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max
Age (months)	37.46	4.612	29	44
Males:females	10:3	–	–	–
Autism symptoms				
ADOS CS ^a	7.69	2.689	3	10
SCQ ^b	14.85	8.345	4	27
Cognitive development (MSEL ^c)				
Standard score	66.23	20.41	49	117
Verbal developmental quotient	54.87	29.14	24	119
Receptive language (months)	20.62	12.80	8	49
Expressive language (months)	20.23	9.65	9	39
Nonverbal developmental quotient	62.07	24.46	20	108

^aAutism Diagnostic Observation Schedule Comparison Score.

^bSocial Communication Questionnaire.

^cMullen Scales of Early Learning. Age equivalents in months are reported for Receptive Language and Expressive Language.

level stress situations (e.g. interacting with a stranger, waiting for a snack) as well as two situations during which children usually experience positive emotion (e.g. bubbles, peek-a-boo task; see Nuske, Hedley, Woollacott, et al., 2017 for a description of tasks). Thirteen (32%; 10 males, three females) children were included as participants in this study (see Table 1 for participant characteristics) as they presented with significant challenging behaviors (see Table 2 for coding scheme) during the 1–1.5 h long testing sessions. An additional child also exhibited these behaviors, but due to technical problems with the electrocardiogram (ECG), HR data were not recorded.

Two participants were taking medication at the time of testing; one participant was taking Risperidone and Lovan, and another was taking Akatinol Memantine, Pantogam Active, Cerebrolysin, and Encefabol (Piritinol). The first of these children also had Fragile X full mutation; no other parent participant reported a genetic condition in their child. Analyses were conducted with and without these participants, to ensure that they alone did not drive observed effects. As the pattern of results were unaffected, and due to the small sample size, data from these participants were retained.

Procedure

Upon arrival for the testing session, parents were shown a picture book detailing each of the tasks the child would be involved with by the first author, while their child engaged in 5–10 min of warm-up play with a second experimenter. Informed consent from parents was taken before entering the testing room. Parents were seated in a comfortable chair and provided with a laptop to complete the study questionnaires during the session and were instructed to “act as they normally would” if their child approached them. Parents (or a familiar caregiver) were present in the room throughout the testing session. Tasks were administered in a fixed sequence (see Nuske, Hedley, Tseng, et al., 2017; Nuske, Hedley, Woollacott, et al., 2017) to maintain any carryover emotion effects between the tasks constant across participants. Start time varied across participants (9:15 am–1:30 pm, median = 10 am). The research was approved by the La Trobe University Human Ethics Committee (approval number 11-052),

Table 2. Challenging behavior categories and examples taken from the literature.

Category	<i>M (SD)</i> , across children	Example behaviors
Aggression towards others <i>n</i> = 4	.46 (1.13)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hitting others • Pushing others • Aggravates others physically • Pulling others hair • Kicking/hitting others • Grabbing from others
Property destruction (aggression towards objects) <i>n</i> = 24	1.77 (1.69)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Throwing/kicking/pushing objects • Banging on objects • Ripping paper
Self-injury (aggression towards self) <i>n</i> = 2	N/A	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Head banging • Poking self in eye • Pinching/scratching self • Pulling own hair
Loud noises <i>n</i> = 52	4.38 (3.5)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Swallowing objects • Screaming/yelling • Crying
Noncompliance <i>n</i> = 24	2.08 (1.89)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Whining loudly • Stubborn/uncooperative • Transition difficulties • Out of seat behavior
All challenging behaviors <i>n</i> = 106	8.69 (4.82)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leaving caregiver's supervision without permission

and consent from the children's parents was obtained according to the Declaration of Helsinki (BMJ 1991; 302: 1194).

Measures

Autism symptoms. Clinic-based diagnoses of the children with autism were confirmed using the Autism Diagnostic Observation Schedule (ADOS-2; Lord et al., 2012), a semi-standardized play-based assessment of autism symptoms administered by research-reliable clinicians. Modules are selected based on the age/language level of children (10 × Toddler Module, 2 × Module 1, 1 × Module 2). ADOS-2 calibrated Comparison Scores (CS) are on a 10-point scale with scores anchored to ADOS-2 classifications (higher scores indicating higher autism symptoms), based on the raw overall scores, module used, and age of the child. Severity scores are provided by the publisher for Modules 1–3 (Lord et al., 2012). For the present study, CS for the toddler module were based on algorithms provided by Esler et al. (2015; see also Hedley, Nevill, Uljarević, Butter, & Mulick, 2016). Additionally, parents completed the Social Communication Questionnaire (SCQ; Rutter, Bailey, & Lord, 2003). The SCQ is a 40-item, parent-report measure of symptomatology associated with autism, with total possible scores ranging from 0 to 39 (higher scores signify higher autism symptoms), and with a recommended cutoff of 12 for children younger than 8 years (Corsello et al., 2007).

Overall developmental ability/expressive language ability. Overall developmental ability was assessed using the Mullen Scales of Early Learning (Mullen, 1995), a standardized assessment for children up to 68 months of age. This assessment includes four sub-scales for the age range in the study: Visual Reception (a child's ability to process visual information, e.g. matching shapes), Fine Motor (a child's motor co-ordination in tasks related to writing readiness and the manipulation of objects, e.g. drawing lines), Receptive Language (a child's understanding of language, including attention to speech, and knowledge of vocabulary and concepts, e.g. following

directions) and Expressive Language (a child's ability to use actions and spoken language, including grammar, to express meaning and logical reasoning, e.g. naming objects). Items follow a developmental trajectory, hence are different for children of different ages. These four scales are included in the Early Learning Composite, the standard score ($M = 100$; $SD = \pm 15$), and each scale produces a separate age equivalent score (in months, e.g. 24 months equals skills equivalent to a typical 24-month-old). The age equivalent scores of the Expressive Language sub-scale was used as a measure of expressive language in the children. Following the recommendations of Dykens and Lense (2011), the sample included children with autism across functioning levels, with 69.2% low-functioning (standard score < 70), 15.4% moderately functioning (standard score 70–84) and 15.4% high-functioning (standard score ≥ 85).

Physiological measurement. Children wore vests with sewn-in pockets to house the Biopac BioNomadix ECG and accelerometer module transmitters. ECG electrodes which connected to the transmitters were placed on children's back (instead of chest) to avoid children pulling at them. Transmitters connected wirelessly to the Biopac MP150 receiver, allowing children free movement around the testing room. HR and HRV were measured during three time periods: resting state, before challenging behaviors and before random times periods where no challenging behaviors occurred.

Resting state period. To establish a baseline HR/HRV for each child, data were collected during a 3-min resting period data, when the child was calm (i.e. no negative emotion or high intensity positive emotion), not moving too much (three-coordinate accelerometer data were checked and referenced to ECG data to ensure data did not have movement artifacts) and not interacting with others (for eight children this was during watching a relaxing, developmentally appropriate video (the last 3 min of *Sweet Dreams Spot*; Cooper-Vince et al., 2017), for five children, this was when they were engaged in free play while sitting). A 3-min resting state period was selected given the age of children, and

used previously as an alternative to 5-min epochs in younger samples (Cooper-Vince et al., 2017), and in autism samples (Matsushima et al., 2016).

Challenging behaviors. After establishing reliability (80% agreement on two consecutive videos), coders blind to study hypotheses coded the following challenging behaviors from the session videos: aggression, self-injury, property destruction, loud noises and noncompliance after children were fitted with ECG equipment (see below for details on ECG recording). Additionally, 15% of videos were double-coded, with 87.56% agreement between coders. Consensus coding was conducted on discrepancies between codes. The selection of challenging behaviors to code was based on those included in Machalicek et al. (2007), Matson and Rivet (2008), and Rojahn, Matson, Lott, Esbensen, and Smalls (2001). See Table 2 for examples of each challenging behavior category and frequency of challenging behavior categories. In order to code discrete challenging behavior episodes (as behaviors sometimes overlapped), after coding a challenging behavior, a new challenging behavior episode was only coded if there was at least a 2-min break since the last time the child exhibited a challenging behavior.

Random time sampling. Based on previous work in the area, in order to compare HR/HRV before challenging behaviors ($n = 106$) to a “non-event” (i.e. a time in which no challenging behavior occurred), we computed the same number of randomly selected points from the same session per participant in which no challenging behaviors occurred (e.g. Barrera et al., 2007); videos were checked at these time points to verify this. The locations of random nonoccurrence points were selected by a random number generator (*StatTrek: Statistics Random Number Generator*), corresponding to time during the session. No duplications were allowed. Where a period of challenging behavior was found, another random number was computed until a true nonevent was found. If random events overlapped with one another, the number that appeared first in the sequence was moved earlier to create a 2-min time difference between events.

Electrocardiogram event marking and cleaning. First, resting state periods and challenging behaviors were labeled on the software using the synced video stream, and random time samples were marked on the software corresponding to the randomly generated numbers. ECG data were processed in Biopac AcqKnowledge version 4.4.2. Second, a band-pass (finite impulse response) filter was applied to de-noise the ECG signal, with low frequency fixed at 1 Hz and high frequency at 35 Hz (e.g. Khaing & Naing, 2011; Ruha, Sallinen, & Nissila, 1997). Third, QRS complexes were labeled and visually inspected for artifacts in the marked data sections (Task Force of the ESC and NASPE, 1996). In patches of data artifacts, due to movement (accelerometer data were referenced), data were either linearly interpolated in-between R peaks and/or R signals were amplified, so that extracted data metrics were unaffected by artifacts (Task Force of the ESC and NASPE, 1996). For eight challenging behaviors (in data from three participants), the previous 2-min period of ECG data contained artifacts in the majority of the period, so those challenging behaviors were excluded from the analysis

(eight loud noises and four noncompliance; final numbers are reported in Table 2).

Heart rate (HR) and heart rate variability extraction. For each challenging behavior and random time sample, baseline-corrected peak HR (beats per minute (BPM)) and HRV (root mean square of the successive differences (RMSSD)) were extracted from the cleaned ECG signal from the 2-min period before the challenging behavior onset. Increase in BPM from baseline reflects majority sympathetic activity, whereas increase in RMSSD, a commonly reported measure of HRV, from baseline reflects majority parasympathetic activity (Kleiger, Stein, Bosner, & Rottman, 1992; Kreibig, 2010; Stern et al., 2001; Task Force of the ESC and NASPE, 1996). RMSSD is recommended as the measurement of short term components of the HRV, and is preferred to other HRV metrics such as pNN50 and NN50 as it has better statistical properties (Task Force of the ESC and NASPE, 1996).

Statistical analysis

All data analyses were completed in SPSS. Normality was assessed in all continuous variables using the methods outlined in Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), with a critical value set at ± 3.29 . As RMSSD data were positive skewed, they were log-transformed. Baseline BPM and RMSSD were significantly correlated with change in BPM ($r = .56, p < .001$) and RMSSD ($r = .53, p < .001$), respectively, so all analyses of change in BPM and RMSSD included baseline BPM and RMSSD, respectively, as a covariate. Two ANOVAs were computed to test whether percentage change in HR (baseline-corrected BPM) and HRV (baseline-corrected RMSSD) were higher before challenging behavior episodes relative to random time samples. All challenging behaviors were analyzed together as there were no significant differences in BPM or RMSSD before different challenging behaviors (all $ps > .24$). To test the hypothesis that baseline-corrected BPM and baseline-corrected RMSSD would be associated with onset of challenging behavior episodes, conditional logistic regression analyses were run, nested by child, with challenging behavior vs. random time sample as the dependent variable. Random time sample was entered as the reference category so that odds ratios reflected the odds of a challenging behavior episode. Conditional logistic regression was chosen as the statistical technique to avoid bias arising from the unconditional analysis of matched data (Sun, Sinha, Wang, & Maiti, 2011). To explore whether the association between HR/HRV and challenging behavior was moderated by child characteristics, main effects and interaction effects between HR/HRV and age, gender, autism severity, and cognitive ability were added to the model. Models were run separately per interaction to avoid collinearity between independent variables. The predictive utility of HR increase and HRV decrease for challenging behaviors (vs. random time samples) was also examined via a receiver operating curve (ROC) analysis. Area under the curve coefficients from the ROC area designated as follows: .90–1 = excellent, .80–.90 = good, .70–.80 = fair, .60–.70 = poor and .50–.60 = fail.

Table 3. Conditional logistic regression on the effect of peak heart rate (bpm) increase and child characteristics on challenging behavior.

	Model Summary		Change Summary		Individual Predictors		
	<i>p</i>	χ^2	<i>p</i>	χ^2	<i>p</i>	<i>Exp(B)</i>	<i>B</i>
Step 1							
Baseline heart rate (BPM)	.003	8.97	–	–	.003	0.977**	–.02
Step 2							
BPM increase (% change ^a) before:	<.000	32.51	<.000	23.26	<.000	1.037***	.04
• Random time sample: <i>M</i> = 8.18, <i>SD</i> = 14.59							
• Challenging behavior: <i>M</i> = 21.96, <i>SD</i> = 16.10							
Step 3							
Gender (0 = female, 1 = male)	<.001	48.14	.02	8.33	.02	0.207*	–1.57
Gender (0 = female, 1 = male) × BPM increase					.29	1.017	.02
Age (months)	<.001	50.51	<.001	20.42	<.001	0.768***	–.26
Age (months) × BPM increase					.14	1.004	.004
Autism severity (SCQ ^b)	<.001	92.53	<.001	61.83	<.001	.872***	–.14
Autism severity (SCQ ^b) × BPM increase					.968	1.000	<.001
Overall developmental ability ^c	<.001	97.02	<.001	44.30	<.001	1.072***	.07
Overall developmental ability ^c × BPM increase					.568	1.000	<.001
Expressive language ^d	<.001	83.94	<.001	29.59	<.001	1.094***	.09
Expressive language ^d × BPM increase					.958	1.000	<.001

p* < .05.*p* < .01.****p* < .001.^aFrom baseline BPM.^bSocial communication questionnaire total score.^cMullen scales of early learning standard score (early learning composite).^dExpressive language age equivalent.

Results

Heart rate

Mean baseline-corrected BPM before challenging behavior was significantly higher (*M* = 21.96, *SD* = 16.10) than before random time samples (*M* = 8.18, *SD* = 14.59), $F(1, 212) = 51.20$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .20$ (controlling for baseline BPM), with the peak at *M* = 57.96 s, *SD* = 21.60. The conditional regression results, determining whether peak HR increase from baseline predicts challenging behavior episodes, relative to a random time sample, are presented in Table 3. Heart rate increase was significantly associated with challenging behavior, with each 1% increase in HR from baseline associated with four times higher likelihood of a challenging behavior (vs. random time sample). Though all of the main effects of child characteristics were significant (gender, age, autism severity, overall developmental ability and expressive language), none of the interactions of BPM increase with child characteristics were significant at $p < .05$. In the ROC analysis, the area under the curve was .72, $p < .001$, 95% CI = .65 to .79, see Figure 1.

Heart rate variability

Mean baseline-corrected RMSSD (% change) before challenging behavior (*M* = –26.08, *SD* = 71.06) was not significantly different than before random time samples (*M* = 2.85, *SD* = 87.17), $F(1, 212) = 0.14$, $p = .71$, $\eta^2 < .01$ (controlling for baseline RMSSD). The conditional regression results, determining whether % RMSSD change from baseline predicts challenging behavior episodes, relative to a random time sample, are presented in Table 4. Heart rate variability change was not a significant predictor. The ROC analysis (sensitivity and specificity) also indicated that as a solitary predictor, HRV change is not significant; area under the curve = .52, $p = .58$, 95% CI = .44 to .61, see Supplementary

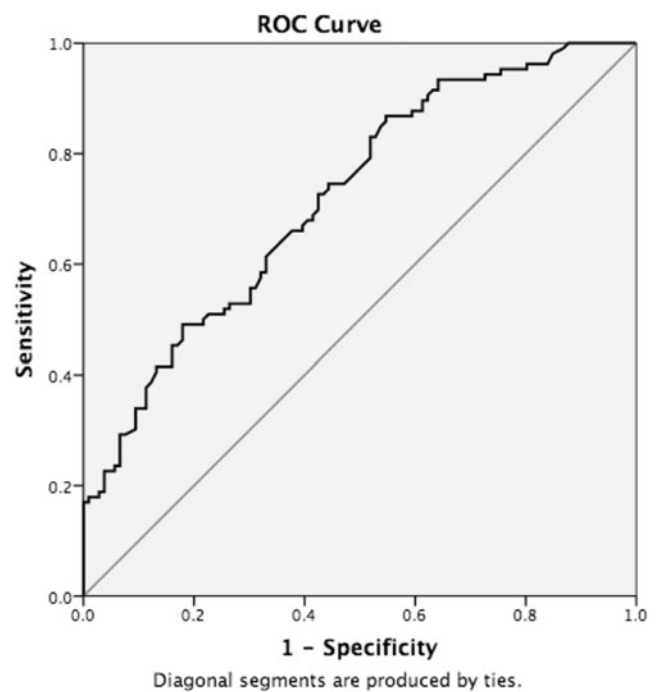


Figure 1. Receiver operating curve statistics (sensitivity and specificity) on the predictive utility of baseline-corrected heart rate (% increase).

Material. Though the main effects of age, overall developmental ability and expressive language were significant, none of the interactions of RMSSD increase with child characteristics were significant at $p < .05$.

Discussion

The aim in this study was to determine the predictive utility of HR increase and HRV decrease to challenging behaviors in young children with autism. The findings indicate that HR

Table 4. Conditional logistic regression on the effect of heart rate variability (RMSSD) change and child characteristics on challenging behavior.

	Model summary		Change summary		Individual predictors		
	<i>p</i>	χ^2	<i>p</i>	χ^2	<i>p</i>	<i>Exp(B)</i>	<i>B</i>
<i>Step 1</i>	<.001	17.18	–	–	<.001	1.627***	.45
Baseline heart rate variability (RMSSD)							
<i>Step 2</i>	<.001	17.26	.74	0.11	.74	1.097	.09
RMSSD % change ^a before:							
• Random time sample: <i>M</i> = –26.08, <i>SD</i> = 71.06							
• Challenging behavior: <i>M</i> = 2.85, <i>SD</i> = 87.17							
<i>Step 3</i>	<.001	27.22	.06	5.49	.09	0.124	–2.09
Gender (0 = female, 1 = male)							
Gender (0 = female, 1 = male) × RMSSD change					.25	0.214	.76
Age (months)	<.001	51.75	<.001	30.52	.003	0.604**	–.50
Age (months) × RMSSD change					.08	1.158	.15
Autism severity (SCQ ^b)	<.001	55.64	<.001	38.45	.88	1.010	.009
Autism severity (SCQ ^b) × RMSSD change					.08	0.945	–.06
Overall developmental ability ^c	<.001	121.46	<.001	75.92	<.001	1.17***	.16
Overall developmental ability ^c × RMSSD change					.445	0.989	–.01
Expressive language ^d	<.001	60.25	<.001	37.42	.04	1.136*	.127
Expressive language ^d × RMSSD change					.82	0.992	–.01

p* < .05.*p* < .01.****p* < .001.^aFrom baseline RMSSD.^bSocial communication questionnaire total score.^cMullen scales of early learning standard score (early learning composite).^dExpressive language age equivalent.

increase, but not HRV decrease, is associated with onset of challenging behaviors in preschoolers with autism. Therefore, HR may provide useful decision support during moment-to-moment treatment planning for preschoolers with autism.

Interestingly, though HRV typically decreases during stress conditions in adolescents and adults (Li et al., 2009), this was not found in our sample of preschoolers before challenging behaviors. A possible explanation for these discrepant findings is that HRV increases from 3 to 9 years (Goto et al., 1997), and by preschool age this may not be yet a stable system for emotion regulation. Indeed, some children decreased HRV before challenging behavior (as would be expected), but others increased HRV, and the variability was large, suggesting no consistency in HRV stress responses at this age. HR increase before challenging behavior was more pronounced for children with autism who were older than 37 months, which indicates that challenging behaviors were associated with higher stress levels in older preschoolers with autism. Given the discrepancy between findings on HR and HRV further research is needed to elucidate the relationship between cardiac reactivity and challenging behavior in clinical pediatric populations, including school-age children and adolescents.

Of note, baseline HR and HRV were associated with challenging behavior in the children. Results suggests that when considering how cardiac stress relates to challenging behavior in children with autism, it is important to take into account the child's resting level or baseline autonomic arousal levels. Curiously, directions of associations with baseline HR and HRV were not as expected, with lower baseline HR and higher baseline HRV relating to challenging behavior, relative to the non-challenging behavior random time sample. This is inconsistent with previous findings of associations between lower HRV with high reactive aggression in children (Scarpa et al., 2010) and high emotional instability in adults (Koval et al., 2013), along with countless reports of

associations between lower HRV and difficulties with emotion regulation among child, adolescent, and adult samples (see Beauchaine, 2015; Berna et al., 2014; Williams et al., 2015). Additional research with larger, more representative samples, is needed to further explore this finding.

Advanced warning of an oncoming challenging behavior episode may be particularly important for minimally verbal children with autism who have limited means to communicate their stress to others. About a third of children with autism are minimally verbal (e.g. have less than 20 functional words) past age 5, even after early intervention (DiStefano, Shih, Kaiser, Landa, & Kasari, 2016; Hus, Pickles, Cook, Risi, & Lord, 2007). However, verbal ability was not found to interact significantly with HR increase for the prediction of challenging behavior, suggesting that HR increase is a useful biomarker regardless of children's verbal ability.

Given the recent technological advances in wearable biosensing (e.g. wireless ECG, fitness chest straps and wristbands) which allows for less invasive, less costly and less restrictive tracking of physiological stress over time (Wang et al., 2017), it may be useful, based on our results, to incorporate HR monitoring in early autism intervention (Goodwin, 2008). By signaling children's stress, such wearables may allow parents and teachers to intervene and create learning opportunities for emotional expression and regulation at critical time points. However, given the strength of the prediction and likelihood of false positives, individualized human-computer interaction and machine learning algorithms may be needed to increase the utility of including such information in moment-to-moment treatment planning. Heart rate monitoring may also help to inform intervention in children with other disorders, such as children with conduct disorder, given previous findings of an association between cardiac reactivity and conduct problems in children (e.g. Beauchaine et al., 2007). Further research is needed to investigate the predictive utility of cardiac reactions for

externalizing behaviors in children with autism of different characteristics and other conditions.

Limitations

A key limitation in this study was the small sample size, which limits power to detect true effects. However, there was a large number of challenging behaviors across the 13 participants ($n = 106$) who were drawn from a larger sample of preschoolers with autism ($n = 41$). Furthermore, as the only published study in this area included two participants with autism (Barrera et al., 2007), the current findings from the sample of 13 provide an important, albeit preliminary, indication of the utility of HR data in marking the onset of challenging behaviors in young children with autism. A further limitation was that data were collected in a laboratory setting, and may not generalize to the challenging behaviors in children with autism within everyday community settings (Matson et al., 2008). However, given the recent advent of commercially available wearable biosensors, this study provides the groundwork for future studies on challenging behaviors in children with autism in settings that matter most, such as home or school.

Conclusions

The findings from the current study provide an initial indication that HR increase can predict challenging behavior episodes in preschoolers with autism. The findings suggest that ongoing HR monitoring may be useful in moment-to-moment decision support for the prevention of challenging behavior episodes in some children with autism. Future research is needed to confirm these preliminary findings.

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Disclosure statement

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