Chapter 4

Managing Behavior and Promoting Social-Emotional Learning

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Learning Outcomes

4.1 Describe the classroom management and positive behavioral support (PBS) teachers can effectively implement to promote prosocial behavior.

4.2 Summarize the purpose and procedures of developing an effective functional behavioral assessment (FBA).

4.3 Identify students with social-emotional learning difficulties and determine appropriate social-emotional intervention.

4.4 Describe procedures for arranging the instructional environment of the classroom to promote appropriate behavior and social-emotional learning.

As Donna Douglas listened to her son, Jeff, playing with a classmate in his room, she closed her eyes and flinched when Jeff said, "That's not how you do it. I know how to do it. Give it to me." She hoped that the classmate would understand Jeff and not find her son's difficulty in interacting with others so disagreeable that the classmate would not return. Donna knew that Jeff was not mean or cruel, but he had a difficult time controlling his impulses and communicating with others.

At their weekly meeting, Malik's special education teacher's first comment to the school counselor was, "I feel let down. Malik and I had an agreement that I would give him free time at the end of the day if he brought a signed note from his regular classroom teachers that indicated his behavior was appropriate in class. After 3 days of signed notes and free time, I checked with his regular classroom teachers only to find out that Malik had his friends forge the teachers' initials. The teachers had not seen the note. Though this experience is discouraging, I remind myself that 2 years ago, Malik was incapable of spending even 30 minutes in a regular classroom without creating havoc. He has improved, and he even has a friend in the regular classroom. It is comforting to know that despite periodic setbacks, he's making progress."

Jeff and Malik, like many students with learning and behavior problems have a hard time in school, at home, and at work because of how they interact with others. This chapter will help you understand how to promote more effective behavior in students who have learning and behavior problems. We describe interventions that you can use to improve student behaviors, along with programs and activities that can assist in teaching interpersonal social skills. First we discuss how teachers can use effective classroom management practices as well as positive behavioral support (PBS) approaches to promote success in their classrooms.

Classroom Management and Positive Behavioral Supports

How can teachers use classroom management and PBS to promote prosocial behavior? When someone mentions classroom management, most teachers think of discipline and classroom management rules. In fact, many special education teachers most dread the part of their job that addresses students' behaviors, largely because teachers think of classroom management as what one does *after* a student has a behavior problem. Another way to think about classroom management is to consider what one can do to establish a school and classroom climate that promotes desirable behaviors and reduces inappropriate behaviors. Thus, the majority of a teacher's classroom management efforts take place *before* any behavior problems. Students are taught to have expectations for the behaviors and routines of the classroom. Effective classroom management works very hard to prevent behavior problems. Take a look at the website **Positive Behavioral Interventions & Supports**, designed to assist teachers in preventing behavior problems as well as solving them.

It is important to establish processes and procedures early in the year that provide students with a clear understanding of the routines and the behaviors that are acceptable. Organizing these acceptable practices as a group and establishing them early is a critical first step for successful classroom management. One way to inform and get "buy in" from students about the classroom rules is to discuss the rules and possible consequences with them. The more specifically teachers define what they want students to do and not do, the more likely teachers are to see those behaviors. For example, teachers should consider providing clear expectations about the following:

- When it is acceptable to talk with peers and when it is not.
- When it is acceptable to move around the classroom and when it is not.
- How students are expected to move from the classroom to other settings in the school.
- Behaviors expected during typical class routines such as group work, whole-class instruction, and individual study time.
- When and how assignments should be submitted.
- What students should do when they have a conflict with another student.

As new children enter the class during the year, assigning a veteran student as a guide or mentor can help the new student to understand the rule system of the classroom.

The purpose of some classroom rules is to regulate student behaviors that are likely to disrupt learning and teacher activities or cause damage or injury to property or others. Sharing the explicit conduct rules and demonstrating the rewards of working within the rule system is particularly important for students with behavior problems. Making rewards contingent on full class participation can also assist a teacher because students will encourage each other to work within the rule system.

Ms. Schiller works with junior high students with emotional disorders in a self-contained setting. Establishing conduct rules early in the year and setting up a reward system for "good behavior" is an important part of her program. Ms. Schiller comments:

> As far as I know, all of the students in this class are here primarily because they cannot cope with the rule systems in regular classrooms. This happens for a variety of reasons, and as a part of our social skills program, we discuss some of the reasons and how to cope with them. But the majority of the day is focused on academic learning. To accomplish effective learning, we have a set of written and unwritten rules that the students and I are willing to operate under. We establish these rules at

the beginning of the year during class meetings. In these meetings, we talk about how the school operates and the rules under which it operates, and then we decide what rules we want the classroom to function under. Usually it takes several days to establish these rules. The rules we generally decide on are these:

- During discussions, one person talks at a time.
- When a person is talking, it is the responsibility of the rest of us to listen.
- Work quietly so you won't bother others.
- No hitting, shoving, kicking, etc.
- No screaming.
- Do not take other people's possessions without asking.
- Treat classmates and teachers with respect and consideration.
- When outside the classroom, follow the rules of the school or those established by the supervisor.

Each day when we have a class meeting, we discuss the rules, our success with using these rules, and how the rules have operated. Sometimes we add new rules based on our discussions. I involve the students in this evaluation and decision making. We also discuss what we think are reasonable consequences when students have difficulty with the room. Typically, we agree that it is reasonable for students to have a warning that they are breaking a rule. After one warning, students are given a small consequence, typically loss of 1 minute of free time. After the second warning, we have a consequence that is more significant. Having all of the students knowing the rules and consequences increases the likelihood they buy into them.

Eventually, we begin to decide when the rules can be made more flexible. In this way, I hope that I am helping the students assume more responsibility for their own behavior while at the same time maintaining a learning environment that is conducive to academic as well as social growth.

I think there are three main reasons this rule system works in my classroom. First, the students feel like they own the system and have a responsibility to make it work. We have opportunities to discuss the system and to make changes. Second, we also establish a token system for appropriate behavior and learning (Soares et al., 2016). Third, I communicate regularly with the parents, letting them know how their child is performing.

See Chapter 2 for more on token systems.

The classroom rules that a teacher establishes depend on the social context of the school and the classroom and the teaching–learning process. Some guidelines to use in developing and implementing classroom rules and management systems follow:

- Have the students help in selecting rules for the classroom.
- Select the fewest number of rules possible.
- Check with the principal or appropriate administrative personnel to determine whether the rules are within the school guidelines.
- Select rules that are enforceable.
- Select rules that are reasonable.
- Determine consistent consequences for rule infractions.
- Have students evaluate their behavior in relation to the rules.
- Modify rules only when necessary.
- Have frequent group meetings in which students provide self-feedback as well as feedback to others about their behavior.
- Allow students to provide solutions to nagging class or school issues through problem solving.
- Consider rules that are consistently broken, and determine ways to provide time each day for students to appropriately break the rule. For example, if students are talking during class, tell them that if they are respectful to others for 45 minutes you will provide them 5 minutes at the end of class to talk with each other.

Classroom Management and Student Behavior

Lisa Rosario is a first-year, middle school resource-room teacher in a suburban school district. She is not happy with the behavior of the students who come to the resource room. She told an experienced special education teacher in her school, "I feel like I know what to teach and how to teach, but I just can't seem to get the students to behave so that they can learn. What can I do to make the students change?" The experienced teacher suggested that Ms. Rosario first look at her own behavior to change the behavior of the students in her classroom. Figure 4.1 provides a checklist for teachers to evaluate the effectiveness of their interventions.

Ms. Rosario is not alone. Teachers identify classroom management as a cause of stress and frequently cite it as

MyLab Education
Video Example 4.1

Teachers at CHIME use positive reinforcement to recognize behaviors they want students to repeat. They use a warning system for unwanted and inappropriate behaviors and give students an opportunity to turn behavior around.

Figure 4.1 Implementation Checklist

If your intervention is not working, consider the following:

- Have you adequately identified and defined the target behavior?
- Have you selected the right kind of reinforcer? (What you decided on may not be reinforcing to the student.)
- Are you providing reinforcement soon enough?
- Are you providing too much reinforcement?
- Are you giving too little reinforcement?
- Are you being consistent in your implementation of the intervention program?
- Have you made the intervention program more complicated than it needs to be?
- Are others involved following through (e.g., principal, parent, "buddy")?
- Is the social reinforcement by peers outweighing your contracted reinforcement?
- Did you fail to give reinforcers promised or earned?

the reason they leave the teaching profession. Following are some guidelines for Ms. Rosario to consider when facilitating more appropriate behavior among her students:

1. *Look for the positive behavior, and let students know you recognize it.* Most teachers indicate that they provide a lot of positive reinforcement to their students. However, observations in special and general education teachers' classes indicate relatively low levels of positive reinforcement (McIntosh, Vaughn, Schumm, Haager, & Lee, 1993; E. A. Swanson & Vaughn, 2010; Sprouls et al., 2015). Teachers need to provide a lot more positive feedback than they think is necessary. Start by trying to track how many positive things you say each day to each of your students. Remember, they need to reflect accurately your academic or behavioral expectations. Look for at least five positive things you can say to each student each day. See Apply the Concept 4.1 for a simple but effective way for teachers to increase positive responding.

One of the fundamental rules about positive feedback is that it needs to be both specific and immediate. "Carla's homework is completed exactly the way I asked for it to be done. She has numbered the problems, left space between answers so that they are easy to read, and written the appropriate heading at the top of the paper." A second fundamental rule about positive feedback is that teachers need to be clear about what behaviors are desirable and undesirable.

A clear list of class rules and consequences is an important step in making classroom management expectations understandable. Procedures that are part of the classroom routines need to be taught to students. Rules outline the behaviors that are acceptable and unacceptable. Teachers' criteria for what constitutes a behavior problem are the basis for classroom rules (Emmer, Evertson, & Worsham, 2009). For example, Lisa Rosario, who indicated that she had difficulty with classroom management, engaged in further discussion with the experienced teacher and realized she had difficulty establishing and enforcing classroom procedures. Once the experienced teacher observed in her classroom and assisted her in establishing routines, Ms. Rosario experienced significantly fewer difficulties with classroom management.

Positive reinforcement with elementary and secondary students needs to be considered differently. Elementary students find public recognition in front of the entire class more rewarding than do older students, who prefer to receive individual feedback.

2. *Reinforcers can be used to encourage positive behavior.* Both positive reinforcement and negative reinforcement increase behavior. Most people think that negative reinforcement means something harmful or "negative," but that is not the case. Positive reinforcement is the presentation of a stimulus (verbal response, physical response such as touching, or a tangible response such as a reward) following the target behavior, intended to increase a target behavior. Figure 4.2 lists reinforcers that teachers may want to consider using in their classrooms.

See Chapter 2 for more on reinforcement.

3. *Use a token economy.* A token economy is a structured plan for delivering reinforcers (tokens) following the display of target students' behaviors and/or the absence of undesirable student behaviors. Token economies can be adapted for use in a variety of settings and have been

4.1 Apply the Concept

Positive Greetings at the Door

What is a simple but effective way for teachers to improve students' behavior in the classroom?

Consider standing at the door as students arrive and greet them with a positive statement that suggests that you know them and care about them. "Good morning Stacey, so glad you are arriving on time and ready for a great day." The greetings do not have to be complicated to have impact. When teachers stand at the door and greet their students positively, students demonstrate increased academic engaged time and also demonstrate fewer negative behaviors in class. Now this is a practice we can all do!

Figure 4.2 Reinforcers Teachers Can Use to Increase Appropriate Behavior

SOURCE: Based on *Teaching Students Who Are Exceptional, Diverse, and at Risk*, by S. Vaughn, C. S. Bos, and J. S. Schumm, 2014, Boston: Allyn & Bacon. Copyright 2014 by Allyn & Bacon. Adapted with permission.

Student Provides Self-Reinforcers
- Students give themselves points for behaving well.
- Students say positive things to themselves, "I'm working hard and doing well."
- Students monitor their own behavior.

Adult Approval
- Verbal recognition from the teacher that a student is behaving appropriately, "Juan you are following directions on this assignment."
- Physical recognition from the teacher that students are behaving appropriately. Teacher moves around the classroom and touches students on the shoulder who are behaving appropriately.
- Teacher informs family or other professionals of the appropriate behavior of a student. This can be accomplished with "good news notes" or verbally.

Peer Recognition
- Teacher informs other students of the appropriate behavior of a student. "The award for Student of the Day goes to the outstanding improvement in behavior demonstrated by [student's name]."
- Peers can put the names of students who have demonstrated appropriate behavior into a designated box. These names can be read at the end of the week.
- A designated period of time is allocated at the end of the class period (high school) or day (elementary school) to ask students to recognize their fellow classmates who have demonstrated outstanding behavior.

Privileges
- Students are awarded free time after displaying appropriate behavior.
- Students are allowed to serve in key classroom roles after demonstrating outstanding behavior.
- Students are awarded passes that they can trade in for a night without homework.

Activities
- Students can perform an activity they like (e.g., drawing) after they complete the desired activity (e.g., the activity during that class period).
- Students can perform their tasks on the computer.
- Students can perform their tasks with a partner they select.

Tokens
- Tokens are items (e.g., chips, play money, points) that can be exchanged for something of value.
- Use tokens to reward groups or teams who are behaving appropriately.
- Allow groups of individuals to accumulate tokens that they can "spend" on privileges such as no homework, or free time.

Tangibles
- Tangibles are rewards that are desirable objects to students but usually not objects that they can consume (e.g., toys, pencils, erasers, paper, crayons).
- Tokens can be exchanged for tangible reinforcers.
- Tangible reinforcers can be used to reward the class for meeting a class goal.
- Tangible reinforcers may be needed to maintain the behavior of a student with severe behavior problems.

Consumables
- Consumables are rewards that are desirable objects to students that they consume (e.g., raisins, pieces of cereal, candy).
- Tokens can be exchanged for consumable reinforcers.
- Consumable reinforcers can be used to reward the class for meeting a class goal.
- Consumable reinforcers may be needed to maintain the behavior of a student with severe behavior problems.

used extensively in special education. For example, teachers can post in the classroom a list of desirable behaviors (e.g., raising a hand and waiting to be called on by the teacher before talking) as well as undesirable behaviors (e.g., hitting classmates). Posted along with the behaviors are the corresponding number of tokens (e.g., points, chips, tickets) that students can earn for exhibiting target behaviors and eliminating noxious behaviors. Teachers can award tokens as target behaviors occur and/or deliver tokens after a specific period has elapsed (e.g., Terrell receives one token at the start of each hour, provided that he has not hit a peer during the previous 60 minutes). Teachers can award tokens to individuals as in the previous example, or award the entire class. Either way, the underlying principle is that students will be motivated to earn tokens that are collected and exchanged for previously determined privileges (e.g., a class pizza party or first choice of equipment at recess).

4. *Change inappropriate behavior.* Behaviors that are interfering are the ones that teachers can most easily identify. It is much easier for teachers to list the behaviors they would like to see reduced than to identify behaviors they would like to see increased. What are some guiding principles to assist in changing inappropriate behavior?

- Do not use threats. Consider carefully the consequences that you intend to use. Do not threaten students with a consequence that you are actually unwilling to use or that will force you to back down.
- Review class rules and consequences. Follow through consistently on the rules you make and with the consequences you have predetermined.
- Do not establish so many rules that you spend too much time applying consequences. You will find yourself continually at war with the students.

- Do not establish consequences that are punishing to you. If you are stressed or inconvenienced by the consequence, you may eventually begin to resent the student, which would interfere with your relationship.
- Listen and talk to the student, but avoid disagreements or arguments. If you are tempted to argue, set another time to continue the discussion.
- Use logic, principles, and effective guidelines to make decisions. Avoid using your power to make students do something without connecting it to a logical principle.
- Do not focus on minor or personal peeves. Focus on the problems that are the most interfering.
- Treat each student as an individual with unique problems and abilities. Avoid comparing students' behaviors or abilities, because this does not assist students in self-understanding or in better understanding the problems and abilities of others.
- Remember that students' problems belong to them. Although their problems may interfere with your work, they are not *your* problems. Students with behavior or emotional problems are often successful at transferring their problems to others. Students need to learn to resolve their own conflicts.
- Students often say or do things that are upsetting to teachers. Recognize your feelings, and do not let them control your behavior. Do not respond to the upsetting behavior of a student by striking back, humiliating, embarrassing, or berating the student.
- Solicit the assistance of families and students in putting any problem in writing to ensure that everyone agrees on what needs to be changed.
- Get student and family input on the behavior problem and suggestions for what might reduce it.
- Set up a plan that identifies the problem, consequence, and/or rewards for changes in behavior. See Figure 4.3 for a sample behavior contract and Figure 4.4 for a self-management plan.

Positive Behavioral Support

In recent years, the principles of behavior management have been applied in various community settings (e.g., school, family) with supports to reduce problem behaviors and develop appropriate behaviors that lead to enhanced social relations. This modification of behavior management principles is called *positive behavioral support (PBS)*. Recently, schoolwide positive behavioral supports have been expanded to include positive behavioral intervention and supports (PBIS). Many schools find that they are coping with increasing numbers of behavior problems, fighting, bullying, discontent among students, and general lack of discipline. This situation does not exist because teachers or administrators are not caring or lack concern about the issue. It occurs because a schoolwide adoption of a consistent and fluent model needs to occur. PBIS is a proven model for establishing a positive schoolwide community (Horner et al., 2009).

The focus of PBIS is to develop individualized interventions that stress prevention of problem behaviors through effective educational programming to improve an individual's quality of life (Janney & Snell, 2000; Sugai, O'Keefe, & Fallon, 2012). Because behavior is a form of communication and is often related to the context, PBIS involves careful observation of circumstances and the purpose of a problem behavior. A significant number of negative behaviors can

Figure 4.3 Sample Behavior Contract

Date: _____

Mr. Wangiri will give one point to Joleen when she exhibits any of the following in his classroom:

1. She raises her hand appropriately and waits for the teacher to call on her before responding to a question or seeking information.
2. She sits appropriately (in chair with all four legs on the ground).
3. When annoyed by other students, she ignores them or informs the teacher instead of yelling at and/or hitting others.

After Joleen has earned 10 points, she may select one of the following:

1. She may obtain a 20-minute coupon to be used at any time to work on the computer.
2. She may serve as the teacher's assistant for a day.
3. She may obtain a 15-minute coupon for free time.
4. She may have lunch with the teacher and brought by the teacher.

Joleen may continue to select awards for every 10 points earned. New awards may be decided upon by the teacher and Joleen, and added to the list. I, Joleen Moore, agree to the conditions stated above, and understand that I will not be allowed any of the rewards until I have earned 10 points following the above stated guidelines.

_____

(student's signature)

I, Mr. Wangiri, agree to the conditions stated above. I will give Joleen one of the aforementioned rewards only after she has earned 10 points.

_____

(teacher's signature)

Figure 4.4 Self-Management Plan

Name: Kiernen Smathers

Target Behavior: Submit completed homework to the teacher on time or meet with teacher before the assignment is due to agree on an alternative date and time.

Where Behavior Occurs: Mathematics and Science

Goals:

1. Kiernen will use an assignment book and write down the assignments, guidelines, and due dates. The teacher will initial these to ensure that he understands them and has written them correctly.
2. Kiernen will interpret what he needs to do for each assignment and ask questions as needed.
3. Kiernen will discuss any assignments with the teacher ahead of time if he anticipates not having them ready on time.

Time Line: Meet each Friday to review progress and assignments. Revise plan as needed.

Reinforcer: Kiernen will receive 15 minutes of extra time to work on the computer each day his assignments are completed.

Evaluation: Kiernen will write a brief description of the program's success.

be dealt with by modifying the environment (e.g., altering seating arrangements). PBIS also emphasizes teaching appropriate behaviors to replace the inappropriate behavior through readily implemented practices such as the "Good Behavior Game" (Bowman-Perrott, Burke, Zaini, Zhang, & Vannest, 2016; Wright & McCurdy, 2012). See Apply the Concept 4.2 for a description of the Good Behavior Game.

Applied Behavior Analysis Applied behavior analysis is based on identifying observable behaviors and manipulating antecedents and consequences of these behaviors to change behavior. The application of these principles to change maladaptive behaviors is referred to as *behavioral therapy*. The three major components of applied behavior analysis are as follows:

1. *Target behaviors are defined in observable ways.* For example, a teacher described a behaviorally disturbed child in her classroom as "emotional." Although most of us know what *emotional* means, each of us probably imagines a somewhat different behavioral repertoire when we think of a student as behaving in an emotional way. In the same way, it is unlikely that any two observers, if asked to chart the emotional behavior of a student, will offer the same observations. For this reason, teachers are asked to describe the behaviors that they observe when a student is acting emotionally. *"When I ask her to turn in her work, she puts her head down on her desk, sighs, and then crumples her paper."* Identifying specific behaviors students exhibit assists teachers in clarifying what is disturbing them, and it also assists in the second step, measurement.

2. *Target behaviors are measured.* To determine a student's present level of functioning and to determine if a selected intervention is effective, target behaviors must be measured before and during intervention. Some behaviors are easy to identify and measure. For example, the number of times Val completes his arithmetic assignment is relatively easy to tabulate. However, behaviors such as "out of seat" and "off task" require more elaborate measurement procedures.

The three types of measurement procedures most frequently used are event, duration, and interval sampling. *Event sampling* measures the number of times a behavior occurs in a designated amount of time. Sample behaviors include the number of times the bus driver reports a student's misconduct, the number of times a student is late for class, or the number of times a student does not turn in a homework assignment. *Duration sampling* measures the

4.2 Apply the Concept

The Good Behavior Game

The Good Behavior Game can be used in general or special education settings as a means of promoting prosocial behavior. How can it be set up?

1. Assign students to teams. You can also let the students name their teams. In a large classroom, you may have two to four teams, and in a small classroom you may only have two teams.
2. Ensure that target students with behavior problems are not all on the same team.
3. Work with students in the class to decide what types of behaviors would warrant a point or more than 1 point (e.g., yelling at another classmate is 1 point, hitting a classmate is 2 points).
4. The teacher assigns points to teams if any member of the team displays the inappropriate behavior.
5. The team with the fewest points is the winner and receives the designated award. Typically, teachers determine which team receives the award at the end of the day; however, initially it may be necessary to determine team awards even more frequently (e.g., at the end of the morning and the end of the day).

length of time a behavior occurs, for example, the amount of time a student is not seated, how long a student cries, or the amount of time a student is off task. It is possible to use event and duration samplings for the same behavior. The teacher might want to use both measurements or select the measurement procedure that will give the most information about the behavior. *Interval sampling* explores whether a behavior occurs during a specific interval of time. For example, a teacher may record whether a student is reported for fighting during recess periods. Interval sampling is used when it is difficult to tell when a behavior begins or ends and when a behavior occurs very frequently.

In addition to the measurement of the target behavior, it is helpful to identify the antecedents and consequences of the target behavior. Knowing what occurs before a problem behavior and what occurs immediately after gives important information that assists in developing an intervention. If every time a student cries, the teacher talks to the student for a few minutes, it could be the teacher's attention that is maintaining the behavior. Listing antecedents can provide information about the environment, events, or people who trigger the target behavior. An analysis of antecedents and consequences facilitates the establishment of a successful intervention procedure.

3. *Goals and treatment intervention are established.* On the basis of observation and measurement data and an analysis of antecedents and consequences, goals for changing behavior and intervention strategies are established. The purpose of establishing goals is to specify the desired frequency or duration of the behavior. Goal setting is most effective when the person exhibiting the target behavior is involved in establishing the goals. For example, Dukas is aware that he gets into too many fights and wants to reduce this behavior. After the target behavior has been identified and measured, the teacher and student examine the data and identify that the only time Dukas fights is during the lunchtime recess. They set up a contract in which the teacher agrees to give Dukas 10 minutes of free time at the end of each day when he does not fight. The student agrees to the contract. The teacher continues to measure the student's behavior to determine whether the suggested treatment plan is effective.

Teachers can use many treatment strategies in behavior support to effect change. For example, teachers can use reinforcers to shape new behaviors, reinforce incompatible behaviors, or maintain or increase desired behavior. Teachers can use extinction, punishment, or time-out to eliminate undesired behaviors. Figure 4.5 presents guidelines for using time-out. Teachers may use contracts or token economies to change behavior.

These strategies are discussed in the section on applied behavior analysis in Chapter 2.

Figure 4.5 Time-Out: Guidelines for Effective Implementation

Using time-out can help reduce problem behaviors, but it can also be misused. What is time-out? Time-out is when students are informed of the negative behaviors for which they will be denied access to opportunities for positive reinforcement (Alberto & Troutman, 2006). Some examples of time-out practices outlined by Ryan, Sanders, Katsiyannis, and Yell (2007) include the following:

- *Planned Ignoring*—This occurs when the teacher allows the student to remain in the setting; however, all attention from the teacher and peers is removed for a designated period of time.
- *Withdrawal of Materials*—All materials related to the behavior are removed for a specified period of time. For example, if a student throws a ball at another student in an aggressive manner, he or she is not allowed access to the ball for a specified period of time.
- *Contingent Observation*—Students are removed from the setting but are able to observe. For example, on the playground a student who exhibits inappropriate behavior watches from the sidelines for a specified period of time.
- *Seclusion Time-Out*—The student is removed from the setting and placed in isolation for a specified period of time.

When using time-out practices, remember the following guidelines:

- Use time-out as a last resort.
- Discuss time-out procedures with school administrators and parents before implementation.
- Put time-out procedures in writing, and file them with school rules.
- Provide students with information in advance about what behaviors will result in time-out.
- Place students in time-out only for brief time periods (15–20 minutes).
- Before placing the student in time-out, specify the amount of time he or she will be in time-out.
- Tell the student to go to time-out. If the student does not comply, the teacher should unemotionally place the student in time-out.
- Use time-out *immediately* following the inappropriate behavior.
- Establish contingencies in advance for the student who fails to comply with time-out rules.
- Always monitor the time-out area.
- When the time specified for time-out is over, the student should join his or her classmates.
- Provide reinforcement for appropriate behavior after time-out.

With these intervention strategies, consequences are controlled by another (e.g., the teacher). Self-management is a procedure in which the individual controls the consequences. Self-management is particularly effective with older children, adolescents, and adults because the control and responsibility for change are placed in their hands. With assistance from a teacher, counselor, or other influential adult, the adolescent implements a self-management program by following three steps:

1. Identify the behavior the person wants to change (e.g., being late for school).
2. Identify the antecedents and consequences associated with the behavior. For example, Kamala says, "When the alarm rings, I continue to lie in bed. I also wait until the last minute to run to the bus stop, and I frequently miss the bus."
3. Develop a plan that alters the antecedents and provides consequences that will maintain the desired behavior. For example, Kamala decides to get up as soon as the alarm rings and to leave for the bus stop without waiting until the last minute. She arranges with her parents to have the car on Friday nights if she has arrived at school on time every day that week.

An obvious disadvantage of a self-control model of behavior change is that it relies on the student's motivation for success. Students who are not interested in changing behaviors and who are not willing to analyze antecedents and consequences and develop potentially successful intervention strategies will be unsuccessful with self-determined behavior change plans.

Rick is a fourth-grade student who has learning disabilities (LD), poor social skills, and difficulty interacting with peers. He was seen hitting other students and is known to get into fights for no apparent reason. A careful observation of Rick's interactions with peers and his behaviors suggested that hitting was Rick's way of saying, "Get off my back." Rick was taught to say, "Get off my back" and walk away instead of hitting. All the teachers in the school reminded Rick to "use his words instead of his hands" to communicate. He was taught other specific skills necessary for successful social interactions, such as joining a group and initiating and maintaining a conversation. Teachers tried to pair Rick with other students during classroom activities to provide him with opportunities to practice his new skills.

In this case, Rick's behavior and the environment in which target behaviors occurred were observed. Once the causes, circumstances, and purposes of the behaviors had been identified, the classroom teacher met with other teachers to discuss and enlist their help in providing Rick with the support he would need. The teachers also developed a list of specific social skills to teach Rick. Over time, Rick's problem behaviors decreased, his social skills improved, and he made friends with a few students.

Kasim is a first-grade student with behavior problems. He gets in trouble for taking materials from his neighbors without requesting their permission. His teacher moved Kasim's desk closer to the end of the row so that he would have only three neighbors. She also taught Kasim to think and take out all the materials he needed to do a particular assignment—for example, completing a worksheet requires the worksheet, pencil, and eraser. She even placed a small box labeled "materials needed" on his table so that Kasim could place all the materials he needed for a particular task in his box and not have to borrow from his neighbors. The teacher also taught Kasim appropriate ways of asking others to lend him their materials.

In this case, Kasim's target behaviors and the environment in which they occurred were observed, and then the causes, circumstances, and purposes of the behavior were determined. The teacher then decided to alter the physical environment (by moving Kasim's desk) to reduce the circumstances in which Kasim could intrude on his neighbors. She also taught him alternative behaviors (organizing his materials) to replace his inappropriate behaviors (taking materials from neighbors).

Schoolwide Positive Behavior Support Models What does a schoolwide PBS model look like? The first step is to establish a primary prevention model that focuses on preventing behavior problems schoolwide (OSEP Technical Assistance Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports, 2009; Sugai, Horner, & Gresham, 2002). This requires ensuring that most school goals (80% or more) are stated in positive terms. The use of punishment is severely restricted to only emergency and very severe cases. This means that all school personnel know the positive rules as established and that a concerted effort is made to ensure awareness of positive school behavior and rules in all students.

What are the most critical elements of successfully implementing schoolwide positive behavior supports? Most critical is having a knowledgeable and supportive administrator who is actively involved in knowing and supporting implementation of the rules (McIntosh et al., 2014). This requires establishing contracts with students who have ongoing behavior problems to identify their needs and establish peer and adult support for changing their behaviors. Thus, ongoing progress monitoring is also an important feature. Though initially time consuming to establish, PBS yields significant results over time, reduces behavior problems, and improves the school climate. For students with disabilities whose behavior problems are so

profound that they interfere with their learning or that of their classmates, an FBA is required.

In addition to strong and supportive leadership, an effective and functional school team is necessary to ensure implementation of PBS (McIntosh et al., 2014). Considerable evidence shows that PBS can be taught to and used by parents and guardians very effectively (Blair, Lee, Cho, & Dunlap, 2011). Parents and other family members have successfully engaged students with severe problem behaviors in alternative behaviors and modified contexts that no longer support their behavior problems. How can this be done? Much like the procedures used by general and special education teachers with students who have extreme behavior problems, family members can identify the behavior problems through assessment and then alter their feedback so that the child's behavior problems are no longer supported and thus become ineffective (Janney & Snell, 2006). This yields more positive and constructive parent–child interactions. Apply the Concept 4.3 describes the behavior management practices in the classroom that are based on research, as summarized in the Institute for Education Sciences Practice Guide (**https://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/practiceguides**).

4.3 Apply the Concept

Behavior Management Practices in the Classroom

Recommendation #1

Identify the specifics of the problem behavior and the conditions that prompt and reinforce it.

Every teacher experiences difficulty at one time or another in trying to remedy an individual student's behavior problem that is not responsive to preventative efforts. Because research suggests that the success of a behavioral intervention hinges on identifying the specific conditions that prompt and reinforce the problem behavior (i.e., the behavior's "antecedents" and "consequences"), we recommend that teachers carefully observe the conditions in which the problem behavior is likely to occur and not occur. Teachers then can use that information to tailor effective and efficient intervention strategies that respond to the needs of the individual student within the classroom context.

Recommendation #2

Modify the classroom learning environment to decrease problem behavior.

Many effective classroom-focused interventions to decrease students' problematic behavior alter or remove factors that trigger them. These triggers can result from a mismatch between the classroom setting or academic demands and a student's strengths, preferences, or skills. Teachers can reduce the occurrence of inappropriate behavior by revisiting and reinforcing classroom behavioral expectations; rearranging the classroom environment, schedule, or learning activities to meet students' needs; and/or individually adapting instruction to pro mote high rates of student engagement and on-task behavior.

Recommendation #3

Teach and reinforce new skills to increase appropriate behavior and preserve a positive classroom climate.

We recommend that teachers actively teach students socially and behaviorally appropriate skills to replace problem behaviors using strategies focused on both individual students and the whole classroom. In doing so, teachers help students with behavior problems learn how, when, and where to use these new skills; increase the opportunities that the students have to exhibit appropriate behaviors; preserve a positive classroom climate; and manage consequences to reinforce students' display of positive "replacement" behaviors and adaptive skills.

Recommendation #4

Draw on relationships with professional colleagues and students' families for continued guidance and support.

Social relationships and collaborative opportunities can play a critical role in supporting teachers in managing disruptive behavior in their classrooms. We recommend that teachers draw on these relationships in finding ways to address the behavior problems of individual students and consider parents, school personnel, and behavioral experts as allies who can provide new insights, strategies, and support.

Recommendation #5

Assess whether schoolwide behavior problems warrant adopting schoolwide strategies or programs and, if so, implement ones shown to reduce negative and foster positive interactions.

Classroom teachers, in coordination with other school personnel (administrators, grade-level teams, and special educators), can benefit from adopting a schoolwide

approach to preventing problem behaviors and increasing positive social interactions among students and with school staff. This type of systemic approach requires a shared responsibility on the part of all school personnel, particularly the administrators who establish and support consistent schoolwide practices and the teachers who implement these practices both in their individual classrooms and beyond.

Source: M. Epstein, M. Atkins, D. Cullinan, K. Kutash, & R. Weaver (2008), *Reducing Behavioral Problems in the Elementary School Classroom: A Practice Guide* (NCEE#2008-012).

Developing a Functional Behavioral Assessment

What is the purpose of an FBA, and what are the procedures for developing an effective FBA? According to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), students with disabilities who have significant behavior problems that interfere with their own learning or with the learning of other students must have an FBA. An FBA and a behavioral improvement plan (BIP) are designed to identify behavior problems of students and to develop an intervention plan to treat these behavior problems. Functional behavioral assessments are a method of gathering data to design the most effective positive support plan and to monitor students' progress. Consider the suggestions in Apply the Concept 4.4 to gather information about the student's behavior.

The procedures and practices for developing a BIP are not nearly so well defined as are those for an IEP, and many school personnel still are unclear about how and when to conduct FBAs and design BIPs. Because it is much more likely that an FBA and a BIP will assist a student than interfere, it is always a good idea to conduct a n FBA and develop a BIP.

Steps in conducting an effective FBA include:

1. Define the target behavior in behavioral terms. Clearly specify the behavior(s) you would like to see the student perform in observational terms that can be recorded and monitored.
2. Collect and monitor the target behaviors through ongoing data collection that considers frequency, intensity, and rate.
3. Record the events and behaviors that precede and follow the target behavior. In this way, the antecedent, behavior, and consequences are noted.
4. Develop a hypothesis of the conditions under which the target behavior occurs. This hypothesis guides the intervention plan.
5. Develop an intervention plan that considers the antecedents and reinforcers and is built to test the hypothesis.

Figure 4.6 provides an example of an FBA.

Response to Intervention and Classroom Behavioral Support

Many of the fundamental principles of response to intervention (RTI) are embedded into the appropriate implementation of positive schoolwide behavior. For example, Sugai and colleagues (Sugai et al., 2014; Sugai & Simonsen, 2012) emphasized graduated levels of support as a means of improving schoolwide behavior as well as for addressing the social and behavioral problems of individual students. What does RTI mean with respect to social behavior issues?

- *Tier I:* As part of a schoolwide behavioral support program, a school might screen for behavior problems and introduce increasingly intensive interventions to meet school, teacher, and student needs. Schoolwide expectations establish appropriate consequences and procedures

4.4 Apply the Concept

Questions to Guide Data Collection for a Functional Behavior Assessment

WHO is present when the student displays the target inappropriate behavior?

WHAT is happening before the behavior is displayed? What is happening after the behavior is displayed?

WHEN does the problem tend to occur? Is there a pattern, such as when less structure is present or during lunch?

Where does the problem take place?

In addition to Who, What, When, and Where, consider if there are people around whom, places in which, and times when the behavior is *not* displayed.

Figure 4.6 A Sample Functional Behavioral Assessment

SOURCE: M. E. Shippen, R. G. Simpson, & S. A. Crites (2003, May/June). A practical guide to functional behavioral assessment, *Teaching Exceptional Children, 35*, pp. 43–44. Copyright © 2003 by the Council for Exceptional Children. Reprinted with permission.

Target Behavior I: _____

Baseline Assessment Method: — *Baseline Frequency of Target Behavior:*

- *parent interview* _____
- *teacher interview* _____
- *checklists* _____
- *systematic observation* _____
- *frequency counts of target behaviors* _____
- *sequence analysis (required)* _____
- *norm-referenced assessments* _____

Target Behavior II: _____

Baseline Assessment Method: — *Baseline Frequency of Target Behavior:*

- *parent interview* _____
- *teacher interview* _____
- *checklists* _____
- *systematic observation* _____
- *frequency counts of target behaviors* _____
- *sequence analysis (required)* _____
- *norm-referenced assessments* _____

Target Behavior III: _____

Baseline Assessment Method: — *Baseline Frequency of Target Behavior:*

- *parent interview* _____
- *teacher interview* _____
- *checklists* _____
- *systematic observation* _____
- *frequency counts of target behaviors* _____
- *sequence analysis (required)* _____
- *norm-referenced assessments* _____

Purpose of Target Behavior I:

1. To obtain something? yes no what? _____
2. To escape/avoid something? yes no what? _____
3. Other factors? yes no what? _____

Hypothesis: _____
Replacement Behavioral Goal: _____
Necessary Skills? yes no, needs additional instruction in _____

Purpose of Target Behavior II:

1. To obtain something? yes no what? _____
2. To escape/avoid something? yes no what? _____
3. Other factors? yes no what? _____

Hypothesis: _____
Replacement Behavioral Goal: _____
Necessary Skills? yes no, needs additional instruction in _____

Purpose of Target Behavior III:

1. To obtain something? yes no what? _____
2. To escape/avoid something? yes no what? _____
3. Other factors? yes no what? _____

Hypothesis: _____
Replacement Behavioral Goal: _____
Necessary Skills? yes no, needs additional instruction in _____

Figure 4.6 *(Continued)*

Student Name: _____ School: _____ Meeting Date: _____

Submitting Teacher: _____ Beginning Date: _____ Review/End Date: _____

Functional Behavioral Assessment Worksheet
(Sequence Analysis)

Antecedent	Behavior of Concern	Consequence

I. Committee Determined Target Behaviors

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

The following persons attended and participated in the FBA meeting:

Name:	Position:	Date:
_____	Parent	_____
_____	LEA Representative	_____
_____	Special Education Teacher	_____
_____	Student	_____
_____	General Education Teacher	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

Method for Reporting Progress to Parent:

☐ progress report
☐ parent conference
☐ other

Frequency for Reporting Progress to Parent:

_____
_____
_____

for reviewing progress toward schoolwide goals. Practices at the classroom level include opportunities for students to participate and be engaged in classroom activities; positive support for appropriate behavior; minimizing transition time between activities; and providing ongoing feedback and support for academics and social behavior.

- *Tier II:* In a behavioral support model, students who display similar behavior problems might be given an intervention that provides additional supports, prompts, feedback, and acknowledgment to ensure that behavioral changes occur.
- *Tier III:* If the combination of a schoolwide behavioral support model and group interventions is not associated with improved behavioral outcomes, then more specific and intensive interventions focused at the student level are introduced and monitored.

4.5 Apply the Concept

Center on Positive Behavior Intervention Supports

Funded by the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Special Education Programs (OSEP), the Technical Assistance Center on PBIS (**www.pbis.org**) supports schools, districts, and states to build systems capacity for implementing a multi-tiered approach to social, emotional, and behavior support. The broad purpose of PBIS is to improve the effectiveness, efficiency, and equity of schools and other agencies. PBIS improves social, emotional, and academic outcomes for all students, including students with disabilities and students from underrepresented groups. The Technical Assistance Center provides resources for training, research, evaluation, families, and schools.

Remember, consistent with a response to intervention approach, PBIS is characterized by the implementation of a continuum of behavior support with a set of practices that includes universal screening, continuous progress monitoring, team-based decision-making rules and procedures, explicit monitoring of implementation fidelity, and ongoing professional development (Sugai & Simonsen, 2012).

Web Resources

An excellent resource for PBIS is the Technical Assistance Center funded by the Office of Special Education Programs in the U.S. Department of Education (**www.pbis.org**). See Apply the Concept 4.5 for a brief description.

Social-Emotional Learning Problems

In addition to the types of behavior problems that call attention to themselves, such as acting out and not obeying rules, many students with learning and behavior problems also exhibit problems in social interactions that negatively influence their success. Many of these students benefit from supportive practices that enhance social-emotional learning. In discussing the social skills of students with LD and behavior problems and how others perceive them, it is important to realize that not all students with learning and behavior problems have social-emotional learning difficulties. Many of them are socially competent, making and maintaining friends and struggling to please their teachers and parents. Many adults with LD who are participating in postsecondary education programs identify their social skills as their strengths.

Internalizing and Externalizing Behaviors

Students with extreme behavior problems are often described as having two dimensions: externalizing and internalizing (P. Cooper & Bilton, 2002; Vaughn et al., 2011). Externalizing behaviors are those that are extremely disturbing or intolerable to others (e.g., aggression, hyperactivity, delinquency). Conversely, internalizing behaviors are those that are more likely to adversely affect the student who displays them than other people (e.g., depression, immaturity, obsessive–compulsive behavior, shyness).

Students with behavior disorders who exhibit externalizing behaviors appear to be experts at identifying and performing the behaviors that are most disturbing to others. Donald, in the following example, is a student who exhibits externalizing behaviors.

When Mr. Kline discovered that Donald was to be placed in his fourth-grade class next year, his stomach did a flip-flop. "Any student but Donald," thought Mr. Kline, "he's the terror of the school." Every teacher who had had Donald in class had come to the teachers' lounge at the end of the day exhausted and discouraged. The real catastrophe was the effect Donald seemed to have on the rest of the class. Mild behavior problems in other students seemed to worsen with Donald's encouragement. Donald's hot temper and foul language left him continually fighting with other students. This year, he had hit his teacher in the chest when she had tried to prevent him from running out of the classroom. While escaping, he shouted, "I'll sue you if you touch me." Mr. Kline had once seen Donald running at full speed down the hall, knocking over students along the way, and screeching as though he were putting on brakes as he swerved into his classroom. Mr. Kline knew that next year was going to be a difficult one.

Students like Donald are frequently avoided by more socially competent students in class and are disliked and feared by other class members. They are loners who move from one group to the next after alienating group members, or they develop friendships with other students whose behavior is also disturbing to others. These students present extremely difficult classroom management problems.

Students with behavior disorders who exhibit internalizing behaviors are often less disturbing to others but

frequently create concern because of their bizarre behavior. Elisa, in the following example, is a student who exhibits internalizing behaviors.

Elisa, a fifth grader, had just moved to the area. Her mother brought Elisa to register for school but refused to speak with the school secretary. Instead, she demanded that she be allowed to register Elisa with the school principal. Elisa's mother told the school principal that Elisa would sometimes act "funny" to get attention and should be told to stop as soon as she tried it. The principal noted that Elisa had not said one word. In fact, she had sat in a chair next to her mother looking down and rocking gently. Elisa's mother said that Elisa had been receiving special education services during part of the day and was in a regular classroom most of the day. In the regular classroom, Elisa was a loner. She spoke to no one. When another student approached her, Elisa reared back and scratched into the air with her long fingernails, imitating a cat. If other children said something to her, Elisa would "hiss" at them. She would sit in the room, usually completing her assignments and, whenever possible, practicing writing elaborate cursive letters with her multicolored pen. She spent most of the day rocking. She even rocked while she worked.

Problems like Elisa's are usually thought of as being internal and resulting from a unique pathology. Other classmates, recognizing that these children are very different, may attempt to interact, but they are usually rebuffed. Students with internalizing behaviors are easy victims for students whose problem behaviors are more externalizing.

It is important to note that not all youngsters with behavior problems demonstrate either externalizing or internalizing problems. Many youngsters with behavior disorders display both externalizing and internalizing problems. This is not difficult to understand if one imagines a child who is often shy and withdrawn but who, when frustrated or forced to interact with others, becomes aggressive and acts out.

Characteristics of Students with Social-Emotional Difficulties

We expect students with behavior disorders to have difficulty in successfully interacting with others. Students with behavior disorders are identified and provided enhancements because their social-emotional problems are so interfering that these students are unable to function adequately without special support services.

Social Interaction In terms of type and quality, the interactions that students with social and emotional problems engage in are different from those of their peers. Figure 4.7 describes a framework for considering social-emotional learning in students.

Communication Difficulties Expressing one's ideas and feelings and understanding the ideas and feelings of others are integral parts of socialization. Adults and children who have good social skills can communicate effectively with others, whereas students with learning and behavior problems frequently have trouble in this area, known as *pragmatic communication*. Children with LD often have poor pragmatic skills, such as eye contact, turn taking, initiative, interaction, sharing, requesting, and responding (Abudarham, 2002).

The student with LD is often a difficult communication partner. For example, verbal disagreements during a learning task between students with mild intellectual disabilities and normal-achieving students were examined in one study (Okrainec & Hughes, 1996). Students with mild intellectual disabilities initiated conflicts less often, thus taking on a respondent role, and used higher-level conflict-initiating strategies, such as justification, delay/distractions, and question/challenges, less often. Initiating conflicts less often can prevent the exchanges of ideas that promote intellectual development as well as moral development and social development for students with mild intellectual disabilities. In addition, justifications can be a useful verbal skill for averting conflicts that may result in aggressive or violent acts.

Aggression Perhaps the behavior with which teachers are least able to cope is aggression. Aggressive behaviors include assaulting others, fighting, bullying, having temper tantrums, quarreling, ignoring the rights of others, using a negative tone of voice, threatening, and demanding immediate compliance. Many students with behavior problems display these types of aggressive behaviors.

Web Resources

For more information about meeting the needs of students with destructive behaviors, consider viewing the website from the Institution on Violence and Destructive Behavior, **pages.uoregon.edu/ivdb/**.

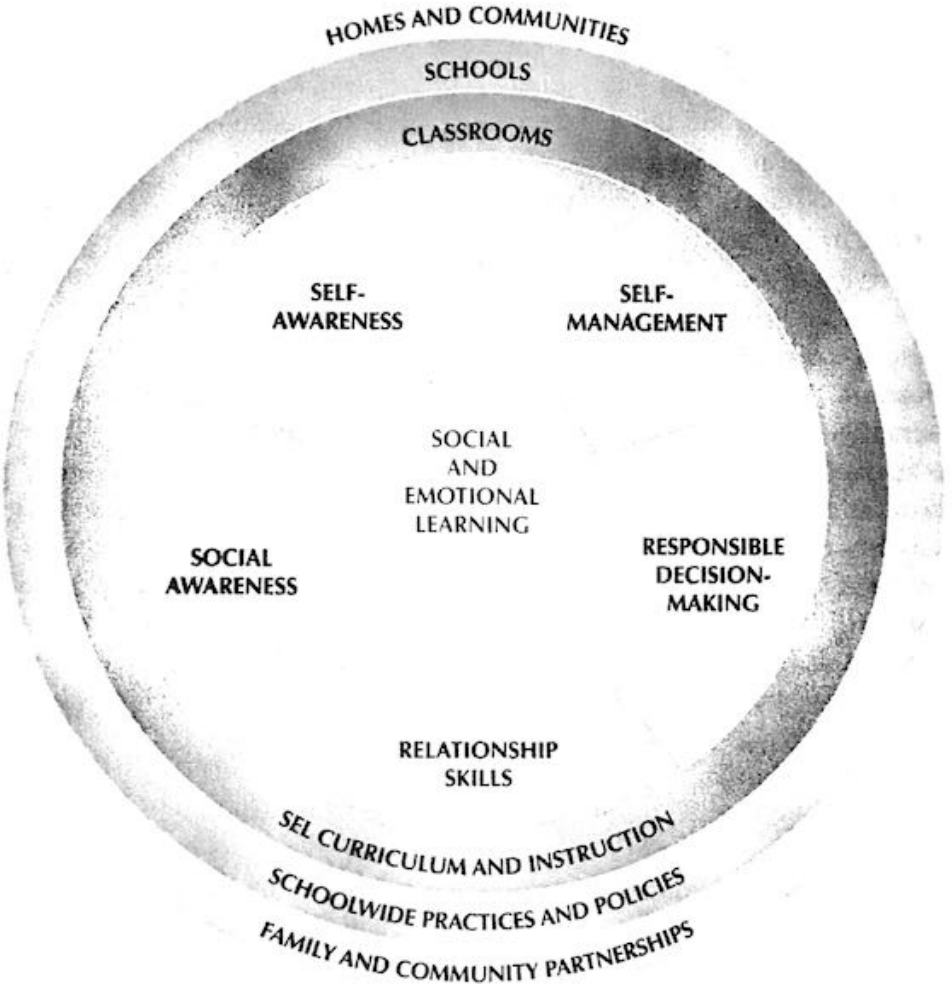
In a study conducted by Lancelotta and Vaughn (1989), five types of aggressive behaviors and their relation to peer social acceptance were examined:

1. *Provoked physical aggression:* Attacks or fights back following provocation from another.
2. *Outburst aggression:* Has uncontrollable outbursts without apparent provocation that may or may not be directed at another person. An example is a student who gets angry and throws a fit for no apparent reason.

Figure 4.7 Five Core Competencies Taught Across Diverse Settings

The widely used Framework for Systemic Social and Emotional Learning identifies five core competencies that educate hearts, inspire minds, and help people navigate the world more effectively.

SOURCE: Core SEL Competencies. (2019). Retrieved from **https://casel.org/core-competencies/.**



3. *Unprovoked physical aggression:* Attacks or acts aggressively toward another person without provocation. An example is a student who starts a fight for no reason.
4. *Verbal aggression:* Says aggressive things to another person to attack or intimidate that person. An example is a student who threatens to beat up another student.
5. *Indirect aggression:* Attacks or attempts to hurt another indirectly so that it is not likely to be obvious who did it. An example is a student who tells the teacher that another student does bad things.

The study demonstrated that girls are less tolerant of all types of aggression than are boys. Also, all types of aggression resulted in lower peer ratings by their fellow students, with the exception of provoked aggression for boys. This means that boys who fight back when they are attacked first by other boys are not more likely to be poorly accepted. This, however, is not true for girls who fight back when they are attacked. All of the other subtypes of aggression are related to poor peer acceptance.

Aggression does not go away without treatment and is correlated with such negative outcomes as alcoholism, unpopularity, aggressive responses from others, academic failure, and adult antisocial behaviors. Specific skills for teaching students to deal more effectively with their aggressive responses are an important component of social skills programs for students with behavior disorders.

Following are some ways in which teachers can address aggression and bullying in the classroom:

- All students must understand what types of behaviors are considered aggressive. Teachers can hold class discussions about which examples of aggressive behavior are identified and listed to ensure that all students know what is meant by *aggression*.

- Teachers can establish a no-tolerance rule regarding aggressive behavior and have a schoolwide plan for how every adult and child will handle aggression from others. *No tolerance* means that the school has a policy (other than expulsion) for responding to aggressive behavior.
- The teacher can establish relationships with students and families that provide support.
- The teacher can provide supports for students who have been bullied. Let them know that you are there to help.
- The teacher can provide preemptive techniques to prevent fights. This can include stopping heated arguments and monitoring students who do not usually get along.
- The teacher and other school staff can stop aggressive behavior immediately. If you see bullying or other inappropriate behavior, intervene immediately.
- The teacher can identify when and where the student is aggressive and attempt to eliminate those situations.
- The teacher can teach students to resolve their own conflicts and mediate difficulties between other students.
- The teacher can establish practices that allow students to describe what happened before and during an aggressive act.
- As a schoolwide model, the school staff can establish a caring and supportive environment for students and adults.

Apply the Concept 4.6 discusses the problem of bullying and teasing students with disabilities.

Attention Problems/Hyperactivity Attention deficits and hyperactivity are characteristics that are often observed in students with learning and behavior disorders. Families report that 3.7% of children have both attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and LD (T. J. Smith & Adams, 2006). Students with attention deficits frequently display a pattern of inattention, and students with hyperactivity often exhibit patterns of impulsivity; these patterns are evident in a variety of contexts, including home and school.

You may be asked, what is the difference between ADHD and attention-deficit disorder (ADD)? Technically, the terminology for diagnosis is ADHD. However, you will notice that many parents and even professionals use the term ADD as a general term for ADHD. Typically, people are referring to the same sets of behaviors when they use the terms ADHD and ADD. What are the most common characteristics of ADHD? Typically, students are described as being easily distracted, with difficulty demonstrating sustained attention to tasks. They are also observed as demonstrating impulsivity, which can be described as having

4.6 Apply the Concept

Preventing Bullying and Teasing of Individuals with Disabilities

Have you ever worried about a school bully or excessive teasing? If you have, you are not alone. Schools and educators have reported that bullying and excessive teasing are a serious school problem, one that is exacerbated when students are perceived as different. Thus, students with learning and behavior problems may be particularly susceptible to harassment and bullying. When students are isolated from their peers or do not participate in mainstream programs, they are at increased risk for bullying (J. H. Hoover & Salk, 2003; Luxenberg, Limber, & Olweus, 2013).

Following are some facts about bullying (J. Hoover & Stenhjem, 2003; Sullivan, 2010):

- Bullying is the most common form of aggression among youths.
- Males are more likely to bully and be bullied.
- Many teachers (as many as 25%) do not perceive that bullying is wrong and therefore rarely intervene. Be sure you work to change this view and stop bullying as soon as you see it.
- Most students perceive that schools do little to respond to bullying.
- Physical bullying peaks in middle school.

A schoolwide intervention program was designed and used in Finnish schools with a goal of reducing school bullying and victimization (Kärnä et al., 2010, 2011). The program aims to (1) increase awareness of the role of the group in maintaining bullying, (2) increase empathy toward victims, (3) improve strategic use of practices to support self-efficacy, and (4) increase student's coping skills when victimized. The program entails 10 lessons over a 20-hour period, implemented by teachers. At the end, students sign a contract about reducing victimization and bullying. The program also identifies a team to identify students who are bullied.

difficulty with impulse control or delay of gratification. The third common characteristic is hyperactivity, which refers to excessive activity and restlessness. It is important to note that almost everyone demonstrates one or more of these characteristics some of the time. ADHD is characterized by excessive, long-term, and pervasive demonstration of these behaviors.

Students with attention deficits and/or hyperactivity may be treated with medication. Some children experience unpleasant physical symptoms and are affected by the drugs in some settings but not in others. Most children who receive medication for hyperactivity are under the care of a physician whom they see infrequently. Thus, monitoring the effectiveness of the drug is often the responsibility of family members and teachers. Perhaps the most effective technique for monitoring the effects of drugs is observing the student's behavior and determining whether there have been significant changes, either positive or negative, and report them to the school nurse and/or parents.

When students demonstrate attention problems, teachers can do the following:

- Use clear ways of cueing students to obtain their attention (Shore, 2003). For example, say, "I'm counting backward to one, and then I want all eyes on me. Five, four, three, two, one." Some teachers use chimes or other instruments to obtain students' attention. Another idea is to tell students that you are going to clap a pattern and then you want them to "clap the same pattern and then look at me."
- Develop a signaling system with a student or selected students to cue them to pay attention. The signal could be a slight touch on the shoulder or passing the student a colored card to indicate that he or she is not paying attention.
- Look for times when students are attending and focusing, and also establish a system for cueing them when they are doing well.
- Consider where in the classroom and near whom students work, and make adjustments to promote better focus on assignments.
- Shorten the work periods and assignments. Focus on understanding and getting a few items right rather than completing all aspects of tasks.
- Provide clear and limited directions that are easier to follow.
- Assist students in making effective transitions.
- If a student is taking medication, monitor the student's behavior to note the effects of the medication and possible changes in behavior (Shore, 2003).
- Use computer-assisted learning.
- Check out the following organizations and their websites for additional information: **Attention Deficit Disorder Association and Children and Adults with Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder.**

Self-Concept Ask parents what they most want for their children, and many of them will mention that they want their children to be happy and to be successful—they want them to be proud of themselves. In many ways, they are hoping that their children have a healthy and positive self-concept, or self-perception. How we view ourselves is highly related to our comparison group. Therefore, it is not surprising that students with learning and behavior difficulties often have poor self-concepts. Many of these students are aware of how their learning performance compares with that of others. Also, they are aware that they are often disappointing to critical people in their lives, such as their parents, other family members, and teachers. Self-perception is important for many reasons, including the positive effect improved self-concept has on academic achievement (Hessel & Schwab, 2015).

What can teachers do to improve the self-concept of students with LD or behavior problems? The most important development for self-concept is success. It does not have to be success in school, though there may be school-related activities that provide opportunities for success. In a large-scale evaluation of the relation between self-concept and academic achievement, self-concept of students with disabilities was an excellent predictor of their achievement (Ju, Zhang, & Katsiyannis, 2013). It may be useful to involve students in extracurricular activities such as sports or music, because students with LD who participate in these activities have a similar self-concept as average-achieving students (Kloomok & Cosden, 1994). Teachers and parents can provide opportunities for students to demonstrate what they do well and provide encouragement in the areas of difficulty. One parent described it this way:

> The best thing that happened to my son is swimming. We knew from the time Kevin was an infant that he was different from our other two children. We were not surprised when he had difficulties in school and was later identified as learning-disabled. His visual/motor problems made it difficult for him to play ball sports, so we encouraged his interest in swimming. He joined a swim team when he was six, and all his friends know he has won many swimming awards. No matter how discouraged he feels about school, he has one area in which he is successful.

Apply the Concept 4.7 describes what teachers might do to support self-regulation in students.

4.7 Apply the Concept

How Teachers Can Promote Students' Self-Regulation

Self-regulation is the development of mechanisms for monitoring our own behavior and regulating our thinking and emotions (Galinsky, 2010). To promote self-regulation, consider the following:

1. Consider using "think-alouds" as a mechanism to model self-regulation. "Let's see. I am really getting tired of doing these word problems, and there are still 2 more to do. I'm going to take a 30-second break and rest my head and then I'm going to finish the next two problems." Model for students the think-aloud processes that you would like them to use to regulate their behavior.
2. Teach students mechanisms for changing "what they think" as a means of changing what they do. For example, by modeling, the student comes up with an action: "I'm pretending that I'm standing in line and someone cuts in front of me. My first thought is, 'they can't do that. I'm going to push them.' Then I think to myself, 'I bet I can use my words rather than my hands to change this.' I say, 'Would you move behind me? I was standing here.'"
3. Offer process-directed praise or criticism to students (Dweck & Kamins, 1999), such as, "This paper is clearly written," or, "You really concentrated and finished this biology assignment." Focus on the activity the students are engaged in, such as reading, writing, or art, and avoid person-directed praise or comments such as, "You are good in biology." This will help reduce the amount of external reinforcement needed and instead reinforce student performance.
4. Reduce the amount of external reinforcement and focus on reinforcing student performance. Rather than saying, "Good work" or "Excellent job," focus on the behaviors, such as, "You really concentrated and finished this biology assignment. You needed to ask for help, but you got it done. How do you feel about it?"
5. Link students' behaviors to outcomes. "You spent 10 minutes working hard on this worksheet, and you finished it."
6. Provide encouragement. Because they experience continued failure, many students are discouraged from attempting tasks they are capable of performing.
7. Discuss academic tasks and social activities in which the student experiences success.
8. Discuss your own failures or difficulties, and express what you do to cope with these. Be sure to provide examples of when you persist and examples of when you give up.
9. Encourage students to take responsibility for their successes. "You received a B on your biology test. How do you think you got such a good grade?" Encourage students to describe what they did (e.g., how they studied). Discourage students from saying, "I was lucky" or "It was an easy test."
10. Encourage students to take responsibility for their failures. For example, in response to the question "Why do you think you are staying after school?" encourage students to take responsibility for what got them there. "Yes, I am sure Jason's behavior was hard to ignore. I am aware that you did some things to get you here. What did you do?"
11. Structure learning and social activities to reduce failure.
12. Teach students how to learn information and how to demonstrate their control of their learning task.
13. Teach students to use procedures and techniques to monitor their own gains in academic areas.
14. Show students how to use timers to increase the amount of time that they spend on a task. Also provide them with the mechanisms for giving themselves rewards such as time to not do work as a reward for completing tasks.
15. When you provide feedback to students, point out correct responses and progress instead of focusing only on mistakes.
16. Find opportunities for a student to "shine" in front of classmates. Even a small recognition is valuable.

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ocial-Emotional Difficulties That Are Prevalent During Adolescence

addition to the characteristics of students with learning ad behavior disorders that we discussed earlier, several fficulties are prevalent during adolescence that can affect udents with special needs. These are the mental health sues of social alienation, suicide, anorexia nervosa, and cohol and other drug abuse. Why might special educa- on teachers need to consider these difficulties as well other variables related to social adjustment in adoles- nts with learning and behavior problems? Perhaps the most important reason is that teachers are often the first to be aware of mental health problems and can be valuable resources for identification and support.

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Video Example 4.2

In this video, several teens describe their experiences with cliques. What are the positive and negative effects of cliques?

Social Alienation Social alienation arises from the extent to which youngsters feel that they are not part of or do not have an affinity for the school or the people in the school. Social alienation has been interpreted to refer to alienation from teachers or peers (Seidel & Vaughn, 1991). Not surprisingly, social alienation begins early in a child's school career but is most obvious during adolescence. In a study by Seidel and Vaughn (1991), students with LD who dropped out of school differed from those who did not when they rated how they felt about teachers and classmates. Not surprisingly, students with LD who drop out do not perceive their teachers as friends. Furthermore, these students are more likely to state, "The thing I hated most about school was my teachers." Students with LD who dropped out also felt that their classmates "would not have missed them if they moved away," and they did not look forward to seeing their friends at school. Interestingly, these students did not differ on their academic achievement scores but did differ on the extent to which they felt that they were socially accepted and liked by their teachers and classmates.

Different school environments trigger feelings of loneliness in students, depending on the individual student's temperament. Thus, it is important for teachers to realize that students who are more withdrawn need additional support to be comfortable in less structured settings. It may be useful to rehearse with them what they can do or to assist them in establishing routines with which they are comfortable in these settings.

To help students feel less socially alienated, teachers can do the following:

- Provide opportunities for students to work in small groups that encourage all students to participate.
- Set the tone in the class that all students are valuable and have something important to contribute.
- Take a moment between classes to ask about students, and demonstrate that you care.
- Allow students to participate in decision making regarding class rules and management.
- Identify youngsters who are uninvolved and/or detached, and refer them to the counselor.
- Encourage students to participate in school-related extracurricular activities.
- Ask students who are lonely whether there is a person in the class they like, and seat them nearby.
- Try grouping students into small groups or pairing students during activities.
- Provide students with activities to engage in with peers (e.g., hide and go seek) during less structured times such as recess and lunch. Encourage students to play together.

Suicide Two Leominster, Massachusetts, teenagers died in a shotgun suicide pact next to an empty bottle of champagne after writing farewell notes that included "I love to die I'd be happier I know it! So please let me go. No hard feelings" (*Boston Herald*, November 10, 1984, p. 1). Although the autopsy showed high levels of alcohol in the girls' bloodstreams, there were no indications that either girl was involved with other drugs or was pregnant. It appeared as though both girls willingly participated in the suicide act. In another note, one of the girls wrote, "I know it was for the best. I can't handle this sucky world any longer" (*Boston Herald*, November 10, 1984, p. 7). The cause of the suicide pact is unknown.

A suicidologist/psychiatrist who asked to be anonymous gathered suicide notes left at coroners' offices. The text of each letter plus the age and sex of the person who left the suicide note are real. According to his analysis, at least half of the notes indicated some doubt about wanting to commit suicide. This suggests that monitoring individuals at risk for suicide may have some prevention success.

Any suicide is shocking, but the suicide of a child or adolescent is particularly tragic. Suicides between birth and the age of 15 are termed *childhood suicides*. Between ages 15 and 19, they are referred to as *adolescent suicides*. Suicide is one of the top three causes of death for people under 24 years of age; 5000 adolescents each year take their own lives in the United States (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention; **www.cdc.gov**).

Suicide attempts by adolescents are frequently made to accomplish one or more of the following four goals:

1. To escape stress or stressful situations
2. To demonstrate to others how desperate they are
3. To hurt or get back at others
4. To get others to change

The National Institute of Mental Health addresses the following questions about suicide.

What are the factors that make individuals more at risk to commit suicide?

- Depression and other mental health problems
- Substance abuse
- Prior suicide attempt
- Family history of suicide
- Family violence, including physical and sexual abuse
- Firearms in the home
- Incarceration

It is important to note that individuals at risk for suicide have been found to have decreased levels of serotonin and impulsive disorders. The National Institute of Mental Health reports that men and women differ in the methods used for suicide. See Table 4.1 for a summary of suicide methods for males and females.

Individuals at risk for suicide often deny their suicidal thoughts or actions. They often make comments such as,

Table 4.1 Suicide Methods for Males and Females

Suicide by	Males (%)	Females (%)
Firearms	56	30
Suffocation	24	21
Poisoning	13	40

"It was all a mistake. I am much better now." Even if they attempt to discount the attempt, it should be treated with extreme seriousness.

Early detection of students who are at risk for suicide can help in providing services and reducing that risk. Students who are contemplating suicide may provide subtle verbal clues such as, "Don't bother grading my test, because by tomorrow it really won't matter what I got on it" (American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychology, 2009; American Foundation for Suicide Prevention, 2009). Signs that may be related to suicide include depression, flat affect, an emotion-laden event (e.g., parental divorce), and isolation. Teachers of students with learning and behavior problems should be particularly knowledgeable about these symptoms because these students, particularly those in special education classrooms, are considered by their counselors to be more at risk for depression (Howard & Tryon, 2002). Also, students with severe reading problems are significantly more likely to experience suicidal ideation or suicide attempts and are also more likely to drop out of school (Daniel et al., 2007). Apply the Concept 4.8 presents some warning signs of suicide.

Sheras (1983) offers six general considerations for dealing with adolescent suicide attempts:

1. All suicide attempts must be taken seriously. Do not interpret the behavior as merely a plea for attention. Do not try to decide whether the attempt is real. The National Mental Health Association (2003) indicates that four out of five suicidal adolescents provide clear signs that they are considering suicide, including the following:
   - Direct and indirect threat
   - Obsession with death
   - Writing that refers to death
   - Dramatic changes in appearance or personality (e.g., changes in eating and/or sleeping habits)
   - Giving away possessions
   - Change in school behavior
2. Develop or re-establish communication with the person. Suicide is a form of communication from a person who feels that he or she has no other way to communicate.

4.8 Apply the Concept

What Are Some of the Suicide Warning Signs?

These warning signs should be taken very seriously and never ignored. Teach adolescents and young adults these signs so that they can respond appropriately to their peers.

- ***Suicide Notes***—If you find, read, or are told about a suicide note that has been written, do not consider it silly or funny. Take it very seriously and report it.
- ***Threats***—All threats to do harm to oneself should be taken very seriously.
- ***Previous Attempts***—Pay particular attention to students who have attempted suicide in the past.
- ***Depression***—When depression includes signs of helplessness or hopelessness, be very concerned about risk for suicide.
- ***Final Arrangements***—Consider efforts to make final arrangements such as giving away valuable objects and preparing goodbyes as serious risk signs for suicide.
- ***Self-Injurious Behavior***—Treat attempts at injuring oneself such as jumping out of a car and cutting as risk signs for suicide.
- ***Sudden Changes in Appearance, Personality, Friends, and Behavior***—Observe dramatic changes in appearance (neat to sloppy), excessive changes in personality, and other significant changes as potential signs for risk of suicide.
- ***Death and Suicide Themes***—Students may exhibit unusual and peculiar preoccupation with death themes that they demonstrate in their drawings and writings.

There are a variety of online resources that you can access for more information:

American Academy for Child and Adolescent Psychiatry

American Association of Suicidology

Depression and Bipolar Support Alliance (DBSA)

Light for Life Program

National Institute of Mental Health Suicide Prevention Resources

National Mental Health Association

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services

Source: Save a *Friend: Tips for Teens to Prevent Suicide*, from R. Lieberman and K. C. Cowan, 2006, Bethesda, MD: National Association of School Psychologists. Retrieved from **http://www.nasponline.org**.

3. Re-establish emotional or interpersonal support. Suicide is an expression of alienation, and the person needs to be reconnected with significant others.
4. Involve the adolescent in individual and/or family therapy. Often, the adolescent feels unable to establish communication with a significant person (e.g., a parent) and needs assistance from another to do so.
5. Work with the youngster to identify the problem or problems and to provide realistic practical solutions to the problems.
6. Devise a "no-kill" contract that requires a student to promise in writing not to inflict self-harm. Students who have agreed to such a contract tend to find it more difficult to follow through with plans of suicide (Pfeffer, 1986).

What should you do if you think someone is suicidal? The National Institute of Mental Health recommends the following if you think someone is suicidal.

- Do not leave the person alone.
- Try to get the person to seek immediate help from a personal physician or the nearest hospital emergency room, or call 911.
- Eliminate access to firearms or other potential tools for suicide, including unsupervised access to medications.

Social-Emotional Interventions

Understanding and using different interventions to affect the social and emotional development of students with learning and behavior disorders is extremely important. Using a particular intervention may be effective with one student but considerably less effective with another student or another problem. The best way to determine whether an intervention is working is to target specific social-emotional skills and to measure their progress over time. Though immediate improvement is unlikely, some improvement should occur in 4 to 6 weeks; if no improvement occurs, the teacher may consider trying another intervention.

A range of intervention practices can assist in teaching appropriate social skills to students with learning and behavior disorders. The purpose of social-emotional training is to teach the students a complex response set that allows them to adapt to the numerous problems that occur in social situations and to regulate their emotions. Common goals of social-emotional practices include supports for learning to do the following:

- Solve problems and make decisions quickly.
- Adapt to situations that are new or unexpected.
- Use coping strategies for responding to emotional upsets.
- Communicate effectively with others.
- Manage emotions and regulate emotional responses
- Make and maintain friends.
- Reduce anxiety.
- Reduce problem behaviors.

Interpersonal Problem Solving

Most people spend an extraordinary amount of time preventing and solving interpersonal problems. Whether we are concerned about what to say to our neighbor whose dog barks loudly in the middle of the night, how to handle an irate customer at work, or our relationships with our parents and siblings, interpersonal problems are an ongoing part of life. Some people seem to acquire the skills necessary for interpersonal problem solving easily and with little or no direct instruction; others, particularly students with learning and behavior disorders, need more direct instruction in how to prevent and resolve difficulties with others and to regulate their emotions in response to everyday events. For example, individuals who are depressed demonstrate impaired problem solving, including difficulty generating appropriate solutions to interpersonal problems. They also struggle in identifying appropriate solutions and are less able to select solutions that would be effective to implement (Thoma, Schmidt, Juckel, Norra, & Suchan, 2015).

The goal of interpersonal problem-solving (IPS) training is to empower students with a wide range of strategies that allow them to develop and maintain positive relationships with others, cope effectively with others, solve their own problems, and resolve conflict with others. The problem-solving approach attempts to provide the student with a process for resolving conflicts.

Four skills appear to be particularly important for successful problem resolution (Bell & D'Zurilla, 2009; D'Zurilla & Nezu, 2010). First, the student must be able to identify and define the problem. Second, the student must be able to generate a variety of alternative solutions to any given problem. Third, the student must be able to identify and evaluate the possible consequences of each alternative. Finally, the student must be able to implement the solution and determine the effects of the solution implementation. This may require rehearsal and modeling.

Whereas these four components are characteristic of most interpersonal problem-solving programs, programs often incorporate additional components and procedures. For example, a social problem-solving intervention was conducted with 50 students with serious emotional disturbances, by Amish, Gesten, Smith, Clark, and Stark (1988). The intervention consisted of 15 structured lessons that occurred for 40 minutes once each week. The following problem-solving steps were taught:

1. Say what the problem is and how you feel.
2. Decide on a goal.
3. Stop and think before you decide what to do.
4. Think of many possible solutions to the problem.

5. *Think about what will happen next after each possible solution.*
6. *When you find a good solution, try it.*

The results of the intervention indicated that students with serious emotional disturbances who participated in the intervention improved their social problem-solving skills and were able to generate more alternatives to interviewing and role-playing measures.

The following sections describe several IPS programs that have been developed, implemented, and evaluated with students who have learning and behavior disorders.

Evidence-Based Practice

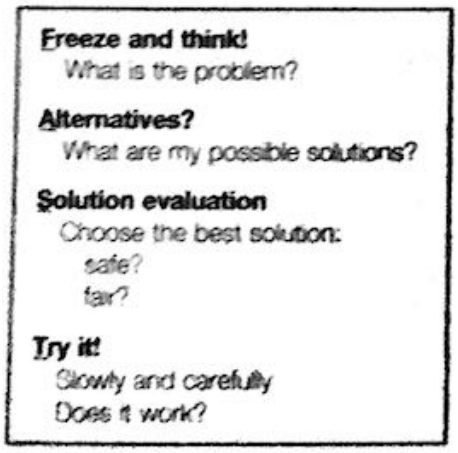
FAST

Procedures: FAST is a strategy that is taught as part of an IPS program to second-, third-, and fourth-grade students with LD who have been identified as having social skills problems (Vaughn & Lancelotta, 1990; Vaughn, Lancelotta, & Mimms, 1988; Vaughn et al., 1991). The purpose of FAST is to teach students to consider problems carefully before responding to them and to consider alternatives and their consequences. Figure 4.8 presents the FAST strategy. In step 1, Freeze and Think, students are taught to identify the problem. In step 2, Alternatives, students are taught to consider possible ways of solving the problem. In step 3, Solution Evaluation, students are asked to prepare a solution or course of action for solving the problem that is both safe and fair. The idea is to get students to consider solutions that will be effective in the long run. Step 4, Try It, asks students to rehearse and implement the solution. If they are unsuccessful at implementing the solution, students are taught to go back to alternatives. Students with LD practiced this strategy by using real problems generated by themselves and their peers. Following is a description of the procedures used in the problem-solving study.

1. In each classroom, ask students to rate all same-sex classmates on the extent to which they would like to be friends with them. Students who receive few friendship votes and many no-friendship votes are identified as not well accepted. Students who receive many friendship votes and few no-friendship votes are identified as very well accepted.
2. Students with LD who are not well accepted are paired with a same-sex popular classmate, and the pairs become the IPS skills trainers for the class and school.
3. Youngsters who are selected as IPS skills trainers are removed from the classroom two to three times a week and are taught problem-solving strategies for approximately 30 minutes each session.
4. These students who are the "class trainers" are taught the FAST strategy (see above), such as accepting negative feedback, receiving positive feedback, and making friendship overtures.
5. Classmates record problems they have at home and at school and place their lists in the classroom problem-solving box. Trainers use these lists as they learn the strategies outside of class as well as for in-class discussion.
6. After the IPS trainers have learned a strategy, such as FAST, they teach it to the entire class, with backup and support from the classroom teacher.
7. During subsequent weeks, the trainers leave the room for only one session per week and practice the FAST strategy as well as other strategies with classmates at least one time per week. These reviews include large-group explanations and small-group problem-solving exercises.
8. Students who are selected as trainers are recognized by their teacher for their special skills. Other students are asked to consult the problem-solving trainer when they have difficulties.

Apply the Concept 4.9 shows an activity sheet used as part of a homework assignment for students participating in the training.

Figure 4.8 FAST: An Interpersonal Problem-Solving Strategy



Evidence-Based Practice

Check & Connect: A Comprehensive Approach to Student Engagement

Procedures: The purpose of Check & Connect is to implement a set of procedures to engage students who are showing signs of risk for dropping out of school. When students are demonstrating poor attendance, low grades, disinterest, or other signs suggesting they are disconnecting from school, Check & Connect can be implemented to facilitate their engagement (**checkandconnect.umn.edu**).

Components of Check & Connect include:

1. The *mentor* assigned to a student to build a strong relationship and support success in school.
2. The *check* component in which the student's performance on critical variables such as attendance, behavior, and academics is systematically monitored by the mentor.
3. The *connect* component in which a personalized data-based intervention is implemented to support the student.
4. The *parent/family engagement* in which liaisons are established between home and school.

4.9 Apply the Concept

Activity Sheet for FAST

This activity sheet can be used to give children written practice in using the FAST strategy.

You are in the cafeteria. Another student keeps bugging you. He hits you, pokes you, tries to steal your food, and will not stop bullying you. You start to get angry. What would you do? Use FAST to help you solve the problem.

1. ***Freeze and think.*** What is the problem?

2. ***Alternatives.*** What are your possible solutions?

3. ***Solution evaluation.*** Choose the best one. Remember: Safe and fair works in the long run.

4. ***Try it.*** Do you think this will work?

A friend of yours is upset. She is teased a lot, especially by a boy named Kenny. She told you that she wants to run away from school. What could you tell your friend to help her solve the problem? Use FAST to help you.

1.

2.

3.

4.

Critical Elements of Check & Connect include:

1. Establishing positive and personalized relationships with a long-term commitment.
2. Using problem solving to resolve issues that serve as barriers to the student's success.
3. Using persistence to continue supporting and enhancing opportunities for the student.

Comments: Check & Connect has been implemented primarily at the high school level, with success, though, also with younger grades (Maynard et al., 2014; **www.checkandconnect.umn.edu**). Strengths of Check & Connect include the ease of implementation and the independent evaluations showing positive results for disciplinary infractions (fewer) as well as improved attendance.

Evidence-Based Practice

ASSET: A Social Skills Program for Adolescents

Procedures: The purpose of ASSET is to teach adolescents the social skills they need to interact successfully with peers and adults (Hazel, Schumaker, Sherman, & Sheldon-Wildgen, 1982). Eight social skills are considered fundamental to successful relationships:

1. *Giving positive feedback.* This skill teaches students how to thank someone and how to give a compliment.
2. *Giving negative feedback.* This skill teaches students to give correction and feedback in a way that is not threatening.
3. *Accepting negative feedback.* This skill teaches students the all-important ability to receive negative feedback without walking away, showing hostility, or other inappropriate emotional reactions.
4. *Resisting peer pressure.* This skill teaches students to refuse their friends who are trying to seduce them into some form of delinquent behavior.
5. *Problem solving.* This skill teaches students a process for solving their own interpersonal difficulties.
6. *Negotiation.* This skill teaches students to use their problem-solving skills with another person to come to a mutually acceptable resolution.
7. *Following instructions.* This skill teaches students to listen and respond to instructions.
8. *Conversation.* This skill teaches students to initiate and maintain a conversation.

Procedures: The Leader's Guide (Hazel et al., 1981) that comes with the ASSET program provides instructions for running

the groups and teaching the skills. Eight teaching sessions are provided on videotapes that demonstrate the skills. Program materials include skill sheets, home notes, and criterion checklists. See Apply the Concept 4.10 for a description of the procedures for implementing ASSET.

Evidence-Based Practice

Circle of Friends

Circle of Friends is a friendship-enhancement program that has been evaluated with 6- to 12-year-old students with emotional and behavioral disorders (Frederickson, 2010; Frederickson & Turner, 2003). The primary purpose of Circle of Friends is to establish a supportive meeting each week (for about 1 hour) to provide opportunities for peers to learn to interact with and support their fellow students with emotional or behavior problems.

Procedures: Circles of Friends are run by the counselor or school psychologist with the classroom teacher as a participant. The focus child is a student whom the teacher has identified as having significant behavior problems and peer interaction difficulties that would improve if peers in the classroom provided the appropriate interactions and supports. An outside leader (usually the school psychologist or counselor) conducts the Circle of Friends group. Students from the target student's class are included in the Circle of Friends. Typically, the target student is not present during the meetings.

Following are the main features in using Circle of Friends in the classroom:

1. During the first meeting, the leader explains to the group why the target student is not present and solicits the cooperation and support of the peers. Students who are participating are first asked to identify only the strengths and positive behaviors of the target student.
2. After the target student's positive behaviors have been identified, the leader asks students to identify the challenging behaviors that the target student exhibits. The leader makes links between the target student's difficult behaviors and the types of responses and supports that students could provide. Then the leader requests that six to eight students volunteer to serve as the Circle of Friends. The rest of the students are dismissed.
3. The Circle of Friends meets approximately eight times with the leader and the target student. During these meetings, students are reminded to follow the basic ground rules of confidentiality, seeking adult help if they are worried, and listening carefully to each person.
4. The leader and students identify a target behavior and roles that each of them will play to ensure that the target student can maintain the target behavior. Students role-play and set goals for the forthcoming week. Each week, they review and describe their success and establish new behavioral goals.

Comments: Students with emotional and behavior disorders who participated in the Circle of Friends (Frederickson, 2010; Frederickson & Turner, 2003) were better accepted by their peers in the classroom after participation than were similar students

4.10 Apply the Concept

Asset—A Social Skills Program for Adolescents

Procedures

Each lesson is taught to a small group of adolescents. Each lesson has nine basic steps:

1. Review homework and previously learned social skills.
2. Explain the new skill for the day's lesson.
3. Explain why the skill is important and should be learned and practiced.
4. Give a realistic and specific example to illustrate the use of the skill.
5. Examine each of the skill steps that are necessary to carry out the new social skill.
6. Model the skill, and provide opportunities for students and others to demonstrate correct and incorrect use of the skills.
7. Use verbal rehearsal to familiarize the students with the sequence of steps in each social skill, and provide a procedure for students to be automatic with their knowledge of the skill steps.
8. Use behavioral rehearsal to allow each student to practice and demonstrate the skill steps until they reach criterion.
9. Assign homework that provides opportunities for the students to practice the skills in other settings.

These nine steps are followed for each of the eight specific social skills listed here.

Comments

The ASSET program has been evaluated with eight students who have LD (Hazel, Schumaker, Sherman, & Sheldon, 1982). That evaluation demonstrated that the students with LD involved in the intervention increased in the use of social skills in role-play settings. The curriculum guide provides specific teaching procedures and is particularly relevant to teachers working with adolescents. A DVD that includes video vignettes of the social skills, a leader's guide, and program materials is available from Research Press (**www.researchpress.com**).

who had not participated in such a program. Although the Circle of Friends did not influence students' overall perceptions of the climate of the classroom, it did (positively) influence their perceptions of the target student.

Skillstreaming: Structured Learning Structured learning is a psychoeducational and behavioral approach to teaching prosocial skills to students both with and without disabilities (Goldstein et al., 2012). Skillstreaming can be implemented by teachers, social workers, psychologists, or school counselors. The program is available for young children (McGinnis & Goldstein, 2003), elementary-age children (McGinnis & Goldstein), and adolescents (Goldstein, McGinnis, Sprafkin, Gershaw, & Klein, 2012). Skillstreaming continues to be implemented with positive outcomes for youngsters (e.g., Sheridan et al., 2011).

The first component, *modeling*, involves a verbal and behavioral description of the target skill as well as the steps that compose the target skill. At this point, the teacher might role-play the steps in the skill, and other models may also role-play, exhibiting the target skill itself. During the second step, students are encouraged to enact role-plays based on actual life experiences. These role-plays are facilitated by coaching and cues from the teacher. Next, the teacher and other observers provide feedback. Specific attention is paid to elements of each role-play that were effective and appropriate. Skills that were not role-played effectively are modeled by the teacher. In the final step, students are provided with opportunities to practice the steps and skills in the real world (e.g., outside the classroom).

The structured learning procedure for elementary students offers 60 prosocial skills and their constituent steps, arranged into five groups: classroom survival skills, friendship-making skills, skills for dealing with feelings, skill alternatives to aggression, and skills for dealing with stress. The structured learning procedure for adolescents also has 60 prosocial skills. It differs from the program for elementary students by including skills related to planning and decision making.

Principles for Teaching Social-Emotional Skills

Teachers need to consider a number of points relevant to teaching social-emotional skills, no matter what social skills program they use:

1. *Develop cooperative learning.* Classrooms can be structured so that a win–lose atmosphere is established in which children compete with each other for grades and teacher attention; structured so that children work on their own with little interaction among classmates; or structured for cooperative learning so children work alone, with pairs, and with groups, helping each other master the assigned material. Teachers can structure learning activities so that they involve cooperative learning and teach students techniques for working with pairs or in a group. The following four elements need to be present for cooperative learning to occur in small groups (D. W. Johnson & Johnson, 2009; R. T. Johnson & Johnson, 1986):

MyLab Education
Video Example 4.3

This video shows instructional strategies that support students' social skill development. What methods does the teacher suggest? How do they benefit students?

   a. Students understand that their success at the required task is linked to the success of all members of the group. This may require appropriate division of labor and giving a single grade for the entire group's performance.
   b. The task allows for individual accountability so that each member of the group is assessed and realizes that his or her performance is critical for group success.
   c. Students have the necessary collaborative skills to function effectively in a group. This may include managing conflicts, active listening, leadership skill, and problem solving.
   d. Sufficient time for group process must be allowed, including discussing how well the group is performing, developing a plan of action, and identifying what needs to happen.

2. *Students benefit from working with peers in supportive and academically structured activities.* Not only do students benefit academically when interventions focus on reading and math outcomes; a small effect also results for social, self-concept, and behavioral outcomes (Ginsburg-Block, Rohrbeck, & Fantuzzo, 2006). Thus, this approach has both academic and social benefits.

3. *Use principles of effective instruction.* Many teachers claim that they do not know how to teach social-emotional skills. Considering the social skills difficulties of special education students, methods of teaching social-emotional skills to students may need to become part of teacher training programs.

Teaching social-emotional skills requires implementing principles of effective instruction. These are used and explained throughout this text and include obtaining student commitment, identifying target behavior, pretesting, teaching, modeling, rehearsing, role-playing, providing feedback, practicing in controlled settings, practicing in other settings, posttesting, and follow-up. Following are social skills that learning- and behavior-disordered students frequently need to be taught:

- *Body language.* This includes how students walk, where they stand during a conversation, what their

body language "says," gestures, eye contact, and appropriate facial reactions. Although some students may want to communicate "I don't care" with their body language when they are with their friends, it is useful to them to know how to adjust their body language in other settings, such as interviewing for a job.

- *Greetings.* Teaching greetings may include expanding students' repertoire of greetings, selecting appropriate greetings for different people, and interpreting and responding to the greetings of others.
- *Initiating and maintaining a conversation.* This includes a wide range of behaviors such as knowing when to approach someone; knowing how to ask inviting, open questions; knowing how to respond to comments made by others; and maintaining a conversation with a range of people, including those who are too talkative and those who volunteer little conversation.
- *Giving positive feedback.* Knowing how and when to give sincere, genuine, positive feedback and comments.
- *Accepting positive feedback.* Knowing how to accept positive feedback from others.
- *Giving negative feedback.* Knowing how and when to give specific negative feedback.
- *Accepting negative feedback.* Knowing how to accept negative feedback from others. For most people, including students with learning and behavior problems, learning how to accept negative feedback and to integrate it into a change in behavior is perhaps one of the most challenging behaviors. Using role-plays to practice in small groups is often useful.
- *Identifying feelings in self and others.* Through the ability to recognize feelings in both self and others, students are able to predict how they will feel in a given situation and prepare for responding appropriately to one's own and others' feelings.
- *Problem solving and conflict resolution.* Knowing and using problem-solving skills to prevent and solve difficulties.

4. *Teach for transfer of learning.* For social-emotional skills to transfer or generalize to other settings, the program must require the rehearsal and implementation of target skills across settings. One way to do this is to practice skills systematically in many settings, such as in the classroom, on the playground, and at home.

5. *Empower students.* Many students with learning and behavior difficulties feel discouraged and unable to influence their learning. They turn the responsibility for learning over to the teacher and become passive learners. How can we empower students?

- *Choice.* Students need to feel that they are actively involved in their learning. Consider opportunities throughout the day to give students "choices." These choices can be organized so that the student chooses from 20 problems which 12 they are going to do or chooses from several appropriate texts which one they are going to read.
- *Consequences.* Students will learn from the natural and logical consequences of their choices.
- *Documented progress.* In addition to teacher documentation of progress made, students need to learn procedures for monitoring and assessing their progress.
- *Control.* Students need to feel as though they can exercise control over what happens to them. Some students feel as though their learning is in someone else's hands and therefore is someone else's responsibility.

6. *Identify strengths.* When developing social skills interventions for students with special needs, be sure to consider their strengths as well as their needs. Because appearance and athletic ability relate to social acceptance, these areas need to be considered when determining the type of social intervention needed. Knowing something about the students' areas of strength can be helpful in identifying social contexts that may be promising for promoting positive peer interactions. For example, a student with LD who is a particularly good swimmer and a member of a swim team may find it easier to make friends on the swim team than in the academic setting. Students with LD who acquire strengths in appearance and athletic activities may have areas of strength from which to build their social skills. However, many children with LD do not have the motor ability or eye–hand coordination to succeed in the athletic area. Other areas, such as hobbies or special interests, can be presented in the classroom so that the student with LD has an opportunity to be perceived as one who is knowledgeable. Students with learning and behavior disorders who are not well accepted by their classmates may have friends in the neighborhood or within their families (e.g., cousins). Perhaps the most important point to remember is that if a student is not well accepted by peers at school, this does not necessarily mean that the student does not have effective social relationships outside the school setting.

Evidence-Based Practice

Coping Power Program (www.copingpower.com)

Procedures: The Coping Power program is a prevention program that facilitates anger management and social-emotional development. It can be used with parents and with youngsters from elementary to middle grades.

The program has two foci: parent focus and child focus, aimed at improving social competence, self-regulation, and control and at improving caregiver involvement with the child. The Coping Power Child component focuses on: (1) establishing group rules and contingent reinforcement; (2) generating

alternative solutions and considering the consequences of alternative solutions to social problems; (3) viewing modeling videos of children becoming aware of physiological arousal when angry, using self-statements and using the complete set of problem-solving skills with social problems; (4) children's planning and making their own videotape of inhibitory self-statements and social problem-solving with problems of their own choice; (5) coping with anxiety and anger arousal (using self-statements and relaxation); (6) addressing accurate identification of social problems involving provocation and peer pressure to participate in drug use (focus on attributions, cue recall, and understanding of others' and own goals); (7) increasing social skills, involving methods of entering new peer groups and using positive peer networks (focus on negotiation and cooperation on structured and unstructured interactions with peers); (8) coping with peer pressure to use drugs; and (9) increasing their study and organizational skills.

Comments: Coping Power has a considerable research base that includes multiple research studies across ages focusing on a range of students with problems, including preadolescents with behavior disorders (Lochman et al., 2012). The authors include a number of programs on their website that range from a parent group workbook to a complete intervention kit for facilitating implementation in classrooms or with small groups (**www.copingpower.com**).

Preparing the Instructional Environment

How should teachers arrange the instructional environment of the classroom to promote appropriate behavior?

As she completed her first year of teaching as a junior high special education teacher, Ms. Habib commented:

> I'm really looking forward to next year. The first year of teaching has to be the hardest. There is so much to get organized at the beginning of the year, so many decisions to be made, and so many new routines and procedures to learn. You need to determine how to arrange the room to facilitate learning, what materials to select or develop, and how to organize the materials so that the students can find them easily. You must decide how to group the students and how to schedule them into the room. In comparison to this year, next year should be a breeze. I'll be able to spend much more time refining my teaching skills, focusing on the students, and strengthening my instruction. I also have numerous professionals, including teachers, the school psychologist and the speech and language specialist, I need to meet with and organized instructional approaches.

In many ways, Ms. Habib is a manager, as are all teachers. We will explore some of the decisions that teachers have to consider in getting started, and look at some options they might consider in making those decisions. Many of the important decisions that you will be making will influence the classroom management and behavior of your students.

Arranging the Environment

The teaching–learning process takes place within a specific context. Making this context or environment pleasant and conducive to learning can facilitate the teaching–learning process. Furthermore, considering how the environment may be arranged to "prevent" behavior problems is an important consideration.

Instructional Arrangement The term *instructional arrangement* refers to the manner in which a teacher organizes instructional groups to promote learning and behavior. Inclusive settings require arranging grouping instruction with general education teachers. Generally, there are six instructional arrangements: large-group instruction, small-group instruction, one-to-one instruction, independent learning, cooperative learning, peer teaching, and classwide peer tutoring. Effective instruction and management of behavior require aligning the instructional arrangement with the learning needs of students and considering how these decisions might also promote effective behavior.

Large-Group Instruction In large-group instruction, a teacher usually provides support or explicit instruction to a group of six or more students. Large-group instruction is appropriate when the goal of instruction is similar for all students. Teachers often use this type of instructional arrangement when it is helpful for all students to acquire particular instructional practices or content knowledge at the same time. This arrangement is also useful when the teacher is providing a "model" (e.g., demonstrating how to effectively solve a math problem) or when the teacher is promoting discussion (e.g., the teacher asks students to discuss the factors that contributed to a historical event). Large-group instruction can be used both for didactic instruction (i.e., instruction in which one person, usually the teacher, provides information) and for interactive instruction (i.e., when students and teachers discuss and share information). In large-group instruction, students generally have fewer opportunities to get feedback about their performance and to receive corrective feedback. Because large-group instruction is the most frequently used arrangement in general education classrooms, students can benefit from opportunities to learn in other grouping formats, particularly small-group instruction.

Following are some activities that teachers can implement to make large-group instruction as effective as possible:

- Ask all students a comprehension question, and then ask them to discuss their answer with a partner. This gives all students in the group an opportunity to reflect and comment on the question.
- Provide a whiteboard and a marker or paper and pencil to all students in the large group. Ask them to write

words, sentences, letters, or answers as you instruct the group as a whole.

- Use informal member checks to determine whether students in the group agree, disagree, or have a question about what they are learning.
- Ask selected students to provide in their own words a summary of points of view that have been expressed by several different students in the group.
- Distribute lesson reminder sheets that provide students with a structure for answering questions about what they learned from a lesson, what they liked about what they learned, and what else they would like to learn. This increases the likelihood that students will attend to lessons and learn more.
- Model how to solve a math problem, and then provide students an opportunity to solve a similar problem with feedback from other students and the teacher.

What are some of the ways teachers can promote positive behavior within a large-group setting? First, establish guidelines for appropriate responding in the large group. "As I explain how to do the math problem, I'm going to stop and review. I will call on students to respond. Please wait for me to call your name before responding." Second, provide multiple opportunities for group response and individual response with feedback. Large-group instruction that involves too much teacher talk and modeling without adequate time for students to respond with feedback is less likely to be successful. Third, tell students frequently what you like about their behavior—for example, "all of you are listening while I'm explaining this," "thank you for raising your hands to respond."

Small-Group Instruction Small-group instruction usually consists of groups of more than two students but fewer than six. Small-group instruction is effective when the teacher wants to provide specific instruction to target students that allows for feedback and support. Teachers form small groups of students who either are at different ability levels (heterogeneous groups) or have similar abilities in a particular curriculum area (homogeneous groups). One benefit of using small groups is that a teacher can individualize instruction to meet each group's specific needs. For example, during a cooperative learning activity in which students are grouped heterogeneously, the teacher is able to give a mini lesson to a group that is having difficulty working together.

Same-ability, or homogeneous, groups are often used for teaching those specific elements of instruction that are specifically needed by the target students because they either need additional practice or need to learn prerequisite skills not required by other students. In using small-group instruction, a teacher usually involves one group of students while the remaining students participate in independent learning, cooperative learning, or peer tutoring. Sometimes teachers who work in resource rooms schedule students so that only two to five students come at one time; thus, all the students can participate in small-group instruction at once. Many teachers prefer using a horseshoe table arrangement for small-group instruction because it allows them to easily reach their instructional materials and to closely interact with students.

Following are some of the activities that teachers can implement to make small-group instruction as effective as possible:

- Arrange your instructional schedule to allow for daily small-group instruction for students who are behind in reading and several times a week for all other students.
- Provide flexible small-group instruction that addresses the specific skills and instructional needs of students.
- Use student-led small groups to reteach or practice previously taught information, reread stories, develop and answer questions, and provide feedback on writing pieces.

What are some ways teachers can promote appropriate behavior during small-group instruction? First, teachers can establish and review expectations during small-group behavior—for example, explaining to students, "I am going to review how to write a summary of text, and then I am going to do a text summary with the group while you write on your white boards. Next, I'm going to ask each of you to work individually to complete a summary of a new text, and I'll give you feedback while you are reading and writing." Second, ensure that students in the group are provided work that they can do or that is modified to meet their instructional needs. Third, provide students an opportunity to practice with feedback that both facilitates learning and keeps them motivated and interested.

One-to-One Instruction One-to-one instruction occurs when a teacher or paraprofessional works individually with a student. This instructional arrangement allows the adult to provide more intensive and customized instruction, closely monitoring student progress and modifying and adapting procedures to match the student's learning patterns. The Fernald (1943) visual-auditory-kinesthetic-tactile (VAKT) method of teaching word identification and Reading Recovery, discussed in Chapter 7, recommend a one-to-one instructional arrangement. At least some one-to-one instruction is recommended for students with learning and behavior problems because it provides them with some time each day to ask questions and receive assistance from the teacher. The major drawback of one-to-one instruction is that while one student is working with the teacher, the other students need to be actively engaged in learning. To accomplish this, independent learning, cooperative learning, peer teaching, and classwide peer tutoring are frequently used. Managing student behavior in one-on-one teaching is typically not challenging, but many of the practices relating to establishing

routines, providing feedback and encouragement, and aligning instruction to students' learning needs apply. Paraprofessionals can be effective supports for providing one-on-one instruction time for students with learning and behavior problems. See Apply the Concept 4.11 for pointers on using paraprofessionals to support one-on-one instruction.

MyLab Education
Video Example 4.4
The teacher in this video provides individualized instruction for students who are struggling with math. Why is this instructional arrangement necessary?

Independent Learning Independent learning is one way to enable students to practice skills in which they have already received instruction and have acquired some proficiency. Teachers frequently associate independent learning with individual worksheets, but computer activities or various assignments such as listening to an audio book, writing a story, reading a library book, or making a map for a social studies unit can also be independent learning activities. The key to successful independent learning is to ensure that the assignments and activities are ones that students have had significant practice in and have demonstrated that they can complete or initiate with little teacher guidance or feedback.

Ensuring that a student can complete an independent learning activity can be accomplished through questioning activities. For example, when Miriam selects library books, Ms. Martino asks Miriam to read about 100 words to her, and then she asks Miriam several questions. If Miriam misses 5 or fewer words and can answer the questions easily, then Ms. Martino encourages her to read the book on her own. If Miriam misses 5 to 10 words, then Ms. Martino arranges for her to read the book using cooperative learning or peer tutoring. If Miriam misses more than 10 words and struggles to answer the questions, then Ms. Martino may encourage her to select another book. In fact, Ms. Martino has taught Miriam and the rest of the students in her self-contained classroom for students with behavior disorders the Five-Finger Rule: "If in reading the first couple of pages of a book, you know the words except for about five and you can ask yourself and answer five questions about what you have read, then this book is probably a good one for you to read."

How can teachers support appropriate student behavior during independent learning tasks? The first thing to consider is expectations for students during independent learning. Typically, the teacher is working with another group of students and is hoping for minimal interruptions. Providing a mechanism for students to alert you that they have a question without interrupting you is valuable. One way to do this is to have several question cards in a central location in the room. These cards can look like large question marks. If students have a question, they can take a card and put it at their learning station. When you have a good time to stop with the group you are instructing, you can go to the learning stations of the students with questions and address them.

Cooperative Learning Cooperative learning, sometimes considered team-based learning, occurs when students work together and use each other as resources for learning. Four basic elements need to be included for small-group learning to be cooperative: interdependence, collaborative skills, individual accountability, and group processing (D. W. Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 2007; Michaelsen & Sweet, 2008). How can teachers establish interdependence with their students working in cooperative groups?

- Create a learning environment in which students perceive that the goal of the group is for all members to learn, that is, interdependence; everyone sees that it is

4.11 Apply the Concept

Using Paraprofessionals to Support One-on-One Instruction

Most special education teachers have opportunities to access paraprofessionals for supporting the instruction and behavior of their students. What are some effective ways paraprofessionals might be used?

- Considering teaching several critical research-based practices regarding how to give students feedback and how to provide them with opportunities to respond—two critical elements of effective one-on-one instruction.
- Ensure that the paraprofessional understands how to support the student's learning and not provide too much help so that the student is disinclined to adequately address the learning task.
- While the paraprofessional is improving knowledge and skills while working in a target area with a student—for example, reading—consider using a highly scripted evidence-based instructional approach so that the paraprofessional learns the language of instruction.
- When asking the paraprofessional to implement one-on-one instruction in a new target area, model what you expect and observe the paraprofessional implement the practice, providing them appropriate feedback as needed.

personally advantageous for all members of the group to succeed.

- Consequences are based, at least in part, on group performance rather than individual performance; thus, better learners are motivated to support students with learning needs.
- All members of the group receive the materials needed to complete the task.
- Students have complementary roles that foster the division of labor. For example, one student may serve in the role of the group leader, another as the recorder of the ideas, and another as the team spokesperson.

Collaborative skills are required for a group to work together effectively. These collaborative skills can be taught to students explicitly by defining skills and their importance, modeling how the skills are used, allowing students to practice skills in cooperative groups, and providing students with corrective feedback. Individual accountability ensures that each student is responsible for learning the required material and contributing to the group. Teacher evaluations (e.g., of quizzes, individual products) can help to determine whether each student has learned the material. Students can also use progress-monitoring forms to track their own behavior and progress. Progress-monitoring forms might include questions such as, "How did I contribute to the learning of the group today?" and "In what way did I help or not help my group to complete our work?" Providing opportunities for the group members to evaluate how well they did and how they might improve their performance in the future may be useful.

Apply the Concept 4.12 provides additional guidelines for including students with disabilities in cooperative learning groups.

Two basic formats for cooperative learning are often used in general or special education classrooms. In a *group project*, students pool their knowledge and skills to create a project or complete an assignment. All students in the group participate in the decisions and tasks that ensure completion of the project. Using the *jigsaw format*, each student in a group is assigned a task that must be completed for the group to reach its goal. For example, in completing a fact-finding sheet on fossils, each student might be assigned to read a different source to obtain information for the different facts required on the sheet.

What considerations might teachers have when managing student behavior during cooperative groups?

- Consider establishing guidelines for how members of the group interact, including providing opportunities for each member of the group to contribute.
- Consider how you might evaluate both individual performance and group performance.

4.12 Apply the Concept

Guidelines for Including Students with Special Needs in Cooperative Learning Activities

When students with disabilities are included in a cooperative group lesson in the general education classroom, teachers may consider the following to facilitate their success:

- Adjust group size, and create heterogeneous groups of students who are likely to work well together. Would some students benefit from three students in a group instead of four or five? Are there target students in the class who work particularly well with students who have special needs?
- Identify the strengths of the students with special needs, and provide them opportunities to serve in roles in their groups that maximize what they do well and still provide them opportunities to learn. For example, if a student is a good public speaker, allow this student to be the group spokesperson.
- Consider each student's individualized education program (IEP) goals and academic strengths and weaknesses when assigning roles. For example, modifications in materials may be necessary if a student with below-grade-level reading skills is assigned the role of reading directions.
- Arrange the room to ensure face-to-face interaction between students and to make groups easily accessible to the teacher. Round tables work well, but chairs clustered together or open floor areas can also be used.
- Inform students of criteria for both academic and interpersonal success. Some teachers hand out a grading rubric with an outline of specific criteria for grading in each area of evaluation (e.g., creativity, neatness, group work, correct information, quiz).
- Provide mini lessons before and/or during the cooperative group activity to teach academic or cooperative skills. Students need to know what group work "looks like," and many teachers conduct several lessons on how to work in cooperative groups before beginning the learning activities. Teachers can also provide small doses of instruction to individual groups during the activity, as needed.
- Monitor and evaluate both individual achievement and group work. Many teachers carry a clipboard with students' names and lesson objectives so that they can record student progress as they monitor groups.
- Reflect on the cooperative learning activity, and note changes for future lessons. Did the lesson go as well as you would have liked? Did students learn the required material?

- Provide a mechanism for members of the group to evaluate their own performance and that of the group as a whole.
- Provide a mechanism for members of the group to help each other.
- Consider how to prevent group members from dominating decisions and progress.
- Ensure that all members of the group take responsibility for the product.

Cooperative learning has been integrated into several approaches to teaching reading, math, writing, and even content-area learning such as social studies and science. In future chapters, you will learn about cooperative learning practices specifically applied to these instructional areas.

Opportunities to participate in cooperative learning experiences are particularly important for students with learning and behavior problems. As well as supporting development of targeted academic skills, cooperative learning helps students experience positive interactions with peers and develop strategies for supporting others. In orchestrating cooperative learning, it is important to provide students with sufficient directions for them to understand the purpose of the activity and the general rules for working in groups. Initially, a teacher may want to participate as a collaborator, modeling such behaviors as asking what the other people think, not ridiculing other collaborators for what they think, and helping other collaborators and accepting help from others. As students become comfortable in collaborating, they can work cooperatively in teams without the teacher's input.

Peer Teaching In the peer-teaching instructional arrangement, one student who has learned the targeted skills (the tutor) assists another student in learning those skills. This type of teaching takes place under a teacher's supervision. When using peer teaching, the teacher needs to plan the instruction and demonstrate the task to student pairs. The tutor then works with the learner, providing assistance and feedback. One advantage of peer teaching is that it increases opportunities for the student learning the skills to practice and get feedback; thus, peer teaching is most beneficial for practice in acquiring skills.

One important aspect of peer teaching is preparing the students to serve as peer tutors by teaching them specific instructional and feedback routines to ensure success (D. Fuchs, Fuchs, Mathes, & Simmons, 1997). Students benefit from learning basic instructional procedures for providing reinforcement and corrective feedback and for knowing when to ask the teacher for assistance. For example, in Mr. Hyde's seventh-grade social studies class, students learned to work with peers to practice talking about the meaning of key concepts and terms. Each week, the key persons, places, and concepts are provided to pairs of students. As they are taught these key ideas, they record them in their social studies folders. Students are then given 10 minutes to turn to their partner and review the key ideas related to these key concepts.

Remember that poor readers show academic and social gains in both the tutor and tutee roles (Bowman-Perrott, Burke, Zaini, Zhang, & Vannest, 2013; Elbaum, Vaughn, Hughes, & Moody, 1999). Therefore, it is important to alternate roles so that students get the chance to benefit from serving as both the tutor and the tutee. You may wonder how you might effectively integrate students with learning and behavior problems as tutors in your classroom. Research focusing on peer tutoring with special education students has shown that it most frequently has been used to teach or monitor basic skills such as letter–sound connections; oral reading; answering reading comprehension questions; and practicing spelling words, math facts, and new sight-word vocabulary (e.g., Rafdal, McMaster, McConnell, Fuchs, & Fuchs, 2011). In these cases, students with disabilities can be taught procedures for leading the peer-pairing practice (e.g., reading the sight words on the card and then showing them to their partner to read), thus serving in the role of tutor. Peer tutoring improves a broad array of social and academic outcomes for students with severe disabilities, as well as increasing their access to the general education curriculum (Okilway & Shelby, 2010).

Another important type of peer teaching is cross-age tutoring, in which older students instruct younger ones. Cross-age tutoring has many advantages, including the fact that older students are supposed to know more than younger students, so less stigma is attached to being tutored. Also, both the tutor and the tutee enjoy the opportunity to meet someone of a different age. Another aspect of cross-age tutoring that can be effective is allowing students with LD or behavior disorders to tutor younger students who also demonstrate LD or behavior disorders.

Classwide Peer Tutoring Classwide peer tutoring is a structured technique for improving students' academic abilities, typically in reading or math. For example, students of different reading levels are paired (e.g., a high or average reader is paired with a low reader) and work together on a sequence of organized activities, such as oral reading, story retelling, and summarization. The reading material can be a basal reader, a trade book or magazine, or other appropriate material. The criterion is that the lower reader in each pair must be able to easily read the materials assigned to his or her dyad. Peer pairing can occur within class, across classes but within grade, and across grades. This teaching takes place under a teacher's supervision. Peer teaching increases the opportunities for a student to respond by allowing peers to supervise, model reading, ask questions, and generally support their classmates' participation in reading. When using peer teaching, the teacher needs to plan the instruction and demonstrate the task to the pair. The tutor then works with the learner, providing assistance and feedback.

Extensive research on peer-assisted learning practices include those developed at Vanderbilt University (**https://vkc.mc.vanderbilt.edu/pals/**) and include practices that have been effectively implemented as early as kindergarten (e.g., D. Fuchs et al., 2003), as well as with secondary students (Calhoon & Fuchs, 2003), who benefited when the procedure was implemented consistently (e.g., 30-minute sessions conducted three times per week for at least 16 weeks). Students of all ability levels demonstrate improved reading fluency and comprehension.

Partner learning is not limited to elementary school or only as a means to enhance reading fluency. Studies have demonstrated that partner learning can also improve students' outcomes in world history, reading, math, and across academic areas (Maheady, Harper, & Mallette, 2001; Mastropieri, Scruggs, Spencer, & Fontana, 2003). Apply the Concept 4.13 provides guidance to teachers.

Web Resources

For further information on two related peer-tutoring practices, view the following website: peer-assisted learning strategies (pals) (what works clearing house, intervention: peer-assisted learning strategies, **https://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/Evidencesnapshot/364**).

Instructional Materials and Equipment

Selecting, developing, and organizing instructional materials and equipment are important aspects of classroom management. Whether selecting or developing materials, the teacher should consider several factors:

- What evidence is there that these materials or curricula have been effective with students who have learning and behavior problems?
- What curricular areas (e.g., reading, English, math, social skills) will I be responsible for teaching?
- What are the academic levels of the students I will be teaching?
- In what instructional arrangement(s) do I plan to teach each curricular area?
- How can the materials be used across the stages of learning (i.e., acquisition, proficiency, maintenance, generalization, and application)?
- Will the materials provide a means for measuring learning?
- Are the materials designed for teacher-directed learning, student-to-student learning, or individual learning?
- Will materials need to be replaced, and do I have a budget to replace them?

Selecting Published Materials Besides considering the factors just mentioned, it is important to think of the cost, durability, consumability, and quality of published materials. Before materials are purchased, it is advantageous to evaluate them. Sample materials can generally be obtained from publishers or found at educational conferences or districtwide instructional centers. Teachers should read research reports that provide information about the effectiveness of materials. When research is not available, it is often useful to talk with other teachers who use materials to determine when and with whom they are effective. Sometimes it is possible to borrow the materials and have the students try them and evaluate them.

Publishers may be interested in how their materials work with low-achieving students and students with learning and behavior problems. They may be willing to provide a set of materials if the teacher is willing to evaluate the materials and provide feedback about how the materials work with target students.

4.13 Apply the Concept

Implementing Peer-Assisted Practices

1. DEMONSTRATE how peer-assisted learning works. This can be done with the teacher and another adult, e.g., paraprofessional, or with a teacher and a student. The idea is to show how each individual in the pair participates. Typically, one partner in the pair demonstrates first—for example, how to read a passage, how to complete a math problem—and then the other student in the pair has a chance to complete a similar task. Feedback and a mechanism for recording the activity completed is provided.
2. TEACH and SUPPORT students as they acquire appropriate behaviors for implementing peer-assisted practices. Demonstrate appropriate feedback and provide tips and procedures for engaging productively with each other.
3. PROVIDE procedures for keeping track of responses or answers to ensure that there is documentation of problems completed, text read, etc.
4. ENSURE that all of the tasks expected of the peer pair are appropriate and within their range of learning without being either too easy or too difficult.
5. Each student is provided an opportunity to serve as a tutor.
6. Make the activity "game-like" so students enjoy the learning.

Selecting and Using Instructional Equipment In addition to selecting instructional materials, teachers will want to choose equipment to facilitate learning. Along with various software programs, such equipment is becoming an increasingly important part of a teacher's toolkit. In addition to a computer in the classroom and/or the use of a computer lab in the school, other equipment can facilitate learning in your classroom.

Digital Recorders Digital recorders are relatively inexpensive and can be used in a variety of ways in the classroom. Headphones allow students to listen without disturbing others. Following are 10 instructional applications for recorders:

1. A teacher can record reading books so that students can follow along during recreational reading or use for repeated reading.
2. One way to adapt textbooks is to record them.
3. It is helpful for some students to record what they want to write before they begin writing. They can record their ideas and then listen to them as they write their first drafts.
4. Students can record their reading every 2 to 4 weeks to hear their progress. After a student records a reading, it is important that the teacher and the student discuss the reading, identifying strengths and areas that need improvement. This recording can also be shared with parents to demonstrate progress and document continuing needs.
5. Spelling tests can be recorded so that students can take them independently. The teacher first records the words to be tested, allowing time for the students to spell the words. After the test is recorded, the teacher spells each word so that the student can self-check.
6. When working on specific social or pragmatic language skills (e.g., answering the telephone, asking for directions, introducing someone), record the students so that they can listen to and evaluate themselves. **Sims 3 by Electronic Arts Inc.**

   Children can create and be part of communities that they and others create. These programs continue to be creative, engaging, and highly entertaining.
7. At the secondary level, class lectures can be recorded. Students can then listen to review the material and complete unfinished notes.
8. Students can practice taking notes by listening to recordings of lectures. By using recordings, students can regulate the rate at which the material is presented.
9. Oral directions for independent learning activities can be recorded for students. This can be particularly helpful when a teacher is trying to conduct small-group or one-to-one instruction while other students are working on independent learning activities.
10. Many instructional materials contain prerecorded resources.

Using LCD Projectors or Smart Boards These excellent teaching tools allow users to display the images and to develop them while teaching.

The following are suggestions that may be helpful:

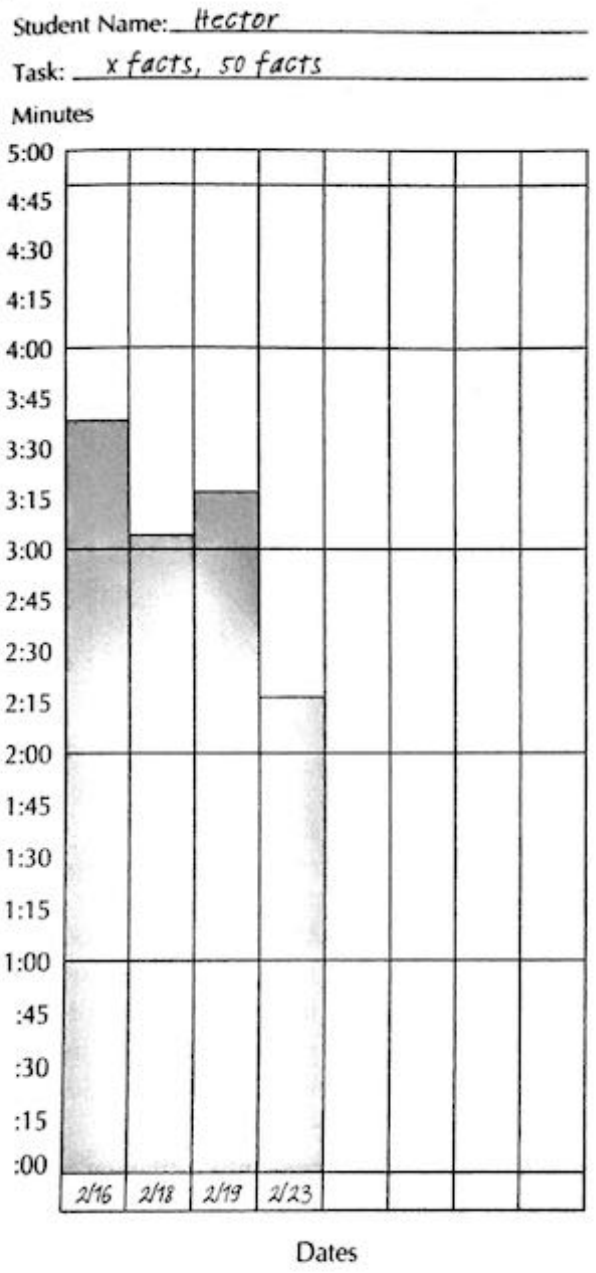
1. Keep the amount of information presented relatively limited.
2. Use a different-colored pen to highlight important points.
3. Have extra markers available.
4. Use the tools to develop language experience stories.
5. Use the tools to demonstrate editing and revisions in writing.
6. Use the tools along with a think-aloud procedure (e.g., teacher talks-aloud what they are thinking while they perform math problem) to demonstrate math procedures, such as how to work long division.
7. These tools can record students' responses to your questions and then display them for the entire group/class to review.

Other Small Equipment Several other pieces of small equipment should be considered for either a resource room or a self-contained classroom.

- A stopwatch can serve as an instructional tool and a motivator. For some tasks, it is important that students learn to respond at an automatic level (e.g., sight words, math facts). Students can use a stopwatch to time themselves or their classmates. These times can then be recorded on a time chart (see Figure 4.9). Using these charts, students can set goals, record their times, and try to improve on previous times.
- An individual writing board is an excellent tool for obtaining individual written responses during small-group and large-group discussions. Mr. Howell uses these boards during review sessions in his resource high school history class. During the review sessions, he asks students questions, and they write their answers on the writing boards. He then asks them to display their boards. In this way, each student responds to each question in writing instead of one student orally responding to one question. Mr. Howell and the students believe that this is a better way to review because it requires them to think about and answer every question and to write the answers. Writing is important because it is generally required when the students take tests. Although small chalkboards can be used as individual writing boards, white boards and dry-erase markers are now readily available.

Developing Instructional Materials In addition to purchasing published materials and equipment, most teachers find the need to develop their own instructional materials to supplement commercial materials. For example, some teachers make sentence strips containing the sentences from each story in a beginning reader. Many teachers develop

Figure 4.9 Time Chart



materials to provide students with additional practice in skills they are learning. Developing self-correcting materials and/or materials in a game format can be advantageous.

Self-Correcting Materials Self-correcting materials provide students with immediate feedback. Students with learning and behavior problems frequently have a history of failure and are reluctant to take risks when others are watching or listening. Self-correcting materials allow them to check themselves without sharing the information with others. Many computer programs and electronic learning games incorporate self-correction. Figure 4.10 presents an example of a self-correcting activity that teachers can easily make.

A key to developing self-correcting materials is to make them durable so that they can be reused. Using heavy cardboard can increase the durability of materials. A good way to make materials more durable is to laminate or cover them with clear contact paper. Special markers or grease pencils can then be used.

Instructional Games Students with learning and behavior problems often need numerous opportunities to practice an academic skill. Instructional games can provide this practice in a format that is interesting to students.

The first step in designing an instructional game is to determine the purpose of the game. For example, the purpose might be to provide practice in the following:

- Forming word families (e.g., -at: *fat, sat, cat, rat*).
- Identifying sight words associated with a specific piece of reading material being used in the classroom.
- Using semantic and syntactic clues by using the cloze procedure (e.g., "For dessert Brian wanted an icecone.").
- Recalling multiplication facts.
- Reviewing information (e.g., identifying the parts of a flower).

The second step is to select and adapt a game that can be used to practice a skill or review knowledge. For example, commercial games such as Monopoly®, Chutes and Ladders®, Candyland®, Clue®, Sorry®, and Parcheesi® can be adapted for classroom use. A generic game board can also be used (see Figure 4.11). Generic game boards can be purchased from some publishing companies. The key in selecting and adapting a game is to require the students to complete the instructional task as part of the turn-taking procedure. For example, when Candyland is adapted to practice sight words, students select a sight-word card and a Candyland card. If they can correctly read the sight word, then they can use their Candyland card to move as indicated. When Monopoly is adapted for math facts, students first have to select and answer a math fact. If they answer it correctly, they earn the opportunity to throw the dice and take a turn.

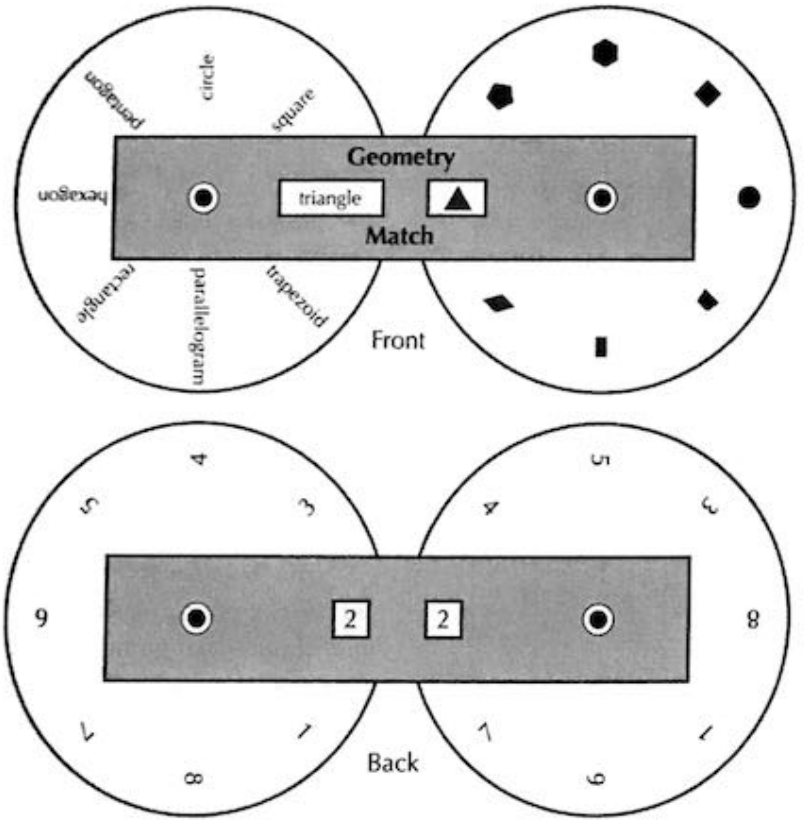
When the same skills are being practiced by many students in a class, the teacher may want to develop a specific game for the skill. Math Marathon® is a specific game in which students move forward on a game board, depicting a race, by answering math word problems. Different sets of math word problem game cards can be developed, depending on the students' problem-solving ability levels.

The third step is to write the directions and develop the materials. With a manila folder, the name of the game can be written on the tab, and the board can be stored so that the students can scan the tabs to find the game. The materials for the game can be kept in an envelope inside the folder. The directions for the game and a list of materials that should be found inside can be written on the envelope.

The fourth step is to demonstrate the game to the students so that they can learn to play it independently.

Organizing and Managing Materials Selecting and developing materials make up only one part of effective materials management. Classroom materials need to be organized in such a manner that the teacher and students have easy access to the materials without bothering other students.

Figure 4.10 Self-Correcting Activity



Ms. Beyar coteaches in a language arts classroom for 1 hour each day, during which the class is divided into either mixed-ability or same-ability groups, depending on the lesson. Ms. Beyar has several suggestions regarding managing materials in the general education classroom:

> The first thing Ms. Casey [the general education teacher] and I did was expand the student library. We purchased books that represent a wider range of reading levels. We also began to purchase small sets of books to use in reading groups. Finally, we worked together to organize a closet and a file cabinet with adapted materials and manipulatives that we both use. I find that these materials are beneficial with children of all ability levels. I didn't realize that we would benefit so much from sharing materials!

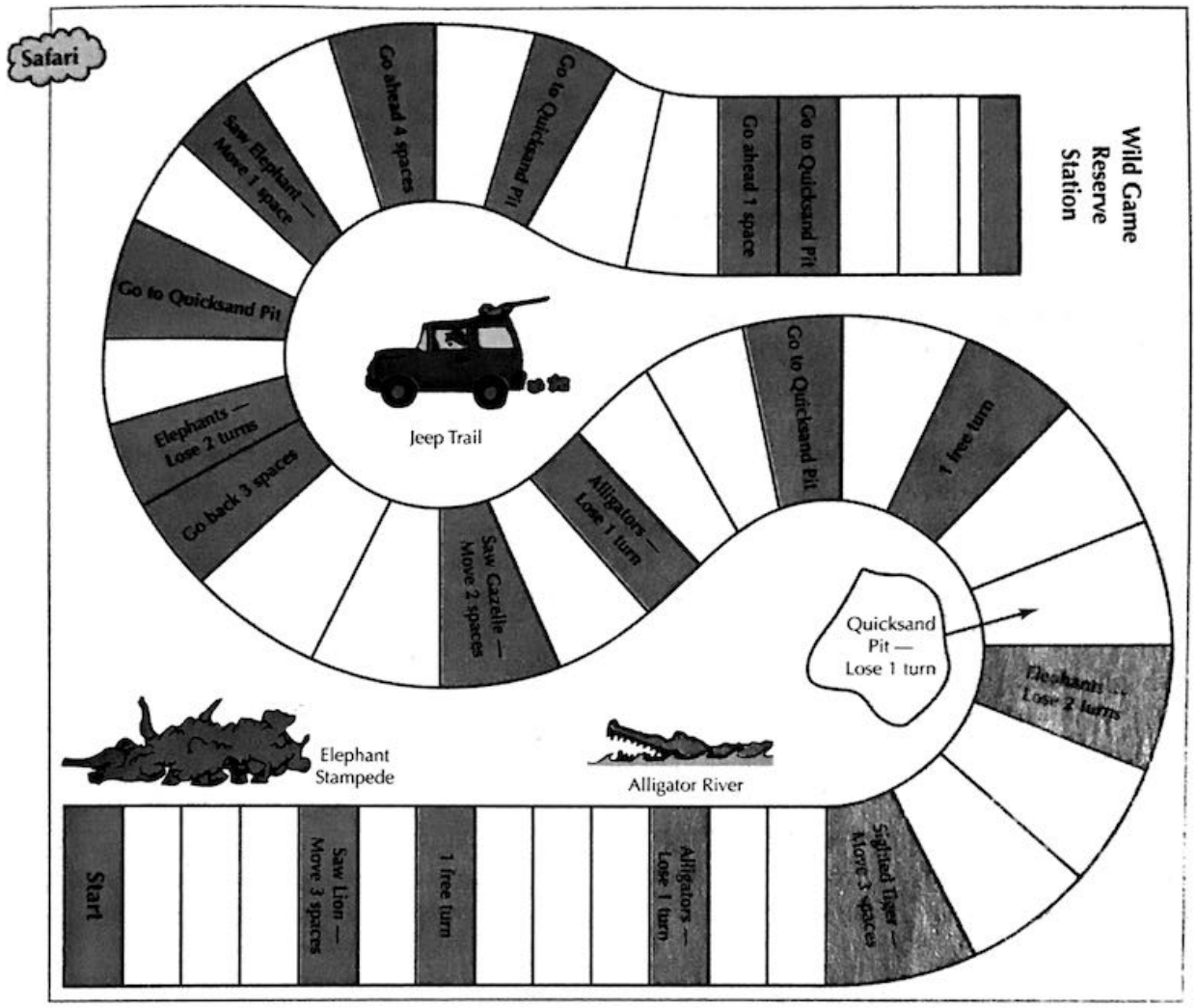
Scheduling

When teachers talk about the most difficult aspects of their jobs, they often mention scheduling. Special education teachers generally work with between 5 and 10 general education teachers (though it can be as many as 25 teachers) to coordinate students' services. Special education teachers also work closely with counselors and teachers at the secondary level to ensure that students are placed in classes that will help them reach the goals and objectives of the individual education program as well as meet graduation requirements. Even special education teachers who work in self-contained classrooms schedule students for integration into general education classroom activities for part of the day.

Scheduling Within the Classroom Whether teaching in an inclusion, resource, or self-contained classroom, it is important to use the time students spend in the classroom efficiently. There are no easy answers to scheduling problems. However, the following list presents some guidelines to use in developing a schedule:

- Schedule time to communicate with general education classroom teachers. The amount of time you schedule depends on the time your students spend in the general education classroom. Generally speaking, coteachers should schedule more time for this than resource teachers, and resource teachers should schedule more time than self-contained classroom teachers. Although the frequency of such meetings will vary according to your students' needs, it is important that meeting times occur consistently. This time will prove invaluable in assisting students to be successful in regular classrooms.
- Schedule time to observe the classrooms in which your students are placed or are going to be placed. This alerts

Figure 4.11 Generic Board Game



1. You are on a safari, trying to get to the Wild Game Reserve Station.
2. Begin at Start.
3. Each player rolls a die. The player with the highest number goes first.
4. Roll the die and draw a Game Card. If you answer the Game Card correctly, move the number shown on the die. If you do not answer the Game Card correctly, do not take a turn.
5. The first player to get to the Wild Game Reserve Station wins.

you to the class demands and schedules of the classroom, and will help you in planning for your students' learning in that classroom.

- Schedule time to meet with other professionals (e.g., speech-language pathologist, school psychologist).
- Alternate instructional arrangements. For example, do not schedule a student to participate in independent learning activities for more than 30 minutes at a time.
- Plan for time to provide the students with advance organizers, feedback, and evaluation. In this way, students will know what is going to happen, and they will have the opportunity to think about what they have accomplished.
- Allow for explicit instruction. Sometimes we have students spend the majority of their time in independent learning activities, which results in little time for them to receive direct instruction from the teacher, aide, or tutor.
- Students who are included in general education classrooms still require specialized instruction. Organize time so that students with disabilities in general education classrooms receive the explicit instruction they need to be successful.
- Alternate preferred and less preferred activities, or make preferred activities contingent on the completion of less preferred activities.
- Let students know when the time for an activity is just about over. This gives them time to reach closure on this activity and get ready for the next activity or to ask for a time extension.
- Be consistent in scheduling, yet flexible and ready for change.
- Schedule a session with each student in which you review the student's schedule in your room and in

other teachers' classrooms. Be sure that students know what is expected of them.

- Plan time to meet and talk with members of your student's family, including parents.

Figures 4.12 and 4.13 present sample schedules for a resource room and a special education program. For the resource room, the schedule for one group of students is presented, whereas for the special education program, the entire day's schedule is presented.

Developing an Overall Schedule for a Resource Consultant Program Scheduling students' time while in the special education classroom is one issue, but the overall schedule for teaching in a resource or inclusion setting presents significant scheduling issues and requires that the teacher work closely with other teachers and professionals in the school. Teachers who assume roles as special education resource or inclusion teachers must first clarify and decide what their job responsibilities will be. Generally, these responsibilities can be divided into six general areas:

1. Providing direct instruction to the students, either in the general education classroom or in a separate classroom.
2. Providing indirect instruction to the students by consulting with general education teachers and parents.
3. Assessing current and referred students.
4. Serving as an instructional resource for other teachers and professionals within the school.
5. Planning, coteaching, and modifying instructional materials and/or assessments for students.
6. Facilitating implementation of response to intervention (RTI) models in their schools.

The time a teacher spends in each of these roles will directly influence the schedule she develops. For example, if the teacher's major roles are to provide instructional services indirectly to students, to assess current and referred students, and to serve as an instructional resource, then little time will be spent in scheduling groups of students in the resource room. Instead, the teacher will serve primarily as a consultant to others. A sample schedule for a teacher who provides direct and indirect support is presented in Figure 4.14.

By contrast with a teacher who is primarily a consultant, Ms. Beyar provides explicit instruction to most of the students she teaches for an average of 60 minutes per day, 4 days per week. Because she serves 22 students, she has developed a schedule that allows her some time to consult with general education teachers on a consistent basis, but she has also allocated time to teach and assess current and referred students. To facilitate her scheduling, she has for the most part grouped students according to grade level, with the older students attending in the morning and the younger students in the afternoon.

She explains her schedule as follows:

> I have arranged for the older students to come in the morning because I feel that I can take over the responsibility for teaching these students reading

Figure 4.12 Schedule for Fourth- Through Sixth-Grade Students

Date: 4/15

Time	José	Amelia	Scott	Todd	Carmen	Frank
10:00	Small Group Inferential Reading ↓	Comprehension Computer Activity	Small Group Instruction Reading	Social Studies Text Using Request Procedure with Carmen	Social Studies Text Using Request Procedure with Todd	Small Group Instruction Reading
10:20	Inferential Comprehension Activity on Computer	Small Group Instruction Reading ↓	Social Studies Text with Self-Questioning	Small Group Instruction Reading	Small Group Instruction Reading	Word Drill Social Studies Text with Self-Questioning
10:40	Writing Process ↓	Writing Process ↓	Writing Process (Computer)	Writing Process	Writing Process	Writing Process (Computer)
	Spelling	Spelling	Spelling	Spelling	Spelling	Spelling
11:15	Practice Computer	Practice Game	Practice Game	Practice Tape Recorder Test	Practice Game	Practice Game

Figure 4.13 Sample Schedule for Intermediate-Level Special Education Program

	Activity			
Time	***Group 1***	***Group 2***	***Group 3***	***Group 4***
8:15	Writing Process Students working on reports			
9:15	Reading: Small group instruction (teacher)	Reading: Independent learning activities	Learning center: Map reading	Reading: Small group instruction (aide)
9:45	Reading: Independent learning activities	Reading: Small group instruction (aide)	Reading: Small group instruction (teacher)	Learning center: Map reading
10:15	Announcements			
10:20	Recess			
10:45	Math: Group instruction (teacher)		Computer lab for Math practice (aide)	
11:15	Computer lab (aide)		Group instruction (teacher)	
11:50	Lunch			
12:40	Recreational Reading/Writing			
1:00	Social Studies: Large group instruction			
1:45	Science: Cooperative learning activities			
2:15	Recess			
2:40	Health—Mon./Art—Tues./P.E.—Wed./Special Activity—Thurs., Fri. (Current: Producing a play)			
3:10	Earned "fun time" or time to complete work			
3:30	Dismissal			

and writing—the content that is usually taught in the morning in many general education classrooms. I have developed a strong program in teaching reading comprehension, and I am using a process approach to teaching writing. Currently I am using content-area textbooks, trade books, and literature for teaching reading comprehension, and the students are working on writing reports, literature critiques, and short stories on topics of their choice. Because I am responsible for these students' reading and writing, I am accountable for grading the students in these areas. Using this schedule, these students for the most part are in the general education classroom for content-area subjects and math. I feel that this is important. When they go to junior high, they will probably be taking general math, science, social studies, and other content-area classes. If they have been missing these classes in the general education classroom during the fourth through sixth grades, they will really have trouble catching up. It's hard enough for these students—we want to give them every advantage possible.

I often provide their reading instruction in content areas such as social studies and science. Thus, while the emphasis is on reading rather than knowledge acquisition, I feel that I am extending their background knowledge of concepts they will be taught in social studies and science.

I have the younger students come after lunch, because I feel that many of these students need two doses of reading, writing, and math. These students get instruction in these areas in the morning in the general education classroom, and then I give them additional instruction in the afternoon. With this arrangement, it is important that I communicate with the general education classroom teachers so that we each know what the other is doing. We don't want to confuse the students by giving them conflicting information or approaches to reading.

I also have one day a week that I use for assessment, consulting with classroom teachers, checking on the students in the general education classroom, and meeting and planning with my teaching assistant. I feel that this time is very important. All of my students spend most of the school day in the regular classroom. If they are really struggling in those settings, I need to know so that I can provide additional support.

There are always some exceptions to the general guidelines I use for scheduling. I have three students whom I monitor only in the general classroom. These students see me as a group on my assessment/consulting day. We talk about how it is going and discuss what is working for them and what frustrates them. I feel that this time is critical for their successful inclusion. I also have two fifth-grade students who have good oral language skills but are reading on the first-grade level. They come for an additional 30 minutes late in the day, and we use the Fernald VAKT method to learn sight words.

Figure 4.14 Coteaching Schedule

Week of: April 15

Time	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
7:30	IEP Meeting	Instructional Review Meeting (2nd grade)	Child Study Team Meeting	IEP Meeting	Instructional Review Meeting (4th grade)
8:15	Work with 5th-grade low-reading group				
9:00	Observe and assist LD/EH students in classroom (1st grade)	Assessment	Observe and assist (2nd grade, kindergarten)	3rd grade 4th grade	5th grade 6th grade
11:30	Meet with individual teachers	Planning and material development		Meet with individual teachers	Planning and material development
12:30	Lunch				
1:00	Work with 2nd-grade low-reading group				
1:30	Conduct study skills class for selected 4th–6th graders	Conduct social skills class for group of EH students	Conduct study skills class	Conduct social skills class	Conduct study skills class
2:00	Work with Ms. Jones on implementing writing process			Work with Mr. Peters on using semantic feature analysis for teaching vocabulary	Assessment
2:30	Provide direct instruction in reading to 5 students with learning disabilities				
3:30	Dismissal (check with teachers as needed)				
3:45	End of day				

I also developed a special schedule for my teachers' aide. She works directly with students to supplement and enhance skills they have initiated with me. She also provides supports to students with learning and behavior problems in the general education classroom by providing modified assignments, homework, and assessments.

Special Considerations for Scheduling in Secondary Settings Scheduling in resource and consultant programs in secondary settings generally is less flexible than in elementary-level programs. Teachers must work within the confines of the instructional periods and the curricular units that students must complete for high school graduation. One of the major responsibilities for resource/consultant teachers in secondary settings is to determine subject areas in which students need special classes and areas in which they can succeed in general education classes without instructional support. These decisions about scheduling must be made on an individual basis and should be made with the involvement and commitment of the student as well as the teachers involved.

With the greater use of learning and study strategies in secondary special education programs, secondary special education teachers may want to consider their role as that of learning and behavior specialists. As learning and behavior specialists at the secondary level, teachers spend part of their day consulting with the content-area teachers/specialists, coteaching, discussing progress-monitoring measures and how to administer and use data, and approaches to successfully transitioning students to postsecondary experiences (e.g., 2- or 4-year college, work, or other professional training).

Instructional Activities

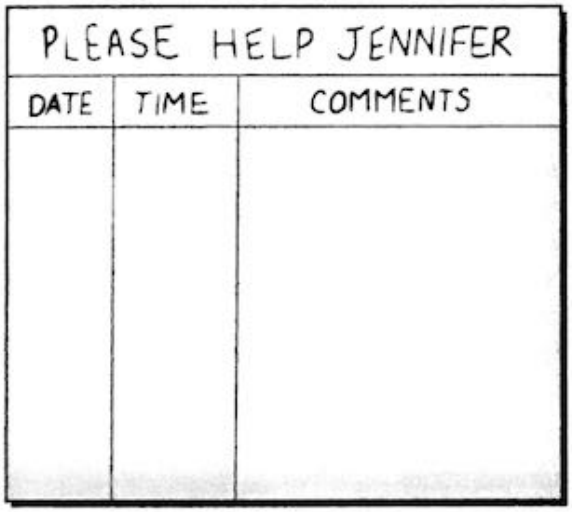
This section provides instructional activities related to developing socialization skills. Some of the activities teach new skills; others are best suited for practice and reinforcement of already acquired skills. For each activity, the objective, materials, and teaching procedures are described.

Please Help

Objective: To teach students a process for asking for help when needed and yet continuing to work until assistance is given; to have a record-keeping system that allows the teacher to monitor how many times each day he assists each student.

Grades: Primary and intermediate

Materials: A 6- to 8-inch card that states "Please Help _____ [student's name]" and provides a place to list the date and comments



Teaching Procedures: Construct the Please Help card for each student, including a place to mark the date and comments. Give all the students a card, and inform them that they are to place the card on their desks when they need help. They are to continue working until the teacher or someone else is able to provide assistance.

When you or your assistant is able to provide help, mark the date and time on the card and any appropriate comments, such as "We needed to review the rules for long division," or "She could not remember the difference between long and short vowels," or "He solved the problem himself before I arrived."

Problem Box

Objective: To give students an opportunity to identify problems they are having with others and to feel that their problems will be heard and attended to.

Grades: All grades

Materials: Shoebox decorated and labeled as "Problem Box"

Teaching Procedures: Show the students the box that is decorated and identified as the Problem Box. Place the box in a prominent location in the classroom. Tell the students that when they have problems with other students, with teachers, or even at home, they can write the problems down and put them in the box. At the end of every day, you and the students will spend a designated amount of time (e.g., 15 minutes) reading problems and trying to solve them as a class. Be sure to tell students that they do not need to identify themselves or their notes.

During the designated time, open the Problem Box and read a selected note. Solicit assistance from the class in solving the problem designated on the note. Direct students' attention to identifying the problem, suggesting solutions, evaluating the consequences of the solutions, identifying a solution, and describing how it might be implemented.

A Date by Telephone

Objective: To give students structured skills for obtaining a date by telephone.

Grades: Secondary

Materials: Two nonworking telephones

Teaching Procedures: Discuss with the students why preplanning a telephone call with a prospective date might be advantageous. Tell them that you are going to teach them some points to remember when calling to ask for a date. After you describe each of the following points, role-play them so that the students can observe their appropriate use:

1. Telephone at an *appropriate time.*
2. Use an *icebreaker,* such as recalling a mutually shared experience or a recent event in school.
3. State what you would like to do, and ask the person to do it. Ask the person whether he or she likes to go to the movies. When there is an initial lull in the conversation, mention a particular movie that you would like to take the person to, and state when you would like to go. Then ask the person whether he or she would like to go with you.

4. If yes, *make appropriate arrangements* for day, time, and transportation. If no, ask whether you can call again.

Be sure that each student has an opportunity to role-play.

Making and Keeping Friends

Objective: To have students identify the behaviors of peers who are successful at making and keeping friends and, after identifying these characteristics, to evaluate themselves in how well they perform.

Grades: Intermediate and secondary

Materials: Writing materials

Teaching Procedures: Ask the students to think of children they know who are good at making and keeping friends. Brainstorm what these children do that makes them successful at this. On an overhead projector or chalkboard, write the student-generated responses about the characteristics of children who are good at making and keeping friends. Then select the most agreed-on characteristics, and write them on a sheet of paper with smiley faces, neutral faces, and frowning faces so that students can circle the face that is most like them in response to that characteristic. Finally, ask students to identify one characteristic that they would like to target to improve their skills at making and maintaining friends.

How Good Are You at Making and Keeping Friends?

Next to each item, circle the face that best describes how well you do.

1. I tell friends the truth.

2. I call friends on the phone.

3. I share my favorite toys and games with friends.

Identifying Feelings

Objective: To identify the feelings of others and self and to respond better to those feelings.

Grades: Primary and intermediate

Materials: Cards with pictures of people in situations in which their feelings can be observed or deduced

Teaching Procedures: Select pictures that elicit feeling words such as *happy, angry, jealous, hurt, sad,* and *mad.* Show the pictures to the students, and ask them to identify the feelings of the people in the pictures. Discuss what information in the picture cued them to the emotional states of the people. Then ask the students to draw a picture of a time when they felt as the person in the picture feels. Conclude by asking students to discuss their pictures.

I'm New Here (and Scared)

*By Sandra Stroud**

Objective: To help students who are new to your community and school make a positive adjustment. For many students, moving to a new school can be an especially traumatic experience.

Grades: K–12

Materials: The *goodwill* of a group of socially competent student volunteers and their adult leader—a teacher, guidance counselor, or school administrator

Teaching Procedures: The adult in charge organizes a school service club whose purpose is to take new students under its wing and help them feel welcome at their school. Students in this organization can be given sensitivity training to help them understand how new students feel when they move to a new area of the country and enter a new school. The group can discuss and decide on the many strategies they can use to help new students feel at home. One of their functions could be to speak to whole classes about how it feels to be a new student at a school and to suggest how each student at this school can help new students when they arrive.

For a new student, nothing is quite so traumatic when entering a new school as having no friend or group with whom to sit when students go to the cafeteria for lunch. Therefore, one of a new student's greatest needs is for someone to offer an invitation to share lunchtime. This should be the number-one priority of the members of the welcoming club. New students may eventually become members of this club, joining in the effort of welcoming and helping the new students who follow them.

I'm in My Own Little House

By Sandra Stroud

Objective: To help young children acquire a sense of personal space as well as an understanding of other people's space. Many young children have not acquired an inner sense of space—of their own space and of space that belongs to others. As a result, the more active of these youngsters, usually little boys, tend to intrude on other children's space and, in the process, annoy the other children. As a result, they may not be well liked by their classmates. The problem is made worse by the fact that many primary school children sit at long tables where the space of one student often overlaps the space of others.

**Note:* This instructional activity was written by a mother who would have been so grateful if her son's middle school had had such a program when he entered the eighth grade there. As it was, things were pretty rough for him until his band teacher realized that he was skipping lunch. She paved the way for him to begin eating lunch with a group of boys who became his best friends.

Grades: Primary

Materials: Individual student desks, and colored masking tape

Teaching Procedures: The teacher arranges the room so that each student desk sits in a 3-square-foot area. The desks are just close enough to each other to make it possible for students to pass materials from one student to another without leaving their seats. On the floor around each desk, the teacher outlines the 3-square-foot block with colored masking tape.

The teacher explains the taped areas, or blocks, by telling a story about a child who wanted a little house that was all her own where no one would bother her or her belongings. This was "her" house. Just as her house was hers, she knew that the other children needed their houses and that she shouldn't bother them or their houses either. (The teacher makes up the story according to her imagination or to fit the situation in the classroom.)

Introducing People

By Dheepa Sridhar

Objective: To teach students to introduce friends to one another appropriately.

Grades: Intermediate and secondary

Materials: None required

Teaching Procedures: Discuss the importance of introducing people. Allow students to share experiences such as when they were with a friend who was either good at or had difficulty in introducing them to other friends. Tell students that you are going to teach them some points to remember when they introduce people to each other. After describing each of the following points, ask students to role-play to demonstrate their use:

- Provide additional information about the person being introduced, such as "This is R. J.; he's new to our town," or "This is R. J.; he's good at baseball."
- Provide additional information about people in the group who have common interests with the new person, such as "Steve plays basketball."
- Talk about those common interests.

Invitation to Play

By Dheepa Sridhar

Objective: To teach students to invite a classmate to play with them.

Grades: Primary

Materials: Toys

Teaching Procedures: Tell students that they should take the following steps when requesting a classmate to join them in play:

1. Decide what you want to play (e.g., jump rope, building with Legos®).
2. Check to see whether you have the materials (rope or Legos).
3. Check to see what the person you want to play with is doing.
4. Wait for a lull in the activity that the person is engaging in.
5. Ask the person whether he or she would like to play (rope or Legos).
6. If the person refuses, ask what else he or she would like to play.
7. Have students role-play and provide feedback.

In Your Shoes

By Dheepa Sridhar

Objective: To facilitate students in taking a different perspective.

Grades: Intermediate and high school

Materials: Cardboard cutouts of two pairs of shoes of different colors, masking tape, index cards with social problems written on them (e.g., "Jake was supposed to go to a baseball game with Ashraf over the weekend. He has been looking forward to this event all week. On Friday, Ashraf says that he would rather go to a movie instead of the game.")

Teaching Procedures: Discuss the importance of taking the other person's perspective. Tell the students this activity will help them see a different perspective.

1. Tape a line on the floor with the masking tape. Write the name of a character (e.g., Jake and Ashraf) on each pair of shoes. Place each pair of shoes on either side of the line.
2. Have two students volunteer to be Jake and Ashraf.
3. Ask one student to stand on Jake's shoes and the other student to stand on Ashraf's shoes.
4. Let them talk about the problem.
5. Ask the students to exchange places and discuss the problem.
6. Help the students to reach a solution that is acceptable to both parties.

This activity can also be used with students who are experiencing problems with each other instead of hypothetical situations. Although only two students can participate at a time, the rest of the class can help by generating solutions and discussing the consequences of those solutions.

Talking Chips

Objective: To provide every student in the group an opportunity to participate. To increase participation of students who typically say little or nothing.

Grade: Talking chips can be used with all grade levels, from kindergarten through high school.

Materials: Plastic chips, such as those that are typically used in betting.

Teaching Procedures:

1. Explain to students that each of them will be provided with three "talking chips." The expectation is that at the end of the lesson, everyone will have no chips. The teacher collects chips from students when they want to contribute to the lesson by providing a response, asking a question, or extending a comment. Teachers have the prerogative to collect more than one chip if a student's participation warrants this response.
2. Ensure that students understand that each one is expected to contribute three times, and when they have provided all of their chips to the teacher, they have fulfilled their responsibility for active participation.
3. Another way to implement this activity is to provide students with a talking chip each time they contribute to the lesson. Establish the expectation that each student will collect three chips before the lesson is completed.

MyLab Education Self-Check 4.1
MyLab Education Self-Check 4.2
MyLab Education Self-Check 4.3
MyLab Education Self-Check 4.4
MyLab Education Application Exercise 4.1: Positive Behavioral Supports

MyLab Education Application Exercise 4.2: Schoolwide Positive Behavior Support

MyLab Education Application Exercise 4.3: Instructional Arrangement

Summary

- The use of classroom management strategies is important because it creates an environment with structure and routine so that learning can occur. Teachers who implement effective behavior management practices develop procedures, rules, consequences, and reinforcers so that both they and the students know how to navigate the classroom and what to expect if something goes wrong. Teachers who implement effective classroom management practices recognize and reinforce positive behavior as well as identify and change inappropriate behaviors. PBS is a classroom management system that focuses on prevention of problem behaviors through attention to the learning environment.
- An FBA is designed to identify behavior problems of students, and a BIP is used to develop an intervention plan to treat these behavior problems. An FBA is

required if students' behavior is interfering with their learning or the learning of other students.

- Students with social-emotional, behavior, and learning difficulties often lack the social competence necessary to engage in effective interactions with others. Although students with behavior disorders by definition lack social competence and generally have severe emotional and behavioral difficulties, many individuals with LD also struggle to make and maintain positive interpersonal relationships with others. Individuals with LD often (but not always) have poor conversational skills; may have difficulty perceiving, interpreting, and processing social information; may exhibit aggressive behaviors or attention problems; and may display atypical appearance.
- The physical space and the way resources are organized influences the likelihood for student success. Classroom organization procedures include organized books and resources that are clearly labeled, and they also use a variety of instructional arrangements depending on student needs and learning activities.