Chapter 9
Promoting Positive Behavior and Facilitating Social Skills
The pages of this Sample Chapter may have slight variations in final published form.
Promoting Positive Behavior and Facilitating Social Skills
Ms. Martinez Is Puzzled About Behavior and Social Problems

It is October of Ms. Martinez’s second year of teaching fifth grade, and she is planning lessons for the upcoming week. She connects her lessons to her school district’s curriculum. She makes sure that there are activities that keep her students engaged. Depending on the lesson, she pairs students with disabilities with students who have stronger skills. However, things are not going very well for her students with disabilities. Ms. Martinez is puzzled about three students who seem to challenge her day in and day out. She has read their school folders, but she feels that she doesn’t know them well.

One student, Sam, is identified as having attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD). She studied this condition in her teacher-preparation program, and even worked with one student with ADHD during student teaching, but having a student with ADHD in her class all day long is wearing her out. Ms. Martinez begins to question her ability to work effectively with Sam: “How can I get him to pay attention? How can I help him get organized? He forgets what to do and can’t remember to return homework. Why does he have so few friends? Am I really prepared to help this child learn?”

Her second student, Eric, is identified as having a mild emotional/behavior disorder. He was retained in first grade. Ms. Martinez worries about Eric: “I don’t really understand his disability. Why is he so defiant? He seems to do things on purpose just to be disruptive and get everyone’s attention. What can I do with him so that he will stop interfering with my teaching? Why does he bully the other children? Shouldn’t he be in a special education classroom?”

Finally, Ms. Martinez turns her thoughts to Phillip, who has a learning disability in reading and writing: “He seems so lost during group instruction and spends way too much time fiddling with things in his desk, sharpening his pencils, and being off task. Why can’t he work with the other students? What’s wrong?”

“How can I help these students behave? What can I do about their social skills? How do I know if my teaching practices are working?”

**Reflection Questions**

In your journal, write down your answers to the following questions. After completing the chapter,
Introduction

The classroom is a social environment in which academic instruction must thrive. For teaching to be successful, teachers must create, nurture, and manage a classroom environment that supports student learning and interactions, minimizes situations that contribute to the occurrence of problem behaviors, and addresses those unacceptable behaviors that interfere with teaching and learning. For example, referring back to Sam, Eric, and Phillip in the Opening Challenge, practices are readily available that teachers can employ to help students with their behavior and social problems. Some of these practices are presented in this chapter. Research has confirmed that teacher attention to nurturing and managing the classroom, student behavior, and social aspects of learning contribute significantly to promoting an environment that is conducive to teaching and learning (Marquis et al., 2000; Polsgrove & Ochoa, 2004; Rosenberg, Wilson, Maheady, & Sindelar, 1997; Wolfgang, 1995).

This chapter presents practices that teachers can use to improve student relationships and communication. You will learn about ways to promote appropriate behavior and to facilitate the social skills of all students. You will also learn about interventions that may be necessary for a small number of students so that these students can succeed in inclusive settings. Assessment techniques will help you to identify behaviors and social skills that require intervention and to determine if these interventions are effective. Finally, you will learn about positive behavioral supports, a process supported by IDEA (2004), and also ways to promote safer schools. The ADAPT framework will be implemented throughout the chapter so you can learn how to use the framework to promote positive behavior and to facilitate social skills in your classroom.

What Practices Can I Use to Foster Positive Relationships with My Students?

Get to Know Your Students

Students’ attitudes, beliefs, experiences, and backgrounds influence their perceptions of school and learning and how they approach their relationship with their
teachers. Teachers who get to know their students quickly can structure their teaching according to students’ interests, background experiences, and attitudes. By doing so, teachers show they care about their students and make connections between their students and teaching. Getting to know students by taking time to talk with them (before school, between classes, during a conference, in a small group) is one of the most powerful techniques for fostering positive relationships and creating a positive learning community.

How can teachers learn more about their students with disabilities? A good place to begin is by examining students’ Individualized Education Programs (IEPs) (for a complete discussion on IEPs, see Chapter 5) to determine their academic and social goals and short-term objectives. IEPs can provide helpful information about those areas in which the students need support. The areas might actually be prerequisite skills for those behavior and social-skills tasks that teachers expect from their students. For example, students are expected to follow classroom directions. If the student’s IEP states that assistance is needed to help the student follow directions, then the teacher may need to adapt the delivery of directions for that student by shortening the length of directions and including cues and reminders. With practice, these simple adaptations can be implemented very naturally and without much effort. Oftentimes, simple adaptations benefit many students in the classroom, including those who have IEPs.

Teachers can also get to know their students through a variety of activities. For example, students can complete an interest inventory, which consists of a series of questions geared for a particular age group. It can help teachers find out more about their students’ background, interests, and perspectives. Questions to get to know students better include the following:

- “How many brothers and sisters do you have?”
- “What is your favorite movie and why?”
- “What was the name of the last book you read that you enjoyed?”
- “What is your favorite sport?”
- “What do you like to do after school?”
- “What do you like to do on the weekends?”
- “What is your favorite television show?”
- “Who is your hero and why?”
- “How do you know if someone is your friend?”
- “How can we help people who are mean to other people?”
- “If you could change one thing about school, what would it be and why?”
- “What do you like most about school?”
- “How do you spend time with your family?”
- “If you could change one thing in your life, what would that be?”

Answers to these sample questions, obtained orally or in writing, can provide teachers with information about their students. Information from the interest inventory can be used to initiate discussions, to help decide which books to select for the reading center or for class literature groups, or to identify a topic for group work and research. Interest inventory answers also can provide important information about students’ cultural backgrounds and experiences (Rivera & Smith, 1997).
Use Motivational Practices

Implementing practices to motivate students is another way that you can foster positive student relationships. When designing or implementing instruction, it is important to focus on what motivates students to perform well, whether academically, behaviorally, or socially. For example, at times students may be bored or frustrated with the academic materials presented to them. Those who have been identified as gifted and talented may not be challenged sufficiently in inclusive settings with the core curriculum. Enrichment activities provided in instructional materials or in basal textbooks (i.e., those used to teach subject-area content) can be good sources of extra stimulation needed by those students who are gifted and talented. In contrast, students with learning and behavior difficulties have experienced varying degrees of success and failure with academic and social interactions during their school years. These successes and failures influence their motivational levels for classroom activities and assignments.

Later in this chapter information about functional behavioral assessment (FBA). This process can help teachers determine possible reasons why students are not motivated to do their best in class. Identifying specific reasons through FBA can influence how teachers approach teaching. For example, if some students are reluctant to work on a research project, giving them more instruction in the steps for doing research or getting online to locate research materials may increase their motivation to complete a research project.

Older students, in particular, may present challenging behavior that is often driven by a lack of motivation for tackling tasks that continue to frustrate them. For example, older students with reading difficulties have spent years struggling with textbook reading. As the demands of the classroom shift from “learning to read” to “reading to learn,” older students may exhibit problem behavior that is a manifestation of their frustration. With the legal possibility of being able to drop out of school, teachers of older students with academic and behavioral problems are challenged to implement effective techniques for motivating these students.

In an important research study, Center, Deitz, and Kaufman (1982) examined the relationship between students’ abilities and the academic tasks presented to them. They found a strong relationship between academic difficulty and inappropriate behavior; that is, as the task became too difficult or too easy for students, problem behavior occurred. This relationship is dramatic and clear. For students who misbehave because the instructional material is either too difficult or too easy, simply adjusting the materials and instructional groups can reduce or eliminate most of the disruption that these students create and have a positive effect on the learning community.

When working with students of all ages, it is important to distinguish between students with a skill deficit (i.e., when students have not mastered specific skills) and those with a performance deficit (i.e., the lack of consistently exhibiting the skill or behavior even though it is in the student’s repertoire). For students who exhibit a skill deficit, teachers should spend time teaching them new skills. Oftentimes, learning new skills is motivating for some students who may have spent years struggling. Empowering students with new knowledge and the recognition that they can do it can go a long way with motivation and creating a positive learning community. In contrast, students who exhibit performance deficits require different procedures. These are students who can do the skill, but lack the motivation to perform under certain circumstances or with certain people. For these students, some of the motivational techniques in Table 9.1 may be helpful for fostering a positive learning community.
TABLE 9.1 Practices for Motivating Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Practices</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preconditions</td>
<td>Know the student’s abilities.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Manage the environment to encourage risk-taking.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Select and monitor task difficulty.</td>
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<td>Maintain high expectations</td>
<td>Ensure high rates of success.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Help students set realistic goals in a short time period.</td>
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<td>Through modeling and feedback, show students that the amount and quality of effort contributes to success.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Extrinsic motivators</td>
<td>Provide rewards for achieving goals; tailor the reward to the age and interest level of the student.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Implement purposeful competition that taps the abilities of students.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Use contracts.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Intrinsic motivators</td>
<td>Tailor tasks to match student interests.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Provide opportunities for students to choose tasks or the scheduling of tasks to complete.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Use student-centered, activity-based learning to complement teacher-centered instruction.</td>
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Source: Adapted from T. Lovitt, 2000, Preventing School Failure. Tactics for Teaching Adolescents (2nd ed.), Austin, TX: PRO-ED.

Some students see little reason for tackling the academic activities of the day. They may not see the relevance of the tasks or be interested in the way in which activities are presented. To increase motivation, activities must be presented in a meaningful way. What are some examples of meaningful activities? Meaningful activities relate learning to students’ interests and encourage students to become actively involved in learning. Student-centered learning is a type of learning that engages students actively in the learning process through the use of hands-on tasks, discussions, and decision making. It is widely supported as an effective means for teaching and learning (Huitt, 2001). Creating exciting learning experiences, such as class plays, group assignments, mock TV news productions of historical events, and field trips, encourages student involvement. By actively engaging students in the learning process and helping students make connections to real-life situations, motivation for participating in and completing activities can be improved (Rivera & Smith, 1997).

Be Responsive to Cultural Differences

Demographic changes within our society mean that today’s classrooms include students from diverse linguistic, ethnic, racial, and socioeconomic backgrounds (U.S. Census Bureau, 1999). This rich heritage of diversity, coupled with a wide range of familial experiences, serves as a strong foundation for classroom
instruction and has created a new context for teaching (Hernandez, 2001). Teachers should be informed about the social and behavioral norms of various cultural, ethnic, and racial groups. Teachers should determine how these norms may be manifested in classroom settings and how they may interact with the “norms” found in classrooms and in a pluralistic society (Vaughan, 2004). Fostering positive student relationships requires educators to be sensitive to the diverse norms brought to classrooms so that they can understand the behavior of different groups and be responsive to these cultural variations (Sleeter, 1995; Vaughan, 2004). For example, in some cultures (e.g., Native American, Hawaiian) the spirit of cooperation is contrary to the focus on competitiveness that is found in White culture and in many of today’s classrooms (Smith, 2004).

It is important for teachers to understand behavioral patterns that are socially acceptable in certain cultures so they can avoid the risk of misidentifying students as having possible behavioral disorders. For example, students who exhibit behavioral interactions that are counter to “mainstream” behavior could be mistakenly identified as having emotional/behavioral disabilities. The potential long-term and negative effects on school achievement when students are misidentified as having disabilities are both obvious and well documented (Banks & Banks, 1993; Hilliard, 1976; Obiakor, 1999). The misdiagnosis of a disability and inappropriate placement in special education can be disastrous for a student. The results can be reduced expectations from parents and teachers, low self-esteem, and feelings of inferior achievement.

For instance, African American students are overidentified as having emotional/behavioral disabilities. According to the federal government, although almost 15 percent of U.S. students are African American, almost 20 percent of students in special education are Black (non-Hispanic). Also, although some 8 percent of all students served in special education are identified as having emotional/behavioral disorders, almost 11 percent are African American students (U.S. Department of Education, 2002). Some parents, educators, and policymakers believe that one reason for these students’ disproportionate representation may rest in a conflict between teacher’s perceptions and students’ cultural identity (Neal, McCray, Webb-Johnson, & Bridgest, 2003). Take a few moments to read the example in Considering Diversity 9.1 on the potential conflict between a teacher’s perceptions and a student’s cultural identity.

Research by Nancy Cloud, a specialist in the delivery of curricula and instruction for students with diverse cultural backgrounds and ability levels, offers information about being responsive to cultural differences. Cloud (2002) and her colleagues (2000) found differences in the interactional behaviors—ways people interact with one another—across cultures that influence how people behave. It takes time for students from different groups to understand the behaviors that may be expected in a formal classroom setting where Anglo-American norms may be in effect. These differences include the following:

- **Amount of adult guidance**—preferences about the level of adult guidance to accomplish tasks
- **Comfort with an individual versus a group response**—participation as a group member rather than individually representing ideas
- **Eye contact**—lack of or direct to show respect toward authority figures
- **Comfort with guessing**—preference to refrain from guessing unless sure of responses
Mixed Messages?

One expression of cultural identity among African American male adolescents is a walking style considered by educators to be “nonstandard.” The stroll, as it is sometimes referred to, is characterized as “deliberately swaggered or bent posture, with the head held slightly tilted to the side, one foot dragging, and an exaggerated knee bend (dip).”

- How can a student’s walk contribute to a teacher’s perceptions about individual student achievement, aggression, or need for special education?
- How might a teacher’s perceptions about students’ behavior influence referrals to special education?

Some answers to these questions come from research. Based on students’ styles of walking, teachers made the following decisions about middle school boys:

- Boys, regardless of race or ethnicity, who stroll are more likely to be judged by teachers as having lower achievement than those who use standard walking styles.
- Those who stroll are viewed as being more aggressive and deviant.
- Without information about academic achievement, these boys are also thought of as being in need of special education.

In other words, teachers are likely to mistake cultural differences, such as walking style, with cognitive and behavioral disabilities, placing those students at risk for underachievement, inappropriate referrals to special education, and misidentification as students with disabilities.

How can teachers better understand the cultural values and norms in today’s diverse classrooms? How can they plan and implement practices that are responsive to cultural and ethnic norms? Teachers can learn more about their students through observation, questionnaires, and student-teacher conferences (Cloud, 2002). They can ask students how they like to work (alone or in a group), how large of a group they prefer, how they seek adult feedback, how they feel about being praised publicly and privately, how they respond to rewards, and how they are disciplined. Student input will help teachers create student-centered activities. Teachers can learn how students from diverse backgrounds perceive the rules and expectations imposed by the teaching staff and the school. Additionally, it is important for teachers to understand how families perceive school environments and the discipline of their children. Teachers can strive to integrate these values and norms into a more cohesive learning community.

Conduct Student Meetings

William Glasser (1992) presented the classroom meeting as a way for teachers and students to confront problems and issues constructively as a group. Through
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group participation and ownership of issues, a positive climate can be created and positive relationships with students can be fostered. Glasser describes three types of meetings:

- The **open-ended meeting** is for students to discuss how they would deal with possible problems and take a “What would you do if . . . ” approach to problem solving. This gives teachers a chance to discuss hypothetical problems to help students think about possible resolutions before problems come up.

- The **educational/diagnostic meeting** determines what students know and do not know about a topic to be studied. “What is . . . ?” and “Why is that a problem . . . ?” are examples of questions for learning about students’ knowledge of a topic.

- The **problem-solving meeting** focuses on a problem exhibited in class that may be related to the handling of materials, class procedures, or a specific student. Students are asked to explain the problems they see, their effects, and possible solutions. The meeting concludes with an agreed-upon plan (Wolfgang, 1995).

For older students, Lovitt (2000) recommends a peer-forum technique that was implemented by Lewandowski (1989) as a means for students to discuss issues and resolve problems. The peer forum is a panel of students who have had trouble in school and who have agreed to talk with their peer group about how they handled these difficulties. Panel members discuss problems they encountered in school and offer positive advice about how they handled their problems. Additionally, panel members discuss strategies for being successful in school, such as study techniques, counseling, and how to access additional resources. By engaging older students who have dealt with their problems in conversations with peers who may be experiencing similar problems, students demonstrate problem solving, enhancing the opportunity for a more positive community approach to learning and problem resolution. In addition to using techniques to promote a positive learning community, managing teacher behavior can facilitate the accomplishment of expected behavioral and social skills tasks by all students.

**How Can I Communicate Effectively with Students?**

**Communicate Clear and Consistent Messages**

Communication is a critical component of any classroom learning community. Poorly articulated behavioral and social expectations and inconsistent ways of handling the results of mixed messages detract from a positive tone in any classroom. Behavioral and social expectations, and the consequences for following and not following them, should be communicated to students. Consequences, both positive and negative, must be consistent if students are to take teachers’ messages seriously. For example, if tardiness is an unacceptable behavior, then it should be addressed each time it occurs. Ignoring the problem sometimes and addressing the problem at others sends mixed messages to students about expected behavioral
and social skills tasks. Table 9.2 presents examples of behavior tasks and the corresponding prerequisite skills for those tasks that most teachers expect from their students. These expected tasks should be communicated clearly to students.

Sometimes, despite clearly communicated expectations for behavioral and social tasks, students continue to struggle. Thomas Gordon’s (1988) work is helpful in understanding how to handle some of these problem situations. Gordon’s approach is based on the work of Carl R. Rogers, who conducted research on emotional and self-concept development. Rogers believed that people respond to an emotionally supportive approach that includes openness and understanding. According to Gordon, if a problem behavior infringes on the teacher’s or students’ rights or if it is a safety issue, then the teacher owns the problem (Wolfgang, 1995). Teachers can respond to such problems by using I-messages. Teachers can use I-messages to communicate feelings to students about the effects of their behavior (Larrivee, 1992). With an I-message, the teacher tells students his or her feelings, without blaming the students. Let’s take a look at good and poor examples of how I-messages can be used to address problems with students’ behavioral or social skills:

### Examples of Behavior Tasks and Prerequisite Skills that Are Desirable for Teaching and Learning to Occur

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behavior Tasks</th>
<th>Prerequisite Skills</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Works independently</td>
<td>Knows how to do the work</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Remains on task without assistance</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knows where to find answers if assistance is needed</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Refrains from talking during independent work</td>
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<tr>
<td>Is punctual</td>
<td>Knows how to tell time</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Can estimate time needed to get to class on time</td>
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<tr>
<td>Is prepared</td>
<td>Knows what supplies and materials are needed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Remembers to bring supplies and materials</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Is organized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follows directions</td>
<td>Can verbalize the directions</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can follow multistep directions</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Complies with the directions</td>
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<tr>
<td>Raises hand</td>
<td>Knows when to raise hand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Does not call out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follows the rules</td>
<td>Remembers the rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Understands the rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Understands the consequences</td>
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</table>
Problem: Several students interrupt the teacher when she is explaining assignments.

Good I-message: “When students interrupt (problem behavior) me when I am speaking, I have to repeat what I just said (effect of the behavior), and that frustrates me (feelings).”

This example tells the students the problem, its effect, and the feelings of the person sending the I-message.

Poor I-message: “I want you to stop interrupting me. If you do that again, you’ll have to stay after school.”

This example orders the student to stop a behavior and uses a threat to curb it. The teacher is in a position of power. According to Gordon, practices such as ordering, threatening, or warning are roadblocks to effective communication. Gordon acknowledges the need for teachers to use strong directives such as ordering, but only if danger is present. Gordon stresses that overusing commands can result in conflict between the teacher and students. Thus, clearly communicated behavioral and social skills tasks, delivery of consequences, and the use of I-messages all contribute to effective communication.

Explain the Rules and Consequences

Rules are a necessary part of society; this is true for the classroom as well. Rules provide parameters, structure, and predictability. Rules set the limits! Without rules, students are left to their own devices to determine the teacher’s expectations and guidelines for appropriate behavior and social skills. Sometimes, teachers assume that students know how they are supposed to act in class. The codes of school conduct often are implied and not communicated carefully. Unfortunately, in some school situations students learn about the rules only when they break
them and are punished for their infractions. How can teachers communicate rules so that students can accomplish the behavioral and social expectations of the classroom? Teachers can use a class meeting to involve students in establishing classroom rules by asking them, “What rules do we need so that I can teach and you can learn in a safe classroom?” Here are a few tips for selecting rules (Canter & Canter, 2001):

- Four to six rules are enough; too many rules makes it difficult to monitor compliance.
- State rules in a positive manner, focusing on the positive, such as “Follow directions.”
- Select observable rules that apply throughout the day. “Be respectful” is difficult to observe, too vague, and may require the teacher to take instructional time to ask “Is that respectful?” A more specific rule, such as “Raise your hand to speak in group discussion,” will be more effective.
- Involve students in setting the rules. This is especially important for older students so that they feel they have a voice in the decision-making process.

Once rules are selected, they should be shared with the principal and students’ families. The rules should also be posted. Rules should come with both positive recognition and consequences. When students follow the rules, praise, special notices, privileges, and other types of positive recognition provide helpful reinforcement (Canter & Canter, 2001; Wolfgang, 1995).

Alternatively, when rules are broken, consequences must follow. Here are some things to consider when deciding on consequences:

- The consequence should match the infraction; that is, the consequence must make sense for the misbehavior or broken rule. For example, the consequence for being late to class once should be different than that for being late four days in a row.
- The consequence should be something that the teacher can manage. If the consequence is “stay after school,” the teacher may have to give up planning time at the end of the day.
- Consequences should be applied consistently and as soon as possible after the infraction. If consequences are applied inconsistently, students get mixed messages about following the rules.
- Consequences need to be communicated clearly to students. They should know what will happen if rules are broken or followed.

Is it necessary to teach rules? Yes! Rules must be explained, reinforced, and reviewed regularly (Jones, 2004). Teachers should work closely with special education colleagues regarding enforcement of rules and logical consequences for students with disabilities. For instance, a student with mild emotional/behavioral disturbance may have an IEP with certain guidelines for rules. Likewise, students who lack the ability to shift from different settings and teachers may need extra guidance in remembering the rules as situations and teachers change during the day.

**Explain the Daily Schedule**

Most people like to be informed about the schedule of events so that they know what to expect during the course of the day, week, or even when on a vacation.
By communicating a schedule to students, teachers can prepare them for what to expect each day; they will know what is going to happen and be prepared for it. A classroom schedule establishes routines and communicates to all students the activities of each day.

The teacher can develop a classroom schedule and post it for students to review throughout the week. Several routines can be part of one week. For example, one routine can be used on two days and a different routine on three days. The teacher can help students by reviewing the schedule for the day or for the class period.

For students who struggle with certain academic subjects or tasks, problems might occur during specific times of the day associated with those subjects or tasks. For instance, if reading is a demanding activity for a student, it is not surprising that the student might get out of his or her seat, start talking to a friend, or take extra time to go to the reading table for instruction. Think back to Phillip in the Opening Challenge. Phillip has a learning disability in reading and writing. His teacher identified problems with him remaining on task and getting his work done.

What can a teacher do about this academic problem, besides adjusting the work? The Premack Principle is a highly effective technique for motivating students to accomplish tasks (Premack, 1959). With this method, activities that are more demanding or challenging, such as reading and writing for Phillip, and thus less preferred, are conducted earlier in the day or class period. Less demanding and more preferred activities are scheduled for later in the day or class period so that students have something to work toward. In some cases, earned or free time (i.e., designated time during the school day that is provided for students who have completed their work) can be scheduled later in the day. Some parents use the Premack Principle to get their children to eat: “When you finish your dinner you can have dessert!” Astute teachers have used the Premack Principle for years to help students accomplish classroom tasks.

Provide Good Directions

What does it mean to provide good directions? If students understand what they are supposed to do, remember the directions, and follow them, then the teacher probably has provided good directions. Here are some tips for providing good directions and communicating them effectively:

- Be concise; too many words may confuse students or be difficult to remember. Two or three single-step actions are sufficient.
- State directions right before the activity.
- Check student understanding of the directions. For example, consider the following directions: “In pairs, I want you to first (showing one finger visual signal) read the paragraph together; second (showing two fingers), underline words you don’t know; and third (showing three fingers), write two sentences about the paragraph.” The teacher does a quick check for understanding by asking students what they are supposed to do.

Let’s return to Eric and the Opening Challenge. Recall that Ms. Martinez views Eric as a student who causes class disruptions.
ADAPT in Action • Eric—Following Direction

Ms. Martinez notes that Eric tends to act out in class by talking to his neighbors when he is supposed to be working or listening for directions. Ms. Martinez notes that Eric seems to misbehave when she gives directions for different tasks. Sometimes, he refuses to get to work. She is not sure why he does this. Ms. Martinez decides to use the ADAPT framework to figure out how to address Eric’s behavior:

**Ask.** “What am I requiring the student to do?” Ms. Martinez thinks about Eric’s behavior, “I need Eric to follow directions when I give them to the class. With a few exceptions, most of the students handle this well.”

**Determine the prerequisite skills of the task.** Ms. Martinez identifies the skills that are needed to follow direction: “Understanding what I am asking and remembering the directions are important. Being willing to follow the directions is also important. Which of these skills seem problematic for Eric?”

**Analyze the student’s strengths and struggles.** Ms. Martinez gives the class directions for independent reading work. She notes that rather than getting to work, Eric starts bothering his neighbors. She thinks about how she tends to scold Eric for not getting to work and then repeats the directions to him. She wonders if Eric is just trying to get her attention, or maybe he doesn’t understand what to do. She talks privately with him to do a little diagnostic work on his ability to follow directions. When asked, Eric had difficulty remembering the three directions she gave the class, but he was able to explain how to do the work in the reading workbook. She concludes that remembering a series of directions may be interfering with his ability to get to work and contributing to his off-task behavior of bothering his neighbors. Because she needs students to work independently while she conducts small-group reading instruction, she decides to make adaptations to help Eric.

**Propose and implement adaptations from among the four categories.** Typically, Ms. Martinez gives directions and checks the class’s understanding by asking a few students to repeat the directions. This practice seems to work well, because the students start working. Ms. Martinez thinks that Eric may not be able to remember a series of directions. She decides to provide a buddy (instructional delivery adaptation) for Eric who can check that Eric can follow the directions and get to work. She decides also to periodically give Eric a sticker (instructional material adaptation) for following directions and getting to work. Although she does not usually give out stickers for following directions, Ms. Martinez is willing to try this adaptation. Ms. Martinez thinks a couple of other students may also benefit from these adaptations.

**Test to determine if the adaptations helped the student accomplish the task.** Ms. Martinez decides that when she sees Eric following directions by getting to work more consistently, she will gradually reduce the frequency of the stickers and provide verbal praise for getting to work.

Describe Transition Procedures

Why is transition time so important? Transition is the time when students are changing activities or classes. Oftentimes, it is a less structured time, so transition
can be a challenging time for students who need structure as part of their routine. Students may struggle with shifting from one activity to another either in the classroom or across settings in the school. When students complete small-group work, the expectation is that they can return to their desks without problems. Unfortunately, this is not always the case.

Difficulties with transition times occur for a variety of reasons. Sometimes, teachers do not pay enough attention to student movement in the classroom during transition times. At other times, the teacher has not clearly communicated expectations for student behavior during transitions. Also, the procedures teachers use to make transitions may not be the most effective ways for students to change activities. For example, asking all students to line up for lunch or all students to move into group work at the same time may invite problems (Evertson, Emmer, & Worsham, 2003).

How can teachers communicate effectively during transition times? Smith and Rivera (1995) offer the following transition practices:

- Signal to students that it is time to finish their work because soon they will be moving to the next activity. Providing a verbal reminder, “Finish up what you are doing because the bell will ring in 10 minutes,” signals how much time students have to complete their work and get ready for the next activity or class.
- Gain student attention prior to the transition to provide directions for the transition. Teachers can use their proximity (e.g., standing at the front of the classroom); a visual signal (e.g., flickering the lights); or a verbal signal (e.g., counting backwards from five to one) to gain students’ attention. Then, directions for the transition to another activity in the classroom or to another location, such as the next class or the cafeteria, can be provided. One teacher shared her strategy for gaining student attention. She said, “All eyes on me.” Her students were taught to reply in unison, “All eyes on you.” It works!
- Communicate the transition plan and behavioral expectations. For instance, younger students could be told that they need to meet in their spelling groups at the carpet area and that they should walk to the mat quietly. Older students could be told that they should return to their seats and gather their belongings to get ready for the bell to change classes.
- Praise students who follow the transition plan and behavioral expectations. Provide specific praise; thank students for following the directions given, including demonstrating appropriate behavior. For example, “The Red group went to the mat quietly with their spelling materials; thank you for following the directions,” or “The group working on computers did a nice job of logging off and returning to their desks quietly” tells students specifically what they did appropriately that related to following transition directions.

Use Specific Praise Judiciously

Specific praise is complimenting or verbally rewarding students for their accomplishments. Providing specific praise is a very simple way to communicate behavior and social expectations. Praise can serve as a reward for proper behavior and social interactions and as a reminder about expectations for students. Specific praise is a form of attention and feedback that has been studied for many years,
What Are Effective Classroom Arrangement Practices?

Physical Arrangements

The physical arrangement of the classroom is an important component of effective classroom management. What are some considerations for designing the environment? Arranging activity-based centers in less distracting parts of the room can minimize problems. For example, in elementary classrooms the reading, writing, and listening centers could be placed next to one another, assuming that students are using headphones in the listening center. The art center, however, should be placed away from students’ seats and quieter centers. At the secondary level, instructional supplies and materials for students could be stored away from students’ desks. Computers can be arranged in another section of the room.

and it has been shown to be very powerful in bringing about positive behavior in classrooms (Emmer, Evertson, & Worsham, 2003; White, 1975). Although easy to implement, specific praise is underutilized in many classroom settings. In a classic study, White (1975) found that elementary-level teachers provided the highest approval and disapproval rates of specific praise compared to middle school teachers, who more often reprimanded than praised students. Thus, one of the easiest interventions for managing behavior remains untapped in many classrooms. Think back to Sam in the Opening Challenge for a moment; recall his problems with being prepared and organized. Ms. Martinez gives him a box to hold his supplies (instructional material adaptation) and provides specific praise (instructional delivery adaptation) when she “catches” him putting his supplies neatly in the box and storing it in his desk. She can also do a periodic “desk check” to see how organized his supplies are and provide specific praise to him for managing his space.

What guidelines are important to consider when using specific praise to promote positive behavior?

- Make the praise specific. For example, a teacher who wants students to raise their hands to speak during group discussions can acknowledge a student who demonstrates this task by saying, “Thank you Eric for raising your hand to speak instead of shouting out.” This praise is specific to the task of raising a hand, which the teacher expects students to demonstrate during class discussions. This praise also gives Eric positive attention.
- Consider the age of the student or students being praised. For instance, teachers cannot praise tenth-grade students in the same way they do first graders. Older students may not respond favorably to a teacher who praises them publicly, but a private word can mean a great deal.
- Use praise judiciously. This means that teachers should focus on the behavior or social skill that they want students to demonstrate. Excessive praise loses its reinforcing value.
Traffic Patterns

Traffic patterns, the paths students take to move about the classroom, are another issue to consider. How can traffic patterns make a difference? The arrangement of furniture and the location of instructional materials (e.g., pencil sharpener, computers, books, lab instruments) may influence how students move about the classroom as they go from large-group to small-group instruction and from independent seatwork to the pencil sharpener. The following tips can help to manage classroom traffic patterns:

- Separate instructional areas.
- Provide adequate movement space.
- Provide access to the most-frequented areas (Emmer, Evertson, & Worsham, 2003; Evertson, Emmer, & Worsham, 2003).

Emmer et al. (2003) recommend that teachers simulate student movement about the classroom to determine possible problem areas. For instance, a student who uses a wheelchair will require more navigational space in the classroom; the room arrangement will require wider spaces to accommodate the student’s movement about the room.

Seating Arrangements

How students’ desks are arranged is yet another consideration (Lovitt, 2000; Smith & Rivera, 1993; Wood, 1992). The types of activities and desired interactions should influence desk arrangements and seating patterns, such as rows and groupings. In addition, specific student behavioral needs will influence how the desks are arranged and where certain students’ desks are located in proximity to the teacher and other students. For instance, students who are distracted easily or who like to socialize will require preferential seating (i.e., closer to the teacher or with students who can ignore “talkers”). A student who is easily distracted should sit in an area that is less traveled by peers rather than in an area, such as by the pencil sharpener, that is frequented during the day.

With-it-ness

Teachers must be able to see all of the students all of the time to be aware of interactions; this is referred to as **with-it-ness** (Kounin, 1970). Why is with-it-ness so important? A lack of teacher awareness of classroom activities and student behavior can contribute to misbehavior and social problems. Nooks and crannies may offer students “private space,” but they limit teachers’ abilities to be aware of classroom activities. In addition, teachers who position themselves in the classroom where visibility is limited are inviting problems that they cannot see nor stop. Thus, teachers must have “eyes in the back of their heads” and let students know such is the case (Jones, 2004). By designing the classroom’s physical environment to maximize visibility of all students, behavioral and social problems can be prevented or addressed as situations warrant (Smith & Rivera, 1993).
Classroom Observation

Taking time to observe the environment, including traffic patterns, seating arrangements, and student interactions, will provide information about changes that may be needed. Through observation, teachers can reduce behavioral problems and increase student involvement with those students who tend to be quiet or uninvolved with their peers. Asking students, particularly older ones, about environmental factors such as temperature, noise, furniture, and arrangements can also inform decision making about creating an environment that is conducive to learning, managing behavior, and facilitating social interactions (Lovitt, 2000; Wood, 1992).

This section presented practices that teachers can use to help all students understand and accomplish behavioral and social skills tasks in the classroom. We know there is also a group of students who exhibit difficulty managing their behavior. For these students, it is helpful to understand the goals of misbehavior and interventions that can address problem behavior.

What Are the Goals of Misbehavior?

For many years, researchers have studied student behavior to better understand why problem behaviors occur and to identify ways to promote positive behavior. Differing viewpoints about the causes of inappropriate behavior have influenced the development of approaches and systems for managing it. For example, grounded in Alfred Adler’s work on the relationship of behavior to social acceptance, Rudolph Dreikurs (1968) and Dreikurs and Cassel (1972) believe that people’s behavior, including misbehavior, is goal driven to achieve social acceptance. If students are not successful in achieving social acceptance, misbehavior occurs that can be annoying, hostile, destructive, or helpless. Unfortunately, students who believe that inappropriate behavior will result in getting an adult’s positive attention are mistaken. The attention they get is negative. These students are desperately seeking positive acceptance but do not know how to achieve it. These students need to learn appropriate prosocial behaviors—behaviors that are positive and that build relationships—to achieve the acceptance they are seeking.

Teachers can help students realize their mistaken goals and offer alternatives for social acceptance (Wolfgang, 1995). When teachers understand the goals of misbehavior, an appropriate intervention plan can be implemented to support positive behavior and to decrease or eliminate inappropriate behavior. Table 9.3 provides information about the goals of misbehavior and examples of techniques for handling mistaken goals. Sometimes, specific interventions must be implemented to promote positive behavior in the classroom.

What Interventions Are Available for Less Serious Behavior Problems?

Planned Ignoring

Planned ignoring, sometimes referred to as the ignore strategy, is the planned, systematic withdrawal of attention by the individual from whom the attention is
TABLE 9.3 Goals of and Techniques for Handling Misbehavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Description of Misbehavior</th>
<th>Techniques</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attention getting</td>
<td>The student engages in behavior that demands excessive praise or criticism.</td>
<td>Ignore the behavior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Give an I-message</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower your voice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Change the activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Praise appropriately behaving students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power and control</td>
<td>The student tries to manage situations, get his or her own way, or force himself or herself on others.</td>
<td>Leave the scene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revenge</td>
<td>The student engages in hurtful and malicious behavior.</td>
<td>Implement time out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequacy</td>
<td>The student does not cooperate or participate; avoids or escapes situations.</td>
<td>Take away a privilege</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Planned ignoring works when the individual whose attention is sought is the one who consistently does the ignoring. The individual could be the teacher, but could also be a classmate. Planned ignoring is an appropriate intervention if the behavior is a minor infraction that poses no threat or harm to others (Evertson, Emmer, & Worsham, 2003). Behaviors such as threatening others or fighting will probably not be influenced quickly enough by ignoring and should be dealt with quickly and directly. The landmark research that clearly demonstrated the power of adult attention on nursery school children’s behavior was conducted more than forty years ago (Allen et al., 1964). Results showed the correlation between behavior and the application and withdrawal of teacher attention.

What guidelines apply to planned ignoring? First, the person who is doing the ignoring must be the individual whose attention is being sought. Thus, it is important to know whose attention a student is seeking. How can a teacher determine whose attention the student is seeking? Adult attention is extremely important to younger children, which is why teachers see immediate, and often dramatic, changes when they praise or ignore younger students. However, as students get older, the attention of the peer group increases in importance, and the teacher’s influence lessens. This is why ignoring older students when they are off task probably will not be effective. Second, planned ignoring must be
implemented consistently, even if the behavior of concern increases. It is common for inappropriate behavior to escalate when planned ignoring is first introduced. Notably, some students will purposefully exhibit inappropriate behavior to gain the teacher’s attention. However, planned ignoring can quickly become an effective intervention when teachers implement it consistently, even during the brief escalation period. As noted by Bacon (1990), “when the behavior fails to gain the desired attention, the behavior will eventually stop” (p. 608). However, teachers should become aware of students who engage in attention-seeking behavior and provide them with positive attention for appropriate behavior as much as possible.

Redirect Inappropriate Behavior

Redirection is the process of informing a student that an error was made and asking the student to describe the appropriate behavior. The student is provided an opportunity to demonstrate the appropriate behavior with reinforcement. Redirection is an effective way to help a student stop a problem behavior and receive further instruction on appropriate behavior in a relatively short amount of time. Much like specific praise and planned ignoring, redirection is a helpful intervention if the behavior is relatively minor and stems from the need to remind students about appropriate behavior.

When students exhibit minor problem behaviors, the teacher can intervene by giving instructions on how to behave appropriately. Students should be told the desired behavior and provided with positive support for demonstrating the appropriate behavior. With a focus on the positive, a reprimand—a negative response to problem behavior—is avoided. A reprimand does not provide the student with the opportunity to practice the correct behavior and receive reinforcement. For example, if a student calls out rather than raises his hand during discussion, the teacher can talk privately with the student, stating that calling out is inappropriate and asking the student to explain what he should have done during discussion (raise his hand to contribute). Then, in further class discussion, contingent on handraising, specific praise could be provided for the appropriate behavior. Redirection is a positive intervention and helps students become aware of and practice the desired behavior (Colvin, Kame’enui, & Sugai, 1993). In thinking back to Eric from the Opening Challenge, who calls out and may be seeking Ms. Martinez’s attention, she can redirect his calling out by privately having him explain to her what he can do besides calling out and praising him with positive attention each time he raises his hand.

Contingent Observation

Sometimes problem behavior occurs during small-group work or an activity when peers may be reinforcing the student’s misbehavior. Peer reinforcement may result in increased levels of the problem behavior. Contingent observation is a form of
timeout whereby a disruptive student is removed from an activity but is still allowed to observe the proceedings (Gast & Nelson, 1977). Contingent observation can be implemented in such situations if it appears that the peer group is contributing to the problem behavior. The advantage of this intervention is that the student can observe others participating appropriately in the group work, which can reduce the loss of instruction. It is important to ensure that the contingent observation period is long enough to make a difference, but not so long that interest is lost in rejoining the group.

**Criterion-Specific Rewards**

With criterion-specific rewards, students earn privileges only as they reach desirable levels of the target behavior. This intervention is used widely in schools. Rewards are given to students who achieve designated levels of improvement (the criterion level) for a specific academic, behavioral, or social skill. Rewards can be thought of as positive reinforcement, because they are given as consequences when students exhibit appropriate behavior and are intended to increase or maintain this behavior. Rewards may include the following:

- Tangible items, such as food, trinkets or prizes
- Token reinforcers, such as happy faces, stickers, or points toward a “pay off”
- Social reinforcers, such as praise, positive notes, or positive calls to parents
- Activity reinforcers, such as a “no homework night pass,” 10 minutes of extra recess time, or earned time to select a desired activity in the classroom (listening to a tape) (Axelrod & Hall, 1999; Morgan & Jensen, 1988)

It should be noted that a reward for one student might not have the same appeal for another; therefore, it is necessary to find out from students what rewards are most desirable to them. Also, something that is rewarding in September may not be appealing to students in November. Rewards will probably lose some of their value to students over time, and thus must be changed to achieve results. Table 9.4 provides a list of suggested rewards for elementary- and secondary-level students (Smith & Rivera, 1993, 1995).

Think back to the Opening Challenge; Ms. Martinez is reflecting Sam. Recall that he has been identified as having ADHD. He has difficulties staying organized and being prepared to work.

**ADAPT in Action • Sam—Preparing for Class**

Ms. Martinez thinks about Sam as he participates in class. He really tries to get his work done and seems to understand instruction, as noted by his responses on written work. However, Sam lags behind his classmates in getting to work and finishing on time. Ms. Martinez observes that he spends too much time managing his materials and being organized. Ms. Martinez decides to implement the ADAPT framework to identify a positive reinforcement system to help Sam be prepared for class:
**What Interventions Are Available for Less Serious Behavior Problems?**

TABLE 9.4  Suggested Rewards for Elementary and Secondary Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elementary Level</th>
<th>Secondary Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Activity Reinforcers</strong></td>
<td><strong>Activity Reinforcers</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader for classroom chores</td>
<td>No homework pass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Running errands to the office</td>
<td>Working on games or puzzles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No homework pass</td>
<td>Listening to music</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working on games or puzzles</td>
<td>Field trips</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra recess</td>
<td>Decorating the bulletin board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working as a tutor</td>
<td>Working on the computer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field trips</td>
<td>Helping the teacher with clerical tasks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decorating the bulletin board</td>
<td>Helping in the front office</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working on the computer</td>
<td><strong>Tangible Reinforcers</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra library time</td>
<td>Food treats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working at the listening center</td>
<td>Prizes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tangible Reinforcers</strong></td>
<td>Pencils, markers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Token Reinforcers</strong></td>
<td><strong>Social Reinforcers</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stickers</td>
<td>Note home to parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stars</td>
<td>Earned time to visit with friends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chips</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ms. Martinez notes, “I expect all of my students to be prepared for class so that we can focus on the lessons at hand.”

Ms. Martinez realizes that being prepared means that her students have supplies and materials readily available in their desks and that they are organized for learning.

Ms. Martinez reflects on Sam’s preparation for class: “He lost his pencil four times last week and left his homework home twice. Sam said he knew he was supposed to have a pencil and bring back his homework. When I asked him where he put his pencil, he couldn’t seem to remember. He said he forgot his homework but that he did it! His desk is a mess; it’s a wonder he can find anything. I have to stop my small-group work to
help him get organized so that he can do his work. What can I do to help him be more prepared?”

Propose and implement adaptations from among the four categories. Ms. Martinez thinks that Sam may have difficulty organizing his space so he can’t keep track of his pencils and that he may have problems organizing himself at home to remember to return his homework. She decides to implement a behavior management system with Sam. First, she and Sam clean out his desk and develop an organization system (instructional delivery adaptation). She views the organization system as an instructional delivery adaptation because being prepared is really a prerequisite for instruction. She told Sam that once a week she would do a “desk check” with him to see if the books and supplies are organized. If so, he will earn a “Being Prepared” certificate (instructional material adaptation) to take home. Ms. Martinez also sent home a chart (instructional material adaptation) for Sam to look at before leaving the house to go to school. The chart simply asks, “Do you have your homework?” Sam’s mom said that she would tape the chart to the door as a reminder.

Test to determine if the adaptations helped the student accomplish the task. As the days progress, Ms. Martinez notes that Sam remembers to bring his homework to school. She praises him for being so good at remembering to do this. The “desk checks” are also beginning to work. At first, she finds herself quietly reminding him about his desk organization, but by the second week he is developing the habit of organizing his books and storing supplies, including his pencil, in the box in his desk. He confided that things were going better for him because he could find his pencil when he needed it. Thus, with a little extra effort, Ms. Martinez helped Sam to develop better organization skills and the ability to remember his homework, which seems to improve his preparation for class.

Negative reinforcement is anything (tangible, tokens, social, activity) that a student will increase a behavior in order to avoid or escape. For example, if a student increases the rate and accuracy of homework completion (desired behavior) to avoid doing the dishes (activity) every night, then cleaning the dishes is a negative reinforcer. Although positive and negative reinforcement can increase behavior, positive reinforcement is the desired approach and should be used most often.

Contracting

Contracting involves setting up a written agreement between two parties that designates a targeted behavior that needs improvement. This technique is sometimes necessary for students whose problem behaviors do not seem to respond to other interventions. Alberto and Troutman (2005) suggested that contracts can be an effective intervention for teachers to implement because the conditions for reinforcement are written down, which can help busy teachers remember how behavior for certain students will be managed.

The following are simple guidelines for implementing contracts:

1. The desired behavior and a reward that is meaningful to the student must be identified.
2. The conditions for earning the reward must be stipulated as part of the contract, including the desired behavior and the time frame.
3. The contract should contain an If . . . then statement and include the behavior, condition, criterion, and reinforcer (Alberto & Troutman, 2005).
What Interventions Are Available for Less Serious Behavior Problems?

4. The teacher and the student should sign the contract. A sample contract is shown in Figure 9.1.

**Interdependent Group Contingencies**

Students and teachers respond well to group contingency interventions because they are typically arranged as classroom games (Babyak, Luze, & Kamps, 2000). They take a little more time on the teacher’s part to manage, but they can be effective for dealing with problem behaviors that are resistant to other interventions, such as planned ignoring and redirection. With interdependent group contingencies, students earn reinforcement when they achieve a goal that has been established for the group. Group contingencies focus on using the peer group as a resource to encourage positive changes in behavior. Interdependent group contingencies are effective for all age groups, particularly when the peer group’s attention and reactions are the reasons that undesirable behavior occurs. Interdependent group contingencies have been used for years because they are very effective in reducing rates of inappropriate behavior and increasing the occurrence of desired behaviors (Barrish, Saunders, & Wolf, 1969; Maurer, 1988).

Here are a few guidelines to keep in mind when using interdependent group contingencies. First, be certain that the student involved is capable of performing the desired behavior and stopping the inappropriate behavior. If not, undue pressure could be placed on an individual who causes the group to lose its opportunity for the reward. Second, plan for the possibility that several students might actually enjoy subverting the program for the group. If this occurs, special arrangements must be made for the subversive students.

Let’s return to Ms. Martinez. She decides to implement the “Good Behavior Game,” which was developed by Barrish, Saunders, and Wolf in 1969. Ms. Martinez is concerned that many of her students don’t work well independently while she is conducting small-group work. In particular, Phillip struggles with this expected task. She decides to focus on improving the behavior of working independently. She divides the class into teams. When the timer sounds, the team whose members are on task during independent work are given a point. At the end of each day, the team with the most points earns 10 minutes to work on an activity of their choice (something the class values as important). The members of the other team who haven’t earned enough points have to continue with their independent work. Eventually, Ms. Martinez sets a criterion of five points as the goal for earning the

**FIGURE 9.1 Sample Contract**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behavior Improvement Contract</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If John Evans is in his seat and prepared to work when</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(student) (behaviors)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the bell rings every class period weekly, then he will earn a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(condition) (criterion)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“no homework pass” for one assignment for the following week.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(reward)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(student/date) (teacher/date)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
reward. Although the Good Behavior game increases on-task behavior during independent work time, Ms. Martinez observes after two days that Phillip’s inability to work independently prevents his teammates from earning a point. Recall that Phillip has a learning disability in reading and writing. In ADAPT Box 9.1, you will read about how Ms. Martinez applied the ADAPT framework to identify possible adaptations for Phillip related to the tasks that she expected in class.

Self-Regulation

Self-regulation occurs when individuals monitor their own behavior. Using self-regulatory techniques, individuals attempt to avoid situations that lead to inappropriate behavior or stop problem behavior if it has already started. Self-regulation is a type of self-management (i.e., the implementation of specific interventions by the targeted student to manage his or her own behavior). Studies have shown that self-management techniques are effective for both elementary and secondary students (Hughes & Boyle, 1991; Schloss, 1987). Self-management techniques are appealing because they actively involve the individual in the learning process and promote independence and decision making (Lovitt, 2000). Examples of self-regulation techniques include “counting to ten,” using self-talk to work through a problem, and walking away from a potentially problematic situation. Obviously, these techniques require the teacher to help the student know how to recognize a problem situation and when to use the appropriate technique.

9.1 ADAPT Framework for Phillip

**ASK**

“What am I requiring the student to do?”

The students will complete an independent reading assignment quietly at their desks during small-group instructional teaching.

**D**

DETERMINE the prerequisite skills of the task.

1. Knows how to do the reading assignment.
2. Remains on task without assistance.
3. Knows where to find answers if assistance is needed.
4. Refrains from talking during independent work.

**A**

ANALYZE the student’s strengths and struggles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strengths</th>
<th>Struggles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**P**

PROPOSE and implement adaptations from among the four categories

**Instructional Content**

- Determine that content is at student’s independent reading level; if not, then provide easier reading material.
- Observe on-task behavior to see if appropriate reading level of material reduces off-task behavior.
- No adaptation is needed.

**Instructional Delivery**

- Provide specific praise for working quietly.

**T**

TEST to determine if the adaptations helped the student to accomplish the task.

- Have student read to determine if material is appropriate.
- Observe on-task behavior.
- On a behavior chart, tally the number of talking during independent work.
- Determine if praise reduces talking behavior.
Let’s examine some guidelines for implementing the self-regulation intervention. Modeling and role-playing are good ways to help students learn self-regulation techniques. It will be necessary to determine which techniques are more appropriate for younger or older students. The students’ use of self-regulatory techniques will increase as they receive positive reinforcement and see the effects of the techniques. Figure 9.2 is an example of a “Countoon.” Students can use the Countoon to self-regulate by recording occurrences of a desired behavior, such as “raising hand during class discussions,” and the problem behavior, such as “calls out.” The technique of self-recording to monitor one’s own behavior can lead to increases in the desired behavior and decreases in the problem one.

**What Interventions Are Available for More Serious Behavior Problems?**

### Restitution

Sometimes, students may exhibit problem behaviors that require more intensive interventions. **Restitution** is an effective intervention when students damage or destroy their surroundings or others’ belongings. For example, behaviors such as writing on desks or in books; defacing a surface, such as a wall or restroom stall; wadding up wet paper towels and throwing them on the ceiling; or destroying someone’s personal belongings can be corrected using restitution practices. Cleaning desks, erasing marks in books, painting a wall, and scrubbing the restroom stalls are examples of how restitution could be implemented for related

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**FIGURE 9.2 Countoon.**

**Directions:** Put a tally in the box of the behavior that represents you during each day’s class discussion time.

- **M** | **T** | **W** | **Th** | **F**
- Raises hand to speak
- Calls out
misbehavior. When implementing restitution, consider the following guidelines proposed by Burke (1992):

- The student should be observed engaging in the problem behavior to ensure that the student who is receiving the restitution intervention actually committed the problem behavior.
- The match between the problem behavior and the amount and kind of restitution should be logical.
- The student should be expected to perform the restitution even if adult prompts are necessary.
- The intervention should not be something the student particularly likes or done during a time of the day (e.g., reading time) that the student may want to avoid. For example, graffiti on bathroom walls unfortunately is common in student restrooms, especially at the secondary level. Students who are caught writing graffiti have to pay restitution. Staying after school to remove the graffiti is a logical consequence for this inappropriate behavior.

Timeout and Seclusion Timeout

According to Lane (1976), in the early 1800s, Itard, the teacher of a wild student, Victor, used timeout to manage inappropriate behavior. **Timeout** is an intervention that removes the student from a situation that is reinforcing the inappropriate behavior. **Seclusion timeout**, in which the pupil is placed in an isolated room, is used for severe, out-of-control behavior. With seclusion timeout, the student is removed from a situation that is encouraging and maintaining the problem behavior and placed in a neutral environment. Usually, the neutral environment is a small room where the student is isolated for a designated period of time (Alberto & Troutman, 2005; Gast & Nelson, 1977). Seclusion timeout has gained in popularity because it offers the student a chance to calm down, think about what happened, and rejoin the group in a short time period. White, Nielsen, and Johnson (1972) found that a period from 1 to 5 minutes is effective for producing the desired results. Like restitution, guidelines for using seclusion timeout are helpful to consider. Here are some guidelines for using seclusion timeout:

- The student should have been given an opportunity to correct the problem behavior.
- The school staff should monitor the student’s behavior to ensure that it is severe enough to warrant an intervention that will remove the student from instruction.
- An evaluation of the student’s academic work or social demands should be conducted to determine if the work is too difficult or the social situations are problematic. Adjustments to either academic work or social situations could adjust the problem behavior. If, through misbehavior, the student can avoid a difficult assignment or social situation, misbehavior will most likely worsen rather than decrease.
- An appropriate space must be identified that is available when the problem behavior occurs. The space should be examined to ensure proper ventilation, safety, and size (at least 6 feet by 6 feet).
- The space should offer the opportunity to supervise the student.
- Campus administration and parents should be aware that seclusion timeout will be implemented for severe problem behavior that is resistant to other positive behavioral interventions.
• The use of seclusion timeout should be documented, including the events leading up to the incident, the actual behavior, the amount of time in seclusion timeout, and positive interventions that were tried (Smith & Rivera, 1995).

In-School Supervision

In-school supervision is recommended only for severe behavior problems, and only after other positive interventions have been tried but failed over a period of time. Because students miss class, this intervention is usually reserved for major disruptive acts, such as fighting (Emmer et al., 2003). School privileges are suspended, and students must spend their time completing schoolwork in a quiet environment (Bacon, 1990). Students should not consider in-school supervision as a better place to be than in class. The advantage of this intervention for teachers is that they do not have to miss their lunch breaks, planning periods, or free periods to supervise disorderly students; rather, someone is assigned to supervise the in-school suspension room. The advantage for students is that they are required to complete schoolwork and are in school rather than out on the streets. The in-school supervision procedure serves as a deterrent to future disruptive behavior.

How Can I Identify and Assess Problem Behaviors?

How can positive and problem behaviors be described when they occur? What behaviors are acceptable? How can the occurrence of problem behaviors be assessed? Teachers must be able to describe behaviors that are desirable as well as those that are intrusive to teaching so that they can design and assess intervention plans.

Behavior Identification

Teachers must be able to describe problem behavior. An identified behavior should be observable, measurable, consistent over time, and of great concern (e.g., interfering with teaching or learning). For example, “calling out” can be observed, and it can be counted for a designated period. “Calling out” is a behavior that, although not serious, interferes with class discussions and can be labeled as rude and relatively disruptive. Returning to the Opening Challenge, “How many times Eric ‘calls out’ during a 15-minute discussion after viewing the film” tells us that “calling out” is the behavior that is being observed for 15 minutes. Ms. Martinez can measure it consistently over time by using a tally system to record how many times Eric calls out. Information on the identified behavior can help Ms. Martinez to describe the problem behavior (calling out during a discussion), determine how often it occurs (measuring the behavior for a time period), and know if the behavior (calling out) is decreasing and if a desirable behavior (hand raising) is increasing when an intervention plan is implemented.

Identified behavior can be stated in the form of behavioral objectives that include a condition, a behavior, and a criterion for improvement. The following examples include these three components and relate to our three students from the Opening Challenge:
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- In the reading group (condition), Phillip will stay in his seat (behavior) for 20 minutes (criterion).
- Given 10-minute whole-class morning discussion (condition), Eric will raise his hand (behavior) each time (criterion) he wishes to participate.
- For writing activities (condition), Sam will have his pencil (behavior) each day (criterion) to complete the writing assignments.

Observational Techniques

For students who engage in minor infractions, simply recording observations of positive and problematic behavior anecdotally in a notebook or on lesson plans may suffice to keep track of how students are progressing with behavior intervention programs or to identify possible issues. However, in many cases systematic observational systems can provide helpful information to design, implement, and evaluate behavior programs.

Observational systems can determine how frequently or how long a problem behavior occurs. Table 9.5 provides observational systems that can be used to gather data about the identified behavior and to assess the effectiveness of the intervention plan. Think about behaviors you have seen in classrooms and select the observational system you would use to measure that behavior. Keep in mind that the system should be sensitive to the behavior. For example, if a student continuously and rapidly taps a pencil on the desk, it would be hard to use event recording to capture each occurrence of this distracting behavior. Rather, interval recording would be a more appropriate system to use to get a sense of the occurrence of the behavior.

Oftentimes, it is helpful to display data. Figure 9.3 provides an example of how to visually depict data that are collected on an identified behavior. Data displays provide an easy way to see what is happening. In this example, the teacher was concerned about Patricia’s talking with her neighbors when she was supposed to be writing independently in her daily journal daily for 10 minutes. The teacher chose the interval recording system to collect data. Prior to implementing a behavior management plan, the teacher collected the first four data points. As shown in the figure, Patricia’s percentage of talking was quite high. However, a dramatic decrease in talking (the remaining four data points) is noted with the introduction of a behavioral intervention. What intervention from those discussed in this chapter would you use to reduce the inappropriate talking behavior?

Events that occur either before or after the behavior may contribute to its occurrence. Descriptive observation of these events can reveal important clues about how to manage the behavior. The Antecedent Behavior Consequence (ABC) log is a good tool for recording observations. “A” stands for events that occur before the behavior of concern, “B” is the behavior of concern, and “C” stands for the events that happen after the behavior occurs. The ABC log can be used for gathering data about what is going on with the student and the environment. This data can help the teacher make informed decisions about why problem behavior is occurring. An example is provided in Figure 9.4. Review the data and try to determine what is triggering or maintaining the behaviors. Based on your idea, what would you do next? For example, Phillip’s reading abilities can be assessed with the possibility of providing more intensive reading intervention to help him learn to read better.

The ABC log technique can be easily adapted for use with older students in a format that offers them the opportunity to self-evaluate and self-manage their
### Table 9.5: Systems for Observing and Assessing Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>System</th>
<th>Description and Example Behaviors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Event recording</strong></td>
<td>Number of occurrences of the identified behavior is recorded using a count or tally (e.g., $1111 = 4$). Session time period or opportunities to respond is held constant. Example behaviors: hand raising, talk-outs, tardiness, pencil sharpening, tattling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interval recording</strong></td>
<td>Number of intervals in which the identified behavior occurs is counted. Session time period is divided into small intervals (e.g., 10-minute group time is divided into 10&quot; intervals). Occurrence of the identified behavior during any portion of the interval is noted by a plus (+); nonoccurrence is noted by a minus (−); Each interval has only one notation; percentage of occurrence of the identified behavior for the session time period is calculated by dividing the number of intervals the behavior occurred by the total number of intervals. It can be challenging to record occurrences of behavior and teach at the same time, but this method provides a more accurate picture of the occurrences of a behavior than time sampling. Example behaviors: off-task, out-of-seat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Time sampling</strong></td>
<td>Number of intervals in which the identified behavior occurs is counted. Session time period is divided into larger intervals (e.g., 1 hour group time is divided into 10&quot; intervals). Occurrence of the identified behavior at the end of the interval is noted by a plus (+); nonoccurrence is noted by a minus (−). Each interval has only one notation; percentage of occurrence of the identified behavior for the session time period is calculated by dividing the number of intervals the behavior occurred by the total number of intervals. It is easier to record occurrences of behavior and teach, but it provides a less accurate picture of the occurrences of behavior than interval recording. Example behaviors: off-task, out-of-seat, talking with neighbors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Duration recording</strong></td>
<td>How long an identified behavior occurs is timed. Session time period can be a short period of time, a day or week; at the onset of the identified behavior a stopwatch can be started to record the cumulative time. Example behaviors: out-of-seat, temper tantrums, staying with one’s group.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Lovitt (2000) provides several steps to teach older students how to use the ABC log for self-management purposes:

1. Explain what each letter (A, B, and C) means. Provide examples of antecedents, behaviors, and consequences from real-life experiences. Ask students for their own examples. Get them to think about what triggers their actions, both positive and negative, so that they can see the connection between antecedents and consequences.

2. Discuss with students how to discriminate between antecedents that trigger positive behavior and those that trigger negative behavior.
3. Discuss with students what happens to them after positive and negative behaviors occur.

4. Develop a plan with students for dealing with the antecedents that trigger negative behaviors. For example, if the trigger is “name calling,” walking away could be the positive behavior rather than getting into a fight, which would cause the student to receive disciplinary action.

5. Have students select one of their own behaviors to change. Students can keep a record of the behavior in a journal.

6. Meet periodically with the student to see how the plan is working.

Reviewing existing records is another source of data. Records can include office referrals (Taylor-Greene et al., 1997), attendance records, counselor information, and cumulative school folders. Also, interviews of family members and support personnel can yield important clues about the events that trigger or maintain problem behavior.

What Are the Components of Positive Behavioral Supports?

Positive behavioral support (PBS), or positive behavioral interventions and support (PBIS, Gagnon & Leone, 2002), is defined by the Office of Special Education Programs (2000, p. III-8) as an “application of a behaviorally based systems approach to enhancing the capacity of schools, families, and communities to design effective environments that improve the fit or link between research-validated practices and the environments in which teaching and learning occur.” PBS is a proactive process that uses behavioral interventions. PBS focuses on preventing...
**FIGURE 9.4 ABC Log**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date/Time</th>
<th>Antecedent Events or Situations</th>
<th>Behaviors</th>
<th>Consequences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4. Phillip wanders around the room.</td>
<td>5. T sends Stephanie to the nurse. T has a private conference with Phillip who loses recess for the day.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The team hypothesized that Phillip’s pencil sharpening and poking served the goal of avoiding the reading task because of his difficulties with reading and the goal of getting attention, which in this case was the class and the teacher conference. Although he lost recess for the day, he had the teacher’s complete attention, negative as it was, during the conference.

Source: Adapted from Lovitt, T. (2000). Preventing school failure. Tactics for teaching adolescents (2nd ed.). Austin, TX: PRO-ED.
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others. Also, within 10 days of disciplinary actions taken by school personnel, IEP teams must develop a functional behavioral assessment plan and behavior intervention plan or review and revise, if needed, a current behavior intervention plan for those students whose behavior is of concern (IDEA, 2004). According to Kennedy et al. (2001), PBS should be implemented not only with students who are receiving special education services, but also with those students whose behavior places them in the risk category for special education identification. This requirement suggests that collaboratively general education and special education teachers, along with various campus-based and school district support services, are responsible for identifying, implementing, and evaluating positive behavioral supports for students.

PBS procedures include the following:

- Conduct a systematic functional behavioral assessment (FBA) to identify inappropriate behaviors and environmental conditions that support those inappropriate behaviors.
- Develop a behavioral intervention plan to teach new skills that will take the place of inappropriate behaviors while increasing desirable “prosocial” behaviors.
- Evaluate the effectiveness of the plan (Horner, 1999).

Functional Behavioral Assessment

Simply put, functional behavioral assessment (FBA) is a process for identifying the events that trigger and maintain problem behavior (Demchak & Bossert, 1996; Repp & Horner, 1999). Individuals engage in behavior because it gets them something they want (e.g., teacher attention) or helps them avoid something they do not want (e.g., timeout). Thus, the behavior has a function, goal, or purpose. Conditions in the environment also can cause behaviors to occur. FBA is used to determine what the individual is doing and under what conditions.

The goals of the FBA are as follows:

- Describe the problem behavior and conditions that trigger and reinforce its occurrence.
- Generate hypotheses or “educated guesses” of why the behavior is occurring.
- Identify goals for decreasing the problem behavior.
- Develop an intervention plan.

The ABC log, student and parent interviews, and review of school records and documents are examples of ways to collect data as part of the FBA and to write the behavior intervention plan.

Behavioral Intervention Plan

Teachers who can explain the function or purpose of problem behavior can respond more effectively to students by planning appropriate interventions (McCart & Turnbull, 2003). A behavior intervention plan (BIP) provides teachers with a roadmap for changing inappropriate behavior and teaching new, appropriate skills. The BIP is developed based on the findings from the FBA.
The BIP includes the following components:

- Change the environmental events that trigger the inappropriate behaviors.
- Teach the student new skills to use instead of the inappropriate behaviors.
- Implement a reward system that reinforces appropriate behavior to improve the student’s lifestyle, which may include establishing positive relationships and engaging in appropriate activities.
- Evaluate the plan’s effectiveness (Carr et al., 1999; Fad, Patton, & Polloway, 2000; Horner & Carr, 1997).

Drawing from research on identifying behavior, planning effective instruction, and monitoring instruction, the BIP described in What Works 9.1 is intended to show research to practice.

Classroom teachers can expect other school personnel, such as the special education teacher, the school psychologist, and counselor, to work together to conduct the FBA and to write, implement, and evaluate the BIP. An example of how professionals collaborate to conduct the FBA and to write the BIP is shown in Working Together 9.1. Take a moment to read this example.

We will now discuss social skills and how teachers can facilitate the development of these skills in their classroom through the ADAPT framework. Good social skills are extremely important for peer-group acceptance. The social skills of some students with disabilities and at-risk students may not be adequate to promote peer acceptance. Thus, it is essential to devote attention to ways teachers can facilitate social skills in inclusive settings.

**What Is Social Competence?**

Social competence means that a person uses social skills well enough to obtain positive reactions and to reduce the likelihood of negative reactions from others (Rivera & Smith, 1997). Being **socially competent** means that an individual has the ability to perceive when and how to use social skills depending on the situation and social context. The result contributes to acceptance by others. Unfortunately, research studies suggest that many individuals with special needs tend to have difficulty with an array of social behaviors, including, for example, choosing appropriate social behaviors for different situations, predicting behavioral consequences, reading social cues, and adapting their behavior in social situations (Bender & Wall, 1994; Gresham, Sugai, & Horner, 2001; Haager & Vaughn, 1995). Think about the three students—Sam, Eric, and Phillip—from the Opening Challenge. Review their social skills issues. Table 9.6 provides examples of social skills tasks and prerequisite skills. How do Sam, Eric, and Phillip’s social skills problems compare to this list of social skills tasks teachers expect in the classroom?

**Curriculum**

Social skills curricula have been developed for elementary, middle, and high school students. Social skills can be categorized into a variety of domains, such as communication skills, problem-solving skills, getting along with others, and coping skills. Figure 9.5 includes sample social skills curriculum for elementary and
Behavior Intervention Plan

Student: Mark Friar
School: Fairview Middle School
General Education Teacher: Mrs. Franklin
Special Education Teacher: Mr. Garcia

Grade: 6 (Language Arts & Reading)

- Results from FBA
  
  **Antecedent Events (A):** Request by the teacher to work in a small group; small group involves students with average reading abilities; small-group tasks involve reading aloud.

  **Problem Behaviors (B):** Student refuses to move to and work with small group.

  **Consequences (C):** Teacher attention (redirection, reprimands); instructional time lost because of lack of compliance for working in small groups.

  **Hypotheses:** Because of low reading skills and the setting demands of the small group, the student may have feelings of inadequacy and thus is engaging in behavior to avoid the reading tasks. He may seek acceptance through attention getting behavior and isolating himself from the group.

- Intervention Goal
  
  To increase compliance for working in small groups on literacy tasks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intervention</th>
<th>Person Responsible</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have the student practice the reading passages that will be used in small groups.</td>
<td>Special education teacher during resource time</td>
<td>Observation: student is reading aloud in-group.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide the passages on tape for the student to practice at home.</td>
<td>Special education teacher</td>
<td>Observation: student is reading aloud in-group.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change group membership to be more heterogeneous.</td>
<td>General education teacher</td>
<td>Observation: student works with group members.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Give the student a strategy for letting the teacher know when the reading material is too difficult and thus will cause embarrassment.</td>
<td>School counselor</td>
<td>Conference between counselor and teacher to assess when the student is using the strategy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide specific praise (in note format) for using the strategy.</td>
<td>General education teacher</td>
<td>Observation: student uses the strategy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

secondary level students. Take a moment to review this information. From Figure 9.5, which social skills activities would you recommend for Sam, Eric, and Phillip? If you said “getting-along skills” for Sam, “negotiation” and “coping skills” for Eric, and “conversation” for Phillip, then you’re on track for matching interventions with prerequisite skill struggles for social skills tasks.
Social Interactions

Research has presented conflicting understandings about the social acceptance and interactions of students with disabilities in inclusive settings. For example, in studying the social acceptance of students with cognitive disabilities in general education classes, Freeman and Alkin (2000) found a lower rating for these students than typically achieving students. Students with learning disabilities have been shown to have lower peer acceptance rates than other students in general education settings and are disproportionately represented in negative social status classifications (Bryan & Bryan, 1978; LaGrecia & Stone, 1990; Vaughn & Lancelotta, 1990). Asher and Gazelle (1999) found that students with language impairments have more problems with peer interactions. Language plays an important role in the development of social relationships and interactions—students must be able to use language to send and receive messages and to resolve conflicts. For students with severe communication disorders, technology can be liberating. Take a moment to read Tech Notes 9.1 for an example of how augmentative communication can be used to increase social interactions for many of these students.
Finally, and contradictory to other studies about students with disabilities and social acceptance and interactions, Rosenblum (1998) found older students with visual impairments to be more socially adjusted in inclusive settings. With increased emphasis on including students with disabilities in general education classes, just placing students in these environments will not in and of itself increase acceptance and interactions. For students with disabilities, the teacher can begin by examining the IEP to determine the social skills that need to be taught and reinforced. To succeed in inclusive settings, students must be able to compete aca-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Skills Tasks</th>
<th>Prerequisite Skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gets along with others</td>
<td>Is able to compromise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can explain other points of view</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knows how to share</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Is polite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Is helpful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Converges appropriately</td>
<td>Initiates conversation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Listens to others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Takes turn in conversation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Uses an appropriate tone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can maintain a conversation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can end conversation appropriately</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makes and keeps friends</td>
<td>Makes an effort to talk with others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Has good hygiene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cooperates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Is loyal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gives feedback</td>
<td>Offers feedback in a positive manner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can use I-messages to give feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Is able to express own needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can say “no” to peer pressure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solves problems</td>
<td>Can identify the problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can generate solutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can initiate solutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can evaluate the effects of solutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exhibits self-control</td>
<td>Recognizes situations that are provoking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Initiates action to remain calm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can evaluate the effects of actions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can self-monitor behavior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Is able to resolve conflict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accepts consequences</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 9.6 Examples of Social Skills Tasks and Prerequisite Skills that Are Desirable for Teaching and Learning to Occur
The Walker Social Skills Curriculum: ACCEPTS

The ACCEPTS Program: A Curriculum for Children's Effective Peer and Teacher Skills

By Walker, McConnell, Holmes, Todis, Walker, and Golden

ACCEPTS is a curriculum for teaching classroom and peer-to-peer social skills to children with or without disabilities in grades K through 6. The curriculum teaches social skills as a subject area. Different instructional groupings can be used, including one-to-one, small-group, or large-group formats. Included is a 45-minute videotape that shows students demonstrating the social skills that ACCEPTS teaches.

The curriculum includes the following social skills:

- **Classroom skills**: Listening to the teacher, when the teacher asks you to do something, doing your best work, and following classroom rules
- **Basic interaction skills**: Eye contact, using the right voice, starting, listening, answering, making sense, taking turns, questions, and continuing
- **Getting-along skills**: Using polite words, sharing, following rules, assisting others, and touching the right way
- **Making-friends skills**: Good grooming, smiling, complimenting, and friendship making
- **Coping skills**: When someone says no, when you express anger, when someone teases you, when someone tries to hurt you, when someone asks you to do something you can’t do, and when things don’t go right

ASSET

A Social Skills Program for Adolescents

by J. Stephen Hazel, Jean Bragg Schumaker, James A. Sherman, and Jan Sheldon

ASSET consists of eight teaching videotapes that contain four vignettes, which focus on specific social skills areas.

The curriculum includes the following social skills:

- **Giving positive feedback**: Thanking or complimenting others
- **Giving negative feedback**: Expressing criticism or disappointment in a calm, nonthreatening manner
- **Accepting negative feedback**: Listening calmly to criticism, asking permission to tell your side of the story
- **Resisting peer pressure**: Saying no, giving a personal reason, suggesting alternative activities
- **Problem solving**: Identifying problems, considering consequences, determining possible solutions
- **Negotiation**: Resolving conflicts with others, suggesting solutions, asking for alternatives, learning to compromise
- **Following instructions**: Listening carefully, acknowledging, clarifying, following through
- **Conversation**: Interacting with others, introducing yourself, initiating and maintaining a conversation

The Walker Social Skills Curriculum: ACCESS

The ACCESS Program: Adolescent Curriculum for Communication and Effective Social Skills

By Hill M. Walker, Bonnie Todis, Deborah Holmes, and Gary Horton

ACCESS is a complete curriculum for teaching effective social skills to students at the middle and high school levels. The program teaches peer-to-peer skills, skills for relating to adults, and self-management skills.

The curriculum includes the following social skills:

- **Relating to peers**: Listening, greeting others, joining in, having conversations, borrowing, offering assistance, complimenting, showing a sense of humor, making and keeping friends, interacting with the opposite sex, negotiating, being left out, handling group pressures, expressing anger, and coping with aggression

Continued
Chapter 9  Promoting Positive Behavior and Facilitating Social Skills

FIGURE 9.5 Continued

- **Relating to adults:** Getting an adult’s attention, disagreeing with adults, responding to requests, doing quality work, working independently, developing good work habits, following classroom rules, and developing good study habits.

- **Relating to yourself:** Taking pride in your appearance, being organized, using self-control, doing what you agree to do, accepting the consequences of your actions, coping with being upset or depressed, feeling good about yourself.

demically and socially. Thus, students need to be taught appropriate social skills to improve their social competence and to facilitate the use of these skills during the school day. In the area of social skills, let’s return to Ms. Martinez as she reflects on Sam’s difficulty with social interactions that interfere with his ability to make friends and work in groups.

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tech NOTES

Melissa is a 14-year-old student who is a ninth grader in the local high school. She was born with a severe form of spastic cerebral palsy that makes it difficult for her to produce intelligible speech. She uses a motorized wheelchair for mobility, which can be operated with a joystick. She is able to keep up with the work in general education classes with appropriate adaptations and modifications. To overcome her communication difficulties, Melissa uses an electronic communication board as a means to express her needs, to interact with teachers and friends, and to function in her classes.

Because of Melissa’s cognitive and receptive language strengths, the communication board contains features that provide a range of communicative interactions. A scanning system is used that searches by row and column an array of communicative choices. When the choice is highlighted, Melissa activates a switch that emits the oral response. Switch-activation capabilities are appropriate for Melissa because of her motoric challenges.

The use of the communication board is a good start to enhance social interactions. The use of the communication board is a good start for enhancing social interactions because it gives the user a tool for expressive language. However, communication partners should exhibit patience by giving the user a chance to manipulate the board (motor control) and by allowing time for the rate of communication utterances (electronic emission) to occur.
Ms. Martinez is concerned about Sam’s difficulties with social interactions in small groups. Sam tries to work with students during group time, but he does not act like he understands how to get along with the other students. He is capable of doing the work, but the social interactions cause problems for him. Ms. Martinez decides to use the ADAPT framework to help Sam.

**Ask.** “What am I requiring the student to do?” Notice the task, “gets along with others,” that Ms. Martinez expects. This is an important social skill that is necessary for students to work well together. Ms. Martinez gives a group assignment and reminds students to follow the group rule of getting along with others in the group.

**Determine the prerequisite skills of the task.** Ms. Martinez realizes that for students to get along they need to be able to compromise, be respectful of other points of view, share, be polite, and be helpful.

**Analyze the student’s strengths and struggles.** In thinking about Sam, Ms. Martinez notes:

- He seems to try to get along with the other students, but lacks skills to help him get along more successfully. Just the other day, he was working in a group but didn’t want to share the materials. I heard the other students explain their need to use the materials but his response was rude. I’m afraid the other students won’t want to work with him in small groups. He was able to tell me what he said that was rude but I don’t think he understands the other students’ perspectives. He seems to have problems compromising. I need students to be able to get along with each other in their small-group work. How can I help him with this task?

**Propose and implement adaptations from among the four categories.** Ms. Martinez thinks about how to help Sam get along with others:

- Maybe a reminder about getting along is not sufficient for Sam. I’ll get the groups working then give Sam private directions about what getting along looks and sounds like (*instructional delivery adaptation*). I’ll provide specific praise (*instructional delivery adaptation*) when I hear or see him getting along with his peers.

**Test to determine if the adaptations helped the student accomplish the task.** Ms. Martinez decides to keep an observational chart of Sam’s group work. She decides to use the ABC log to determine if there are certain events that trigger problems and to see the effects of her extra instructions and praise.
What Interventions Can Be Used to Teach Social Skills?

Role-playing

Role-playing is an activity where students practice the desired behaviors under the guidance of their teacher or counselor. Role-playing includes a combination of effective teaching practices to teach skills and provides an opportunity for students to practice with guidance. You can construct contrived situations in which students role-play particular behaviors. How can role-playing be used to teach social skills?

- The teacher can model the appropriate social interaction skills. By “thinking aloud,” students learn the steps and thinking process used to initiate the social interaction skills successfully.
- The teacher can provide examples and nonexamples of the target skills. This step helps students see how the interaction should look and how it should not look.
- Students should practice the desired social interaction behaviors in contrived situations while the teacher prompts the desired behaviors.

Coaching

Coaching focuses on encouraging appropriate behaviors through modeling and feedback. Coaching has been used to teach many different social skills (Lane, Gresham, & O'Shaughnessy, 2002). It involves providing guidance and feedback on appropriate social behaviors by the teacher in natural settings. Costa and Garmston (2002) described coaching as an interactive process that facilitates self-directed learning.

How does coaching work? Coaching involves the use of direct verbal instructions followed by the opportunity for students to rehearse or practice the target skill in a nonthreatening situation. Use the following steps in a coaching situation:

1. Present the rules or standards for the target behavior.
2. Model the desired behavior.
3. Have students rehearse the skill.
4. Ask the students what they think went well and what went not so well.
5. Ask students how they could do things differently next time.
7. Make suggestions for future performances.

Problem Solving and Decision Making

Most students understand what is deemed acceptable behavior at school and in society. However, students can benefit from interventions that teach them how to solve problems and make good decisions. Students who struggle with social
skills benefit from interventions that teach them how to choose socially acceptable behaviors in specific situations. Tanis Bryan and her colleagues have studied social skills challenges of students with learning disabilities for a number of years. Some of their findings relate to problem solving and decision making. For example, students had difficulty identifying the problem when a specific situation was described. They could not identify options for handling a situation or predict the consequences for the solutions they suggested. In fact, many youngsters with special needs tended to select antisocial behaviors, particularly when pressured by their peers (Bryan & Bryan, 1978).

Therefore, teaching problem-solving and decision-making skills is an important part of any social skills curriculum at all grade levels. Martin and Marshall (1995) and Wehmeyer (1995) offered the following skills for inclusion in a problem-solving and decision-making program. Teaching procedures for these skills are included in Table 9.7. As with any social skill, thinking aloud, modeling, role-playing, and coaching are good interventions to teach the steps.

### How Can I Assess Social Skills?

Several techniques can be used to assess social skills. For example, the ABC log described elsewhere in this chapter can be used to determine what social skills are problematic and the events and individuals that may be triggering or increasing the occurrence of the inappropriate social behavior. Rating scales found in many social skills curriculum can be used to determine which students are exhibiting poorer skills compared to their peers. Also, sociometric surveys and sociograms can be used to identify peer relationships in the classroom.

### Sociometric Survey

Sociometrics, or peer-nominating techniques, help teachers learn about peer relationships. Through the use of a sociometric survey—a set of questions answered by students regarding their perspectives about their peers—teachers can learn about students who may be popular, rejected, or isolated within the classroom or peer group. The sociometric survey can be conducted by asking students to respond to several of the following questions:

- Who would you most like to eat lunch with?
- Who are your top three choices to sit next to?
- Who do you not want to sit next to?
- Who would you invite to your birthday party?
- Who do you get together with during the weekend?
- Who would you not want to be in your working group?
### TABLE 9.7 Decision-Making and Problem-Solving Steps

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is the step?</th>
<th>What is involved?</th>
<th>What intervention can I use?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. <strong>STEP 1:</strong> Gather information</td>
<td>Identify information needed to make a decision and solve the problem.</td>
<td>Hold a class meeting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. <strong>STEP 2:</strong> Problem Identification</td>
<td>State the precise nature of the problem in observable, measurable terms.</td>
<td>Conduct a brainstorming session. Have students identify the problem; use the criteria—observable and measurable—to evaluate the wording. Take a vote to obtain consensus about the problem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. <strong>STEP 3:</strong> Solution generation</td>
<td>Describe specific solutions to the problem.</td>
<td>Brainstorm solutions with students. To help students generate solutions, have them answer the following questions:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>● What happens when the problem does not occur?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>● What does our classroom look like when this problem does not occur?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>● Who needs to help solve this problem?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>● What would happen if?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. <strong>STEP 4:</strong> Decision-making criteria</td>
<td>Establish criteria for selecting the best solution.</td>
<td>Use data from the ABC log to help guide solution generation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. <strong>STEP 5:</strong> Action plan</td>
<td>Develop a specific plan using the solution, including who does what, by when.</td>
<td>Have students describe the resources needed for each possible solution. Rule out those solutions that require unrealistic resources (e.g., too much time, too many people, money). Rank order possible solutions with 1 = best idea.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. <strong>STEP 6:</strong> Evaluation</td>
<td>Meet to determine if the action plan is working and whether the problem has been solved.</td>
<td>Conduct a class meeting to assess the action plan. Revise if necessary. Set another timeline for reevaluating.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Some of these questions relate to relationships within the classroom and others relate to after-school activities. By asking these types of questions and having students record their responses confidentially, teachers can learn a great deal about students who are popular and disliked. Teachers also can learn which students may be isolated. This information can help teachers plan social skills training and instructional groupings to foster better peer relationships in the classroom.

**Sociogram**

Drawing a sociogram—a graphic depiction of peer relationships—of the information from the sociometric survey can help a teacher see quickly what relationship patterns are evident in the classroom. A sociogram is shown in Figure 9.6. See if you can figure out the relationships in this classroom.

**How Can We Promote Safer Schools?**

**Guidelines for Safer Schools**

Recent events in some high schools across the country are vivid reminders of the importance of making connections with our youth and identifying potential problems before they become serious. Educators are looking at ways to address violence and aggressive acts to help make schools safer. According to Smith (2004), the following are guidelines for safer schools (McLane, 1997; Walker & Gresham, 1997; Walker & Sprague, 2000):

![Sociogram](image-url)
Chapter 9
Promoting Positive Behavior and Facilitating Social Skills

- Consistent rules, expectations, and consequences across the entire school
- Positive school climate
- Schoolwide strategies for conflict resolution and dealing with student alienation
- High level of supervision in all school settings
- Cultural sensitivity
- Strong feelings by students of identification, involvement, and bonding with their school
- High levels of parent and community involvement
- Well-utilized space and lack of overcrowding

Bullying

Bullying has received national attention as educators strive to address this critical issue in schools. Bullying is behavior that is deliberate with the intent of harming the victim (Craig & Pepler, 1996; Nansel et al., 2001). Bullying can be physical, verbal, or psychological (Nansel et al., 2001). It occurs at all grade levels. The person doing the bullying attempts to assert power and control over the person being bullied. Bystanders are reported to be present in about 85 percent of the incidences of bullying (www.bullying.org). Examples of bullying include physical attacks on the playground or after school, verbal intimidation, and exclusion from social networks. Gang attacks, dating attacks, and child abuse involve bullying (Pepler & Craig, 1997).

Boys are noted as asserting more physical types of bullying, whereas girls tend to exhibit more psychological types of bullying, such as excluding and gossiping about the victim (Pepler et al., 1997). Both boys and girls report being victimized by bullies. For example, a study of 15,686 students in public and private schools in grades 6 through 10 found that 13 percent of the students reported they had engaged in bullying ranging from a moderate to a frequent level (Nansel et al., 2001). Approximately 11 percent of the students indicated that they had been subjected to bullying (physical, verbal, or psychological) frequently or moderately.

In examining student traits, Nansel et al. (2001) indicated that individuals who engage in bullying and victims of bullying share similar characteristics. Both exhibit problems with social and psychological adjustment, as shown in demonstrated difficulties with friendships and reported feelings of isolation.

What can teachers do about this critical problem? In thinking back to the Opening Challenge, Ms. Martinez identified bullying as an issue for Eric. But, students who engage in bullying may or may not have an identified disability. Strategies for all students can be implemented to address the bullying problem:

- Make bullying prevention and intervention part of the curriculum. Students should understand that there are bullies, victims, and bystanders who reinforce the bullying behavior. Provide information about the types of bullying—physical, verbal, and psychological—including examples. Students may want to describe examples of bullying as well.
- Involve school administrators, teachers, families, and the community. School procedures for preventing and responding to bullying should be developed and shared with students and families.
- Work with the school counselor to identify effective strategies to handle and report acts of bullying. Have the school counselor conduct age-appropriate discussions with students about power, aggression, and control. Ask the
school counselor to meet privately with students to conduct individual or small-group discussions about feelings related to self-concept, social relationships, and other situations in school or home that may be problematic.

- Sociograms can reveal students who are viewed less favorably by many classmates (note Amy on the sociogram in Figure 9.6). Although sociogram results should be interpreted cautiously, evidence should be gathered to support possible social-relationship problems among students. For example, the teacher can observe student behavior towards one another in class and note students who are frequently withdrawn from the group.

**Summary**

This chapter presented techniques for promoting positive behavior and facilitating social skills. Both of these areas can greatly influence a teacher’s success in promoting an atmosphere for learning. Identifying specific behavioral and social tasks will help teachers to plan effective adaptations and interventions that can provide students with skills to use not only in the classroom, but schoolwide and in the community. By utilizing assessment practices, teachers will realize quickly how successful their adaptations and intervention program are in promoting an environment that is conducive to learning. By implementing practices discussed in this chapter, students with disabilities will become more involved in the classroom and accepted by their peers.

**Self-Test Questions**

Let’s review the learning objectives for this chapter. If you are uncertain and cannot “talk through” the answers provided for any of these questions, reread those sections of the text.

- What practices foster student relationships and communication?
  
  **For student relationships:**
  - Get to know your students.
  - Use motivational practices.
  - Be responsive to cultural differences.
  - Conduct student meetings.
  
  **For communication:**
  - Explain the rules and consequences.
  - Provide good directions.
  - Describe transition procedures.
  - Use specific praise judiciously.

- What classroom arrangement practices promote positive behavior and social interactions?
  
  Arrangements include physical arrangements, traffic patterns, seating arrangements, and classroom observations.

- What are the goals of misbehavior and what are the components of positive behavioral supports?
  
  **Goals of misbehavior:** Attention getting, power and control, revenge, inadequacy
  
  **Positive behavioral supports:** Functional behavioral assessment, behavioral intervention plan

- What interventions can teachers use to address behavior problems?
  
  **Less serious behavior:**
  - Planned ignoring
  - Redirect inappropriate behavior
  - Contingent observation
  - Criterion-specific rewards
  - Contracting
  
  **Interdependent group contingencies**
  - Self-regulation
  - More serious behavior:
  - Restitution
  - Timeout-seclusion
  - In-school supervision
• How can teachers assess behavior and social skills?
  Behavior: Behavior identification and observational techniques
  Social skills: Sociometric survey and sociogram
• What curriculum and instructional interventions can teachers use to teach social skills?
  Curriculum programs
  Instructional interventions: coaching, modeling, role-playing, problem solving

Revisit the OPENING challenge

Check your answers to the Reflection Questions from the Opening Challenge and revise them based on what you have learned.

1. What advice would you offer Ms. Martinez about getting to know her students better?
2. How can she foster student relationships and communication?
3. How can Ms. Martinez help her students with their behavior?
4. How can she facilitate the students’ social skills?
5. How can she determine if behavior and social skills are improving?
6. How can Ms. Martinez use the ADAPT framework to promote positive behavior and facilitate social skills?

Professional Standards and Licensure

CEC Knowledge and Skill Core Standard and Associated Subcategories

CEC Content Standard #4: Instructional Strategies
Special educators select, adapt, and use instructional strategies to promote challenging learning results in general and special curricula and to appropriately modify learning environments for individuals with disabilities. They enhance the learning of critical thinking, problem solving, and performance skills of individuals with disabilities, and increase their self-awareness, self-management, self-control, self-reliance, and self-esteem.

CEC Content Standard #5: Learning Environments and Social Interactions
Special educators actively create learning environments for students with disabilities that foster cultural understanding, safety and emotional well being, positive social interactions, and active engagement. Special educators shape environments to encourage the independence, self-motivation, self-direction, personal empowerment, and self-advocacy of individuals with disabilities. Special educators use direct motivational and instructional interventions with individuals with disabilities to teach them to respond effectively to current expectations.

CEC Content Standard #8: Assessment
Special educators conduct formal and informal assessments of behavior, learning, achievement, and environments to design learning experiences that support the growth and development of individuals with disabilities.

CEC Content Standard #9: Professional and Ethical Practice
Special educators view themselves as lifelong learners and regularly reflect on and adjust their practice. Special educators are aware of how their own and others attitudes, behaviors, and ways of communicating can influence their practice. Special educators understand that culture and language can interact with exceptionalities, and are sensitive to the many aspects of diversity of individuals with ELN and their families.
INTASC Core Principle
and Associated Special
Education Subcategories

4. Instructional Strategies
   4.07 All teachers use strategies that promote the independence, self-control, and self-advocacy of students with disabilities.

5. Learning Environment
   5.02 All teachers help students with disabilities develop positive strategies for coping with frustrations in the learning situation that may be associated with their disability.
   5.03 All teachers take deliberate action to promote positive social relationships among students with disabilities.

9. Teacher Reflection
   9.04 All teachers reflect on the potential interaction between a student’s cultural experiences and their disability. Teachers regularly question the extent to which they may be interpreting student responses.

Praxis II: Education of Exceptional Students:
Core Content Knowledge

I. Understanding Exceptionalities
   Human development and behavior as related to students with disabilities, including:
   • Social and emotional development and behavior.

III. Delivery of Services to Students
   Curriculum and instruction and their implementation across the continuum of educational placements, including:
   • Instructional development for implementation.
   • Teaching strategies and methods.
   • Instructional format and components.

   Assessment, including:
   • How to select, construct, conduct, and modify informal assessments.

   Structuring and managing the learning environment, including:
   • Classroom management techniques.
   • Ethical considerations inherent in behavior management.

   Professional roles, including:
   • Influence of teacher attitudes, values and behaviors on the learning of exceptional students.

   Communicating with parents, guardians, and appropriate community collaborators.

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   An archive of real-life cases
   Help with your research papers using Research Navigator®

   Career Center with resources for:
   Praxis exams and licensure preparation
   Professional portfolio development
   Job search and interview techniques
   Lesson planning with state standard correlations

To access chapter objectives, practice tests, weblinks, and flashcards, go to the companion website at www.ablongman.com/bryant1e.