Chapter 4
Promoting Social Acceptance and Managing Behavior
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Chapter 4

Promoting Social Acceptance and Managing Behavior
As Donna Douglas listened to her son, Jeff, playing with a classmate in his room, she closed her eyes and flinched when Jeff said, “That’s not how you do it. I know how to do it. Give it to me.” She hoped that the classmate would understand Jeff and not find her son’s difficulty in interacting with others so disagreeable that the classmate would not return. Donna knew that Jeff was not mean or cruel, but he had a difficult time with interpersonal communication. He had trouble making and maintaining friends. He didn’t seem to know how to listen and respond to others, and he often expressed himself harshly and inconsiderately.

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

Jeff and Malik both have difficulties with social skills. Many students with learning and behavior problems have a hard time in school, at home, and work because of how they interact with others. This chapter will help you to understand the social characteristics of students who have learning and behavior problems. This chapter will explore how these students are perceived by others and how they respond to others. In addition, interventions that can be used to improve the social behaviors of students will be presented, along with programs and activities that can assist in teaching interpersonal social skills. First we discuss how teachers can effectively arrange the physical and instructional environment of the special education classroom to promote success.
FOCUS Question 1. How should teachers arrange the physical and instructional environment of the inclusive classroom to promote prosocial behavior?

Preparing the Physical and Instructional Environment

As she completed her first year of teaching as a junior high special education teacher, Ms. Habib commented, I’m really looking forward to next year. The first year of teaching has to be the hardest. There is so much to get organized at the beginning of the year, so many decisions to be made, and so many new routines and procedures to learn. You have to figure out what your resources are as well as the students’ needs. You also have to decide what type of instructional program you want. Based on this, you need to determine how to arrange the room to facilitate learning, what materials to select or develop, and how to organize the materials so that the students can find them easily. You must decide how to group the students and how to schedule them into the room. In comparison to this year, next year should be a breeze. I’ll be able to spend much more time refining my teaching skills, focusing on the students, and strengthening the program.

In many ways, Ms. Habib is a manager, as are all teachers. At the beginning of the year, management decisions are made at a fast and furious pace. We will explore some of the decisions that teachers have to consider in getting started and look at some options they might consider in making those decisions. Additionally, promoting social acceptance of students and managing the classroom to ensure positive behavior is a critical part of every teacher’s job and will be described in this chapter.

Arranging the Environment

In Chapter 1, we discussed how the teaching–learning process takes place within a specific context. Making this context or environment pleasant and conducive to learning can facilitate the teaching–learning process. Teachers should consider both the instructional arrangement and the physical arrangement of that context.

Instructional Arrangement

The term *instructional arrangement* refers to the manner in which a teacher groups students and the learning format the teacher selects. Inclusive settings require arranging grouping instruction with general education teachers. Generally, there are six instructional arrangements: large group instruction, small group instruction, one-to-one instruction, independent learning, collaborative learning, and peer teaching (Mercer and Mercer, 2005). Most teachers want to have the flexibility to provide for several different instructional arrangements within their classrooms.

**Large Group Instruction.** In large group instruction, a teacher usually provides support or explicit instruction to a group of six or more students. Large group instruction is appropriate when the goal of instruction is similar for all students. Teachers often use this type of instructional arrangement when preteaching vocabulary, introducing reading comprehension strategies, reading aloud and asking questions, or proving information that may be useful to a large group of students. This arrangement can be used both for didactic instruction (i.e., instruction in which one person, usually the teacher, provides information) and for interactive instruction (i.e., when students and teachers discuss and share information). In large group instruction, students generally have less opportunity to get feedback about their performance and less opportunity to receive corrective feedback. Because large group instruction is the most frequently used arrangement in general education classrooms, students with reading difficulties can benefit from opportunities to learn in other grouping formats, particularly small group instruction.

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

- Ask all students a comprehension question, and then ask them to discuss their answer with a partner. This gives all students in the group an opportunity to reflect and comment on the question. 
- Provide a whiteboard and a marker or paper and pencil to all students in the large group. Ask them to write words, sentences, letters, or answers as you instruct the group as a whole.
- Use informal member checks to determine whether students in the group agree, disagree, or have a question about an issue related to comprehension or story retelling.
• Ask selected students to provide in their own words a summary of points of view that have been expressed by several different students in the group.
• Distribute lesson reminder sheets that provide students with a structure for answering questions about what they learned from a lesson, what they liked about what they learned, and what else they would like to learn. This increases the likelihood that students will attend to lessons and learn more.

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

Same-ability, or homogeneous, groups are often used for teaching specific reading skills, because students can be grouped by reading level, particularly for beginning reading instruction. In using small group instruction, a teacher usually involves one group of students while the remaining students participate in independent learning, cooperative learning, or peer tutoring. Sometimes teachers who work in resource rooms schedule students so that only two to five students come at one time; thus, all the students can participate in small group instruction at once. Many teachers prefer using a horseshoe table arrangement for small group instruction because it allows them to easily reach the materials in front of each student in the group.

See the section on coteaching at the end of this chapter for more ideas about how a reading specialist and/or special education teacher and general education teacher can work together to manage a variety of instructional grouping arrangements for reading in one classroom.

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

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

**One-to-One Instruction.** One-to-one instruction occurs when a teacher works individually with a student. This instructional arrangement allows the teacher to provide intensive instruction, closely monitoring student progress and modifying and adapting procedures to match the student’s learning patterns. The Fernald (VAKT) method of teaching word identification and Reading Recovery, discussed in Chapter 7, recommend a one-to-one instructional arrangement. At least some one-to-one instruction is recommended for students with learning and behavior problems, because it provides them with some time each day to ask questions and receive assistance from the teacher. The major drawback of one-to-one instruction is that while one student is working with the teacher, the other students need to be actively engaged in learning. To accomplish this, independent learning, collaborative learning, and peer tutoring are frequently used.

**Independent Learning.** Independent learning is one way to enable students to practice skills about which they have already received instruction and have acquired some proficiency in (Stephens, 1977; Wallace and Kauffman, 1986). We frequently associate independent learning with individual worksheets, but computer activities or various assignments such as listening to an audio book, writing a story, reading a library book, or making a map for a social studies unit can also be independent learning activities.

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

Cooperative Learning. Cooperative learning occurs when students work together and use each other as a resource for learning. Four basic elements need to be included for small group learning to be cooperative: interdependence, individual accountability, collaborative skills, and group processing (Johnson, Johnson, and Holubec, 1993; Slavin, 1987, 1991). Interdependence is facilitated by creating a learning environment in which students perceive that the goal of the group is for all members to learn, that rewards are based on group performance, that all members of the group will receive the materials needed to complete the task, and that students have complementary roles that foster the division of labor. Collaborative skills are required for a group to work together effectively. Teachers should teach collaborative skills explicitly by defining skills and their importance, modeling how the skills are used, allowing students to practice skills in cooperative groups, and providing students with corrective feedback (Putnam, 1998).

Individual accountability ensures that each student is responsible for learning the required material and contributing to the group. Teacher evaluations (e.g., quizzes, individual products) can help to determine whether each student has learned the material. Students can also use progress monitoring forms to track their own behavior and progress. Progress monitoring forms might include questions such as How did I contribute to the learning of the group today? and In what way did I help or not help my group to complete our work? Group processing refers to giving the students the opportunity to discuss how well they are achieving their goals and working together (Johnson and Johnson, 1984a). Apply the Concept 4.1 provides additional guidelines for including students with disabilities in cooperative learning groups.

Apply the Concept 4.1

Guidelines for Including Students with Special Needs in Cooperative Learning Activities

When students with disabilities are included in a cooperative group lesson in the general education classroom, teachers may consider the following during planning (Johnson, Johnson, and Holubec, 1993; Stevens and Slavin, 1995):

- Adjust group size, and create heterogeneous groups of students who are likely to work well together. Would some students benefit from three students in a group instead of four or five?
- Consider each student’s IEP goals and academic strengths and weaknesses when assigning roles. For example, modifications in materials may be necessary if a student with below-grade level reading skills is assigned the role of reading directions.
- Arrange the room to ensure face-to-face interaction between students and to make groups easily accessible to the teacher. Round tables work well, but chairs clustered together or open floor areas can also be used.
- Inform students of criteria for both academic and interpersonal success. Some teachers hand out a grading rubric with an outline of specific criteria for grading in each area of evaluation (e.g., creativity, neatness, group work, correct information, quiz).
- Provide minilessons before and/or during the cooperative group activity to teach academic or cooperative skills. Students need to know what group work “looks like,” and many teachers conduct several lessons on how to work in cooperative groups before beginning the learning activities. Teachers can also provide small doses of instruction to individual groups during the activity as needed.
- Monitor and evaluate both individual achievement and group work. Many teachers carry a clipboard with students’ names and lesson objectives so that they can record student progress as they monitor groups.
- Reflect on the cooperative learning activity and note changes for future lessons. Did the lesson go as well as you would have liked? Did students learn the required material?
Two basic formats for cooperative learning are often used in general or special education classrooms. In a group project, students pool their knowledge and skills to create a project or complete an assignment. All students in the group participate in the decisions and tasks that ensure completion of the project. Using the jigsaw format, each student in a group is assigned a task that must be completed for the group to reach its goal. For example, in completing a fact-finding sheet on fossils, each student might be assigned to read a different source to obtain information for the different facts required on the sheet.

Johnson and Johnson (1975) suggest the following guidelines for working cooperatively:

- Each group produces one product.
- Group members assist each other.
- Group members seek assistance from other group members.
- Group members change their ideas only when logically persuaded to do so by the other members.
- Group members take responsibility for the product.

Cooperative learning can be used to complete group projects in content area subjects, and teachers generally consider it to have positive outcomes for students with learning and behavior problems (Jenkins, Antil, Wayne, and Vadasy, 2003). However, teachers perceive that cooperative learning has greater benefits in terms of self-concept than academic gains. The process approach to teaching writing, discussed in Chapter 9, employs aspects of cooperative learning. For example, students might share their written pieces with each other to get ideas and feedback about their writing, and in some cases, they write pieces together. Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (Slavin, Stevens, and Madden, 1988) uses cooperative learning with a process approach for teaching composition and basal-related activities and direct instruction in reading comprehension. Slavin and his colleagues have also designed a mathematics curriculum using cooperative learning called Team-Assisted Individualization (Slavin, 1984). Using heterogeneous cooperative learning groups in general elementary classrooms, the researchers found that these types of programs paired with cooperative learning facilitate the learning of most mainstreamed special education and remedial students.

Opportunities to participate in cooperative learning experiences are particularly important for students with learning and behavior problems. As well as supporting development of targeted academic skills, cooperative learning helps students experience positive interactions with peers and develop strategies for supporting others. These skills are particularly important when students with learning and behavior problems participate in general classrooms where cooperative learning is employed (Johnson and Johnson, 1984b, 1986; Nevin, 1998).

In orchestrating cooperative learning, it is important to provide students with sufficient directions that they understand the purpose of the activity and the general rules for working in groups. Initially, a teacher may want to participate as a collaborator, modeling such behaviors as asking what the other people think, not ridiculing other collaborators for what they think, and helping other collaborators and accepting help from others. As students become comfortable in collaborating, they can work cooperatively in teams without the teacher’s input.

**Peer Teaching.** In this instructional arrangement, one student who has learned the targeted skills (the tutor) assists another student in learning those skills. This type of teaching takes place under a teacher’s supervision. When using peer teaching, the teacher needs to plan the instruction and demonstrate the task to student pairs. The tutor then works with the learner, providing assistance and feedback. One advantage of peer teaching is that it increases opportunities for the student learning the skills to respond (Maheady, Harper, and Malette, 2001). Peer teaching achieves this by allowing peers to supervise their classmates’ responses.

One important aspect of peer teaching is preparing the students to serve as peer tutors by teaching them specific instructional and feedback routines to ensure success (Fuchs, Fuchs, Mathes, and Simmons, 1997). Students benefit from learning basic instructional procedures for providing reinforcement and corrective feedback and for knowing when to ask the teacher for assistance.

Remember that poor readers show academic and social gains in both the tutor and tutee roles (Elbaum, Vaughn, Hughes, and Moody, 1999). Therefore, it is important to alternate roles so that students get the chance to benefit from serving as both the tutor and the tutee. Research focusing on peer tutoring with special education students has most frequently been used to teach or monitor basic skills such as oral reading, answering reading comprehension questions, and practicing spelling words, math facts, and new sight word vocabulary.
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Studies have demonstrated that partner learning improves a broad array of social and academic outcomes for students with severe disabilities as well as increasing their access to the general education curriculum (Carter and Kennedy, 2006).

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

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

Extensive research on classwide peer tutoring (e.g., Heron, Welsch, and Goddard, 2003; Topping and Ely, 1998) and partner learning reveals that even students with disabilities as early as kindergarten (e.g., Fuchs, Fuchs, Thompson, et al., 2003), as well as secondary students (Calhoon and Fuchs, 2003), benefit when the procedure is implemented consistently (e.g., 30-minute sessions conducted three times per week for at least 16 weeks). Students of all ability levels demonstrate improved reading fluency and comprehension.

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

**Physical Arrangement**

The physical layout of a room should be flexible enough to allow for different instructional arrangements. For example, the individual learning area can be reorganized into a larger group instructional area by rearranging the desks. The small group instructional area can also be used for a cooperative learning project.

Following are eight ideas to keep in mind when developing the room arrangement:

1. To the extent possible, place the recreational and audiovisual/computer areas away from the teaching area. These areas will naturally be somewhat noisier than the other areas.
2. Place student materials in an area where students can easily get to the materials without bothering other students or the teacher.
3. Place your teaching materials directly behind where you teach so that you can reach materials without having to leave the instructional area.
4. If there is a time-out area, place it out of the direct line of traffic and use partitions that keep a student in the time-out area from having visual contact with other students. (See Chapter 2 for principles governing the use of time-out.)
5. Make the recreational area comfortable with a carpet, comfortable reading chairs, pillows, and a small game table if possible.
6. Place all the materials needed for a learning center in the learning center area. In this way, students will not be moving around the room to collect needed materials.
7. Instruct several students as to where materials and supplies are kept so that when students cannot find something, they do not ask you but ask other students.
8. Establish procedures and settings for students who have completed tasks and/or are waiting for the teacher.

**Instructional Materials and Equipment**

Selecting, developing, and organizing instructional materials and equipment are important aspects of getting a program organized. The instructional materials and the equipment used by a teacher have a major influence on what and how information and skills are taught (Wallace and Kauffman, 1986).
One decision a teacher has to make is whether to purchase materials that are already available or develop the materials. Some teachers tend to select published materials for their main instructional materials (e.g., sets of literature books based on different themes or units, several reading programs each representing a different approach to reading such as linguistic and phonic approaches), then develop instructional aids and games to supplement the program (e.g., flashcards, sentence strips, recordings of the stories, board games).

Whether selecting or developing materials, there are several factors to consider:

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

See Tech Tips 4.1 for materials to use to enhance socialization skills and to assist in monitoring and managing classroom behavior.

Selecting Published Materials

Besides considering the factors just mentioned, it is important to think of the cost, durability, consumability, and quality of published materials. Before materials are purchased, it is advantageous to evaluate them. Sample materials can generally be obtained from publishers or found at educational conferences or districtwide instructional centers. Teachers should read research reports that provide information about the effectiveness of materials. When research is not available, it is often useful to talk with other teachers who use materials to determine when and with whom they are effective. Sometimes it is possible to borrow the materials and have the students try them and evaluate them. Appendix 4.1 presents a form a teacher can use to evaluate published materials. It focuses not only on general information, but also on how the material will fit into the teacher’s program. Appendix 4.2 presents a form the students can use to evaluate the materials.

Because most teachers have restricted budgets for purchasing instructional materials, it is helpful to prioritize them according to need. Before eliminating materials from the list of materials you select, determine whether they can be obtained without purchasing them. For example, school districts often have an instructional materials library that allows teachers to check out materials for a relatively long period of time. You may be able to borrow the materials from the library rather than purchase them. Librarians are often interested in additional materials to order; it might be possible to request that they order the materials for the school library. Publishers are often interested in how their materials work with low-achieving students and students with learning and behavior problems. They may be willing to provide a set of materials if the teacher is willing to evaluate the materials and provide feedback about how the materials work with actual students.

Selecting and Using Instructional Equipment

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

Recorder. Tape recorders are relatively inexpensive and can be used in a variety of ways in the classroom. Headphones to accompany the tape recorder allow students to listen without disturbing others. Following are ten instructional applications for recorders:

1. A teacher can record reading books so that students can follow along during recreational reading or use for repeated reading. Apply the Concept 4.2 provides guidelines for recording books and stories.
2. One way to adapt textbooks is to record them.
3. It is helpful for some students to record what they want to write before they begin writing. They can record their ideas and then listen to them as they write their first drafts.
4. Students can record their reading every two to four weeks to hear their progress. After a student records his or her reading, it is important that the teacher and the student discuss the reading, identifying strengths and areas that need improvement. This recording can also be shared with parents to demonstrate progress and document continuing needs.
4.1 Using Technology to Enhance Socialization Skills

Teachers can use computers to enhance socialization skills by encouraging learners to work cooperatively with educational software. Programs that require learners to make decisions can foster appropriate social interactions within a structured game environment. Oregon Train and Amazon Trail from the Learning Company and SimAnt and SimTown from Maxis/EA are examples of simulation software that require players to make simulated real-life decisions and experience the consequences of those decisions. Also see the Virtual Villagers programs at www.bigfishgames.com. Problem-solving software like The Factory from Sunburst (www.sunburst.com) and The Incredible Machine (also TIM: Even More Contraptions) from Sierra (www.siera.com) require users to choose tools and parts and to sequence steps, building machines to match samples or create an animated contraption.

Another use of technology to aid socialization is for learners with behavior problems to graph data about their behaviors using any computer program that has graphing capabilities. As learners compare their behaviors from one day to the next, self-monitoring is facilitated.

Several types of computer programs can assist teachers in monitoring and managing classroom behavior. PEGS—Practice in Effective Guidance Strategies is an interactive classroom simulation that provides a variety of simulated classroom activities to help teachers promote appropriate participation with each learner. Teachers can learn how to apply specific behavioral strategies to match individual needs and observe the results of the interventions. PEGS has versions for preschool, elementary, and secondary classrooms and is available from: www.downloadlearning.com/teachers/pegs.html.

BOSR, an assessment tool that was mentioned in Tech Tips 1.1, is another useful behavior management program for teachers. It can be used to develop detailed intervention objectives divided into several subscales—personal, interpersonal, adaptive, self-management, communication, and task behaviors.

Programs available on the Internet to help with behavior management and behavior intervention plans include the following:


Additionally, many Websites offer classroom management tips and suggestions for classroom teachers. As with other online advice, consider the source. Look for tips from recognized organizations, universities, and experts in the field. Following are some examples of such sites:

1. The Really Big List of Classroom Management Resources http://drwilliampmartin.tripod.com/classm.html
2. Classroom Management Links http://ss.uno.edu/ss/homepages/cmanage.html
3. Dr. Mac’s Amazing Behavior Management Advice Site www.behavioradvisor.com

5. Spelling tests can be recorded so that students can take them independently. The teacher first records the words to be tested, allowing time for the students to spell the words. After the test is recorded, the teacher spells each word so that the student can self-check.

6. When working on specific social or pragmatic language skills (e.g., answering the telephone, asking for directions, introducing someone), record the students so that they can listen to and evaluate themselves.

7. At the secondary level, class lectures can be recorded. Students can then listen to review the material and complete unfinished notes.
8. Students can practice taking notes by listening to recordings of lectures. By using recordings, students can regulate the rate at which the material is presented.

9. Oral directions for independent learning activities can be recorded for students. This can be particularly helpful when a teacher is trying to conduct small group or one-to-one instruction while other students are working on independent learning activities.

10. Many instructional materials contain prerecorded resources.

*Overhead or LCD Projector.* These excellent teaching tools allow users to display the images from a transparency or PowerPoint slide on a screen or blank wall. Transparencies or PowerPoint slides are generally teacher-made, although some come with published instructional materials. Using a projector allows a teacher to model a skill and to highlight, write, color in, and/or point to important information. For example, a teacher may use a projector to demonstrate how to add quotation marks to a story, or a student may use it to demonstrate how he or she worked a long division problem. Using a projector can be easier than a chalkboard for presenting a lecture or leading a discussion because the overhead does not require a teacher to turn around to write.

The following are six suggestions for using an LCD or overhead projector:

1. Keep the amount of information presented relatively limited.
2. Use a different colored pen to highlight important points.
3. Have extra markers available.
4. Use the projector to develop language experience stories.
5. Use the projector to demonstrate editing and revisions in writing.
6. Use the projector along with a think-aloud procedure to demonstrate math procedures such as how to work long division.

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

A stopwatch can serve as an instructional tool and a motivator. For some tasks, it is important that students learn to respond at an automatic level (e.g., sight words, math facts). Students can use a stopwatch to time themselves or their classmates. These times can then be recorded on a time chart (see Figure 4.1). Using these charts, students can set goals, record their times, and try to improve on previous times.

An individual writing board is an excellent tool for obtaining individual written responses during small group and large group discussions. Mr. Howell uses these boards during review sessions in his resource high school history class. During the review sessions, he asks students questions, and they write their answers on the writing boards. He then asks them to display their boards. In this way, each student responds to each question in writing instead of one student orally responding to one question. Mr. Howell and the students believe that...
this is a better way to review because it requires them to think about and answer every question and to write the answers. Writing is important because it is generally required when the students take tests. Although small chalkboards can be used as individual writing boards, white boards and dry erase markers are now readily available.

Flannel boards and magnetic boards are particularly useful in elementary classrooms. These can be used in teaching and learning centers for such activities as depicting stories, spelling words, and working simple math problems. As we will discuss in Chapter 11, calculators are an invaluable tool for students when learning and for teachers when completing many of the routine activities associated with assessment and evaluation.

**Developing Instructional Materials**

In addition to purchasing published materials and equipment, most teachers find the need to develop their own instructional materials to supplement commercial materials. For example, some teachers make sentence strips containing the sentences from each story in a beginning reader. Many teachers develop materials to provide students with additional practice in skills they are learning. Developing self-correcting materials and/or materials in a game format can be advantageous.

**Self-Correcting Materials.** Self-correcting materials provide students with immediate feedback. Students with learning and behavior problems frequently have a history of failure and are reluctant to take risks when others are watching or listening. Self-correcting materials allow them to check themselves without sharing the information with others. Many computer programs and electronic learning games incorporate self-correction. Figure 4.2 presents an example of a self-correcting activity that teachers can easily make.

One key to self-correcting materials is immediate feedback (Mercer, Mercer, and Bott, 1984). The materials should be simple enough that students can learn to use them easily and check their answers quickly. The materials should be varied so that the interest and novelty level remain relatively high.

Another key to developing self-correcting materials is to make them durable so that they can be reused. Using heavy cardboard can increase the durability of materials. Laminating or covering the materials with clear Contact paper are good ways to make materials more durable. Special markers or grease pencils can then be used.

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

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

- Forming word families (e.g., -at: fat, sat, cat, rat)
- Identifying sight words associated with a specific piece of reading material being used in the classroom
- Using semantic and syntactic clues by using the cloze procedure (e.g., For dessert Brian wanted an ice __________ cone.)
- Recalling multiplication facts
- Reviewing information (e.g., identifying the parts of a flower)
The second step is to select and adapt a game that can be used to practice a skill or review knowledge. For example, commercial games such as Monopoly, Chutes and Ladders, Candyland, Clue, Sorry, and Parcheesi can be adapted for classroom use. A generic game board can also be used (see Figure 4.3). Generic game boards can be purchased from some publishing companies. The key in selecting and adapting a game is to require the students to complete the instructional task as part of the turn-taking procedure. For example, when Candyland is adapted to practice sight words, students select a sight word card and a Candyland card. If they can correctly read the sight word, then they can use their Candyland card to move as indicated. When Monopoly is

FIGURE 4.3
Generic Board Game

1. You are on a safari, trying to get to the Wild Game Reserve Station.
2. Begin at Start.
3. Each player rolls a die. The player with the highest number goes first.
4. Roll the die and draw a Game Card. If you answer the Game Card correctly, move the number shown on the die. If you do not answer the Game Card correctly, do not take a turn.
5. The first player to get to the Wild Game Reserve Station wins.
adapted for math facts, students first have to select and answer a math fact. If they answer it correctly, they earn the opportunity to throw the dice and take a turn.

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

The third step is to write the directions and develop the materials. MacWilliams (1978) recommends making a rough draft of the game and testing it. Posterboard glued to cardboard makes a good game board, as does a manila folder. With a manila folder, the name of the game can be written on the tab, and the board can be stored so that the students can scan the tabs to find the game. The materials for the game can be kept in an envelope inside the folder. The directions for the game and a list of materials that should be found inside can be written on the envelope.

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

Organizing and Managing Materials

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

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

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

Scheduling

When teachers talk about the most difficult aspects of their jobs, they often mention scheduling. Special education teachers generally work with between 5 and 10 general education teachers (though it can be as many as 25 teachers) to coordinate pull-out, in-class, and consultation services. Special education teachers also work closely with counselors and teachers at the secondary level to ensure that students are placed in classes that will help them reach the goals and objectives of the individual education program as well as meet graduation requirements. Even special education teachers who work in self-contained classrooms schedule students for integration into general education classroom activities for part of the day. It is essential that teachers work together to find time in the general education schedule that will be beneficial for the inclusion of students with more severe disabilities. In addition to adapting instruction, teachers need to consider whether students will have to be accompanied on their way to the general education classroom (by a student or a paraprofessional), and whether the classroom teacher or a paraprofessional will assist the students during the general education class.

When students spend most of their day in a self-contained classroom, special education teachers are responsible for their entire curriculum. Special education teachers make decisions about how to provide instruction in the various curricular areas (e.g., reading, math, writing, English, social studies, science, art, music) while still providing the students with adequate one-to-one and small group instruction so that the students can reach their educational goals in the academic areas of concern.

Scheduling within the Classroom

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

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

- Schedule time to observe the classrooms in which your students are placed or are going to be placed. This alerts you to the class demands and schedules of the classroom and will help you in planning for your students’ learning in that classroom.

- Schedule time to meet with other professionals (e.g., speech/language pathologist, school psychologist).

- Alternate instructional arrangements. For example, do not schedule a student to participate in independent learning activities for more than 30 minutes at a time.

- Plan for time to provide the students with advance organizers, feedback, and evaluation. In this way, students will know what is going to happen, and they will have the opportunity to think about what they have accomplished.

- Allow for explicit instruction. Sometimes we have students spend the majority of their time in independent learning activities, which results in little time for them to receive direct instruction from the teacher, aide, or tutor.

- Students who are included in general education classrooms still require specialized instruction. Organize time so that students with disabilities in general education classrooms receive the explicit instruction they need to be successful.

- Alternate preferred and less preferred activities, or make preferred activities contingent on the completion of less preferred activities.

- Let students know when the time for an activity is just about over. This gives them time to reach closure on this activity and get ready for the next activity or to ask for a time extension.

- Be consistent in scheduling yet flexible and ready for change.

- Schedule a session with each student in which you review his or her schedule in your room and in other teachers’ classrooms. Be sure that students know what is expected of them.

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

Figures 4.4 and 4.5 present sample schedules for a resource room and a special education classroom. For the resource room, the schedule for one group of students is presented, whereas the entire day’s schedule is presented for the special education program.

**Developing an Overall Schedule for a Resource Consultant Program**

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

1. Providing direct instruction to the students, either in the general education classroom or in a separate classroom
2. Providing indirect instruction to the students by consulting with general classroom teachers and parents
3. Assessing current and referred students
4. Serving as an instructional resource for other teachers and professionals within the school

The time a teacher spends in each of these roles will directly influence the schedule he or she develops. For example, if the teacher’s major roles are to provide instructional services indirectly to students, to assess current and referred students, and to serve as an instructional resource, then little time will be spent in scheduling groups of students in the resource room. Instead, the teacher will serve primarily as a consultant to others. A sample schedule for a teacher who provides direct and indirect support is presented in Figure 4.6.

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

She explains her schedule as follows:

I have arranged for the older students to come in the morning because I feel that I can take over the responsibility for teaching these students reading and writing—the content that is usually taught in the morning in many general education classrooms.
## FIGURE 4.4
Schedule for Fourth- through Sixth-Grade Students

Date: 4/15

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>José</th>
<th>Amelia</th>
<th>Scott</th>
<th>Todd</th>
<th>Carmen</th>
<th>Frank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10:00</td>
<td>Small Group Instruction</td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>Small Group Instruction</td>
<td>Social Studies Text</td>
<td>Social Studies Text</td>
<td>Small Group Instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>Computer Activity</td>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>Using Request Procedure</td>
<td>Using Request Procedure</td>
<td>Reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>with Todd</td>
<td>with Carmen</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10:20</td>
<td>Inferential Comprehension</td>
<td>Small Group Instruction</td>
<td>Social Studies Text</td>
<td>Small Group Instruction</td>
<td>Small Group Instruction</td>
<td>Word Drill Social Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Activity on Computer</td>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>Text with Self-Questioning</td>
<td>Instruction</td>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>Text with Self-Questioning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td></td>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11:15</td>
<td>Practice Computer</td>
<td>Practice Game</td>
<td>Practice Game</td>
<td>Practice Tape Recorder Test</td>
<td>Practice Game</td>
<td>Practice Game</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## FIGURE 4.5
Sample Schedule for Intermediate-Level Special Education Program

### Activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Group 1</th>
<th>Group 2</th>
<th>Group 3</th>
<th>Group 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8:15</td>
<td>Writing Process</td>
<td>Reading: Independent</td>
<td>Learning center: Map reading</td>
<td>Reading: Small group instruction (aide)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students working on reports</td>
<td>Independent learning activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9:15</td>
<td>Reading:</td>
<td>Reading:</td>
<td>Learning center: Map reading</td>
<td>Reading:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Small group instruction (teacher)</td>
<td>Independent learning activities</td>
<td></td>
<td>Small group instruction (aide)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9:45</td>
<td>Reading:</td>
<td>Reading:</td>
<td>Learning center: Map reading</td>
<td>Learning center: Map reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Independent learning activities</td>
<td>Small group instruction (aide)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10:15</td>
<td>Announcements</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10:20</td>
<td>Recess</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10:45</td>
<td>Math: Group instruction (teacher)</td>
<td>Computer lab for Math practice (aide)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Computer lab (aide)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11:15</td>
<td>Lunch</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11:50</td>
<td>Recreational Reading/Writing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:40</td>
<td>Social Studies: Large group instruction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:00</td>
<td>Science: Cooperative learning activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:45</td>
<td>Recess</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2:15</td>
<td>Recess</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2:40</td>
<td>Health—Mon./Art—Tues./P.E.—Wed./Special Activity—Thurs., Fri. (Current: Producing a play)</td>
<td>Computer lab for Math practice (aide)</td>
<td>Group instruction (teacher)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3:10</td>
<td>Earned “fun time” or time to complete work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3:30</td>
<td>Dismissal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I have developed a strong program in teaching reading comprehension, and I am using a process approach to teaching writing. Currently I am using content area textbooks, trade books, and literature for teaching reading comprehension, and the students are working on writing reports, literature critiques, and short stories on topics of their choice. Because I am responsible for these students’ reading and writing, I am accountable for grading the students in these areas. Using this schedule, these students for the most part are in the general education classroom for content area subjects and math. I feel that this is important. When they go to junior high, they will probably be taking general math, science, social studies, and other content area classes. If they have been missing these classes in the general education classroom during the fourth through sixth grades, they will really have trouble catching up. It’s hard enough for these students—we want to give them every advantage possible.

I often provide their reading instruction in content areas such as social studies and science. Thus, while the emphasis is on reading rather than

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**FIGURE 4.6**

Coteaching Teacher Schedule

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

Week of: April 15
knowledge acquisition. I feel that I am extending their background knowledge of concepts they will be taught in social studies and science.

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

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

There are always some exceptions to the general guidelines I use for scheduling. I have three students whom I monitor only in the general classroom. These students see me as a group on my assessment/consulting day. We talk about how it is going and discuss what is working for them and what frustrates them. I feel that this time is critical for their successful inclusion. I also have 2 fifth-grade students who have good oral language skills but are reading on the first-grade level. They come for an additional 30 minutes late in the day, and we use the Fernald (VAKT) method to learn sight words.

I also developed a special schedule for my teachers’ aide. She works directly with students to supplement and enhance skills they have initiated with me.

### Special Considerations for Scheduling in Secondary Settings

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

With the greater use of learning and study strategies curriculums in secondary special education programs, secondary special education teachers may want to consider their role as that of learning specialists (Schumaker and Deshler, 1988). For the most part, they teach classes in learning and study strategies that provide students with the necessary skills and strategies to function in general content classes. These learning specialists may also spend part of their day consulting with the content area teachers/specialists and in some cases may coteach.

### Coordinating Services for Students with Learning and Behavior Problems prior to Identification

If students with learning and behavior problems are to be successful in general education classrooms, making both academic and social progress, then special education and general education teachers need to work together. The strategies that follow can be incorporated into an instructional program whose objective is to assist students in the general education classroom:

- Work closely with other teachers.
- Observe students in all of the settings in which they are learning to determine their academic and social demands.
- Assist teachers in adapting materials, instruction, and the instructional environment to facilitate the students’ needs.
- Monitor the students once they are in general education classes.
- Meet regularly with the students to discuss progress and concerns.
- Communicate frequently with teachers to discuss progress and concerns.
- Suggest that classroom teachers use a buddy system in which a student with special needs is paired with a “veteran” to help the special needs student learn the rules, procedures, and routines of the classroom.
- Coteach to support the integration of students with special needs during instruction.
**Focus Question 2.** How can teachers use classroom management and positive behavior support to promote prosocial behavior?

**Classroom Management**

When someone mentions classroom management, most teachers think of discipline and classroom management rules. In fact, many special education teachers most dread the part of their job that addresses students’ behaviors, largely because teachers think of classroom management as what one does after a student has a behavior problem. Another way to think about classroom management is to consider what one can do to establish a classroom climate that promotes desirable behaviors and reduces inappropriate behaviors. Thus, the majority of a teacher’s classroom management efforts take place before any behavior problems.

Students are taught to have expectations for the behaviors and routines of the classroom. It is important to establish processes and procedures early in the year that provide students with a clear understanding of the class routines and the behaviors that are acceptable within these routines. Organizing these acceptable practices as a group and establishing them early is a critical first step for successful classroom management (Rogers, 2002). One way to inform students of the classroom rules is to discuss the rules with them. The more specifically a teacher defines what he or she wants students to do and not do, the more likely the teacher is to see those behaviors. For example, teachers should consider providing clear expectations about the following:

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

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

The purpose of some classroom rules is to regulate student behaviors that are likely to disrupt learning and teacher activities or cause damage or injury to property or others. In addition to explicit conduct rules, most classrooms have a set of implicit rules under which they function (Erickson and Shultz, 1981). Sharing the explicit conduct rules and demonstrating the rewards of working within the rule system is particularly important for students with behavior problems. Making rewards contingent on full class participation can also assist a teacher because students will encourage each other to work within the rule system.

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

As far as I know, all of the students in this class are here primarily because they cannot cope with the rule systems in regular classrooms. This happens for a variety of reasons, and as a part of our social skills program, we discuss some of the reasons and how to cope with them. But the majority of the day is focused on academic learning. To accomplish effective learning, we have a set of written and unwritten rules that the students and I are willing to operate under. We establish these rules at the beginning of the year during class meetings. In these meetings, we talk about how the school operates and the rules under which it operates, and then we decide what rules we want the classroom to function under. Usually it takes several days to establish these rules. The rules we generally decide on are these:

- During discussions, one person talks at a time.
- When a person is talking, it is the responsibility of the rest of us to listen.
- Work quietly so you won’t bother others.
- No hitting, shoving, kicking, etc.
- No screaming.
- Do not take other people’s possessions without asking.
- Treat classmates and teachers with respect and consideration.
- When outside the classroom, follow the rules of the school or those established by the supervisor.
Each day when we have a class meeting, we discuss the rules, our success with using these rules, and how the rules have operated. Sometimes we add new rules based on our discussions. I involve the students in this evaluation and decision making. Eventually, we begin to decide when the rules can be made more flexible. In this way, I hope that I am helping the students assume more responsibility for their own behavior while at the same time maintaining a learning environment that is conducive to academic as well as social growth.

I think there are three main reasons this rule system works in my classroom. First, the students feel like they own the system and have a responsibility to make it work. We have opportunities to discuss the system and to make changes. Second, we also establish a token system [see Chapter 2] for appropriate behavior and learning. Third, I communicate regularly with the parents, letting them know how their child is performing.

The classroom rules that a teacher establishes depend on the social context of the school and the classroom and the teaching–learning process as described in Chapter 1. Some guidelines to use in developing and implementing classroom rules and management systems follow:

- Have the students help in selecting rules for the classroom.
- Select the fewest number of rules possible.
- Check with the principal or appropriate administrative personnel to determine whether the rules are within the school guidelines.
- Select rules that are enforceable.
- Select rules that are reasonable.
- Determine consistent consequences for rule infractions.
- Have students evaluate their behavior in relation to the rules.
- Modify rules only when necessary.
- Have frequent group meetings in which students provide self-feedback as well as feedback to others about their behavior.
- Allow students to provide solutions to nagging class or school issues through problem solving.

Classroom Management and Student Behavior

Lisa Rosario is a first-year, middle school resource room teacher in a suburban school district. She is not happy with the behavior of the students who come to the resource room. She told an experienced special education teacher in her school, “I feel like I know what to teach and how to teach, but I just can’t seem to get the students to behave so that they can learn. What can I do to make the students change?” The experienced teacher suggested that Ms. Rosario first look at her own behavior in order to change the behavior of the students in her classroom. Figure 4.7 provides a checklist for teachers to evaluate the effectiveness of their interventions.

Ms. Rosario is not alone. Teachers identify classroom management as a cause of stress and frequently cite it as the reason they leave the teaching profession (Cangelosi, 2004; Elam and Gallup, 1989). Following are some guidelines for Ms. Rosario to consider to assist in facilitating more appropriate behavior on the part of her students:

1. Look for the positive behavior, and let students know you recognize it. Most teachers indicate that they provide a lot of positive reinforcement to their students. However, observations in special and general education teachers’ classes indicate relatively low levels of positive reinforcement (McIntosh et al., 1993). Teachers need to provide a lot more positive feedback than they think is necessary.

One of the fundamental rules about positive feedback is that it needs to be both specific and immediate. “Carla’s homework is completed exactly the way I asked for it to be done. She has

FIGURE 4.7

Implementation Checklist

If your intervention is not working, consider the following:

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

numbered the problems, left space between answers so that they are easy to read, and written the appropriate heading at the top of the paper.” A second fundamental rule about positive feedback is that students need to be clear about what behaviors are desirable and undesirable.

A clear list of class rules and consequences is an important step in making classroom management expectations understandable. Rules and procedures form the structure of classroom management (Brophy, 1988; Cangelosi, 2004). Procedures that are part of the classroom routines need to be taught to students. Rules outline the behaviors that are acceptable and unacceptable. A teacher’s criteria for what constitutes a behavior problem is the basis for classroom rules (Emmer, Everton, Sanford, Clements, and Worsham, 1989). Think back to Lisa Rosario who indicated that she had difficulty with classroom management. In further discussion with the experienced teacher, Ms. Rosario realized she had difficulty establishing and enforcing classroom procedures. Once the experienced teacher observed in her classroom and assisted her in establishing routines, Ms. Rosario experienced significantly fewer difficulties with classroom management.

Positive reinforcement is more effective at the elementary level than in middle school, and least effective with high school students (Forness, 1973; Stallings, 1975). This does not mean that positive reinforcement should be avoided with older students, but merely that it should be handled in a different way. Elementary students find public recognition in front of the entire class more rewarding than do older students, who prefer to receive individual feedback.

2. **Reinforcers can be used to encourage positive behavior.** As we explained in Chapter 1, both positive reinforcement and negative reinforcement increase behavior. Most people think that negative reinforcement means something harmful or “negative,” but that is not the case. As we described in Chapter 1, positive reinforcement is the presentation of a stimulus (verbal response, physical response such as touching, or a tangible response such as a reward) following the target behavior, intended to maintain or increase a target behavior. Figure 4.8 lists reinforcers that teachers may want to consider for use in their classrooms.

3. **Use a token economy.** A token economy is a structured plan for delivering reinforcers (tokens) following the display of target students behaviors and/or the absence of undesirable student behaviors. Token economies can be adapted for use in a variety of settings, and have been used extensively in special education (Kazdin, 1989). For example, teachers can post in the classroom a list of desirable behaviors (e.g., raising a hand and waiting to be called on by the teacher before talking) as well as undesirable behaviors (e.g., hitting classmates). Posted along with the behaviors are the corresponding number of tokens (e.g., points, chips, tickets) that students can earn for exhibiting target behaviors and eliminating noxious behaviors. Teachers can award tokens as target behaviors occur and/or deliver tokens after a specific period of time has elapsed (e.g., Terrell receives one token at the start of each hour provided he has not hit a peer during the previous 60 minutes). Teachers can award tokens to individuals as in the previous example, or award the entire class. Either way, the underlying principle is that students will be motivated to earn tokens that are collected and exchanged for previously determined privileges (e.g., a class pizza party or first choice of equipment at recess).

4. **Change inappropriate behavior.** Behaviors that are interfering are the ones that teachers can most easily identify. It is much easier for teachers to list the behaviors they would like to see reduced than to identify behaviors that they would like to see increased. Morgan and Reinhart (1991) identified the following guiding principles to assist in changing inappropriate behavior of students:

   - Do not use threats. Consider carefully the consequences that you intend to use. Do not threaten students with a consequence that you are actually unwilling to use or that will force you to back down.
   - Follow through consistently on the rules you make with the consequences you have predetermined.
   - Do not establish so many rules that you spend too much time applying consequences. You will find yourself continually at war with the students.
   - Do not establish consequences that are punishing to you. If you are stressed or inconvenienced by the consequence, you may eventually begin to resent the student, which would interfere with your relationship.
   - Listen and talk to the student, but avoid disagreements or arguments. If you are tempted to argue, set another time to continue the discussion.
   - Use logic, principles, and effective guidelines to make decisions. Avoid using your power to make students do something without connecting it to a logical principle.


**FIGURE 4.8**

Reinforcers Teachers Can Use to Increase Appropriate Behavior

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

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

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

**Privileges**
- Students are awarded free time after displaying appropriate behavior.
- Students are allowed to serve in key classroom roles after demonstrating outstanding behavior.

**Activities**
- Students are awarded passes that they can trade in for a night without homework.

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

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

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

---

Do not focus on minor or personal peeves.
Focus on the problems that are the most interfering.

Treat each student as an individual with unique problems and abilities. Avoid comparing students’ behaviors or abilities, as this does not assist students in self-understanding or in better understanding the problems and abilities of others.

Remember that students’ problems belong to them. Although their problems may interfere with your work, they are not your problems. Students with behavior or emotional problems are often successful at transferring their problems to others. Students need to learn to resolve their own conflicts.

Students often say or do things that are upsetting to teachers. Recognize your feelings, and do not let them control your behavior. Do not respond to the upsetting behavior of a student by striking back, humiliating, embarrassing, or berating the student.

Solicit the assistance of families and students in putting any problem in writing to ensure that everyone agrees on what needs to be changed.

Get student and family input on the behavior problem and suggestions for what might reduce it.

Set up a plan that identifies the problem, consequence, and/or rewards for changes in

*Source: Adapted from S. Vaughn, C. S. Bos, and J. S. Schumm, Teaching Students Who Are Exceptional, Diverse, and at Risk (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 2007).*
behavior. See Figure 4.9 and Figure 4.10 for a sample behavioral contract and a self-management plan, respectively.

Positive Behavioral Support

In recent years, the principles of behavior management have been applied in various community settings (e.g., school, family) with supports to reduce problem behaviors and develop appropriate behaviors that lead to enhanced social relations. This modification of behavior management principles is called positive behavioral support (PBS). Many schools find that they are coping with increasing numbers of behavior problems, fighting, bullying, discontent among students, and general lack of discipline. This situation does not exist because teachers or administrators are not caring or lack concern about the issue. It occurs because a schoolwide adoption of a consistent and fluent model needs to occur. PBS is a proven model for establishing a positive schoolwide community (Sugai and Horner, 2001).

The focus of PBS is to develop individualized interventions that stress prevention of problem behaviors through effective educational programming to improve an individual’s quality of life (Janney and Snell, 2000). Because behavior is a form of communication and is often related to the context, PBS involves careful observation of circumstances and the purpose of a problem behavior. A significant number of negative behaviors can be dealt with by modifying the environment (e.g., altering seating arrangements). PBS also emphasizes teaching appropriate behaviors to replace the inappropriate behavior in a normalized setting (Janney and Snell, 2000).

Recall from Chapter 2 that applied behavior analysis is based primarily on operant learning principles. The application of these principles to change maladaptive behaviors is referred to as behavioral therapy. The three major components of applied behavior analysis are as follows:

**FIGURE 4.9**

Sample Behavior Contract

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DATE: ________________</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Wangiri will give one point to Joleen when she exhibits any of the following in his classroom:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. She raises her hand appropriately and waits for the teacher to call on her before responding to a question or seeking information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. She sits appropriately (in chair with all four legs on the ground).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. When annoyed by other students, she ignores them or informs the teacher instead of yelling at and/or hitting others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After Joleen has earned 10 points, she may select one of the following:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. She may obtain a 20-minute coupon to be used at any time to work on the computer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. She may serve as the teacher’s assistant for a day.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. She may obtain a 15-minute coupon for free time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. She may have lunch with the teacher and brought by the teacher.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joleen may continue to select awards for every 10 points earned. New awards may be decided upon by the teacher and Joleen, and added to the list. 1, Joleen Moore, agree to the conditions stated above, and understand that I will not be allowed any of the rewards until I have earned 10 points following the above stated guidelines.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>_______________________________________________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(student’s signature)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I, Mr. Wangiri, agree to the conditions stated above. I will give Joleen one of the aforementioned rewards only after she has earned 10 points.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>_______________________________________________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(teacher’s signature)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FIGURE 4.10**

Self-Management Plan

Name: Kiernen Smathers

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

Where Behavior Occurs: Mathematics and Science

Goals:

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

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

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

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

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

The three types of measurement procedures most frequently used are event, duration, and interval time sampling. **Event sampling** measures the number of times a behavior occurs in a designated amount of time. Sample behaviors include the number of times the bus driver reports a student’s misconduct, the number of times a student is late for class, or the number of times a student does not turn in a homework assignment. **Duration sampling** measures the length of time a behavior occurs, for example the amount of time a student is out of seat, how long a student cries, or the amount of time a student is off task. It is possible to use event and duration samplings for the same behavior. The teacher might want to use both measurements or select the measurement procedure that will give the most information about the behavior. **Interval sampling** explores whether a behavior occurs during a specific interval of time. For example, a teacher may record whether a student is reported for fighting during recess periods. Interval sampling is used when it is difficult to tell when a behavior begins or ends and when a behavior occurs very frequently.

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

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

There are many treatment strategies in behavior support that teachers can use to effect change. For example, teachers can use reinforcers to shape new behaviors, reinforce incompatible behaviors, or maintain or increase desired behavior. Teachers can use extinction, punishment, or time-out to eliminate undesired behaviors. Figure 4.11 presents guidelines for using time-out. Teachers may use contracts or token economies to change behavior. These strategies are discussed in the section on operant learning theory in Chapter 2. With these intervention strategies, consequences are controlled by another (e.g., the teacher). Self-management is a procedure in which the individual controls the consequences. Self-management is particularly effective with older children, adolescents, and adults because the control and responsibility for change are placed in their hands. With assistance from a teacher, counselor, or other influential adult, the adolescent implements a self-management program by following three steps:

1. Identify the behavior the person wants to change (e.g., being late for school).
2. Identify the antecedents and consequences associated with the behavior. For example, Kamala says, “When the alarm rings, I continue to lie in bed. I also wait until the last minute to run to the bus stop, and I frequently miss the bus.”

3. Develop a plan that alters the antecedents and provides consequences that will maintain the desired behavior. For example, Kamala decides to get up as soon as the alarm rings and to leave for the bus stop without waiting until the last minute. She arranges with her parents to have the car on Friday nights if she has arrived at school on time every day that week.

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

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

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

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

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

Schoolwide Positive Behavior Support Models.

What does a schoolwide PBS model look like? The first step is to establish a primary prevention model in which the focus is on preventing behavior problems schoolwide (Sugai, Horner, and Gresham, 2002). This requires ensuring that most school goals (80 percent or more) are stated in positive terms. The use of punishment is severely restricted only to emergency and very severe cases. This means that all school personnel know the positive rules that are established and that a concerted effort is made to ensure that all students are aware of positive school behavior and rules. School administrators are also actively involved in knowing and supporting implementation of the rules. This requires establishing contracts with students who have ongoing behavior problems to identify their needs and establish peer and adult support for changing their behaviors. Thus, ongoing progress monitoring is also an important feature. Though initially time-consuming to establish, PBS yields significant results over time, reduces behavior problems, and improves the school climate. For students with disabilities whose behavior problems are so profound that they interfere with their learning or that of their classmates, a functional behavioral assessment is required.

Considerable evidence shows that PBS can be taught to and used by parents/guardians very effectively (Lucyshyn, Dunlap, and Albin, 2002). Parents and other family members have successfully engaged students with severe problem behaviors in alternative behaviors and modified contexts that no longer support their behavior problems. How can this be done? Much like the procedures used by general and special education teachers with students with extreme behavior problems, family members can identify the behavior problems through assessment and then alter their feedback so that the child’s behavior problems are no longer supported and thus become ineffective (Lucyshyn, Horner, Dunlap, Albin, and Ben, 2002). This yields more positive and constructive parent-child interactions.

FOCUS Question 3. What is the purpose of a functional behavioral assessment (FBA), and what are the procedures for developing an effective FBA?

Developing a Functional Behavioral Assessment

According to IDEA, students with disabilities who have significant behavior problems that interfere with their own learning or with the learning of other students must have a functional behavioral assessment (FBA). An FBA and a behavioral improvement plan (BIP) are designed to identify behavior problems of students and to develop an intervention plan to treat these behavior problems. The procedures and practices for developing an FBA are not nearly as well defined as are those for an IEP, and many school personnel still are unclear about how and when to design and use FBAs and BIPs. If a student’s behavior is interfering with his or her learning, an FBA is required. Because it is much more likely that an FBA will assist a student than it will interfere, it is always a good idea to develop an FBA and a BIP.

According to Shippen, Simpson, and Crites (2003), there are several critical steps in designing an effective FBA:

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

Figure 4.12 provides an example of a functional behavioral assessment.
FIGURE 4.12
A Sample Functional Behavioral Assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Target Behavior I:</th>
<th>Baseline Assessment Method:</th>
<th>Baseline Frequency of Target Behavior:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>parent interview</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>teacher interview</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>checklists</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>systematic observation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>frequency counts of target behaviors</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sequence analysis (required)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>norm-referenced assessments</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose of Target Behavior I:</td>
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<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. To obtain something?</td>
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<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. To escape/avoid something?</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Other factors?</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothesis:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Replacement Behavioral Goal:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Necessary Skills?</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
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<table>
<thead>
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<th>Baseline Frequency of Target Behavior:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>teacher interview</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>checklists</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>systematic observation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>frequency counts of target behaviors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sequence analysis (required)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>norm-referenced assessments</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose of Target Behavior II:</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. To obtain something?</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. To escape/avoid something?</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Other factors?</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothesis:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Replacement Behavioral Goal:</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Necessary Skills?</td>
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<td>no</td>
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</tbody>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Target Behavior III:</th>
<th>Baseline Assessment Method:</th>
<th>Baseline Frequency of Target Behavior:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>parent interview</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>teacher interview</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>checklists</td>
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<td></td>
<td>systematic observation</td>
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<td>frequency counts of target behaviors</td>
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<td>sequence analysis (required)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>norm-referenced assessments</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose of Target Behavior III:</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. To obtain something?</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. To escape/avoid something?</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Other factors?</td>
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<td>Hypothesis:</td>
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<td>Replacement Behavioral Goal:</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Necessary Skills?</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
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</table>

(continued)
### Functional Behavioral Assessment Worksheet

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Antecedent</th>
<th>Behavior of Concern</th>
<th>Consequence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[ ]</td>
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<tr>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### I. Committee Determined Target Behaviors

1. ____________________________________________________________________________________
2. ____________________________________________________________________________________
3. ____________________________________________________________________________________

The following persons attended and participated in the FBA meeting:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name:</th>
<th>Position:</th>
<th>Date:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>____________________________</td>
<td>Parent</td>
<td>________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>____________________________</td>
<td>LEA Representative</td>
<td>________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>____________________________</td>
<td>Special Education Teacher</td>
<td>________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>____________________________</td>
<td>Student</td>
<td>________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>____________________________</td>
<td>General Education Teacher</td>
<td>________</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Method for Reporting Progress to Parent:**

- [ ] progress report
- [ ] parent conference
- [ ] other

**Frequency for Reporting Progress to Parent:**

---

Response to Intervention and Classroom Behavioral Support

Many of the fundamental principles of response to intervention (RTI) have been used to support appropriate schoolwide behavior. For example, Sugai and colleagues (Fairbanks, Sugai, Guardino, and Lathrop, 2007; Sugai et al., 2000) emphasized graduated levels of social support as a means of improving schoolwide behavior as well as for addressing the social and behavioral problems of individual students. What does RTI mean with respect to social behavior issues?

• Tier I: As part of a schoolwide behavioral support program, a school might screen for behavior problems and introduce increasingly intensive interventions to meet school, teacher, and student needs. Schoolwide expectations establish appropriate consequences and procedures for reviewing progress toward schoolwide goals. Practices at the classroom level include opportunities for students to participate and be engaged in classroom activities; positive support for appropriate behavior; minimizing transition time between activities; and ongoing feedback and support for academics and social behavior.

• Tier II: In a behavioral support model, students who display similar behavior problems might be provided with an intervention that provides additional supports, prompts, feedback and acknowledgment to ensure that behavioral changes occur.

• Tier III: If the combination of a schoolwide behavioral support model and group interventions is not associated with improved behavioral outcomes, then more specific and intensive interventions focused at the student level are introduced and monitored.

FOCUS

Question 4. What do we know about how students with behavior and learning difficulties feel about themselves, are perceived by others, and interact socially with others?

Social Competence and Social Difficulties

Students with behavior problems often have social difficulties. More than 75 percent of students with behavior problems have problems significant enough for the students to be classified as in need of clinical intervention (Nelson, Babyak, Gonzalez, and Benner, 2003). But what about students with learning disabilities?

Understanding the social difficulties of students with learning and behavior problems begins with an understanding of social competence and the characteristics associated with it. This section discusses the social characteristics of students with learning disabilities and describes the social problems associated with adolescents.

Definitions of Social Competence

We have all met people who seem to know what to say and do no matter whom they are with or what situation they are in. Sometimes we watch with envy as they move from person to person, from group to group—sometimes listening, sometimes talking, but always seemingly at ease. We often refer to these people as socially competent.

According to Foster and Ritchey (1979), social competence is defined as “those responses, which within a given situation, prove effective, or in other words, maximize the probability of producing, maintaining, or enhancing positive effects for the interaction” (p. 626) and, it should be added, without harm to others. Social skills are not a specific skill to be acquired, but rather a set of skills that allow one to adapt and respond to the expectations of society. Social competence is a process that begins at birth and continues throughout the life span. The process of developing social competence begins within one’s immediate family and expands to include extended family, friends, neighbors, and social institutions.

Vaughn and Hogan (1990) have described a model of social competence that is analogous to intelligence in that it identifies social competence as a higher-order, global construct that is made up of many components. Their model of social competence includes the following four components:

1. Positive relationships with others. This includes the ability to form and maintain positive relationships with a range of people, including classmates, teachers, parents, and, at later ages, intimate partners. With students the focus is usually on relationships with peers, parents, and teachers.

2. Accurate/age-appropriate social cognition. This component includes how students think about themselves and others, as well as the extent to which they understand and interpret social situations. This component includes self-perceptions, social problem solving, attributions, locus of control, empathy, and social judgment.

3. Absence of maladaptive behaviors. This component focuses on the absence of behavior problems that interfere with social functioning,
such as disruptive behaviors, anxiety, attention problems, and lack of self-control.

4. Effective social behaviors. This includes the range of social behaviors that are often included in social skills intervention programs. These social behaviors include initiating contact with others, responding cooperatively to requests, and giving and receiving feedback.

The most discriminating characteristic of students with behavior problems is their lack of social competence. These students are referred for special education because of severe difficulty in adapting to society and interacting successfully with others. Among students who are in special education because of learning problems, social competence is also an issue—many students with learning disabilities are perceived by their peers and others as having social difficulties.

Behavior and social adjustment difficulties that teachers identify might be a function of the students’ cultural and home backgrounds. It is useful for teachers to understand the expectations in the culture and home when they interpret the behavior and social skills of their students.

Perceptions of Students with Social Difficulties

The social interaction of students with behavior disorders is often described as having two dimensions: externalizing and internalizing (Cooper and Bilton, 2002). Externalizing behaviors are those that are extremely disturbing or intolerable to others (e.g., aggression, hyperactivity, delinquency). Conversely, internalizing behaviors are those that are more likely to adversely affect the student who displays them than other people (e.g., depression, immaturity, obsessive-compulsive behavior, shyness).

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

When Mr. Kline discovered that Donald was to be placed in his fourth-grade class next year, his stomach did a flip-flop. “Any student but Donald,” thought Mr. Kline. “He’s the terror of the school.” Every teacher who had had Donald in class had come to the teachers’ lounge at the end of the day exhausted and discouraged. The real catastrophe was the effect Donald seemed to have on the rest of the class. Mild behavior problems in other students seemed to worsen with Donald’s encouragement. Donald’s hot temper and foul language left him continually fighting with other students.

This year, he had hit his teacher in the chest when she had tried to prevent him from running out of the classroom. While escaping, he shouted, “I’ll sue you if you touch me.” Mr. Kline had once seen Donald running at full speed down the hall, screeching as though he were putting on brakes as he swerved into his classroom. Mr. Kline knew that next year was going to be a difficult one.

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

Students with behavior disorders who exhibit internalizing behaviors are often less disturbing to others but frequently create concern because of their bizarre behavior. Elisa, in the following example, is a student who exhibits internalizing behaviors.

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

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

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

Externalizing and internalizing behaviors are more frequently characteristics of students with behavior problems than of students with learning disabilities. Students with learning disabilities (LD) typically display less severe emotional and behavior difficulties. However, many students with LD have difficulties in making and maintaining positive interpersonal relationships with others. When compared with their peers without LD, students with learning disabilities are

- Inconsistent and less effective in displaying appropriate conversational skills, and exhibit difficulties in developing these skills (Hartas and Donahue, 1997; Westwood, 2003)
- Identified as being more poorly accepted by their peers even as early as kindergarten (Bryan 1976; Tur-Kaspa, 2004; Vaughn, Elbaum, and Schumm, 1996; Vaughn, McIntosh, and Spencer-Rowe, 1991; Wiener and Tardif, 2004)
- At greater risk for social alienation and rejection from teachers and classmates (Montague and Rinaldi, 2001; Seidel and Vaughn, 1991)
- More likely to be rejected, neglected, and unacceptable by peers (Kuhne and Wiener, 2000; Wiener, 2002)
- Perceived as having lower social status and social skills (Le Mare and de la Ronde, 2000; Stone and LaGrecia, 1990)
- Less accepted by peers even before being identified as having LD (Vaughn, Hogan, Kouzekanani, and Shapiro, 1990)
- More willing to conform to peer pressure to engage in antisocial activities (Bryan, Pearl, and Fallon, 1989; Farmer, Pearl, and Van Acker, 1996)
- Less likely than other students to interact with teachers and classmates (Greenham, 1999; McIntosh et al., 1993)
- More likely to demonstrate higher levels of depression than general education students (Heath and Wiener, 1996; Howard and Tryon, 2002)
- More likely to report higher rates of loneliness and more concern and worry about their close personal relationships (Al-Yagon and Mikulincer, 2004)

Unfortunately, the lower social status of students with LD reflects not only the perceptions of peers but also of teachers. Teachers perceive these students as less socially competent and less desirable to have in the classroom (Juvonen and Bear, 1992; Vaughn, Schumm, Jallad, Slusher, and Saumell, 1996). However, findings indicate that teachers’ perceptions of these students may be influenced by students’ academic self-perceptions and that a cyclical relationship may exist between the two. Meltzer, Ranjini, Sales Pollica, Roditi, Sayer, and Theokas (2004) found that students with LD who exhibited positive academic self-perceptions were more likely to work hard and use strategies in their schoolwork than those who exhibited negative academic self-perceptions. Students with LD with positive academic self-perceptions were rated by their teachers as working as hard as, and academically performing similar to, their peers without LD. However, teachers rated students with LD with negative academic self-perceptions as achieving at below average level in comparison to their peers, and as making limited efforts.

One possible interpretation of the lower social status of students with LD is that it is a reflection of how the teacher feels about the students. The teacher’s negative perception of a student with learning disabilities is conveyed to other students in the classroom, thus lowering the child’s social status and how the child is perceived and responded to by peers. Some research suggests that this cannot completely explain the lower social status of students with LD because strangers, after viewing a few minutes of students’ social interaction on videotapes, perceive students with learning disabilities more negatively than their peers without LD (Bryan, Bryant, and Sonnafeld, 1982; Bryan and Perlmuter, 1979; Bryan and Sherman, 1980). Additionally, as early as two months into their kindergarten year, students who are later identified as having learning disabilities are already more often rejected and less frequently chosen as best friends than other students in the kindergarten class (Vaughn, Hogan, Kouzekanani, and Shapiro, 1990). Whereas teachers view students with learning disabilities more negatively than they view students without LD, teachers are more favorably disposed toward having students with LD in their classroom than they are students who are identified as emotionally or behaviorally disturbed, as having multiple disorders, or as mentally retarded (Cook, 2002; Moore and Fine, 1978). Teachers regard students with emotional disabilities as the most disruptive and the most difficult students to work with effectively within the regular classroom.
In general education classrooms where youngsters with learning disabilities are accepted by their teachers, they are also accepted by their peers (Vaughn, McIntosh, Schumm, Haager, and Callwood, 1993). In such classrooms, these students are as well accepted and have as many friends as other students. It can be speculated that teachers in inclusive settings spend more time with students with LD and therefore have different views toward these students. Wiener and Tardif (2004) found that children in more inclusive settings were better accepted by their peers and had fewer teacher-rated problem behaviors. Thus, an important role of special education teachers is to assist general education teachers in seeing the many positive outcomes of treating students with special needs as accepted members of the classroom.

The educational setting in which students are placed can affect the number of reciprocal friendships that students make and maintain. Reciprocal friends are two students who independently nominate each other as friends. For example, both Marta and Indira write down each other’s names on a list of friends. Low-achieving students, average-achieving students, and those with learning disabilities demonstrated an increased number of reciprocal friendships in inclusive settings. In these settings, the special and general education teachers coplanned, and the special education teacher provided a range of services in the classroom, such as working individually or with small groups of students with learning disabilities and leading lessons and demonstrating adaptations. Students in classrooms where the special education teacher co-taught with the general education teacher for the entire day did not make similar gains (Vaughn, Elbaum, Schumm, and Hughes, 1998). However, a recent study found that although students in self-contained special education classes reported a similar number of friends as students in inclusive settings, these children also reported a lower quality of friendship and more loneliness than their peers in inclusive settings (Wiener and Tardif, 2004). These studies suggest that a classroom climate of high acceptance and expectations can enhance mutual regard and acceptance of students with learning disabilities and low-achieving students and may actually contribute to the quality of their friendships. Apply the Concept 4.2 describes a study examining the social

Apply the Concept 4.2

Does Inclusion Improve the Social and Emotional Functioning of Students with Learning Disabilities?

A primary rationale for placing students with learning disabilities (LD) in more inclusive settings is that these settings are expected to reduce students’ social difficulties and promote peer acceptance and social adjustment. A recent study examined the social acceptance, number of friends, quality of relationships, self-concept, loneliness, and social skills of students with LD and their peers without LD across four educational settings related to the level of intensity of academic support required by the student (Wiener and Tardif, 2004):

High-Intensity Support of Student with LD
- Special education placement for at least 50 percent of the school day
- Inclusion in general education setting all day

Low-Intensity Support of Student with LD
- Resource room setting for part of the day
- Inclusion in general education setting all day with in-class support

Overall, the largest and greatest number of findings were differences in social functioning between students with LD and their classmates without LD, regardless of setting. Regardless of the type of program a student attended (resource, inclusion, self-contained), students with LD scored lower on all aspects of social functioning (e.g., social skills, loneliness, social acceptance, number of friends) than did their classmates without LD.

The social skills of students in more inclusive settings were better than those of students in resource or self-contained settings. For example, students with LD in inclusive classrooms perceived their classmates as better companions, and they were less lonely. Teachers also perceived these students’ behavior as less problematic.
outcomes of students with learning disabilities in four different classroom types.

In discussing the social skills of students with learning disabilities and how others perceive them, it is important to realize that we are talking generally about students with learning disabilities. Not all students with learning disabilities have social difficulties. Many of them are socially competent, making and maintaining friends and struggling to please their teachers and parents. Many adults with learning disabilities who are participating in postsecondary education programs identify their social skills as their strengths.

An additional point to consider is that the findings on the social and behavioral functioning of youngsters with learning disabilities mostly reflect how they compare with their nondisabled peers. Studies that compare students with learning disabilities to their low-achieving classmates find few differences in social status or social or behavioral functioning (LeMare and de la Ronde, 2000; Vaughn, Haager, Hogan, and Kouzekanani, 1992; Vaughn, Zaragoza, Hogan, and Walker, 1993). Thus, low achievement may be a better indication of social difficulties than of learning disabilities per se. A synthesis of research confirms that children with learning disabilities as well as low achievers were at greater risk for social difficulties than were average- and high-achieving students (Nowicki, 2003).

**Characteristics of Students with Social Disabilities**

We expect students with behavior disorders to have difficulty in successfully interacting with others. Students with behavior disorders are identified and placed in special programs because their social problems are so interfering that these students are unable to function adequately with only the services provided by the regular classroom. Almost 75 percent (Kavale and Forness, 1996) of students with learning disabilities have difficulty developing and maintaining relationships with others. This may be because some students with learning disabilities display profiles of verbal difficulties that influence their academic and social performance, often referred to as a verbal learning disability (Rourke and Fuerst, 1992; Shapiro, Lipton, and Krivit, 1992) or an auditory processing disorder (APD; Matthews, 2003). Children with APD can typically hear information but have difficulty processing or interpreting it. Figure 4.13 provides suggestions for

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**FIGURE 4.13**

Create a Learning Community That Celebrates Diversity

- Students are children or adolescents first. Look beyond the ways in which students differ, and respect their common needs and goals to be accepted, recognized, and valued members of the community. The classroom community is a primary source of students’ perceptions of acceptance. Teachers’ attitudes need to celebrate the diversity of students and at the same time recognize that students are more alike than they are different.

- Focus on abilities. Establish an environment in which teachers and students seek and use knowledge about the abilities and expertise of all class members. Myrna Rathkin, a sixth-grade teacher, framed a picture of each student in a decorated star and hung them from the classroom ceiling. Attached to each star were lists of self- and teacher-identified strengths or abilities. All students were encouraged to recognize the knowledge and skills of their fellow students and to discover new ways their fellow students were special. When they did so, they would add them to the list of attributes under the individual’s star.

- Celebrate diversity. Teachers can view students’ differences as something to be tolerated, mildly accepted, or celebrated.

Celebrating diversity means conveying to students the values added by having students as part of their learning community who have different learning styles, behavior profiles, physical abilities, languages, and cultural backgrounds. Sharon Andreaci, a sixth-grade teacher, was thrilled that many students she taught spoke Spanish and represented the cultural backgrounds of several Hispanic groups (e.g., Cuban, Nicaraguan, Colombian, Mexican). She often asked children about their backgrounds and encouraged them to share their knowledge and practices with others. She looked for ways to learn from others by asking such questions as, “Juan, how would you say that in Spanish? Anna, do you agree with Juan? Is there another way to say it in Spanish?”

- Demonstrate high regard for all students. Demonstrating high regard for all students means treating each one of them as special and extraordinary in their own way. It means not having “favorites” even if you think you disguise it. Listen carefully to each student and find something meaningful in what each student says.

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*Source: Adapted from S. Vaughn, C. S. Bos, and J. S. Schumm, Teaching Students Who Are Exceptional, Diverse, and at Risk (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 2007).*
creating a learning community that celebrates student differences.

**Social Interaction**

The type and quality of interactions that students with learning disabilities engage in are different from those of their peers. Students with learning disabilities are more likely than students without LD to approach the teacher and ask questions (Dorval, McKinney, and Feagans, 1982; McKinney, McClure, and Feagans, 1982). Teachers report that questions from students with LD are inappropriate, as these students often ask questions when the answer to the question was just stated. Teachers interact almost four times as often with students with learning disabilities as with their peers; however, 63 percent of teachers’ initiations toward students with LD involve managing their behavior (Dorval, McKinney, and Feagans, 1982). The interactions that students with learning disabilities have with their teachers are often inappropriate for the situation; these students impulsively attempt to display their knowledge, request more time to complete assignments, and request time to speak individually with the teacher to ask questions. Although classroom teachers spend more time with students with LD, the teachers do not view the nature of the involvement during that time positively (Siperstein and Goding, 1985). One teacher describes it this way: “When Carlos raises his hand, I dread it. He usually asks me what he is supposed to do. I find myself trying to reexplain a 30-minute lesson in 5 minutes. I’m sure he can tell I’m frustrated.”

In one of the few studies that have been conducted to examine general education teachers’ behavior toward middle and high school students with learning disabilities (McIntosh et al., 1993), the findings indicated that middle and high school teachers do not treat students with learning disabilities differently from other students in the classroom. There are, of course, positive and negative sides to this finding. From a positive perspective, teachers treated all students fairly and impartially, and although praise was given infrequently, it was given at the same rate both to students with learning disabilities and to students without learning disabilities. From a negative perspective, youngsters with learning disabilities interacted infrequently with the teacher, other students, and classroom activities, and teachers made few, if any, adaptations to increase the involvement or ensure the learning of these students.

However, students with learning disabilities can be taught specific behaviors to increase positive teacher and peer attention (Alber, Heward, and Hippler, 1999; Wolford, Heward, and Alber, 2001). In one study, students with learning disabilities were taught to show their work to the teacher and ask questions such as, “How am I doing?” The results indicated that students who asked questions received more positive teacher attention and instructional feedback. These students also completed their workbook assignments with increased accuracy (Alber et al., 1999). A second study found that when students with learning disabilities were taught how to recruit positive peer assistance, they were found to decrease the number of inappropriate recruiting responses, to decrease negative statements from peers and increase positive statements, and to increase their academic performance. Positive recruitment was done by training students on how and when to ask for help (Wolford et al., 2001). These studies suggest that although students with learning disabilities often play a passive role in the classroom, they can be taught specific behaviors to actively solicit positive teacher and peer attention. This is a simple but valuable tool that special education teachers can use to ensure that their students display behaviors in general education classrooms that increase their likelihood for teacher acceptance and feedback.

**Communication Difficulties**

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

Torgeson (1982) describes the learning style of students with LD as inactive. An inactive learner is one who is passively involved in the learning process, does not attempt to integrate new information with previously learned information, and does not self-question or rehearse. Students with learning disabilities also demonstrate an inactive style during the communication process. While communicating with others, students with LD are less likely to make adaptations in their communication to accommodate the listener. When most of us speak with young children, we make modifications in how we speak to them, such as using simpler words and asking questions to be sure that they understand us. Many students with learning disabilities fail to make
these modifications (Bryan and Pflaum, 1978; Soenksen, Flagg, and Schmits, 1981).

When discussing the reading difficulties of students with learning disabilities, we will talk about their difficulty in responding to ambiguous information in print. In much the same way, students with LD do not request more information when given ambiguous information through oral communication (Donahue, Pearl, and Bryan, 1980). They also have difficulty recognizing and interpreting the emotions expressed by their social partner and identifying deceptive statements (Jarvis and Justin, 1992; Most and Greenback, 2000; Pearl, Bryan, Fallon, and Herzog, 1991). For example, students were presented with stories that had sincere, deceptive, sarcastic, and neutral versions. Each story was followed by questions to determine the students’ understanding of facts in the story, assessment of the speaker’s belief and intent, and evidence used to determine the speaker’s belief and intent. Students with learning disabilities were more likely to believe that the speaker was sincere but wrong, whereas peers without LD were more likely to believe that the speaker was insincere (Pearl et al., 1991). In Most and Greenback’s study (2000), students were asked to identify six different emotions: happiness, anger, sadness, disgust, surprise, and fear. Each emotion was presented through three different modes: auditory, visual, and auditory-visual. Students with learning disabilities had greater difficulties than their peers without LD in perceiving the correct emotion.

The student with learning disabilities is often a difficult communication partner. For example, verbal disagreements during a learning task between students with mild intellectual disabilities and normal-achieving students were examined in one study (Okrainec and Hughes, 1996). Students with mild intellectual disabilities initiated conflicts less often, thus taking on a respondent/opposee role, and used higher-level conflict initiating strategies, such as justification, delay/distractions, and question/challenges, less often. Initiating conflicts less often can prevent the exchanges of ideas that promote intellectual development as well as moral development and social development for students with mild intellectual disabilities. In addition, justifications can be a useful verbal skill for averting conflicts that may result in aggressive or violent acts. It is interesting to note that familiarity with one’s partner positively affects the performance on communication tasks of students with learning disabilities but has no impact for children without learning disabilities (Mathinos, 1987). Perhaps knowledge of one’s partners serves as a motivator for students with learning disabilities to use the communication skills they have.

The communication style of students with learning disabilities appears to be egocentric. That is, they do not appear to be interested in the responses of their partner, and they demonstrate less shared responsibility for maintaining a social conversation (LaGreca, 1982). In a study of the friendship-making and conversation skills of boys with and without learning disabilities, LaGreca (1982) reports that the two groups of boys did not differ in how to handle social situations (positive and negative), nor did they differ in their knowledge of how to make friends. Naive observers identified the boys with learning disabilities as less adept in social situations, as more egocentric, and as lacking in reciprocity in their conversations. The impression is that many students with learning disabilities display communication styles that suggest that when listening, they are just waiting for the speaker to stop rather than being interested in what the speaker is saying.

Individuals with learning disabilities are less able to display interpersonal decentering (Horowitz, 1981) and less able to take on an alternative viewpoint (Wong and Wong, 1980). We know from the communication skills of populations with learning disabilities that they are less likely to make adjustments in their communication with others. It could be that their difficulty taking on the role of the “other” influences both their social relationships with others and their ability to communicate successfully with others. Because students with learning disabilities are frequently rejected by peers, it could be that this communication pattern is sufficiently frustrating to others that they find the student with learning disabilities an undesirable social partner.

Stone and LaGreca (1984) compared students with and without learning disabilities on their ability to comprehend nonverbal communication. Their findings indicated that when attention is controlled for with students with learning disabilities by reinforcing their attendance to the social cues given, they perform as well as their peers without LD. These authors suggest that the attention problems of students with learning disabilities often are manifested as poor social skills.

Problem Solving

Students with learning disabilities often demonstrate difficulties involving their ability to perceive,
interpret, and process social information (Rudolph and Luckner, 1991), which in turn leads to inappropriate social responses and poor social problem-solving skills. For example, when students were presented with vignettes depicting an age-appropriate dilemma, students with learning disabilities performed below average in defining a problem and generating effective solutions (Shondrick, Serafica, Clark, and Miller, 1992). Turk-Kaspa and Bryan (1994) compared the social information-processing and social problem-solving skills of elementary and middle school students with learning disabilities with those of low-achieving and average-achieving students. Results indicated that students with learning disabilities demonstrated an increased tendency to select incompetent self-generated solutions to social situations. Similarly, adolescents with learning disabilities were found to experience difficulties in generating solutions to interpersonal problems (Hartas and Donahue, 1997). Asking students to generate solutions to problems and discussing the consequences of each of the solutions may help students in developing their own ideas about solutions to problems. Additionally, it may help students to choose more appropriate solutions for specific situations after taking into account the consequences of those solutions. All students will benefit from activities designed to help them to generate solutions to specific problems and connecting the effectiveness of the solutions to their consequences.

Aggression

Perhaps the behavior with which teachers are least able to cope is aggression (Hart, 2002). Aggressive behaviors include assaulting others, fighting, bullying, having temper tantrums, quarreling, ignoring the rights of others, using a negative tone of voice, threatening, and demanding immediate compliance. Many students with behavior problems display these types of aggressive behaviors.

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

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

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

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

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

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

- All students must understand what types of behaviors are considered “aggressive.” Teachers can hold class discussions in which examples of aggressive behavior are identified and listed to ensure that all students know what is meant by aggression.
- Teachers can establish a no-tolerance rule regarding aggressive behavior and have a schoolwide plan for how every adult and child will handle aggression from others. No tolerance means that the school has a policy (other than expulsion) for responding to aggressive behavior.
- The teacher can inform students that they will be protected and demonstrate this (Shore, 2003).
- The teacher can provide preemptive techniques to prevent fights. This can include
Stopping heated arguments and monitoring students who do not usually get along:

- The teacher and other school staff can stop fighting immediately and firmly (Shore, 2003).
- The teacher can identify when and where the student is aggressive and attempt to eliminate those situations.
- The teacher can teach students to resolve their own conflicts and mediate difficulties between other students.
- The teacher can ask students to describe what happened before and during an aggressive act (Shore, 2003).
- As a schoolwide model, the school staff can establish a caring and supportive environment for students and adults.

Apply the Concept 4.3 discusses the problem of bullying students with disabilities.

**Appearance**

Appearance may be a more important factor influencing the social status of students with learning difficulties than was previously thought. In a study evaluating the social status, academic ability, athletic ability, and appearance of students with learning disabilities (Siperstein, Bopp, and Bak, 1978), researchers found that whereas academic and athletic ability were significantly related to peer popularity, the correlation between physical appearance and peer popularity was twice as great as correlations with the other two.

Two children from a study by Vaughn, Lancelotta, and Minnis (1988) illustrate this point. Chris was a fourth-grade student with learning disabilities who worked as a model for children’s clothing in a large department store. Her position gave her access to the latest children’s fashions, and she was well recognized by both girls and boys in her class as attractive. When sociometric data asking peers to rate the extent to which they liked others in the classroom were analyzed, Chris ranked first. Her best friend, Carmen, who was also identified as having learning disabilities, ranked second from the bottom by her classmates on the same sociometric test. In looking at the tests of social skills administered to these students, there was little difference between the scores of Chris and Carmen.

In another study, 35 percent of junior high students with learning disabilities exhibited some problem in grooming, neatness of clothing, posture, and general attractiveness, compared with 6 percent of the junior high students without learning disabilities (Schumaker, Wildgen, and Sherman, 1982). Bickett and Milich (1987) found that boys with learning disabilities were rated as less attractive than were boys without learning disabilities. Because appearance is highly related to popularity, it could be helpful to give feedback and pointers to students who show problems with appearance. Many students with behavior disorders display atypical appearance as a means of demonstrating identification with a group or gang. These students may wear their hair or clothing in non-conforming ways to let others know their allegiance. This style may be highly accepted by a particular group and highly rejected by others.

### Apply the Concept 4.3

Preventing Bullying and Teasing of Individuals with Disabilities

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

Following are some facts about bullying (Hoover and Stenhjem, 2003):

- Bullying is the most common form of aggression among youths.
- Many teachers (as many as 25 percent) do not perceive that bullying is wrong and therefore rarely intervene.
- Most students perceive that schools do little to respond to bullying.
- Physical bullying peaks in middle school.

Olweus (1993) has designed a schoolwide intervention program to prevent or reduce bullying. For information on implementing the model, visit the program Website at [www.secondstep.org](http://www.secondstep.org).
Attention Problems/Hyperactivity

Attention deficits and hyperactivity are characteristics that are often observed in students with learning and behavior disorders. Approximately one-third of all children with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) also have learning disabilities (National Institute of Mental Health, 1999). Families report that 3.7 percent of children have both ADHD and learning disabilities (Smith and Adams, 2006). Students with attention deficits frequently display a pattern of inattention, and students with hyperactivity often exhibit patterns of impulsivity; these patterns are evident in a variety of contexts, including home and school.

In the classroom, inattention is manifested in a failure to pay attention to details, careless mistakes, misplacing needed items, messy work, and difficulty in persisting with a task until completion (American Psychiatric Association, 1994; U.S. Department of Education, 2003). Hyperactivity may be exhibited through fidgetiness, inability to engage in quiet activities, difficulty staying seated, blurting out answers, flitting from one task to another, and excessive talking (American Psychiatric Association, 1994; U.S. Department of Education, 2003).

Students with attention deficits and/or hyperactivity can be treated with medication. Several stimulant medications (e.g., Dexedrine, Ritalin) are available that help students to focus by adjusting the parts of the brain that regulate attention, impulse control, and mood (Cooper and Bilton, 2002; Hallowell and Ratey, 1995). The Food and Drug Administration approved atomoxetine, a new type of nonstimulant medication for the treatment of ADHD (U.S. Department of Education, 2003). As with any medication, unwanted side effects can occur. Some of the side effects of stimulant medications include facial tics, loss of appetite, headaches, and difficulty sleeping (Cooper and Bilton, 2002; Swanson et al., 1993). Some children experience unpleasant physical symptoms and are affected by the drugs in some settings but not in others. Most children who receive medication for hyperactivity are under the care of a physician whom they see infrequently. Thus, monitoring the effectiveness of the drug is often the responsibility of family members and teachers. Perhaps the most effective technique for monitoring the effects of drugs is observing the student’s behavior and determining whether there have been significant changes, either positive or negative.

Similarly, educational evaluations can be used to assess the degree to which children’s ADHD symptoms affect their academic performance. The teacher identifies and defines specific behaviors that are indicative of hyperactivity and then charts the occurrence of these behaviors (U.S. Department of Education, 2006). Whereas medication may be necessary for some children, even successful use of medication does not make the learning disability disappear (Routh, 1979; Silver and Hagan, 2002).

A learning characteristic that is frequently affected by hyperactivity is selective attention—the ability to attend to relevant information and ignore irrelevant information (Mason, Humphreys, and Kent, 2003; Pinel, 1993). This characteristic occurs in children with learning disabilities about two years later than in normal children (Tarver, Hallahan, Kauffman, and Ball, 1976). Delayed development of selective attention in children with learning disabilities may be related to a learning style that is more impulsive than reflective. A reflective learner is more likely to be successful in academic subjects such as reading and math, whereas an impulsive learner is more likely to have learning difficulties. One characteristic of impulsive responders is that they do not stop and think before responding (Goldstein, 1995; Merrell and Stein, 1992; Westwood, 2003).

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

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

Self-Concept

How we view ourselves is highly related to our comparison group. Therefore, it is not surprising that students with learning and behavior difficulties often have poor self-concepts. When students perceive their disability in more positive terms, however, they also tend to report more positive global self-concepts (e.g., Rothman and Cosden, 1995). These students are aware of how their learning performance compares with that of others. Students with learning disabilities who also have reading difficulties view themselves more negatively than do students with learning disabilities and normal reading scores (Black, 1974), and older students with learning disabilities view themselves more negatively than do younger students with learning disabilities. In an attempt to interpret the sometimes conflicting results of studies, Morrison (1985) demonstrated that two factors significantly influence self-perception of students with learning disabilities: type of classroom placement (e.g., self-contained, general education classroom) and what aspect of self-perception is being evaluated (e.g., academic, social, behavioral, or anxiety-laden). When achievement is controlled, for example, there are no differences in self-perception measures between students with learning disabilities in resource rooms and self-contained settings (Yauman, 1980). When compared with classmates, the self-concept of students with learning disabilities is not significantly lower either before or after identification (Vaughn et al., 1992). This suggests that placement in a special education resource room had no negative effects on their self-concept.

The self-perceptions of students with learning disabilities can be surprisingly accurate. In general, they rate themselves as low on academic ability (Chapman and Boersman, 1980) and like other children on overall feelings of self-worth (Bear, Clever, and Proctor, 1991; Bryan, 1986). They identify reading and spelling as the academic areas in which they are lower than other children and yet perceive themselves as being relatively intelligent (Kloomok and Cosden, 1994; Renik, 1987). A longitudinal study of students with learning disabilities suggests that they may differ from low-achieving students in that they do not become more negative about themselves as they grow older (Kistner and Osborne, 1987).

What can teachers do to improve the self-concept of students with learning disabilities or behavior problems? A summary of research on self-concept and students with learning disabilities reveals that younger students do not benefit from counseling as an intervention, whereas middle and high school students do (Elbaum and Vaughn, 2001).

Students who excel in extracurricular activities such as sports or music develop levels of self-concept similar to those of average-achieving students (Kloomok and Cosden, 1994). Teachers and parents can provide opportunities for students to demonstrate what they do well and provide encouragement in the areas of difficulty. One parent described it this way:

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

Locus of Control and Learned Helplessness

People who have an internal locus of control view events as controlled largely by their own efforts, whereas those with an external locus of control interpret the outcome of events as being due largely to luck, chance, fate, or other events outside of their own influence. Attributing success to external factors and failures to lack of personal ability fosters an external locus of control (Perry, 1999). Locus of control proceeds along a continuum, with learning- and behavior-disordered children frequently having a high external locus of control, unable to view the cause of events as related to their own behavior. For this reason, they are not motivated to change events that are undesirable to them because they feel that there is little they can do to improve the situation. Mrs. Mulkowsky, a junior high learning disabilities teacher, notes:

My students act as though there is nothing they can do to improve their grades in their regular
classes. They feel that they are unable to succeed in most of these classes, and they give up. They come to my class, sit down, and expect me to tutor them in their regular classes. They act as though it is my responsibility. These students are actually the ones who are still working; others have given up entirely and expect little from themselves and little from me.

It could be that students with learning disabilities have difficulties in social situations because they fail to realize that successful interaction with others can be influenced by their behavior. To assist students in developing an internal locus of control, teachers need to show students the relationships between what they do and their actions’ effects on others and reciprocally on themselves. Giving students ownership of their tasks and behavior and teaching them to set their own goals are first steps toward increasing their internal locus of control (Cohen, 1986). Teachers may also want to interview children to learn more about their locus of control orientation (Lewis and Lawrence-Patterson, 1989). Borkowski and colleagues (Borkowski, Weyhing, and Carr, 1988; Borkowski, Weyhing, and Turner, 1986) have used attributional training paired with specific strategy training (e.g., in the area of reading) to influence students’ use and generalization of strategies. Attributional training helps students see the role of effort in academic success or strategy use. Reasons for not doing well that do not relate to controllable factors are discouraged. Students are encouraged to see the relationship between strategy use and success, “I tried hard, used the strategy, and did well” (Borkowski et al., 1988, p. 49).

Seligman (1975) introduced the concept of learned helplessness to explain the response animals and humans have when exposed to a number of trials in which they are unable to influence the outcome. When subjects learn that there is no relationship between what they do and their ability to affect the environment or reach their goal, they give up and respond passively. Although learned helplessness, or the perceived inability to influence a situation, may be situation-specific, it often generalizes to other learning situations. For example, when a student with learning disabilities and severe reading problems approaches a reading task, the student is often unable to reach his or her goal: being able to read the passage successfully. Students may initially be quite persistent in their attempts to read. However, students who meet with continued failure learn that their attempts are useless and there is nothing they can do to affect the situation; the students then respond as though they are helpless.

Learned helplessness leads to lowered self-concept, lethargy, reduction in persistence, and reduced levels of performance. There is a remarkable resemblance between the descriptions of learned helplessness and the observations of special education teachers about students with learning disabilities and behavior disorders. “Learning-disabled children have been portrayed as no longer able to believe that they can learn” (Thomas, 1979, p. 209).

Apply the Concept 4.4 describes what teachers may be able to do to affect learned helplessness and locus of control.

Social Difficulties That Are Prevalent during Adolescence

In addition to the characteristics of students with learning and behavior disorders that we discussed earlier, several difficulties are prevalent during adolescence that can affect students with special needs. These are the mental health issues of social alienation, suicide, anorexia nervosa, and alcohol and other drug abuse. Why might special education teachers need to consider these difficulties as well as other variables related to social adjustment in adolescents with learning and behavior problems? Perhaps the most important reason is that teachers are often the first to be aware of mental health problems and can be valuable resources for identification and support. The majority of youth and adolescents with self-reported mental health problems were provided special education services (Talbott and Fleming, 2003).

Social Alienation

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

Different school environments trigger feelings of loneliness in students depending on the individual student’s temperament. For example, Asher, Gabriel, and Hopmeyer (1993) found that aggressive students reported the highest levels of loneliness in classroom settings, whereas students described as withdrawn reported increased levels of loneliness in less structured contexts, such as the playground or lunch room (Asher et al., 1993). Thus, it is important for teachers to realize that students who are more withdrawn need additional support to be comfortable in less structured settings. It may be useful to rehearse with them what they can do or to assist them in establishing routines with which they are comfortable in these settings. Pavri and Monda-Amaya (2000) interviewed fourth- and fifth-grade students with learning disabilities to determine their experience with school-related loneliness, which coping strategies the students used, and which intervention strategies the students perceived as useful. Students indicated self-initiated and peer-initiated strategies to be most helpful followed closely by teacher-initiated strategies.

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

1. Offer process-directed praise or criticism (Dweck and Kamins, 1999) such as, “This paper is clearly written” or, “You really concentrated and finished this biology assignment.” Focus on the activity the students are engaged in, such as reading, writing, or art, and avoid person-directed praise or comments such as “You are good in biology.” This will help reduce the amount of external reinforcement needed and instead reinforce student performance.

2. Reduce the amount of external reinforcement and focus on reinforcing student performance. Rather than saying, “Good work” or “Excellent job,” focus on the behaviors, such as, “You really concentrated and finished this biology assignment. You needed to ask for help, but you got it done. How do you feel about it?”

3. Link students’ behaviors to outcomes. “You spent 10 minutes working hard on this worksheet, and you finished it.”

4. Provide encouragement. Because they experience continued failure, many students are discouraged from attempting tasks they are capable of performing.

5. Discuss academic tasks and social activities in which the student experiences success.

6. Discuss your own failures or difficulties, and express what you do to cope with these. Be sure to provide examples of when you persist and examples of when you give up.

7. Encourage students to take responsibility for their successes. “You received a B on your biology test. How do you think you got such a good grade?” Encourage students to describe what they did (e.g., how they studied). Discourage students from saying, “I was lucky” or “It was an easy test.”

8. Encourage students to take responsibility for their failures. For example, in response to the question “Why do you think you are staying after school?” encourage students to take responsibility for what got them there. “Yes, I am sure Jason’s behavior was hard to ignore. I am aware that you did some things to get you here. What did you do?”

9. Structure learning and social activities to reduce failure.

10. Teach students how to learn information and how to demonstrate their control of their learning task.

11. Teach students to use procedures and techniques to monitor their own gains in academic areas.

To reduce the impact of learned helplessness and external locus of control on students’ behavior, teachers may want to do the following:

1. Offer process-directed praise or criticism (Dweck and Kamins, 1999) such as, “This paper is clearly written” or, “You really concentrated and finished this biology assignment.” Focus on the activity the students are engaged in, such as reading, writing, or art, and avoid person-directed praise or comments such as “You are good in biology.” This will help reduce the amount of external reinforcement needed and instead reinforce student performance.

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11. Teach students to use procedures and techniques to monitor their own gains in academic areas.
Suicide

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

After being forbidden to see each other, a 14-year-old-boy and a 13-year-old-girl ran away. Shortly thereafter, they leaped into a river and drowned (Miami Herald, November 9, 1995, p. 10).

Any suicide is shocking, but the suicide of a child or adolescent is particularly tragic. Suicides between birth and the age of 15 are termed childhood suicides. Between ages 15 and 19, they are referred to as adolescent suicides. Many deaths of adolescents are viewed as accidents and not reported as suicide; therefore, the statistics on adolescent suicide are probably woefully underreported (Toolan, 1981). However, suicide is one of the top three causes of death for people under the age of 24 years. In the United States, and there is agreement that the rate of adolescent suicide is on the rise (Cimbolic and Jobes, 1990; Henry, Stephenson, Hanson, and Hargett, 1993; Popenhaven and Qualley, 1998). Female attempts at suicide greatly outnumber those of males (Hawton, 1982); however, male attempts are more frequently successful.

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

1. To escape stress or stressful situations
2. To demonstrate to others how desperate they are
3. To hurt or get back at others
4. To get others to change (Wicks-Nelson and Israel, 1984)

Suicide attempts most frequently occur after interpersonal problems with boyfriends or girlfriends, parents, or teachers (Wannan and Fombonne, 1998). Often, these relationships have had prolonged difficulties. Disturbed peer relationships are a significant contributing factor to suicide attempts. Adolescents feel unique, as if there are no solutions to their particular problems. In addition, adolescents often feel responsible for their problems and are unlikely to seek assistance, thus leaving them feeling isolated (Culp, Clyman, and Culp, 1995). “Life is a chronic problem. There appears no way out. Solutions previously tried have failed. To end the chronic problem, death appears to be the only way left” (Teicher, 1973, p. 137, in Sheras, 1983).

“Suicidal patients are often very difficult because they so frequently deny the seriousness of their attempts” (Toolan, 1981, p. 320). They often make comments such as “It was all a mistake. I am much better now.” Even if they attempt to discount the attempt, it should be treated with extreme seriousness.

Early detection of students who are at risk for suicide can help in providing services and reducing that risk. Students who are contemplating suicide may provide subtle verbal clues such as “Don’t bother grading my test, because by tomorrow it really won’t matter what I got on it” (Guetzloe, 1989; Hicks, 1990; Kalafat, 1990; Popenhaven and Qualley, 1998). Hopelessness may be the best indicator of risk for suicide (Beck, Brown, and Steer, 1989). Other variables that are related to suicide include depression, flat affect, an emotion-laden event (e.g., parental divorce), and isolation. Teachers of students with learning and behavior problems should be particularly knowledgeable about these symptoms since these students, particularly those in special education classrooms, are considered by their counselors to be more at risk for depression (Howard and Tryon, 2002). Also, students with severe reading problems are significantly more likely to experience suicidal ideation or suicide attempts and also more likely to drop out of school (Daniel, Walsh, Goldston, Arnold, Reboussin, and Wood, 2007). Apply the Concept 4.5 presents some warning signs of suicide.

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

1. All suicide attempts must be taken seriously. Do not interpret the behavior as merely a...
plea for “attention.” Do not try to decide whether the attempt is real. The National Mental Health Association (2003) indicates that four out of five suicidal adolescents provide clear signs that they are considering suicide, including the following:

- Direct and indirect threat
- Obsession with death
- Writing that refers to death
- Dramatic changes in appearance or personality (e.g., changes in eating and/or sleeping habits)
- Giving away possessions
- Change in school behavior

2. Develop or reestablish communication with the person. Suicide is a form of communication from a person who feels that he or she has no other way to communicate.

3. Reestablish emotional or interpersonal support. Suicide is an expression of alienation, and the person needs to be reconnected with significant others.

4. Involve the adolescent in individual and/or family therapy. Often, the adolescent feels unable to establish communication with a significant person (e.g., a parent) and needs assistance from another to do so.

5. Work with the youngster to identify the problem or problems and to provide realistic practical solutions to the problems.

6. Devise a “no-kill” contract that requires a student to promise in writing not to inflict harm on himself or herself. Students who have agreed to such a contract tend to find it more difficult to follow through with plans of suicide (Pfeffer, 1986).

Rourke and colleagues (Rourke, Young, and Leenaars, 1989) have identified a specific subtype of learning disabilities that put students at risk for depression and suicide. This nonverbal learning...
disability subtype includes such characteristics as bilateral tactile-perceptual deficits, bilateral psychomotor coordination problems, severe difficulties in visual-spatial-organizational abilities, difficulty with nonverbal problem solving, good rote verbal capacities, and difficulty adapting to novel and complex situations. Fletcher (1989) urges that students with nonverbal learning disabilities be identified early and treated promptly. Because verbal skills are highly valued, particularly in school settings, it is likely that many students with nonverbal learning disabilities go unnoticed.

Eating Disorders

Eating disorders can take a variety of forms, and different definitions exist (Button, 1993; Tylka and Subich, 1999). Central to each definition, however, is the presence of abnormal patterns of behavior and thought related to eating (American Psychiatric Association, 1994). Levine (1987) indicates that these patterns include the following:

- The person’s health and vigor are reduced or threatened by his or her eating habits.
- Obligations to self and others are affected by isolation and secretiveness related to eating problems.
- The person exhibits emotional instability and self-absorption associated with food and weight control.
- Dysfunctional eating habits persist despite warnings that they are affecting the person’s health and functioning.

Eating disorders are not fundamentally about eating but are multidetermined and multidimensional reflections of the person’s disturbance (Ashby, Kottman, and Shoen, 1998).

Eating disorders are much less prevalent among males; more than 90 percent of cases of bulimia or anorexia nervosa occur in females (American Psychiatric Association, 1994). The highest incidence is in females between the ages of 15 and 24, and these disorders occur most frequently at higher socioeconomic levels (Jones, Fox, Haroutun-Babigian, and Hutton, 1980). The National Center for Health Statistics (2002) estimates that 4.5 to 18 percent of women and 0.4 percent of men have a history of bulimia, and about 1 percent of females have a history of anorexia.

Characteristics associated with anorexia include the following:

- Loss of menstrual cycle
- Sensitivity to cold
- Sleep disturbance
- Depression

Characteristics associated with bulimia include the following:

- Loss of dental enamel
- Low self-esteem
- Anxiety
- Depression

Why someone would deliberately starve herself or himself is puzzling. In attempting to unravel the mystery of eating disorders, researchers have examined several factors that may contribute to the disease, including biological factors, such as malfunctioning of the hypothalamus, and psychodynamic factors, such as an enmeshed family, which makes it difficult for the adolescent to express individual identity; thus, the adolescent’s refusal to eat becomes a form of rebellion. There is little doubt that a combination of these biological and psychological factors contributes to anorexia and bulimia.

Drug and Alcohol Abuse

Parents probably fear nothing more than the possibility that their child will abuse drugs. With the increase in availability and use of drugs in the early to mid-1960s, parents became aware of the numbers of adolescents who were using drugs. A great deal of media attention focuses on the consequences of drug use. Stories of youngsters from stereotypically “normal” families becoming addicted to drugs and committing crimes to maintain their habits are frequently featured in magazines, newspapers, and TV shows.

Parental concerns about the availability and use of drugs and alcohol among adolescents seem to have strong support. The 2002 Monitoring the Future study tracked drug and alcohol use nationwide of students in the eighth, tenth, and twelfth grades. Eighty-nine percent of high school seniors reported that marijuana was accessible; 76 percent and 47 percent of tenth and eighth graders, respectively, reported accessibility. Approximately 95 percent of seniors said the same thing about alcohol and 45 percent about cocaine. Inhalants were assumed to be universally available, while “club drugs” such as ecstasy showed a dramatic rise in seniors’ perception of availability (Johnston, O’Malley, and Bachman, 2003). Availability of drugs is not the only concern. The study also found that 78 percent of high school students had consumed alcohol by the end of high school, more than half
62 percent) of the seniors reporting having been drunk at least once. Among twelfth graders, 57 percent had tried cigarettes, and 27 percent reported being current smokers. In addition, 53 percent had tried an illicit drug by the time they finished high school, and 30 percent had used some illicit drug other than marijuana (Johnston et al., 2003).

Because of the prevalence of drug use, the pattern of drug and alcohol consumption is the most important issue. Typically, the pattern is conceptualized along five frequency points: nonusers, experimenters, recreational users, problem users, and addicts, with both the amount used and the types of substances used escalating as well (Kandel, 2002; Krug, 1983).

Because marijuana use is so much more widespread than that of any other illicit drug, teachers need to be familiar with some of the outcomes of marijuana use so that they can identify and counsel users. Users may suffer these adverse psychological and physical effects:

- Occasional anxiety and suspiciousness
- Impairment of immediate memory recall
- Long-term memory disorders
- Loss of goal-related drive
- Inability to think and speak clearly
- Lung damage
- Increased risk for certain types of cancer
- Flashbacks
- Possible suppression of the immune system

It is quite difficult to use characteristics from checklists to identify drug users. Many drug users are aware of the behavioral and physiological consequences of drug use and employ disguises such as eyedrops and sunglasses to hide their red eyes. They have also learned to control their behavior to avoid calling undue attention to themselves. Teachers most often rely on identifying drug abusers through the abusers' self-disclosures or disclosures by concerned others.

Understanding the difference between drug and alcohol use and abuse is difficult. Though not always easy to distinguish, substance use occurs when an individual actually uses a substance but it is infrequent and does not interfere with their life, whereas substance abuse relates to the maladaptive use of a substance. Many individuals who try illicit drugs do not go on to abuse them, thus providing another distinction between use and abuse (Sussman and Ames, 2001). In other words, behavior that would be considered drug abuse for one person is manageable use for another (Zinberg, 1984).

Teachers should be aware of drug and alcohol terminology, characteristics of users, and consequences (Maxwell and Liu, 1998). Familiarity with local referral agencies providing guidance and assistance to students who are involved with drugs and alcohol is important for all teachers.

Now that we understand social competence and how students with behavior and learning difficulties feel about themselves, are perceived by others, and interact socially with others, let us focus on intervention theory and specific programs and activities for teaching social skills.

**Intervention Strategies**

Understanding and using different interventions in attempting to affect the social skills of students with learning disabilities and behavior disorders is extremely important. There is a wide variety of social difficulties exhibited by students with learning and behavior disorders. Using a particular intervention may be effective with one student but considerably less effective with another student or another problem. By understanding many approaches, teachers increase the likelihood of success with all students. The real challenge is knowing when to use which approach with which child under which condition. The best way to determine whether an intervention is working is to target specific social skills and to measure their progress over time. Though immediate improvement is unlikely, there should be some improvement in four to six weeks; if there is no improvement, the teacher may consider trying another intervention.

There is a range of intervention strategies to assist in teaching appropriate social skills to students with learning disabilities and behavior disorders. The purpose of social skills training is to teach the students a complex response set that allows them to adapt to the numerous problems that occur in social situations. Common goals of social skills training programs include the ability to do the following:

- Solve problems and make decisions quickly
- Adapt to situations that are new or unexpected
- Use coping strategies for responding to emotional upsets
- Communicate effectively with others
- Make and maintain friends
- Reduce anxiety
- Reduce problem behaviors
Working with Families of Students with Social Difficulties

Children and adolescents who are connected with their parents and families are healthier than students who are not (Blum and Mann-Rinehart, 1997). Thus, working with families and engaging them in resolving social and behavioral issues at school and at home is an essential part of a successful intervention program. This is true regardless of the age of the student. Many teachers find it easier to engage families when they are teaching very young children. However, families of older students are critical links to effective social and behavioral outcomes for their children.

It is critical that children and youths with special needs have opportunities to share their hopes and dreams with key individuals such as family members and teachers. The National 4-H Council has identified eight “Keys for Kids” based on the work of Konopka (1973) and Pittman (1991).

1. Security. Children need to feel that they are emotionally and physically safe and comfortable in home, school, and community contexts.
2. Belonging. Students need to feel that they are part of the group at home, in school, and in the community. They need to feel that they have a place.
3. Acceptance. Students need to feel that their opinions and actions are accepted and valued. They need to develop self-worth through their actions and responses to their actions by important others.
4. Independence. Students need to discover that they can accomplish work and play on their own and be successful.
5. Relationships. Healthy and functional relationships at school, at home, and in the community are an essential feature of a healthy individual.
6. Values. Students need to hear the values of people at school and home and use them to build their own values.
7. Achievement. All individuals need to accomplish things and to have pride in what they do.
8. Recognition. Accomplishing things, even small things, warrants recognition and support from critical members of children’s family, community, and school.

Interpersonal Problem Solving

Most people spend an extraordinary amount of time preventing and solving interpersonal problems. Whether we are concerned about what to say to our neighbor whose dog barks loudly in the middle of the night, how to handle an irate customer at work, or our relationships with our parents and siblings, interpersonal problems are an ongoing part of life. Some people seem to acquire the skills necessary for interpersonal problem solving easily and with little or no direct instruction; others, particularly students with learning and behavior disorders, need more direct instruction in how to prevent and resolve difficulties with others.

The goal of interpersonal problem-solving training is to empower students with a wide range of strategies that allow them to develop and maintain positive relationships with others, cope effectively with others, solve their own problems, and resolve conflict with others. The problem-solving approach attempts to provide the student with a process for solving conflicts. Interpersonal problem solving has been used successfully with a wide range of populations, including adult psychiatric patients (Platt and Spivack, 1972), preschoolers (Ridley and Vaughn, 1982), kindergartners (Shure and Spivack, 1978), students identified as mentally retarded (Vaughn, Ridley, and Cox, 1983), students with learning disabilities (Vaughn, Levine, and Ridley, 1986), and aggressive children (Vaughn, Ridley, et al., 1984).

Four skills appear to be particularly important for successful problem resolution (Spivack, Platt, and Shure, 1976). First, the student must be able to identify and define the problem. Second, the student must be able to generate a variety of alternative solutions to any given problem. Third, the student must be able to identify and evaluate the possible consequences of each alternative. Finally, the student must be able to implement the solution. This may require rehearsal and modeling.

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

1. Say what the problem is and how you feel.
2. Decide on a goal.
3. Stop and think before you decide what to do.
4. Think of many possible solutions to the problem.
5. Think about what will happen next after each possible solution.
6. When you find a good solution, try it.

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

The following sections describe several interpersonal problem-solving (IPS) programs that have been developed, implemented, and evaluated with students who have learning and behavior disorders.

**FAST and SLAM**

FAST is a strategy that is taught as part of an IPS program to second-, third-, and fourth-grade students with learning disabilities who have been identified as having social skills problems (Vaughn and Lancelotta, 1990; Vaughn, Lancelotta, et al., 1988; Vaughn et al., 1991). The purpose of FAST is to teach students to consider problems carefully before responding to them and to consider alternatives and their consequences. Figure 4.14 presents the FAST strategy. In step 1, Freeze and Think, students are taught to identify the problem. In step 2, Alternatives, students are taught to consider possible ways of solving the problem. In step 3, Solution Evaluation, students are asked to prepare a solution or course of action for solving the problem that is both safe and fair. The idea is to get students to consider solutions that will be effective in the long run. Step 4, Try It, asks students to rehearse and implement the solution. If they are unsuccessful at implementing the solution, students are taught to go back to alternatives.

**CLASSROOM Applications**

**FAST**

**PROCEDURES:**

1. In each classroom, ask peers to rate all same-sex classmates on the extent to which they would like to be friends with them. Students who receive few friendship votes and many no-friendship votes are identified as rejected. Students who receive many friendship votes and few no-friendship votes are identified as popular. See Cote, Dodge, and Coppotelli (1982) for exact procedures in assessing popular and rejected students.
2. A rejected student with learning disabilities is paired with a same-sex popular classmate, and the pair becomes the social skills trainers for the class and school. The school principal announces to the school and to parents through a newsletter who the social skills trainers are for the school.
3. Children who are selected as social skills trainers are removed from the classroom two to three times a week and are taught social skills strategies for approximately 30 minutes each session.
4. Social skills training includes learning the FAST strategy as well as other social skills, such as accepting negative feedback, receiving positive feedback, and making friendship overtures.
5. While the social skills trainers are learning social skills strategies, their classmates are recording problems they have at home and at school and placing their lists in the classroom problem-solving box. Trainers use these lists as they learn the strategies outside of class as well as for in-class discussion that occurs later and is led by the social skills trainers.
6. After the social skills trainers have learned a strategy, such as FAST, they teach it to the entire class with backup and support from the researcher and classroom teacher.
7. During subsequent weeks, social skills trainers leave the room for only one session per week and practice the FAST strategy as well as other strategies with classmates at least one time per week. These reviews include large group explanations and small group problem-solving exercises.
8. Students who are selected as social skills trainers are recognized by their teacher and administrator for their special skills. Other students are asked to consult the social skills trainer when they have difficulties.

Apply the Concept 4.6 shows an activity sheet used as part of a homework assignment for students participating in the training.

**COMMENTS:** This approach to teaching social skills and increasing peer acceptance has been successfully applied in two studies with youngsters with learning disabilities (Vaughn, Lancelotta, et al., 1988; Vaughn et al., 1991) but has not been evaluated for behavior-disordered students or adolescents.

Based on principles similar to those of the FAST strategy, SLAM is a technique that can be used to assist students in accepting and assimilating negative feedback and comments from others (McIntosh, Vaughn, and Bennerson, 1995). The SLAM strategy is practiced in small groups and presented to the class. The components of the SLAM strategy are as follows:

1. **Stop**—Stop whatever you are doing.
2. **Look**—Look the person in the eye.

**FIGURE 4.15**

Lyrics to the SLAM Strategy Song

Accepting negative feedback, feedback, feedback.
Accepting negative feedback, feedback, feedback.
Stop what you're doing. Look them in the eye.
Fix your face. We'll tell you why.
Accepting negative feedback, feedback, feedback.
Accepting negative feedback, feedback, feedback.
Listen with your ears to what they say.
This is no time for you to play.
Accepting negative feedback, feedback, feedback.
Accepting negative feedback, feedback, feedback.
Ask a question if you don't understand.
Don't stand there in wonderland.
Accepting negative feedback, feedback, feedback.
Accepting negative feedback, feedback, feedback.
Make a response to their concerns.
Accepting negative feedback is the way to learn.

Apply the Concept 4.6 shows an activity sheet used as part of a homework assignment for students participating in the training.

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Accepting negative feedback is the way to learn.
Living, Learning, and Working (LLW) is a program that is designed to enhance listening, attending, empathy, social problem solving, and contributing skills among fourth and fifth graders (Brigman and Molina, 1999). This program can be implemented throughout a school with the cooperation of other teachers or a school counselor. The fourth and fifth graders work with a younger reading partner, and the pair read books that deal with specific issues, such as difficulty in making friends. This program is designed to be implemented in a group setting. The goals of the program are achieved in three phases: working together, learning together, and living together. Figure 4.16 presents the specific goals for each session. Bibliotherapy is a counseling strategy similar to LLW that can be used in the classroom to enhance the self-concept of students. Bibliotherapy also requires the use of age-appropriate books that focus on specific problems that the students are experiencing. Students discuss how they are like or unlike the characters in the book, discuss the characters’ emotions, make predictions about events, and share similar life experiences with the class (Sridhar and Vaughn, 2000). Table 4.1 and Table 4.2 present lists of books along with their summaries to help teachers choose books.

ASSET: A Social Skills Program for Adolescents

The purpose of ASSET is to teach adolescents the social skills they need to interact successfully with peers and adults (Hazel, Schumaker, Sherman, and Sheldon, 1981). Eight social skills are considered fundamental to successful relationships:

1. **Giving positive feedback.** This skill teaches students how to thank someone and how to give a compliment.
2. **Giving negative feedback.** This skill teaches students to give correction and feedback in a way that is not threatening.
3. **Accepting negative feedback.** This skill teaches students the all-important ability to receive negative feedback without walking away, showing hostility, or other inappropriate emotional reactions.
4. **Resisting peer pressure.** This skill teaches students to refuse their friends who are trying to seduce them into some form of delinquent behavior.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Book Citation</th>
<th>Summary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accepting difference in people</td>
<td>Spier, P. (1980). <em>People</em>. New York: Doubleday.</td>
<td>Celebrating the variety of human beings, the book encourages acceptance and appreciation of all kinds of people with all kinds of eyes, noses, hair colors, languages, and so on.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-acceptance; tolerance of others</td>
<td>Cohen, M. (1985). <em>Liar, Liar, Pants on Fire</em>. New York: Greenwillow.</td>
<td>Alex, a new boy in first grade, brags about his pony and rocket car. The other children consider him a liar and reject him. Their teacher gently explains that Alex really wants to be noticed and needs friends. So Alex is given another chance at making friends. The book focuses on being yourself and tolerating others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handling criticism; dealing with emotional hurt</td>
<td>Doleski, T. (1983). <em>The Hurt</em>. New York: Paulist.</td>
<td>Justin finds dealing with criticism particularly painful. Each criticism is shown as a hurt that grows larger and larger until it begins to crowd him out of his bedroom. His father suggests the hurt will go away if he stops thinking about it, and it never becomes big again. The book focuses on effectively dealing with criticism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reassuring late bloomers</td>
<td>Kraus, R. (1987). <em>Leo the Late Bloomer</em>. New York: Harper.</td>
<td>Leo the tiger cub is behind other animals in reading, writing, drawing, and eating neatly. Although his father is worried, his mother assures him that Leo will bloom with time, and he does. The book focuses on assuring late bloomers that children develop at different rates.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friendship helps in difficult times</td>
<td>Dowell, F. O. (2004). <em>Where I'd Like to Be</em>. New York: Aladdin.</td>
<td>This is the story of an 11-year-old girl in a good children's home and her persistence to have a good life. Her friendship with other homeless children opens a door of imagination and inspires dreams of the future.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acceptance of physical appearance</td>
<td>Brown, M. (1981). <em>Arthur's Nose</em>. New York: Avon.</td>
<td>Arthur is unhappy with his long nose and consults a &quot;rhinologist&quot; about changing it. He tries out several other noses such as an elephant's and a toucan's. Finally, he decides to keep his own, much to the relief of his friends. The book effectively deals with accepting physical differences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We are all special; treating classmates kindly</td>
<td>Yashima, T. (1955). <em>Crow Boy</em>. New York: Viking.</td>
<td>Chibi has attended the village school for six years but has been too fearful to learn or make friends. Finally the beauty of his drawings and pictographs and the depth of his knowledge of nature, particularly crows, is recognized by a kind teacher. The book emphasizes individual uniqueness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topic</td>
<td>Book Citation</td>
<td>Summary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We are all special</td>
<td>Leaf, M. (1977). <em>The Story of Ferdinand</em>. New York: Puffin.</td>
<td>A bull calf enjoys sitting quietly smelling the flowers instead of goring the matador in the bullring. He will not lose his temper even when tormented by <em>banderilleros</em> and <em>picadors</em>. The book focuses on the value of individuality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accepting people of various origins; accepting various handicaps; all children enjoy similar things</td>
<td>Brown, T. (1984). <em>Someone Special Just Like You</em>. New York: Holt.</td>
<td>Children of different origins with different handicaps all enjoy similar activities that normal children enjoy. The idea that children are more alike than different regardless of origin and disability is emphasized.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclusion of a blind child; accepting and understanding visual impairment</td>
<td>Cohen, M. (1983). <em>See You Tomorrow Charles</em>. New York: Greenwillow.</td>
<td>The inclusion of a blind first grader into a general education first-grade classroom is described. The class accepts the boy with friendliness, protectiveness, and interest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children with certain disabilities sometimes go to special schools; children with disabilities also have loving, caring families</td>
<td>Fassler, J. (1975). <em>Howie Helps Himself</em>. Chicago: Whitman.</td>
<td>A boy must go to a special school because his legs are weak. However, he learns the same things that all children learn, such as reading and counting. Although he learns many things, his greatest achievement is to wheel his wheelchair across the classroom to his father, who demonstrates love and caring.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People with disabilities may use different things but they are more similar than different from us</td>
<td>Hamm, D. (1987). <em>Grandmom Drives a Motor Bed</em>. Virginia Wright-Frierson. Niles, IL: Whitman.</td>
<td>A cheerful grandmother with paralyzed legs has to spend almost all her time in a motorized hospital bed. But she enjoys telephoning, visits from friends, watching television, and, most of all, seeing her grandson. The idea that she is like most grandmothers regardless of her paralyzed legs is emphasized.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children with learning disabilities also enjoy doing the same things that other children do; children with learning disabilities have home lives similar to those of other children</td>
<td>Lasker, J. (1974). <em>He's My Brother</em>. Chicago: Albert Whitman.</td>
<td>Although Jamie has a learning disability, he enjoys activities that most children his age enjoy. His brother describes Jamie’s problems, abilities, and likes at home and school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognizing and appreciating individual differences</td>
<td>Bradman, T. (1995). <em>Michael</em>. New York: Macmillan.</td>
<td>Michael is not like the other students in class. He is usually late and frequently in trouble. However, Michael has special abilities that have not yet been recognized. His special abilities are indicated through the illustrations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having a sibling with mental retardation; managing conflicting emotions caused by individual differences</td>
<td>Wright, B. R. (1981). <em>My Sister Is Different</em>. Milwaukee: Raintree.</td>
<td>Carlo finds it difficult to accept his older sister Terry, who is mentally retarded. He finally realizes how special Terry is when he almost loses her.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teasing can hurt</td>
<td>Hines, A. G. (1989). <em>They Really Like Me!</em>. New York: Greenwillow.</td>
<td>Two mischievous older sisters tease their little brother who is left in their care. The little boy teaches them a lesson by hiding under the staircase after they pretend to abandon him in the woods. He finally reappears, and they promise to stop teasing him.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicating effectively and standing up for yourself</td>
<td>Drew, N. (2004). <em>The Kids’ Guide to Working Out Conflicts! How to Keep Cool, Stay Safe, and Get Along</em>. Minneapolis, MN: Free Spirit.</td>
<td>It is tough to be a kid in today’s world; it is hard at school and in some homes to choose a peaceful path instead of anger and violence. This upbeat and practical book is written specifically for kids with real-life examples of conflicts and how kids solved them, activities, self-tests, and action plans to bring the ideas into everyday life.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE 4.2
Books for Second through Fourth Grades

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Book Citation</th>
<th>Summary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What it is like to live with siblings with diabetes, asthma, and spina bifida</td>
<td>Rosenberg, M. B. (1988). <em>Finding a Way: Living with Exceptional Brothers and Sisters</em>. New York: Lothrop.</td>
<td>Children talk about how it is to live with siblings who have diabetes, asthma, and spina bifida. They talk about ways in which they help and about the mixed feelings they have about the siblings with medical conditions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The value of a sibling</td>
<td>Zolotow, C. (1966). <em>If It Weren’t for You</em>. New York: Harper &amp; Row.</td>
<td>A little boy dreams about how much better life would be without his younger brother to share things such as cake, the bedroom, and Christmas presents. While dreaming, he suddenly realizes that he would then be alone with all the grownups and begins to see the value of having a little brother.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We are all unique and universal</td>
<td>Shan, E. L. (1972). <em>What Makes Me Feel This Way?</em> New York: Macmillan.</td>
<td>Feelings common to all children such as anger, fear, and shyness are treated as natural, and suggestions are made about understanding and expressing them acceptably.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normality of children with handicaps</td>
<td>Wolf, B. (1988). <em>Don’t Feel Sorry for Paul</em>. Philadelphia: Lippincott.</td>
<td>Paul is a young boy born with unfinished hands and feet and wears prostheses to substitute for his missing body parts. However, he rides in horse shows, wrestles with his sisters, and leads an active life. The normality of Paul’s life is emphasized without ignoring his problems.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


5. **Problem solving.** This skill teaches students a process for solving their own interpersonal difficulties.

6. **Negotiation.** This skill teaches students to use their problem-solving skills with another person to come to a mutually acceptable resolution.

7. **Following instructions.** This skill teaches students to listen and respond to instructions.

8. **Conversation.** This skill teaches students to initiate and maintain a conversation.

The Leader’s Guide (Hazel et al., 1981) that comes with the ASSET program provides instructions for running the groups and teaching the skills. Eight teaching sessions are provided on videotapes that demonstrate the skills. Program materials include skill sheets, home notes, and criterion checklists.

### CLASSROOM Applications

**ASSET—A Social Skills Program for Adolescents**

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

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

**COMMENTS:** The ASSET program has been evaluated with eight students with learning disabilities (Hazel, Schumaker, Sherman, and Sheldon, 1982). That evaluation demonstrated that the students with learning disabilities involved in the intervention increased in the use of social skills in role play settings. The curriculum guide provides specific teaching procedures and is particularly relevant to teachers working with adolescents.

### Mutual Interest Discovery

Rather than specifically teaching social skills, mutual interest discovery is an approach to increasing peer acceptance that has been used with students with learning disabilities (Fox, 1989). The rationale is that people are attracted to others with whom they share similar attitudes. The more we know about someone, the more likely it is that we will like that person. Structured activities are provided for students with and without learning disabilities to get to know each other with greater acceptance being the outcome.

**CLASSROOM Applications**

**Mutual Interest Discovery**

**PROCEDURES:** The overall goal of mutual interest discovery is to participate in structured activities with a partner (one partner with learning disabilities and the other without) to identify things you have in common and to get to know your partner better.

1. All students in the class are paired; students with learning disabilities are paired with classmates without learning disabilities.
2. Students interact on preassigned topics for approximately 40 minutes once each week for several weeks. Preassigned topics include interviewing each other about such things as sports, entertainment preferences, hobbies, and other topics that are appropriate for the specific age group with which you are working.
3. After the structured activity, each member of the pair writes three things that he or she has in common with another person or three things that he or she learned about the other person.
4. Partners complete a brief art activity related to what they learned about their partner and place it in a mutual art book to which they contribute each week.
5. At the bottom of the art exercise, each partner writes two sentences about something new that he or she learned about his or her partner. If there is time, art activities and sentences are shared with members of the class.

**COMMENTS:** Partners who participated in the mutual interest discovery intervention demonstrated higher ratings of their partners over time than did a control group of students. This intervention is designed not to teach specific social skills but to increase the acceptance and likability of students with learning disabilities in the regular classroom. This intervention, paired with social skills training, appears to have promise for success with students with learning disabilities.

### Circle of Friends

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

### Open Circle Program

The Open Circle Program (Seigle, Lange, and Macklem, 1997) is designed to assist students in
developing communication, self-control, and problem-solving skills. The lessons are designed to be used by teachers and can occur one to two times per week. The curriculum has 35 lessons. Although the program is implemented primarily by the teacher, other adults such as parents and school counselors may be involved. Open Circle provides an opportunity to:

- Discuss pressing issues
- Develop a supporting class environment
- Develop verbal and nonverbal ways of creating a respectful environment
- Teach students interpersonal problem solving
- Practice social skills, and
- Enhance self-esteem

The results of a study reveal that students who participated in the Open Circle Program for a full year were perceived by teachers as more socially skilled and less likely to exhibit behavior problems (Hennessey, 2007).

**CLASSROOM Applications**

**Circle of Friends**

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

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

1. During the first meeting, the leader explains to the group why the target student is not present and solicits the cooperation and support of the peers. Students who are participating are first asked to identify only the strengths and positive behaviors of the target student.

2. After the target student’s positive behaviors have been identified, the leader asks students to identify the challenging behaviors that the target student exhibits. The leader makes links between the target student’s difficult behaviors and the types of responses and supports that students could provide. Then the leader requests that six to eight students volunteer to serve as the Circle of Friends. The rest of the students are dismissed.

3. The Circle of Friends meet approximately eight times with the leader and the target student. During these meetings, students are reminded to follow the basic ground rules of confidentiality, seeking adult help if they are worried, and listening carefully to each person.

4. The leader and students identify a target behavior and roles that each of them will play to ensure that the student is able to maintain the target behavior. Students’ role-play and set goals for the forthcoming week. Each week, they review and describe their success and establish new behavioral goals.

**COMMENTS:** Students with emotional and behavioral disorders who participated in the Circle of Friends (Frederickson and Turner, 2003) were better accepted by their peers in the classroom after participation than were similar students who had not participated in such a program. Although the Circle of Friends did not influence students’ overall perceptions of the climate of the classroom, it did (positively) influence their perceptions of the target student.

**Structured Learning**

Structured learning is a psychoeducational and behavioral approach to teaching prosocial skills to students both with and without disabilities (Goldstein, Sprafkin, Gerhsaw, and Klein, 1980). The procedure has four components and can be implemented by teachers, social workers, psychologists, or school counselors. A related program, the Stop and Think Social Skills Program (Knoff, 2003), provides a manual for teachers, a classroom set of materials for teacher and students, and specific lessons for all grade levels from kindergarten through eighth grade.

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

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

**Social Life Program**

The social life program developed by Griffiths (1991) for use with developmentally handicapped adults was modified and used successfully with 9- to 12-year-old students with learning disabilities (Wiener and Harris, 1997). The program is delivered through a board game similar in format to Monopoly that can be played by three to five students. Students take turns throwing the dice. After throwing the dice, the student moves to a colored square and must solve the social problem read by the teacher from a color-coded chart. Depending on the solution, the child receives or returns Monopoly money. The cards are designed specifically to encourage role playing, modeling of appropriate social behavior and problem solving, and performance feedback.

**First Steps to Success: Helping Children Overcome Antisocial Behavior**

The materials for this program contain information for students in prekindergarten through third grade. It has a home-to-school intervention component for young children. The materials include a guide, a homebase coach, a video, and materials to assist with implementation (Walker, Golly, Kavanagh, Stiller, Severson, and Feil, 2003).

**Principles for Teaching Social Skills**

There are a number of points that teachers need to consider, no matter what social skills program they utilize:

1. **Develop cooperative learning.** Classrooms can be structured so that there is a win–lose atmosphere in which children compete with each other for grades and teacher attention, or structured so that children work on their own with little interaction among classmates, or structured for cooperative learning so children work alone, with pairs, and with groups, helping each other master the assigned material. Cooperative learning techniques in the classroom result in increases in self-esteem, social skills, and learning (Johnson and Johnson, 1986). Teachers can structure learning activities so that they involve cooperative learning and teach students techniques for working with pairs or in a group. The following four elements need to be present for cooperative learning to occur in small groups (Johnson and Johnson, 1986):
   
   a. Students must perceive that they cannot succeed at the required task unless all members of the group succeed. This may require appropriate division of labor and giving a single grade for the entire group’s performance.
   
   b. There must be individual accountability so that each member of the group is assessed and realizes that his or her performance is critical for group success.
   
   c. Students must have the necessary collaborative skills to function effectively in a group. This may include managing conflicts, active listening, leadership skill, and problem solving.
   
   d. Sufficient time for group process must be allowed, including discussing how well the group is performing, developing a plan of action, and identifying what needs to happen.

2. **Involve peers in the training program for low-social-status students.** An important function of social skills training is to alter the way in which peers perceive students who are identified as low in social status. Including popular peers in the social skills training program increases the likelihood that they will have opportunities to observe the changes in target students and to cue and reinforce appropriate behavior in the classroom. For example, a study conducted by Vaughn, McIntosh, and Spencer-Rowe (1991) found that popular students who were involved in the social skills training with low-social-status students were more likely to increase the social status ratings of the low-social-status students than were popular students who were not involved in the training.

Even when a social skills program is effective in producing the desired change in target students, it does not always alter the way in which these students are perceived by their peers (Bierman and Furman, 1984). Involving students with high social status with those with lower social status
improves the way in which the low-social-status students are perceived by others (Frederickson and Turner, 2003).

Students benefit from working with peers in supportive and academically structured activities. A recent meta-analysis of the research literature (Ginsburg-Block, Rohrbeck, and Fantuzzo, 2006) revealed that students not only benefit academically when interventions focus on reading and math outcomes, but there is also a small effect for social, self-concept, and behavioral outcomes as well. Thus, there are benefits academically as well as socially.

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

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

- **Body language.** This includes how students walk, where they stand during a conversation, what their body language “says,” gestures, eye contact, and appropriate facial reactions.
- **Greetings.** This may include expanding students’ repertoire of greetings, selecting appropriate greetings for different people, and interpreting and responding to the greetings of others.
- **Initiating and maintaining a conversation.** This includes a wide range of behaviors such as knowing when to approach someone; knowing how to ask inviting, open questions; knowing how to respond to comments made by others; and maintaining a conversation with a range of people, including those who are too talkative and those who volunteer little conversation.
- **Giving positive feedback.** Knowing how and when to give sincere, genuine, positive feedback and comments.
- **Accepting positive feedback.** Knowing how to accept positive feedback from others.
- **Giving negative feedback.** Knowing how and when to give specific negative feedback.
- **Accepting negative feedback.** Knowing how to accept negative feedback from others.
- **Identifying feelings in self and others.** Being able to recognize feelings in both self and others is how students are able to predict how they will feel in a given situation and prepare for responding appropriately to one’s own and others’ feelings.
- **Problem solving and conflict resolution.** Knowing and using problem-solving skills to prevent and solve difficulties.

4. Teach needed skills. Many social skills training programs fail because youngsters are trained to do things that they already know how to do. For example, in a social skills training group with students with learning disabilities, the trainer was teaching the students to initiate conversations with others. Through role playing, the trainer soon learned that the students already knew how to initiate conversations but did not know how to sustain them. In addition to being taught appropriate skills, students need to learn when and with whom to use the skills. One student put it this way: “I would never try problem solving like this with my father, but I know it would work with my mom.”

5. Teach for transfer of learning. Many programs for teaching social skills effectively increase students’ performance in social areas during the skills training or within a particular context, but the skills do not generalize to other settings (Berler, Gross, and Drabman, 1982). For social skills to generalize to other settings, the program must require the rehearsal and implementation of target skills across settings. Social skills training programs need to ensure that learned skills are systematically demonstrated in the classroom, on the playground, and at home.

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

- **Choice.** Students need to feel that they are actively involved in their learning.
- **Consequences.** Students will learn from the natural and logical consequences of their choices.
- **Documented progress.** In addition to teacher documentation of progress made, students need to learn procedures for monitoring and assessing their progress.
- **Control.** Students need to feel as though they can exer-
cise control over what happens to them. Some students feel as though their learning is in someone else’s hands and therefore is someone else’s responsibility.

7. **Identify strengths.** When developing social skills interventions for students with special needs, be sure to consider their strengths as well as their needs. Because appearance and athletic ability relate to social acceptance, these areas need to be considered when determining the type of social intervention needed. For example, if a youngster’s physical appearance is a strength, the teacher can compliment the student on his or her hair, what the student is wearing, or how neat and sharp the student looks. Also, knowing something about the students’ areas of strength can be helpful in identifying social contexts that may be promising for promoting positive peer interactions (Vaughn and LaGreca, 1992). For example, a student with learning disabilities who is a particularly good swimmer and a member of a swim team may find it easier to make friends on the swim team than in the academic setting. Students with learning disabilities who acquire strengths in appearance and athletic activities may have areas of strength from which to build their social skills. However, many children with learning disabilities do not have the motor ability or eye–hand coordination to succeed in the athletic area. Other areas, such as hobbies or special interests, can be presented in the classroom so that the student with learning disabilities has an opportunity to be perceived as one who is knowledgeable.

In developing social skills interventions, it is important to consider the nature of children’s friendships or social support outside of the school setting (Vaughn and LaGreca, 1992). Students with learning and behavior disorders who are not well accepted by their classmates may have friends in the neighborhood or within their families (e.g., cousins). Perhaps the most important point to remember is that if a child is not well accepted by peers at school, this does not necessarily mean that the child does not have effective social relationships outside of the school setting.

8. **Reciprocal friendships.** Reciprocal friendship is the mutual identification as “best friend” by two students; that is, a student who identifies another student as his or her best friend is also identified by that same youngster as a best friend. It has been hypothesized that reciprocal friendships play an important role in reducing the negative effects of low peer acceptance (Vaughn, McIntosh et al., 1993). From this perspective, it may be less important to increase the overall acceptance of a student in the classroom and more effective to concentrate on the development of a mutual best friend. Because it is quite unlikely that all students in the classroom are going to like all of the other youngsters equally, development of a reciprocal friendship is a more realistic goal for most youngsters with learning and behavior problems.

### INSTRUCTIONAL ACTIVITIES

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

#### Please Help

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

**Grades:** Primary and intermediate

**Materials:** A six- to eight-inch card that states “Please Help _____________ [student’s name]” and provides a place to list the date and comments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLEASE HELP JENNIFER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DATE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Teaching Procedures:** Construct the Please Help card for each student, including a place to mark the date and comments. Give all the students a card, and inform them that they are to place the card on their desks when they need help. They are to continue working until the teacher or someone else is able to provide assistance.
When you or your assistant is able to provide help, mark the date and time on the card and any appropriate comments such as “We needed to review the rules for long division,” or “She could not remember the difference between long and short vowels,” or “He solved the problem himself before I arrived.”

**Problem Box**

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

**Grades:** All grades

**Materials:** Shoebox decorated and labeled as “Problem Box”

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

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

**A Date by Telephone**

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

**Grades:** Secondary

**Materials:** Two nonworking telephones

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

1. Telephone at an *appropriate time*.
2. Use an *icebreaker*, such as recalling a mutually shared experience or a recent event in school.
3. *State what you would like to do and ask him or her to do it.* Ask the person whether he or she likes to go to the movies. When there is an initial lull in the conversation, mention a particular movie that you would like to take her or him to, and state when you would like to go. Then ask the person whether he or she would like to go with you.
4. If yes, *make appropriate arrangements for day, time, and transportation.* If no, ask whether you can call again.

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

**Making and Keeping Friends**

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

**Grades:** Intermediate and secondary

**Materials:** Writing materials

**Teaching Procedures:** Ask the students to think of children they know who are good at making and keeping friends. Brainstorm what these characteristics are. Then, after identifying these characteristics, to evaluate themselves in how well they perform.

**How Good Are You at Making and Keeping Friends?**

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

1. I tell friends the truth.

2. I call friends on the phone.

3. I share my favorite toys and games with friends.
children do that makes them successful at making and keeping friends. On an overhead projector or chalkboard, write the student-generated responses about the characteristics of children good at making and keeping friends. Then select the most agreed-on characteristics, and write them on a sheet of paper with smiley faces, neutral faces, and frowning faces so that students can circle the face that is most like them in response to that characteristic. Finally, ask students to identify one characteristic that they would like to target to improve their skills at making and maintaining friends.

**Identifying Feelings**

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

**Grades:** Primary and intermediate

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

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

**I’m New Here (and Scared)**

*By Sandra Stroud*

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

**Grades:** K–12

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

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

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

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

By Sandra Stroud

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

Grades: Primary

Materials: Individual student desks, and colored masking tape

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

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

Introducing People

By Dheepa Sridhar

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

Grades: Intermediate and secondary

Materials: None required

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

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

Invitation to Play

By Dheepa Sridhar

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

Grades: Primary

Materials: Toys

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

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

In Your Shoes

By Dheepa Sridhar

Objective: To facilitate students in taking a different perspective.

Grades: Intermediate and high school

Materials: Cardboard cutouts of two pairs of shoes of different colors, masking tape, index cards with social problems written on them (e.g., "Jake was supposed to go to a baseball game with Ashraf over the weekend. He has been looking forward to this event all week. On Friday, Ashraf says that he would rather go to a movie instead of the game.")
**Teaching Procedures:** Discuss the importance of taking the other person’s perspective. Tell the students this activity will help them see a different perspective.

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

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

**SUMMARY for Chapter 4**

This chapter described the social behaviors of students with learning and behavior disorders including practices for improving classroom management and techniques for using functional behavioral assessment (FBA). Students who are identified as behavior-disordered display behaviors that are inappropriate and/or harmful to self or others. Many behavior-disordered students have appropriate social skills but do not use them or do not know when and with whom to use them. Other students do not have the skills and need to be taught them.

Students with learning disabilities are frequently identified as having social difficulties. As a group, they are more frequently rejected by their peers and teachers. They have been characterized as having social interaction difficulties, communication difficulties, low role-taking skills, and low self-concepts.

Six interventions to increase appropriate social behavior and decrease inappropriate social behavior were presented: intervention by prescription, interpersonal problem solving, behavior therapy, Circle of Friends, positive behavioral support, and ASSET. Intervention by prescription is a model that focuses on the student’s impulse management. Appropriate intervention procedures are applied according to the student’s need for external control or ability to utilize internal control. Behavioral approaches are used when the student has low impulse control and needs external controls; more cognitively oriented interventions are used as the student demonstrates more internal impulse control. Interpersonal problem solving teaches students strategies for communicating effectively with others and solving and preventing interpersonal conflicts with others. Behavioral therapy is based on the principles of applied behavior analysis for increasing and decreasing behaviors.

Positive behavioral support is based on the principles of behavior therapy, but it focuses on improving the quality of life of students along with increasing positive behaviors. The goal of positive behavioral support is to provide individualized educational programs to prevent problem behaviors and enhance social relations of students.

A number of intervention approaches have been effectively implemented to increase appropriate social behaviors. Six of these approaches were discussed in this chapter and provide effective techniques for developing appropriate social behaviors.

**FOCUS Answers**

**FOCUS Question 1.** How should teachers arrange the physical and instructional environment of the inclusive classroom to promote prosocial behavior?

*Answer:* Special education teachers must pay attention to the physical space in which they teach. They should keep books and resources organized and clearly marked, and they should use a variety of instructional arrangements depending on student needs and learning activities.

**FOCUS Question 2.** How can teachers use classroom management and positive behavioral support to promote prosocial behavior?

*Answer:* The use of classroom management strategies is important because it creates an environment with structure and routine so that learning can occur. Teachers should develop procedures, rules, consequences, and reinforcers so that both they and the students know how to navigate the classroom.
and what to expect if something goes wrong. Teachers who implement effective classroom management recognize and reinforce positive behavior as well as identifying and changing inappropriate behaviors. Positive behavioral support (PBS) is a classroom management system that focuses on prevention of problem behaviors through attention to the learning environment. A functional behavioral assessment provides clear guidelines for determining students’ problems and implementing a plan to improve behavior.

**FOCUS Question 3.** What is the purpose of a functional behavioral assessment (FBA), and what are the procedures for developing an effective FBA?

*Answer:* An FBA is designed to identify behavior problems of students, and a behavioral improvement plan (BIP) is used to develop an intervention plan to treat these behavior problems. An FBA is required if students’ behavior is interfering with their learning.

**FOCUS Question 4.** What do we know about how students with behavior and learning difficulties feel about themselves, are perceived by others, and interact socially with others?

*Answer:* Students with behavior and learning difficulties often lack the social competence necessary to engage in effective interactions with others. Although students with behavior disorders by definition lack social competence and generally have severe emotional and behavioral difficulties, many individuals with learning disabilities also struggle to make and maintain positive interpersonal relationships with others. Individuals with learning disabilities often (but not always) have poor conversational skills; may have difficulty perceiving, interpreting, and processing social information; may exhibit aggressive behaviors or attention problems; and may display atypical appearance.

**THINK and APPLY**

- What is social competence?
- What are the characteristics of students with social disabilities?
- What are two types of social interventions that are used with students with learning and behavior problems? What are the procedures for implementing these social interventions?
- What are several principles for teaching social skills to students with learning and behavior problems?
- Why can the communication style of students with learning disabilities be called egocentric?
- How are student appearance and popularity related?
- Why do students whose behavior is aggressive require professional help?
- What advice would you give teachers and administrators who indicated that they had schoolwide problems with behavior?

**APPLY the STANDARDS**

1. Given the emotional and social characteristics of students with behavioral or learning problems (BD1K3, BD2K3, LD2K3) and your knowledge of strategies to improve behavior and social skills (BD1K5, BD4K2, BD4S2, BD5S1, BD4S1), (a) what important classroom features should be addressed to create a classroom environment that promotes prosocial behavior, and (b) what systems should be in place when students exhibit inappropriate behaviors?

*Standard BD1K3:* Foundations and issues related to knowledge and practice in emotional/behavioral disorders.

*Standard BD2K3:* Social characteristics of individuals with emotional/behavioral disorders.

*Standard LD2K3:* Psychological, social, and emotional characteristics of individuals with learning disabilities.

*Standard BD1K5:* Theory of reinforcement techniques in serving individuals with emotional/behavioral disorders.

*Standard BD4K2:* Advantages and limitations of instructional strategies and practices for teaching individuals with emotional/behavioral disorders.

*Standard BD4S2:* Use a variety of nonaversive techniques to control targeted behavior and maintain attention of individuals with emotional/behavioral disorders.

*Standard BD5S1:* Establish a consistent classroom routine for individuals with emotional/behavioral disorders.

*Standard BD4S1:* Use strategies from multiple theoretical approaches for individuals with emotional/behavioral disorders.
2. If you have access to a classroom setting, identify a student who exhibits behavior problems in class. Use the functional behavioral assessment (FBA) sample in this chapter to identify one problem behavior and to problem-solve possible solutions (BD4K4, BD4S2, BD7S2, BD8S2).

**Standard BD4K4:** Prevention and intervention strategies for individuals at risk of emotional/behavioral disorders.

**Standard BD4S2:** Use a variety of nonaversive techniques to control targeted behavior and maintain attention of individuals with emotional/behavioral disorders.

**Standard BD7S2:** Integrate academic instruction, affective education, and behavior management for individuals and groups with emotional/behavioral disorders.

**Standard BD8S2:** Assess appropriate and problematic social behaviors of individuals with emotional/behavioral disorders.

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**WEBSITES as RESOURCES for Promoting Social Acceptance and Managing Behavior**

The following Websites are extensive resources to expand your understanding of socialization and classroom management:

- LD Online [www.ldonline.org](http://www.ldonline.org)
- Kristen Brooks Hope Center Website—National Hopeline [www.hopeline.com](http://www.hopeline.com)
- Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports [www.pbis.org](http://www.pbis.org)
- Institute on Violence and Destructive Behavior [http://darkwing.uoregon.edu/~ivdb](http://darkwing.uoregon.edu/~ivdb)

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**Video Homework Exercise** Go to MyEducationLab and select the topic “CLASSROOM AND BEHAVIOR MANAGEMENT,” then watch the video “Arranging Furniture and Materials” and complete the activity questions below.

In this video a first grade teacher discusses the choices she makes when she organizes the classroom, materials, and other procedures at the beginning of the school year.

1. What organizational features does the teacher in this video use and what rationale does she provide for each?
2. What additional organizational features are recommended in the chapter?
3. How can the arrangement of the classroom encourage student engagement and motivation?

**Video Homework Exercise** Go to MyEducationLab and select the topic “EMOTIONAL AND BEHAVIORAL DISORDERS,” then watch the video “Teaching Respect” and complete the activity questions below.

In this video, first grade students watch a movie to learn about the importance of sharing and respecting each other’s feelings. The teacher also discusses the importance of modeling respectful behavior for her students.

1. What are the children learning in this lesson? How will this information help them to respect students with behavioral and emotional disabilities in their classrooms?
2. List two additional activities that you could implement in your classroom to promote social competence for students with learning difficulties in general education classroom
Appendix 4.1

Materials Evaluation Form

General Information

Name: Schoolhouse: A Word Attack Skills Kit
Author(s): M. Clarke and F. Marsden
Publisher: Science Research Associates
Copyright Date: 1973
Cost: $220

Description of the Materials

Purpose of Materials: Provide practice with phonic and structural word analysis skills
Instructional Level(s) of Materials: first–third grades
Content of Materials: Plastic overlays and markers, 170 exercise cards (2 copies) and answer keys
represent 10 color-coded areas (e.g., initial consonants, vowels), progress sheets
Target Age: Could be used with students ages 6–12
Theoretical Approach to Learning: Behavior approach in that it assumes skills can be taught in isolation
Type of Instructional Arrangement (Individual, Cooperative Learning, etc.): Individual
Time Requirements: 10–15 minutes per exercise card.
Space Requirements: Materials come in 12” × 12” × 24” box.
Equipment Requirements: None

Evaluation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluation</th>
<th>Poor</th>
<th>Fair</th>
<th>Good</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Is there any evidence that these materials are effective?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Materials sequentially organized</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Progress from easy to hard</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use pictures in early exercises</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Materials organized for easy retrieval</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students should be able to find exercise card without assistance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Directions clear</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes and written with a low readability level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Provides adequate examples</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most of the time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Provides for adequate practice</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would like to see more cards covering each phonic or structural element</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Conducive to providing feedback</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student can self-check and could plot progress</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Allows for checking/self-checking</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Provides suggestions for adapting the materials</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Provides suggestions for generalization</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No, this is a major concern</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Interest level</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Although pictures are fairly easy to interpret, there is a limited number. Format repetitive.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Description of Role in Instructional Program

How would this material fit into my instructional program?

Only as a reinforcement activity. Need to discuss with students how
this practice will help them when they read (generalization).

Appendix 4.2

Student Materials Evaluation Form

Student Name: Jason
Date of Evaluation: March 15
Name of Materials: Criminal Justice (textbook)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluation</th>
<th>Poor</th>
<th>Fair</th>
<th>Good</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Directions are clear:</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand the activities at the end of the chapter.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Materials are interesting.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, I like the personal stories.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. There are enough examples so that I know what to do.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretty much</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I get enough practice so that I learn the information or the skill.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only if we discuss it in class</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. It is easy to determine if I am doing the tasks correctly.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not really</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I like using these materials.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I think that these materials teach:</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>About how our government works</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. The thing(s) I like best about these materials is:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They’re interesting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. The thing(s) I don’t like about these materials is:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes it doesn’t tell enough and I have to read other places</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I would recommend using these materials for:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government classes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>