Creating a Classroom Environment That Promotes Positive Behavior
Just as Ms. McLeod is beginning a lesson, Matthew approaches her with a question. Ms. McLeod tells Matthew that she cannot answer it now and asks him to return to his seat. On the way to his seat, Matthew stops to joke around with his classmates, and Ms. McLeod again asks him to sit in his seat. Matthew walks halfway to his desk and then turns to ask one of his classmates if he can borrow a piece of paper. Again, Ms. McLeod asks him to find his seat, and he finally complies.

The class begins the lesson, with Ms. McLeod asking the students various questions. Matthew calls out the answers to several questions, and Ms. McLeod reminds him to raise his hand. As the lesson continues, Matthew touches another student, and the student swats Matthew’s hand away. He then makes faces at Maria, who is sitting next to him. Maria laughs and starts sticking her tongue out at Matthew. Matthew raises his hand to respond to a question but cannot remember what he wants to say when Ms. McLeod calls on him, and starts making up a story and telling jokes. The class laughs, and Ms. McLeod tells Matthew to pay attention.

As Ms. McLeod begins to give directions for independent work, Matthew stares out the window. Ms. McLeod asks him to stop and get to work. He works on the assignment for 2 minutes and then “trips” on his way to the wastepaper basket. The class laughs, and Ms. McLeod tells Matthew to return to his seat and get to work. When he reaches his desk, he begins to search for a book, and makes a joke about himself. His classmates laugh, and Ms. McLeod reminds Matthew to work on the assignment. At the end of the period, Ms. McLeod collects the students’ work, and notes that Matthew and many of his classmates have only completed a small part of the assignment.

For students to be successful in inclusive settings, their classroom behavior must be consistent with teachers’ demands and academic expectations and must promote their learning and socialization with peers. Appropriate academic, social, and behavioral skills allow students to become part of the class, the school, and the community. Unfortunately, for reasons both inside and outside the classroom, the behavior of some students like Matthew may interfere with their learning and socialization as well as that of their classmates. Therefore, you may need to have a comprehensive and balanced classroom management plan. This involves using many of the different strategies and physical design changes discussed in this chapter to help your students engage in behaviors that support their learning and socializing with others. A good classroom management system recognizes the close relationship between positive behavior and effective instruction. Therefore, an integral part of a classroom management system includes your use of such
effective instructional practices as understanding students’ learning and social needs; providing students with access to an engaging and appropriate curriculum; and using innovative, motivating, differentiated teaching practices and instructional accommodations, which are discussed in greater detail in other chapters. As we learned in Chapters 4 and 5, it is also important to foster communication and collaboration with other professionals and families and to create a welcoming and comfortable learning environment, as well as to communicate with students, respect them, care for them, and build relationships with them. If students are classified as having a disability, your schoolwide and classroom policies and practices need to be consistent with certain rules and guidelines for disciplining them (Smith & Katsiyannis, 2004).

**SCHOOLWIDE POSITIVE BEHAVIORAL SUPPORT SYSTEM**

Your classroom management plan should be consistent with and include the services available in your school’s positive behavioral support system (Leedy, Bates, & Safran, 2004; Stormont, Lewis, & Beckner, 2005; Strout, 2005). A schoolwide approach to supporting the learning and positive behavior of all students involves the collaboration and commitment of educators, students, and family and community members to

- agree on unified expectations, rules, and procedures;
- use wrap-around school- and community-based services and interventions;
- create a caring, warm, and safe learning environment and community of support;
- understand and address student diversity;
- offer a meaningful and interactive curriculum and a range of individualized instructional strategies;
- teach social skills and self-control; and
- evaluate the impact of the system on students, educators, families, and the community and revise it based on these data (Epstein et al., 2005; Kern & Manz, 2004; Leedy et al., 2004; Sobel, Taylor, & Worthman, 2006; Stormont et al., 2005; Sugai & Horner, 2001; Walker & Schutte, 2004).

Positive behavioral interventions and supports are proactive and culturally sensitive in nature and seek to prevent students from engaging in problem behaviors by changing the environment in which the behaviors occur and teaching prosocial behaviors (Duda & Utley, 2005). Positive behavioral interventions and supports also are employed to help students acquire the behavioral and social skills that they will need to succeed in inclusive classrooms (Choutka, Doloughty, & Zirkel, 2004; Lane, Pierson, & Givner, 2004; Lane et al., 2006). Sobel et al. (2006) present schoolwide and classroom-based positive behavioral strategies and supports for use with a wide range of students. This also may include a functional behavioral assessment and a behavioral intervention plan. In the following sections, you will learn how to collaborate with others to conduct a functional behavioral assessment and how to implement specific positive behavioral interventions.
A functional behavioral assessment (FBA) is a person-centered, multimethod, problem-solving process that involves gathering information to

- measure student behaviors;
- determine why, where, and when a student uses these behaviors;
- identify the instructional, social, affective, cultural, environmental, and contextual variables that appear to lead to and maintain the behaviors; and
- plan appropriate interventions that address the purposes the behaviors serve for students (Chandler & Dahlquist, 2006; Pindprolu, Lignugaris/Kraft, Rule, Peterson, & Slocum, 2005).

Although an FBA is only one aspect of a comprehensive behavior support planning process (e.g., medical, and vocational factors and systems of care and wrap-around processes should also be identified and considered), it helps educators and family members develop a plan to change student behavior by (a) examining the causes and functions of the student’s behavior and (b) identifying strategies that address the conditions in which the behavior is most likely and least likely to occur (Umbreit, Ferro, Liaupsin, & Lane, 2007). Guidelines for conducting an FBA and examples relating to the chapter-opening vignette of Matthew and Ms. McLeod are presented here.

CREATE A DIVERSE MULTIDISCIPLINARY TEAM

In conducting an FBA, you will collaborate with a diverse team that includes educators, and family and community members (Barnhill, 2005; Gable et al., 2003; Scott, Liaupsin, Nelson, & Jolivette, 2003). The team typically includes the student’s teacher(s), professionals who have expertise in the FBA process, and administrators who can ensure that the recommendations outlined in the behavioral intervention plan are implemented. The inclusion of family members also can provide the team with important information about the student’s history and home-based events that may affect the student and the family (Fox & Dunlap, 2002). Expanding the team to include community members as well as professionals who will be culturally sensitive to the student’s background allows the team to learn about the student’s cultural perspective and experiential and linguistic background, and to determine whether the student’s behavior has a sociocultural explanation. In the case of Matthew, the team was composed of two of his teachers, his mother and brother, a school psychologist who had experience with the FBA process, the principal at his school, and a representative from a community group.

IDENTIFY THE PROBLEMATIC BEHAVIORS

First, the team identifies the behavior that will be examined by the FBA by considering the following questions: (a) What does the student do or fail to do that causes a problem? (b) How do the student’s cognitive, language, physical, and sensory abilities affect the behavior? (c) How does the behavior affect the student’s learning, socialization, and self-concept, as well as classmates and adults? For example, in the chapter-opening vignette, Matthew’s poor on-task behavior seems to be undermining both his learning and the classroom environment. When several behaviors are identified as problematic, it is recommended that they be prioritized based on their level of interference (Murdick, Gartin, & Stockall, 2003).
The team also needs to examine the relationship, if any, between the behavior and the student’s cultural and language background (Salend & Garrick Duhaney, 2005; Voltz et al., 2005). Some students from diverse backgrounds may have different cultural perspectives than their teachers, and communication problems between students and teachers often are interpreted by teachers as behavioral problems. For example, a student may appear passive in class, which may be interpreted as evidence of immaturity and lack of interest. However, in the student’s culture, the behavior may be considered a mark of respect for the teacher as an authority figure.

**Define the Behavior**

Next, the behavior is defined in observable and measurable terms by listing its characteristics (Barnhill, 2005). For example, Matthew’s off-task behavior can be defined in terms of his calling out and extraneous comments, his extensive comments related to teacher questions, his ability to remain in his work area, his interactions with classmates, and the amount of work he completed.

**Observe and Record the Behavior**

After the behavior has been defined, the team selects an appropriate observational recording method and uses it during times that are representative of typical classroom activities (Alberto & Troutman, 2006). Examples of different observational recording systems are presented in Figure 7.1.

**FIGURE 7.1 Example of observational recording strategies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Length of Sessions</th>
<th>Number of Events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9/11</td>
<td>30 minutes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9/15</td>
<td>30 minutes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9/20</td>
<td>30 minutes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a) Event Recording of Call-outs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Occurrence Number</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Total Duration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5/8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9:20</td>
<td>5 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9:27</td>
<td>3 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5/9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10:01</td>
<td>2 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10:05</td>
<td>1 minute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10:10</td>
<td>4 minutes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) Duration Recording of Out-of-seat Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>15 Sec</th>
<th>15 Sec</th>
<th>15 Sec</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
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<td>+</td>
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<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(c) Interval Recording of On-task Behavior
Event Recording

If the behavior to be observed has a definite beginning and end and occurs for brief time periods, event recording is a good choice. In *event recording*, the observer counts the number of behaviors that occur during the observation period, as shown in Figure 7.1a. For example, event recording can be used to count the number of times Matthew was on task during a typical 30-minute teacher-directed activity. Data collected using event recording are displayed as either a frequency (number of times the behavior occurred) or a rate (number of times it occurred per length of observation).

You can use an inexpensive grocery, stitch, or golf counter for event recording. If a mechanical counter is not available, marks can be made on a pad, an index card, a chalkboard, or a piece of paper taped to the wrist. You also can use a transfer system in which you place small objects (e.g., poker chips, paper clips) in one pocket and transfer an object to another pocket each time the behavior occurs. The number of objects transferred to the second pocket gives an accurate measure of the behavior.

Duration and Latency Recording

If time is an important factor in the observed behavior, a good recording strategy would be either duration or latency recording. In *duration recording*, shown in Figure 7.1b, the observer records how long a behavior lasts. *Latency recording*, on the other hand, is used to determine the delay between receiving instructions and beginning a task. For example, duration recording can be used to find out how much time Matthew spends on task. Latency recording would be used to assess how long it took Matthew to begin an assignment after the directions were given. The findings of both recording systems can be presented as the total length of time or as an average. Duration recording data also can be summarized as the percentage of time the student engaged in the behavior by dividing the amount of time the behavior lasts by the length of the observation period and multiplying by 100.

Interval Recording or Time Sampling

With *interval recording* or *time sampling*, the observation period is divided into equal intervals, and the observer notes whether the behavior occurred during each interval; a plus (+) indicates occurrence and a minus (−) indicates nonoccurrence. A + does not indicate how many times the behavior occurred in that interval, only that it did occur. Therefore, this system shows the percentage of intervals in which the behavior occurred rather than how often it occurred.

The interval percentage is calculated by dividing the number of intervals in which the behavior occurred by the total number of intervals in the observation period and then multiplying by 100. For example, you might use interval recording to record Matthew’s on-task behavior. After defining the behavior, you would divide the observation period into intervals and construct a corresponding interval score sheet, as shown in Figure 7.1c. You would then record whether Matthew was on task during each interval. The number of intervals in which the behavior occurred would be divided by the total number of intervals to determine the percentage of intervals in which he was on task.

Observing students and recording their behavior can provide valuable information. What types of information can observations give you about your students?
Anecdotal Records

An anecdotal record, also known as a *narrative log* or *continuous recording*, is often useful in reporting the results of the observation (Rao, Hoyer, Meehan, Young, & Guerrera, 2003; Zuna & McDougall, 2004). An *anecdotal record* is a narrative of the events that took place during the observation; it helps you understand the academic context in which student behavior occurs, and the environmental factors that influence student behavior. Use the following suggestions to write narrative anecdotal reports:

- Give the date, time and length of the observation.
- Describe the activities, design, individuals, and their relationships to the setting in which the observation occurred.
- Report in observable terms all of the student’s verbal and nonverbal behaviors, as well as the responses of others to these behaviors.
- Avoid interpretations.
- Indicate the sequence and duration of events.

The chapter-opening vignette contains a sample anecdotal record relating to an observation of Matthew.

**OBTAIN ADDITIONAL INFORMATION ABOUT THE STUDENT AND THE BEHAVIOR**

An important part of an FBA is obtaining information regarding the student and the behavior (Lo & Cartledge, 2006). Using multiple sources and methods, the team gathers information to determine the student’s skills, strengths, challenges, interests, hobbies, preferences, self-concept, attitudes, health, culture, language, and experiences. Data regarding successful and ineffective interventions used in the past with the student also can be collected. Often this information is obtained by reviewing student records and by interviewing the student, teachers, family members, ancillary support personnel, and peers or having these individuals complete a checklist or rating scale concerning the behavior (Kamps, Wendland, & Culpepper, 2006; Newcomer & Lewis, 2004). Achenbach and Rescorla (2001); Kern, Dunlap, Clarke, and Childs (1994); Lawry, Storey, and Danko (1993); Lewis, Scott, and Sugai (1994); O’Neill et al. (1997); and Reid & Maag (1998) offer interviews and survey questions to identify the perspectives of teachers, students, and family members on student behavior. For example, Ms. McLeod asked Matthew to respond to the following questions: (a) What do I expect you to do during class time? (b) How did the activities and assignments make you feel? (c) Can you tell me why you didn’t complete your work? (d) What usually happens when you disturb other students? Additional information about Matthew and the data collection strategies used by the team as part of the functional behavioral assessment process are summarized in Table 7.1.

**PERFORM AN ANTECEDENTS-BEHAVIOR-CONSEQUENCES (A-B-C) ANALYSIS**

While recording behavior, you may use an A-B-C analysis to collect data to identify the possible antecedents and consequences associated with the student’s behavior (Babkie, 2006; Barnhill, 2005; Knoster, 2000; Mueller, Jenson, Reavis, & Andrews, 2002. *Antecedents* and *consequences* are the events, stimuli, objects, actions, and activities that precede and trigger the behavior, and follow and maintain the behavior, respectively. A sample functional behavioral assessment for Matthew that contains an A-B-C analysis of his off-task behavior is presented in Table 7.1.
TABLE 7.1  Sample functional behavioral assessment for Matthew

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behavior: Off-task</th>
<th>What Are the Antecedents of the Behavior?</th>
<th>What Is the Behavior?</th>
<th>What Are the Consequences of the Behavior?</th>
<th>What Are the Functions of the Behavior?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Teacher-directed activity</td>
<td>- Matthew calls out, makes extraneous comments in response to teacher questions or comments, distracts others, leaves his work area, and completes a limited amount of work.</td>
<td>- Receives teacher attention</td>
<td>- To avoid or express his disappointment with the instructional activity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Content of the activity</td>
<td></td>
<td>- Receives peer attention</td>
<td>- To receive attention from adults and peers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Individualized nature of the activity</td>
<td></td>
<td>- Avoids unmotivating activity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Duration of the activity</td>
<td></td>
<td>- Performs a pleasant activity (e.g., interacting with peers)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Location of Matthew’s work area</td>
<td></td>
<td>- Receives reprimand</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Placement of peers’ work areas</td>
<td></td>
<td>- Leaves seat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Proximity of the teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Teacher comment or question</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Availability of other activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**DATA COLLECTION STRATEGIES:** Observations, student, family and teacher interviews, behavior checklists, and standardized testing.

**ADDITIONAL INFORMATION**

**ACADEMIC:**
- Mathew has scored significantly above grade level on standardized tests in reading and mathematics.

**SOCIAL/PEER:**
- Mathew spends time alone after school because there are few activities available for him.
- Matthew’s peers describe him as the class clown.
- Matthew likes to talk with and work with others.

**FAMILY:**
- Mathew likes to interact with others in social situations and community events.
- Mathew does his homework while interacting with others.

**ANALYZE THE DATA**

The A-B-C data are then analyzed and summarized to identify when, where, with whom, and under what conditions the behavior is most likely and least likely to occur (see Figure 7.2 for questions that can guide you in analyzing the behavior’s antecedents and consequences) (Kamps et al., 2006). The A-B-C analysis data are also analyzed to try to determine why the student uses the behavior, also referred to as the perceived function of the behavior. Functions of the behavior often are related to the following categories: (a) receiving attention from peers or adults, (b) gaining access to a desired object or activity, (c) avoiding an undesired activity, and (d) addressing sensory and basic needs (Barnhill, 2005; Frey & Wilhite, 2005). The team can attempt to identify the perceived function of the behavior by considering the following questions:

1. What does the student appear to be communicating via the behavior?
2. How does the behavior benefit the student (e.g., getting attention or help from others; avoiding a difficult or unappealing activity; gaining access to a desired activity or peers; receiving increased status and self-concept, affiliation with others, sense of power and control, sensory stimulation or feedback, satisfaction)?
In analyzing the antecedents of student behavior, consider if the behavior is related to the following:

- Physiological factors such as medications, allergies, hunger/thirst, odors, temperature levels, or lighting
- Home factors or the student’s cultural perspective
- Student’s learning, motivation, communication, and physical abilities
- The physical design of the classroom, such as the seating arrangement, the student’s proximity to the teacher and peers, classroom areas, transitions, scheduling changes, noise levels, size of the classroom, and auditory and visual stimuli
- The behavior of peers and/or adults
- Certain days, the time of day, the length of the activity, the activities or events preceding or following the behavior or events outside the classroom
- The way the material is presented or the way the student responds
- The curriculum and the teaching activities, such as certain content areas and instructional activities, or the task’s directions, difficulty and staff support
- Group size and/or composition or the presence and behavior of peers and adults

In analyzing the consequences of student behavior, consider the following:

- What are the behaviors and reactions of specific peers and/or adults?
- What is the effect of the behavior on the classroom atmosphere?
- How does the behavior affect progress on the activity or the assigned task?
- How does the behavior relate to and affect the student’s cultural perspective?
- What encourages or discourages the behavior?

**FIGURE 7.2  A-B-C analysis questions**

3. What setting events contribute to the problem behavior (e.g., the student being tired, hungry, ill, or on medication; the occurrence of social conflicts, schedule changes, or academic difficulties; the staffing patterns and interactions)?

4. How does the behavior relate to the student’s culture, experiential and language background, and sensory and basic needs?

Possible antecedents for Matthew’s behavior include the content, type, duration, and level of difficulty of the instructional activity, the extent to which the activity allows him to work with others, and the location of the teacher. Possible consequences for Matthew’s behavior may include teacher and peer attention, and avoiding an unmotivating task.

**DEVELOP HYPOTHESIS STATEMENTS**

Next, the prior information collected and the A-B-C analysis data are used to develop specific and global statements, also referred to as summary statements, concerning the student and the behavior hypotheses about the student and the behavior, which are verified (Frey & Wilhite, 2005; Newcomer & Lewis, 2004). **Specific hypotheses** address the reasons why the behavior occurs and the conditions related to the behavior including the possible antecedents and consequences. For example, a specific hypothesis related to Matthew’s behavior would be that when Matthew is given a teacher-directed or independent academic activity, he will use many off-task behaviors to gain attention from peers and the teacher. **Global hypotheses** address how factors in the student’s life in school, at home, and in the community impact on the behavior. In the case of Matthew, a possible global hypothesis can address the possibility that his seeking attention is related to his limited opportunities to interact with peers after school. After hypothesis statements are developed, direct observation is used to validate their accuracy.

**CONSIDER SOCIOCULTURAL FACTORS**

When analyzing the A-B-C information to determine hypotheses, the team should consider the impact of cultural perspectives and language background on the student’s behavior and communication (Duda & Utley, 2005; Voltz et al., 2005). Behavioral
differences in students related to their learning histories and behaviors, family’s cultural perspectives, preference for working on several tasks at once, listening and responding styles, peer interaction patterns, responses to authority, verbal and nonverbal communication, turn-taking sequences, physical space, eye contact, and student–teacher interactions can be attributed to their cultural backgrounds (Cartledge et al., 2000; Jensen, 2004; Townsend, 2000).

To do this, behavior and communication must be examined in a social/cultural context (Duda & Utley, 2005). For example, four cultural factors that may affect students' behavior in school are outlined here: time, movement, respect for elders, and individual versus group performance. However, although this framework for comparing students may be useful in understanding certain cognitive, movement, and interaction styles and associated behaviors, you should be careful in generalizing a specific behavior to any cultural group. Thus, rather than considering these behaviors as characteristic of the group as a whole, you should view them as attitudes or behaviors that an individual may consider in learning and interacting with others.

**Time**

Different cultural groups have different concepts of time. The Euro-American culture views timeliness as essential and as a key characteristic in judging competence. Students are expected to be on time and to complete assignments on time. Other cultures may also view time as important, but as secondary to relationships and performance (Cloud & Landurand, n.d.). For some students, helping a friend with a problem may be considered more important than completing an assignment by the deadline. Students who have different concepts of time may also have difficulties on timed tests or assignments.

**Movement**

Different cultural groups also have different movement styles, which can affect how others perceive them and interpret their behaviors (Neal, McCray, Webb-Johnson, & Bridgest, 2003). Different movement styles can affect the ways students walk, talk, and learn. For example, some students may prefer to get ready to perform an activity by moving around to organize themselves. Other students may need periodic movement breaks to support their learning.

**Respect for Elders**

Cultures, and therefore individuals, have different ways to show respect for elders and authority figures such as teachers (Chamberlain, 2005). In many cultures, teachers and other school personnel are viewed as prestigious and valued individuals who are worthy of respect. Respect may be demonstrated in many different ways, such as not making eye contact with adults, not speaking to adults unless spoken to first, not asking questions, and using formal titles. Mainstream culture in the United States does not always show respect for elders and teachers in these ways. Therefore, the behaviors mentioned may be interpreted as communication or behavior problems rather than as cultural marks of respect.

**Individual versus Group Performance**

The Euro-U.S. culture is founded on such notions as rugged individualism. By contrast, many other cultures view group cooperation as more important (Chamberlain, 2005). For students from these cultures, responsibility to society is seen as an essential aspect of competence, and their classroom performance is shaped by their commitment to the group and the community rather than to individual success. As a result, for some African American, Native American, and Latino/a students who are brought up to believe in a group solidarity orientation, their behavior may be designed to avoid being viewed as “acting white” or “acting Anglo” (Duda & Utley, 2005).
Humility is important in cultures that value group solidarity. By contrast, cultures that emphasize individuality award status based on individual achievement. Students from cultures that view achievement as contributing to the success of the group may perform better on tasks perceived as benefiting a group. They may avoid situations that bring attention to themselves, such as reading out loud, answering questions, gaining the teacher’s praise, disclosing themselves, revealing problems, or demonstrating expertise (Bui & Turnbull, 2003).

**Develop a Behavioral Intervention Plan**

Based on its information and hypotheses, the team collaboratively develops a behavioral intervention plan focusing on how the learning environment will change to address the student’s behavior, characteristics, strengths, and challenges (Etscheidt, 2006a; Lo & Cartledge, 2006). The plan should identify specific measurable goals for appropriate behaviors, and the individuals and services responsible for helping the student achieve these goals. It also should outline the positive, age appropriate, culturally appropriate teaching and behavioral supports and strategies and school and community resources that change the antecedent events and consequences by addressing the following issues: (a) What antecedents and consequences can be changed to increase appropriate behavior and decrease inappropriate behavior? (b) What teaching strategies, curricular adaptations, classroom management strategies, motivational techniques, social skills and learning strategy instruction, physical design modifications, and schoolwide and community-based services can be used to increase appropriate behavior and decrease inappropriate behavior? (c) Which of these changes are most likely to be effective, acceptable, easy to use, culturally sensitive, least intrusive, and beneficial to others and the learning environment?

Kamps et al. (2006); Lo and Cartledge (2006); Murdick et al. (2003); Ryan, Halsey, and Matthews (2003); and Shippen, Simpson, and Crites (2003) offer guidelines for implementing functional behavioral assessments and behavioral intervention plans. A sample behavioral intervention plan for Matthew is presented in Table 7.2. Additional strategies for increasing appropriate behavior and decreasing inappropriate behavior and modifying the physical environment that Ms. McLeod can use are discussed later in this chapter.

**Evaluate the Plan**

Once the plan has been implemented, the team continues to collect data to examine how effectively the plan is influencing the student’s behavior, learning, and socialization (Etscheidt, 2006a; Ryan et al., 2003). Students from various cultural and language backgrounds may respond differently to their teachers’ behavior management strategies, so the team also needs to be aware of how the plan influences students’ cultural perspectives (Duda & Utley, 2005). The extent to which the plan was age appropriate, implemented as intended and the impact of the plan on the classroom environment and the student’s peers, teachers, and family also should be assessed. Based on these data and feedback from others, the team revises the plan, changes the interventions, and collects additional data if necessary.

**How Can I Promote Positive Classroom Behavior in Students?**

Many supports and strategies to promote good classroom behavior exist (Henley, 2006; Shea, Bauer, & Walker, 2007; Wheeler & Richey, 2005). They include relationship-building strategies, social skills instruction, antecedents-based interventions, consequences-based interventions, self-management techniques, group-oriented management systems, and behavior reduction techniques.
TABLE 7.2  Behavioral intervention plan for Matthew

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goals</th>
<th>Interventions</th>
<th>Individuals</th>
<th>Evaluation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. To decrease Matthew’s call-outs and extraneous comments</td>
<td>1. Teach Matthew to use a self-management system that employs culturally appropriate reinforcers selected by Matthew.</td>
<td>1. Matthew</td>
<td>1. Data on Matthew’s call-outs and extraneous comments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Relate the content of the instructional activity to Matthew’s experiential background and interests.</td>
<td>2. Teachers, Family members, School psychologist</td>
<td>Teachers, student, and family interview data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Use cooperative learning groups.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Promote active student responding via response cards and group physical responses.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Provide Matthew with choices in terms of the content and process of the instructional activities.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Solicit feedback from students concerning the ways to demonstrate mastery.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Use culturally relevant materials.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Personalize instruction by using students’ names, interests, and experiences.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Use suspense, games, technology, role-plays, and simulations.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Teach learning strategies.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. To increase Matthew’s work completion</td>
<td>3. Use cooperative learning groups.</td>
<td>3. Matthew</td>
<td>3. Data on Matthew’s in-seat behavior</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Use group-oriented response-cost system.</td>
<td>3. Teachers, Peers, Family members, School psychologist, Principal</td>
<td>Teacher, student, and family interview data</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Establish a classwide peer-mediation system.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Place Matthew’s desk near the teacher’s work area.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. To increase Matthew’s in-seat behavior</td>
<td>4. Teach social skills.</td>
<td>4. Matthew</td>
<td>4. Data on after-school activities attended by Matthew</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Pair Matthew with peers who participate in after-school activities.</td>
<td>4. Teachers, Peers, Family members, Community members, Counselor, Principal</td>
<td>Teachers, student, family, counselor, and community member interview data</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Invite community groups and school-based groups to talk to the class about their after-school activities.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Share and read in class materials about community and leisure activities.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Take field trips to community facilities and after-school activities in the community.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Work with school and community groups to increase the availability of after-school activities.</td>
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</table>
EMPLOY RELATIONSHIP-BUILDING STRATEGIES

Building meaningful and genuine relationships with and among your students is an essential aspect of creating a learning environment that supports their learning and promotes their positive classroom behavior (Emmer et al., 2006; Mitchem, 2005; Spencer & Boon, 2006). You can do this by collaborating and communicating with others (see Chapter 4), fostering an acceptance of individual differences and friendships (see Chapter 5), and employing cooperative learning (see Chapter 9). You also can establish a classroom environment that is based on mutual respect and show your students that you are an open, caring, welcoming, respectful, culturally sensitive, understanding, non-judgmental, and honest person whom they can trust by using the strategies described here (Blum, 2005; Rodriguez, 2005). It also means using age-appropriate strategies to teach them, discipline them, and interact with them (Ferko, 2005).

Get to Know and Demonstrate a Personal Interest in Students

An essential aspect of building relationships with students is getting to know them and demonstrating a personal interest in them (Bucalos & Lingo, 2005; Goodwin & Judd, 2005). To do this, you need to learn about what is important to them, which can be accomplished by interacting with them informally, observing them in various situations and settings, and using instructional activities to solicit information from them. For example, some teachers find time each school day or during a class period to have a “2-minute personal conversation” with their students about nonacademic subjects (Franklin, 2006). You can ask students to talk in class or write about their interests, hobbies, and extracurricular activities. You can then use this information to plan instructional activities, interact with them, and comment on important achievements and events in their lives. For example, include students’ skills, achievements, and contributions in your instructional presentations and examples. You can also show your interest in students by attending extracurricular events, greeting them in the hallways, and welcoming them to your class (Mitchem, 2005).

Your personal interest in students also can be demonstrated by establishing and maintaining rapport with them. Rapport can be established by

- listening actively,
- talking to students about topics that interest them,
- showing an interest in students’ personal lives,
- letting them know you missed them when they are absent and welcoming them back,
- sharing your own interests and stories,
- displaying empathy and giving emotional support,
- letting them perform activities in which they excel,
- greeting students by name,
- scheduling surprises for them,
- doing favors for them and allowing them to do things for you,
- acknowledging their performance and behavior,
- participating in after-school activities with them,
- recognizing special events in students’ lives such as birthdays,
- displaying kindness,
- spending informal time with students, and
**Develop Students’ Self-Esteem**

You can build relationships with students and establish a good learning environment by helping them develop their self-esteem (Rodriguez, 2005). This can be done by providing students with opportunities to show their competence to others and to perform skills, roles, and jobs that are valued by others (Margolis & McCabe, 2006). You also can foster their self-esteem by listening to them and showing them that you value their ideas, opinions, interests, and skills by involving them in the decision-making process and giving them choices (Bucalos & Lingo, 2005; Strout, 2005). For example, periodically solicit students’ preferences in selecting the order in which they complete a series of assignments; the location in the room where they would like to work; and the strategies, methods, materials, and breaks needed to complete assignments (Jolivette et al., 2002). Additional suggestions for promoting students’ self-esteem are presented in Chapter 6. To view an example of a teacher incorporating a student’s contribution into the instructional process, go to “Case 4: Support Participation” on the Inclusive Classrooms CD-ROM, and click on the “Recognize Efforts” video clip. How does recognizing students’ efforts help create an environment that supports learning?

**Use Humor**

In addition to defusing difficult classroom situations, humor can help you and your students develop a good relationship and a positive classroom atmosphere (Goodwin & Judd, 2005; Franklin, 2006). Your effective use of humor can help you put students at ease, gain their attention, and help them see you as a person. When using humor, make sure that it is not directed toward students as ridicule or sarcasm; is not misinterpreted; and is free of racial, ethnic, religious, sexual, and gender bias and connotations (Abrams, 2005). You also need to be aware of events in the students’ lives, your school, and the

**IDEAs to Implement Inclusion**

**Promoting Students’ Self-Esteem**

Ms. Vang noticed that several of her students often made negative comments about themselves and seemed reluctant to volunteer and participate in classroom activities. Concerned about their attitude, Ms. Vang decided to develop some activities to help her students feel better about themselves and her classroom. To make students aware of their strengths, she posted their work on bulletin boards and acknowledged their contributions. She also set up a rotating system so that all students could act as classroom leaders.

Here are some other strategies you can use to implement the IDEA in your inclusive classroom and promote students’ self-esteem:

- Build students’ confidence by praising them, focusing on improvement, showing faith in their abilities, and acknowledging the difficulty of tasks.
- Give students learning activities that they can succeed at and enjoy.
- Relate mistakes to effort and learning and remind students of past successes.
- Encourage students to help each other, and give them choices.
- Recognize and show appreciation for students’ interests, hobbies, and cultural and language backgrounds.
- Make teaching personal by relating it to students’ experiences.
- Use facial expressions and eye contact to show interest, concern, and warmth.
- Provide students with immediate, frequent, and task-related feedback.

Source: Abrams (2005); Margolis and McCabe (2006); Tiedt and Tiedt (2006).
world when using humor appropriately and strategically. Richardson and Shupe (2003) and Allen (2001) provide additional guidelines for using humor in the classroom.

**Acknowledge and Praise Students**

Acknowledging positive aspects of your students’ behavior can promote self-esteem in students, and strengthen the bond between you and your students (Emmer et al., 2006). Because negative responses to student behavior can escalate the misbehavior and limit interactions between students and teachers, it is recommended that you focus on positive aspects of student behavior (Mesa, Lewis-Palmer, & Reinke, 2005; Mitchem, 2005).

One effective way of acknowledging students’ strengths, skills, efforts, and interests is to praise them, which can create a positive environment in your classroom and encourage prosocial behavior. You can follow several guidelines to make your praise more effective (Lampi, Fenty, & Beauna, 2005; Willingham, 2006). Your praise statements should be directed toward behaviors that are praiseworthy, be delivered in a noncontrolling way, describe the specific behavior that is being praised (rather than saying, “This is a good paper,” say, “You did a really good job of using topic sentences to begin your paragraphs in this paper”), and should be paired with student names. They should be sincere, focus on students’ current successes rather than their past failures, relate to attributes of the behavior rather than your students, and tailored to the age, skill level, and cultural background of the students. When using praise, consider whether students prefer to be praised in front of their classmates or in private. Keep in mind that some students may not want to receive praise as it may be interpreted by them and their peers as signs of their “selling out” or “acting white” (Duda & Utley, 2005).

It also is important to use praise to acknowledge effort as well as specific behaviors and outcomes, and to individualize praise so that the students’ achievements are evaluated in comparison with their own performance rather than the performance of others. You can increase the frequency and credibility of praise by using diverse and spontaneous statements that do not distract students or interrupt the flow of the lesson, and by self-evaluating your use of praise (Keller, Brady, & Taylor, 2005; Keller & Duffy, 2005). Additional information and guidelines for using praise to acknowledge your students’ academic performance are presented in Chapter 9. To view an example of a teacher using praise, go to “Case 2: Classroom Climate” on the Inclusive Classrooms CD-ROM, and click on the “Careful Reprimand” video clip. What aspects of the teacher’s use of praise made it effective?

You also can acknowledge students by using praise notes (Mitchem, Young, & West, 2000). Praise notes are written statements that acknowledge what students did and why it was important. In addition to giving them to students, these notes can then be shared with others or posted in your classroom.

**Conduct Class Meetings, and Use Dialoguing**

Class meetings are designed to help students understand the perspectives of others, an essential ingredient of building relationships and resolving classroom-related conflicts (Bullock & Foegen, 2002; Strout, 2005; Sullivan, 2006). With you and other professionals such as the school counselor, students as a group can share their opinions and brainstorm solutions to classroom conflicts, class behavior problems, concerns about schoolwork, and general topics that concern students during class meetings (Jones & Jones, 2007; Leachman & Victor, 2003). You can promote discussion by presenting open-ended topics using defining questions (“What does it mean to interrupt the class?”), personalizing questions (“How do you feel when someone interrupts the class?”), and creative thinking questions (“How can we stop others from interrupting the class?”). In class discussions, all students have a right to share their opinions without being criticized by others, and only positive, constructive suggestions should be presented.
Classroom problems and tensions between students can be identified and handled by placing a box in the classroom where students and adults submit compliments and descriptions of problems and situations that made them feel upset, sad, annoyed, or angry. Compliments and concerns can be shared with the class, and all students can brainstorm possible solutions to concerns. In addition, Bacon and Bloom (2000) offer suggestions for creating student advisory boards to solicit information from students. You can also use dialoguing such as problem-solving conversations to build relationships with students and help them understand their behavior and problem solve alternatives to inappropriate behaviors as well as solutions to problematic situations. This process involves (a) meeting with students to discover their view of a situation or issue (“What happened?”), (b) helping students reevaluate the situation to identify the real issues and difficulties (“How do you view the situation now?”), (c) phrasing the issues in the students’ words (“Is _____ what you are saying?”), (d) helping them identify solutions to the issues and difficulties (“What do you think should be done to address the situation?”), and (e) discussing their solutions (“What do you think of the plan? What do we need to do to make it successful?”) (Dwiary, 2005).

Be Aware of Nonverbal Communication

Your relationship with your students also will be affected by nonverbal communication, which includes physical distance and personal space, eye contact and facial expressions, and gestures and body movements (Bucalos & Lingo, 2005; Franklin, 2006). When nonverbal communication is not understood, the result can be miscommunication and conflicts between students and teachers. Therefore, your nonverbal messages should promote positive interactions, be consistent with students’ behavioral expectations, and communicate attitudes. Nonverbal behaviors also should be consistent with students’ cultural backgrounds. For example, individuals from some cultures may feel comfortable standing close to persons they are talking to, while those from other cultures may view such closeness as a sign of aggressiveness. Physical gestures may also have different meanings in different cultures. For example, to some groups, crossing the fingers to indicate good luck is viewed as obscene. Hand gestures are considered rude, as they are used with animals or to challenge others to a fight.

You should be sensitive to the nonverbal behaviors of your students and respond to them with congruent nonverbal and verbal messages. Examples of nonverbal and verbal messages that you can use to promote positive classroom behaviors are presented in Table 7.3.

Use Affective Education Techniques

Affective education strategies and programs help build relationships with and among students and assist them in understanding their feelings, attitudes, and values. These strategies and programs involve students in resolving conflicts. They also try to promote students’ emotional, behavioral, and social development by increasing their self-esteem and their ability to express emotions effectively. Students who feel good about themselves and know how to express their feelings build positive relationships with others and tend not to have behavior problems.

Use Conflict Resolution and Peer Mediation Programs

Because conflicts often serve as a barrier to building relationships, classroom and school-related conflicts, particularly those based on age and cultural differences, can be handled through use of conflict resolution programs such as peer mediation (Bullock & Foegen, 2002; Daunic, Smith, Robinson, Miller, & Landry, 2000; Duda & Utley, 2005; Nelson, Martella, & Marchand-Martella, 2002). Peer mediation involves students trained to serve as peer mediators using communication, problem solving, and critical thinking to help students who have conflicts meet face to face to discuss and resolve
Chapter 7: Creating a Classroom Environment That Promotes Positive Behavior

**Approving/Disapproving/Assertive/Passive/Accepting**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbal message</th>
<th>Physical distance</th>
<th>Facial expressions</th>
<th>Body movements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;I like what you are doing.&quot;</td>
<td>Sit or stand in close proximity to other person.</td>
<td>Engage in frequent eye contact; open eyes wide; raise brows; smile.</td>
<td>Nod affirmatively; &quot;open&quot; posture; uncross arms/legs; place arms at sides; show palms; lean forward; lean head and trunk to one side; orient body toward other person; grasp or pat shoulder or arm; place hand to chest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;I don’t like what you are doing.&quot;</td>
<td>Distance self from other person; encroach uninvited into other’s personal space.</td>
<td>Engage in too much or too little eye contact; open eyes wide in fixed, frozen expression; squint or glare; turn corners of eyebrows down; purse or tightly close lips; frown; tighten jaw muscle.</td>
<td>Shake head slowly; “close” posture; fold arms across chest; lean away from person; hold head/trunk straight; square shoulders; thrust chin out; use gestures of negation, e.g., finger shaking, hand held up like a stop signal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;I mean what I say.&quot;</td>
<td>Physically elevate self; move slowly into personal space of other person.</td>
<td>Engage in prolonged, neutral eye contact; lift eyebrows; drop head and raise eyebrow.</td>
<td>Place hands on hips; lean forward; touch shoulder; tap on desk; drop hand on desk; join fingers at tips and make a steeple.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;I don’t care.&quot;</td>
<td>Distance self from other person.</td>
<td>Avert gaze; stare blankly; cast eyes down or let them wander; let eyes droop.</td>
<td>Lean away from other person; place head in palm of hand; fold hands behind back or upward in front; drum fingers on table; tap with feet; swing crossed leg or foot; sit with leg over chair.</td>
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**TABLE 7.3**  
Congruency of verbal and nonverbal messages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approving/Accepting</th>
<th>Disapproving/Critical</th>
<th>Assertive/Confident</th>
<th>Passive/Indifferent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verbal message</td>
<td>&quot;I like what you are doing.&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;I don’t like what you are doing.&quot;</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Body movements</td>
<td>Nod affirmatively; &quot;open&quot; posture; uncross arms/legs; place arms at sides; show palms; lean forward; lean head and trunk to one side; orient body toward other person; grasp or pat shoulder or arm; place hand to chest.</td>
<td>Shake head slowly; “close” posture; fold arms across chest; lean away from person; hold head/trunk straight; square shoulders; thrust chin out; use gestures of negation, e.g., finger shaking, hand held up like a stop signal.</td>
<td>Place hands on hips; lean forward; touch shoulder; tap on desk; drop hand on desk; join fingers at tips and make a steeple.</td>
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disagreements. Johnson and Johnson (1996) have developed a peer mediation and conflict resolution program called Teaching Students to Be Peacemakers.

**INCLUDE SOCIAL SKILLS INSTRUCTION**

An important component of an effective classroom management plan is social skills instruction (Battalio & Stephens, 2005; Lewis et al., 2004). With social skills teaching, students like Matthew can discover how to learn and socialize with others. Social skills instruction also can help students learn how to work in groups, make friends, recognize and respond appropriately to the feelings of others, resolve conflicts, understand their strengths, challenges and emotions, and deal with frustration and anger (Kolb & Hanley-Maxwell, 2003).

You can help students develop their social skills by clearly explaining the behavior, its importance, and when it should be used. Demonstrate, explain, role-play, and practice using the behavior in person or via DVDs, as well as provide students with numerous opportunities to use it in natural settings with peers (Crites & Dunn, 2004; Lo et al., 2002). In addition, provide feedback and use cues to promote use of the behavior in various settings (Bucalos & Lingo, 2005). Williams and Reisberg (2003) and Elksnin and Elksnin
provide a list of programs to teach social skills to students. Additional strategies and resources for teaching social skills are presented in Chapters 5 and 6.

You also can integrate social skills instruction across your curriculum by

- embedding social skills into academic learning activities,
- using vignettes and videos that address social skills,
- having students maintain reflective journals of their social skills,
- helping students identify natural cues and consequences for prosocial behaviors,
- teaching students to use learning strategies that prompt them to engage in prosocial behaviors, and
- employing cooperative learning arrangements (Smith & Gilles, 2003; Williams & Reisberg, 2003).

USE ANTECEDENT-BASED INTERVENTIONS

Antecedent-based interventions are changes in classroom events, environment, and stimuli that precede behavior (Conroy, Asmus, Sellers, & Ladwig, 2005; Everston et al., 2006; Stichter, Hudson, & Sasso, 2005). They also include teacher behaviors, curricular and teaching accommodations (see Chapters 8–11) and classroom design changes (discussed later in this chapter).

Give Clear and Direct Directions

Your verbal communications with your students play an important role in helping them behave appropriately. Compliance with your requests can be fostered by speaking to students in a respectful, firm, and calm voice and manner (Bucalos & Lingo, 2005). You also can phrase your commands to them so that they are

- stated in positive terms and focus on what students should do rather than what they should not do,
- presented to students in an appropriate sequence when giving multiple commands, and
- phrased directly rather than indirectly and tell students what to do rather than asking them to do something (Herschell, Greco, Filcheck, & McNeil, 2002).

Use Teacher Proximity and Movement

Your proximity and movement can promote good behavior (Conroy, Asmus, Ladwig, Sellers, & Valcante, 2004; Lampi, Fenty, & Beaunae, 2005). This can be done by (a) standing near students who have behavior problems and room locations where problems typically occur; (b) placing students' desks near you; (c) talking briefly with students while walking around the room; (d) delivering praise, reprimands, and consequences while standing close to students; and (e) monitoring your movement patterns to ensure you walk around the room in unpredictable ways and that all students receive attention and interact with you. When using proximity, you should be aware of its effects on students. For example, the proximity of adults can prevent students from interacting with classmates and developing independent behaviors (Broer et al., 2005; Malmgren et al., 2005). Since some students may view your proximity as a sign that you do not trust them, it is important for you to use this technique judiciously and in an unintrusive manner (Duda & Utley, 2005). To view an example of a teacher using teacher proximity and movement, go to “Case 2: Classroom Climate” on the Inclusive Classrooms CD-ROM, and click on the “Careful Reprimand” video clip. How did the teacher use proximity and movement to promote the students' positive behavior and learning?
Use Cues

Cues can be used to promote good classroom behavior. You and your students can create prearranged cues that you deliver to them to prompt them to engage in positive behaviors (Conroy et al., 2005). Cues also can indicate acceptable or unacceptable behavioral levels in the classroom (Lien-Thorne & Kamps, 2005). For example, red can signal that the noise is too high, yellow that moderate noise is appropriate, and green that there are normal restrictions on the noise level.

Verbal and nonverbal cues such as physical gestures can be used to prompt group or individual responses (Bucalos & Lingo, 2005; Marks et al., 2003). These cues also can establish routines, remind students of appropriate behaviors, or signal to students that their behavior is unacceptable and should be changed. For example, individualized eye contact, hand signals and head movements can be used to indicate affirmation, correction, or the need to refocus on appropriate behavior, and verbal reminders can be used to alert students to the need for them to engage in appropriate behavior. When working with students from different cultural and language backgrounds, you should use culturally appropriate cues.

Follow Routines

Because unexpected changes in classroom routines can cause students like Matthew to act out and respond in defiant ways, it is important to follow consistent and predictable routines and foster transitions from one activity to another (Babkie, 2006; McIntosh, Herman, Sanford, McGraw, & Florence, 2004). When students know what routines and activities to expect in the classroom each day, they are more likely to feel that they are in control of their environment, which can reduce instances of misbehavior in the classroom. To view an example of following routines, go to “Case 1: Difficult Behavior” on the Inclusive Classrooms CD-ROM, and click on the “Structure Routines” video clip. What purposes do routines serve for students and teachers?

Consider Scheduling Alternatives

Establishing and maintaining a regular schedule is an important way to follow ongoing classroom routines. Good scheduling (see Figure 7.3) also can improve student learning and behavior (Hester, 2002; Marks et al., 2006). A regular schedule with ongoing classroom routines helps students understand the day’s events. Since many students with disabilities also receive instruction and services from support personnel, you may need to coordinate their schedules with other professionals. Also, because these students may miss work and assignments while outside the room, you need to establish procedures for making up these assignments. Marks et al. (2006) and Downing and Eichinger (2003) offer guidelines for designing and using schedules with students with autism spectrum disorders and moderate and severe disabilities, respectively. Important factors in scheduling and ways to help your students learn the schedule are presented in Figure 7.3.

Help Students Make Transitions

Transitions from one period to the next, and from one activity to the next within a class period, are a significant part of the school day. For many of your students, these transitions can lead to behaviors that interfere with student learning. You can minimize problems with transitions by allowing students to practice making transitions and by making adaptations in the classroom routine (McIntosh et al., 2004; Price & Nelson, 2007). You can review the day’s schedule and directions for transitioning to activities with students, give them warnings about upcoming transitions, and pair them with other students who efficiently transition to new activities. You can use verbal, visual, musical, or physical cues to signal students that it is time to get ready for a new activity and that they need to complete their work (Rothman Press, 2006; Swanson, 2005).
CONSIDER STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS AND CHALLENGES

- Consider students’ physical, sensory, and cognitive abilities and chronological ages.
- Examine the objectives, activities, and priorities in students’ IEPs.
- Adapt the schedule and the length of activities based on students’ ages and attention spans.
- Involve students in planning the schedule for negotiable events such as free-time activities.
- Begin with a lesson or activity that is motivating and interesting to students.
- Plan activities so that less popular activities are followed by activities that students enjoy.
- Teach difficult material and concepts when students are most alert.
- Alternate movement and discussion activities with passive and quiet activities, and alternate small-group and large-group activities.
- Work with individual students during activities that require limited supervision.
- Give students breaks that allow them to move around and interact socially.
- Give students several alternatives when they complete an assigned activity early.

HELP STUDENTS LEARN THE SCHEDULE

- Post the schedule in a prominent location using an appropriate format for the students’ ages.
- Review the schedule periodically with students.
- Record the schedule on loop tapes that automatically rewind and then repeat the same message.
- Avoid frequently changing the schedule.
- Share the schedule with families and other professionals.

In addition, you can use schedules containing visual representations of classroom activities, and pictorial cue cards that prompt students to (a) listen to directions, (b) put their materials away, and (c) get ready for the next activity (Welton et al., 2004). You also can use learning strategies that teach students to make successful transitions and reward groups or individual students for making an orderly and smooth transition, pair students to help each other finish an activity, and review several motivating aspects of the next activity. Babkie (2006), for instance, has developed a learning strategy called CHANGE to assist students in learning to make transitions.

Having clear expectations, coordinating with your paraeducators, and giving students specific directions on moving to the next activity can help them make the transition (Maroney, 2004; Olive, 2004). For example, rather than telling students, “Get ready for physical education class,” you can say, “Finish working on your assignment, put all your materials away, and line up quietly.” When students come from a less structured social activity like lunch or recess to a setting that requires quiet and attention, a transitional activity is important. For example, following recess, have students write in a journal one thing that was discussed in class the previous day. This can help prepare them for the day’s lesson and smooth the transition.

Establish, Teach, and Enforce Rules

To create an effective, efficient, and pleasant learning environment, it is important to establish, teach, and enforce reasonable, culturally sensitive, and developmentally appropriate classroom rules that promote your students’ learning, socialization, and safety (Babkie, 2006; Everston, Worsham, & Emmer, 2006). It is desirable for students to be involved in developing the rules, as it communicates to students that they are also responsible for their actions. Students also are more likely to follow rules that they help create. Therefore, you can work with students to develop reasonable rules that address cooperative and productive learning behaviors, guide classroom interactions, and are acceptable both to them and to you. You can ask students what rules they think the class needs, present classroom problems and ask students to brainstorm solutions and rules to address these problems, or have students create a classroom constitution or mission statement. Students also can help determine the consequences for following rules and the violations for breaking them. This process should have some flexibility based on students’ individual differences and circumstances.
You can follow several guidelines to make your rules meaningful to students (Babkie, 2006; Strout, 2005). Phrase rules so that they are concise, stated in the students' language, easily understood, and usable in many situations and settings. Each rule should begin with an action verb. It should include a behavioral expectation that is defined in observable terms and the benefits of following the rule. Your rules also should be respectful of your students' cultural, linguistic, and experiential backgrounds (Price & Karna, 2007). When exceptions to rules exist, identify the exceptions and discuss them in advance.

Whenever possible, state rules in positive terms. For example, a rule for in-seat behavior can be stated as “Work at your desk” rather than “Don’t get out of your seat.” Rules also can be stated in terms of students’ responsibilities such as “Show respect for yourself by doing your best.” Rules also may be needed and phrased to help students respect all students. For example, you may want to introduce rules related to teasing and name-calling such as “Be polite, show respect for others, and treat others fairly.”

It also is important that you help students learn the rules (Price & Nelson, 2007; Strout, 2005). You can do this by describing and demonstrating the observable behaviors that make up the rules, giving examples of rule violations and behaviors related to the rules, and role-playing rule-following and rule-violating behaviors. You and your students also can create T-charts that list what appropriate behaviors associated with the rules would look like and sound like (Stanford & Reeves, 2005). You can discuss the rationale for the rules, the contexts in which rules apply, and the need for and benefits of each rule. At the beginning, review the rules frequently with the class, asking students periodically to recite them or practice one of them. It also is important to praise students for following the rules and to offer positive and corrective feedback to students who initially fail to comply so that they can succeed in the future. For example, when a student breaks a rule, you can state the rule, request compliance, and offer options for complying with it.

Posting the rules on a neat, colorful sign in an easy-to-see location in the room also can help students remember them. Some students with disabilities and younger students may have difficulty reading, so pictures representing the rules are often helpful. You also can personalize this method by taking and posting photographs of students acting out the rules, labeling the photos, and using them as prompts for appropriate behavior. Additionally, you can help students understand the rules and commit to following them by enforcing the rules immediately and consistently and by reminding students of the rules when a class member complies with them.

USE CONSEQUENCE-BASED INTERVENTIONS

Consequence-based interventions are changes in the classroom events and stimuli that follow a behavior (Alberto & Troutman, 2006; Henley, 2006; Shea et al., 2007; Wheeler & Richey, 2005). Several consequence-based interventions will now be described.

Use Positive Reinforcement

A widely used, highly effective method for motivating students to engage in positive behaviors is positive reinforcement. With this method, an action is taken or stimulus is given after a behavior occurs. The action or stimulus increases the rate of the behavior or makes it more likely that the behavior will occur again. Actions or stimuli that increase the probability of a repeated behavior are called positive reinforcers. For example, you can use verbal and physical (e.g., smiling, signaling OK, giving a thumb’s up) praise as a positive reinforcer to increase a variety of classroom behaviors such as Matthew’s on-task behavior.

When using positive reinforcement, you need to consider several things (Bucalos & Lingo, 2005). First, it is critical to be consistent and make sure that reinforcers desired
An important part of creating inclusive classrooms is to having rules that foster student learning and interactions. To create effective classroom rules, consider the following questions:

- Are your rules necessary to prevent harm to others or their property?
- Do your rules promote the personal comfort of others?
- Do your rules promote learning?
- Do your rules encourage students to make friends?
- Do your rules address respectful behavior directed at peers, the teacher, or others in school?
- Are your rules logical and reasonable?
- How do your rules affect the class?
- Are your rules consistent with the school’s rules and procedures?
- Do you involve your students in creating rules?
- Are your rules consistent with students’ ages, maturity levels, cultural backgrounds, and learning and physical and behavioral needs?
- Do you have enough rules?
- Are your rules stated in positive terms and in language students can understand?
- Are your rules stated in observable terms?
- Are your consequences for following and not following the rules appropriate and fair?
- Are your rules easily enforceable?

How would you rate your rules? ( ) Excellent ( ) Good ( ) Need Improvement ( ) Need Much Improvement

Create a plan of action for improving the rules in your classroom that includes your goals, the actions you will take and the resources you will need to achieve them, and the ways you will evaluate your success.

by students are delivered after the behavior occurs, especially when the behavior is being learned. As the student becomes successful, gradually deliver the reinforcement less often and less quickly and raise the standards that students must meet to receive reinforcement.

One type of positive reinforcement used by many classroom teachers is based on “Grandma’s rule”: Premack’s principle. According to this rule, students can do something they like if they complete a less popular task first. For example, a student who works on an assignment for a while can earn an opportunity to work on the computer.

Another positive reinforcement system that can promote good behavior is the classroom lottery, in which you write students’ names on “lottery” tickets after they demonstrate appropriate behavior and place the tickets in a jar in full view of the class. At the end of the class or at various times during the day, you or a designated student draws names from the jar, and those selected receive reinforcement. The lottery system can be modified by having the class earn a group reward when the number of tickets accumulated exceeds a preestablished number.

Select Appropriate Reinforcers

Key components of positive reinforcement are the reinforcers or rewards that students receive. You can use a variety of culturally relevant edible, tangible, activity, social, and group reinforcers (Payne, Mancil, & Landers, 2005). However, you should be careful in using reinforcers because they can have negative effects on student motivation and performance (Kohn, 2003; Witzel & Mercer, 2003). You can address this problem by using reinforcers only when necessary, and carefully examining their impact on your students. You also can embed rewards in the activity, make rewards more subtle, use rewards equitably and for improved performance, combine rewards with praise, fade out the use of rewards, and encourage students to reinforce themselves via self-statements. Other guidelines for motivating students are presented in Chapter 9.
Many food reinforcers have little nutritional value and can cause health problems, so you should work with family members and health professionals to evaluate them with respect to students’ health needs and allergic reactions. Activity reinforcers, which allow students to perform an enjoyable task or activity that interests them, are highly motivating alternatives (Boyd, Alter, & Conroy, 2005). One flexible activity reinforcer is free time. It can be varied to allow students to work alone, with a peer, or with adults.

Class jobs also can motivate students. At first, you may assign class jobs. When students perform these jobs well, they can be given jobs that require more responsibility.

**Administer Reinforcement and Preference Surveys**

Many classroom management systems fail because the reinforcers are not appropriate, not desired by students, or effective. One way to solve this problem is to ask for students’ preferences via a reinforcement survey (Alberto & Troutman, 2006). You also can identify student preferences by observing students and interviewing others who know the student well (Boyd et al., 2005).

Teachers typically use three formats for reinforcement surveys: open-ended, multiple-choice, and rank order. The open-ended format asks students to identify reinforcers by completing statements about their preferences (“If I could choose the game we will play the next time we go to recess, it would be . . . ”). The multiple-choice format allows students to select one or more choices from a list of potential reinforcers (“If I had 15 minutes of free time in class, I’d like to (a) work on the computer, (b) play a game with a friend, or (c) listen to music on the headphones”). For the rank order format, students grade their preferences from strong to weak using a number system.

You can consider several factors when developing reinforcement or preference surveys. Items can be phrased using student language rather than professional jargon (reward rather than reinforcer) and can reflect a range of reinforcement. In addition, the effectiveness (“Do students like the reinforcers and engage in the activities?”), availability (“Will I be able to give the reinforcer at the appropriate times?”), practicality (“Is the reinforcer consistent with the class and school rules?”), cultural relevance (“Is the reinforcer consistent with the students’ cultural backgrounds?”), and cost (“Will the reinforcer prove too expensive to maintain?”) of reinforcers on the survey can be examined. Finally, because students may have reading and/or writing difficulties, you may need to read items for students as well as record their responses.

Alberto and Troutman (2006) and Raschke (1981) provide examples of many types of reinforcement surveys, and Reid and Green (2006), Stafford (2005), and Mason and Egel (1995) offer guidelines for using reinforcement surveys with students with developmental disabilities.

**Use Contracting**

You and your students may work together to develop a contract, a written agreement that outlines the behaviors and results of a specific behavior management system (Babkie, 2006; Downing, 2002; Pavri & Hegwer-DiVita, 2006). Contracts should give immediate and frequent reinforcement. They should be structured for success by calling at first for small changes in behavior. Both parties must consider the contract fair, and it must be stated in language that the students can read and understand.

A contract should be developed by you with your students. Family members and other professionals also can be involved in formulating the contract when they have specific roles in implementing it. Generally, contracts include the following elements:

- A statement of the specific behavior(s) the student(s) is to increase/decrease in observable terms
- A statement of the environment in which the contract will be used
This is a contract between ______________________ and __________________________________________. The contract starts on ______________________ and ends ______________________. We will renegotiate it on _______________________. During ______________________, Environmental conditions (times, classes, activities)
I (we) agree to _____________________________________________________________. Behavior student(s) will demonstrate
If I (we) do, I (we) will ___________________________________________________________. Reinforcer to be delivered
The teacher will help by ___________________________________________________________.
I (we) will help by _________________________________________________________________.

____________________________
Teacher’s Signature

____________________________
Student or Class Representative’s Signature

_______________
Date

• A list of the types and amounts of reinforcers and who will provide them
• A schedule for the delivery of reinforcers
• A list of the things the teacher and student(s) can do to increase the success of the system
• A time frame for the contract, including a date for renegotiation
• Signatures of the student(s) and teacher

Figure 7.4 presents an outline of a sample contract.

USE SELF-MANAGEMENT INTERVENTIONS

Self-management intervention strategies, also called cognitive behavioral interventions, actively involve students like Matthew in monitoring and changing their behaviors (Salend & Sylvestre, 2005). Several such strategies that have been used in many different inclusive settings are described here (Agran, Sinclair, Alper, Cavin, Wehmeyer, & Hughes, 2005; Reid et al., 2005). You may want to use combinations of these strategies. Students can be taught to use them by introducing the target behavior(s) and the self-management strategies and opportunities to practice and master them.

Self-Monitoring

In self-monitoring, often called self-recording, students measure their behaviors by using a data-collection system (Harris et al., 2005). For example, Matthew can be taught to increase his on-task behavior during class by placing a 1 in a box when he pays attention for several minutes and a 2 if he does not. He also can be given self-monitoring cards to prompt him to record his behavior. Sample self-recording systems are presented in Figure 7.5. Patton, Jolivette, and Ramsey (2006) and Vanderbilt (2005) offer guidelines for implementing self-monitoring in inclusive classrooms.
At different times throughout the class, place a ✓ in the box if you were paying attention. Place a – in the box if you weren’t paying attention.

Place a mark on the card each time you leave your seat.

At different times throughout the class, place a ✓ in the box if you were paying attention. Place a – in the box if you weren’t paying attention.

You can increase your students’ ability to record their own behavior by using a countoon, a recording sheet with a picture of the behavior and space for students to record each occurrence (Daly & Ranalli, 2003). A countoon for in-seat behavior, for example, would include a drawing of a student sitting in a chair with a box under the chair for recording.

**Self-Evaluation.** In self-evaluation or self-assessment, students are taught to evaluate their in-class behavior according to some standard or scale (Reid et al., 2005). For example, students like Matthew can rate their on-task and disruptive behavior using a 0 to 5 point (unacceptable to excellent) rating scale. Students then earn points, which they exchange for reinforcers, based on both their behavior and the accuracy of their rating.

You can use several strategies to assist your students in evaluating their behavior. Students can be given a listing of behaviors, which they can use to assess their behavior. For example, students like Matthew can be given a handout with the following behaviors:

- I raised my hand to answer questions.
- I paid attention to the teacher.
- I stayed in my seat.
Students also can be asked to respond to a series of questions that prompt them to evaluate their behavior. For example, they can respond to the following:

- How would you describe your behavior in class today?
- What positive behaviors did you use? What happened as a result of these behaviors?
- Which of your behaviors were problems? Why were these behaviors a problem?
- What are some things you could do to continue to use positive behaviors? To improve your behavior?

**Self-Reinforcement.** In **self-reinforcement**, students are taught to evaluate their behavior and then deliver self-selected rewards if appropriate (Reid et al., 2005). For example, after showing the correct behavior, students reinforce themselves by working for 15 minutes on the computer.

**Self-Managed Free-Token Response-Cost.** One system that has been used successfully by students with disabilities in inclusive settings is a **student-managed free-token response-cost** system. In this system, you give the student an index card with a certain number of symbols. The symbols represent the number of inappropriate behaviors the student may exhibit before losing the agreed-on reinforcement. After each inappropriate behavior, the student crosses out one of the symbols on the index card. If any symbols remain at the end of the class time, the student receives the agreed-on reinforcement.

**Self-Instruction.** **Self-instruction** teaches students to regulate their behaviors by verbalizing to themselves the questions and responses necessary to (a) identify problems (“What am I being asked to do?”), (b) generate potential solutions (“What are the ways to do it?”), (c) evaluate solutions (“What is the best way?”), (d) use appropriate solutions (“Did I do it?”), and (e) determine whether the solutions were effective (“Did it work?”). To help them do this, you can use cueing cards, index cards with pictures of the self-teaching steps for following directions (“stop, look, listen” and “think”) that are placed on the students’ desks to guide them.

**Self-Managing Peer Interactions.** A self-management system that students can use to deal with the inappropriate behavior of their peers is **3-Steps** (Schmid, 1998). When students are being bothered by peers, they use 3-Steps by (a) telling peers “Stop! I don’t like that,” (b) ignoring or walking away from peers if they do not stop, and (c) informing the teacher that they told them to stop, tried to ignore them, and are now seeking the teacher’s help.

**USE GROUP-ORIENTED MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS**

Group influence can be used to promote good behavior and decrease misbehavior by using **group-oriented systems**. Group-oriented management systems have several advantages over traditional methods: They foster cooperation among members; they teach responsibility to the group and enlist the class in solving classroom problems; they are adaptable to a variety of behaviors and classrooms; and they give students a positive method of dealing with the problems of peers.
Matthew is having difficulty completing assignments because he is frequently off task—leaving his seat, talking to classmates, playing with objects, and looking around the room. Matthew's teacher, Ms. McLeod, is concerned about this behavior and decides that Matthew could benefit from a strategy that increases his awareness of it. Ms. McLeod meets with Matthew. They discuss his behavior and the use of a self-management strategy, which Matthew agrees to try. Before starting, they meet again to discuss the system and the behavior. At first, they talk about the importance of Matthew paying attention. Ms. McLeod explains that on-task behavior means eyes on the materials and/or on the teacher. Next, she demonstrates specific, observable examples of on-task and off-task behaviors, emphasizing the features of each. Afterward, she asks Matthew to show examples and nonexamples of on-task behavior.

Ms. McLeod and Matthew then discuss the self-management system and its benefit. Next, Ms. McLeod demonstrates the system for Matthew and thinks out loud as she uses it, which prompts a discussion about the actual conditions in which the system will be used. Before using the system in class, they role-play it. Ms. McLeod assesses Matthew's use of the system and gives him feedback.

Ms. McLeod and Matthew meet again, and this time she asks him to complete a reinforcement survey. The survey includes the following completion items:

The things I like to do at school are ___________.
I am proudest in this class when I ___________.
When I have free time in class, I like to ___________.
The best reward the teacher could give me is ___________.
Something that I would work hard for is ___________.

Ms. McLeod is surprised by Matthew's responses. Rather than wanting tangible items, Matthew states that he would prefer a class job and extra time to spend with the teacher or his friends. Ms. McLeod and Matthew agree that if he succeeds in changing his behavior, he may choose a reward from among a class job, free time with a friend or Ms. McLeod, and the opportunity to work with a friend.

Next, they try the system in class. It involves placing on Matthew's desk a 4- by 6-inch index card that contains 10 drawings of eyes. When Matthew fails to engage in on-task behavior, he crosses out one of the eyes. If any eyes remain at the end of the class period, Matthew can choose one of the activities they discussed. With this system, Matthew is able to increase his on-task behavior, and Ms. McLeod notices that Matthew is doing more assignments and completing them more accurately.

Why did Ms. McLeod use a self-management system with Matthew? What did she do to promote the success of the system? What steps did Ms. McLeod use to teach Matthew to use the system? How could you use self-management strategies in your class? What benefits would they have for you and your students?

To answer these questions online and share your responses with others, go to the Reflection module in Chapter 7 of the Companion Website.

You can increase the likelihood that group-oriented systems will be successful by:

- teaching students how the system works,
- clarifying the behavior so everyone understands it,
- setting reasonable goals and increasing them gradually, and
- monitoring the system and providing students with ongoing feedback (Babyak, Luze, & Kamps, 2000).

When using group-oriented management systems, there are several possible problems. Because the success of these systems depends on the behavior of the whole group or class, a single disruptive individual can prevent the class from achieving its goals. If this happens, the offender can be removed and dealt with individually. Group-
oriented management systems also can result in peer pressure and scapegoating, so you must carefully observe the impact of these systems on your students. You can attempt to minimize problems by establishing behavioral levels that *all students and groups* can achieve. You can choose target behaviors that benefit *all students*, allowing those who do not want to participate in a group to opt out. You also can use heterogeneous groups and limit the competition between groups so that groups compete against a criterion level rather than against other groups.

**Use Interdependent Group Systems**

When several students in a class have a behavior problem, a good strategy is an *interdependent* group system. The system is applied to the entire group, and its success depends on the behavior of the group. Popular reinforcers for groups of students are free time, a class trip, a party for the class, time to play a group game, or a special privilege.

**Group Free-Token Response-Cost System.** One effective interdependent group system is a *group response-cost* system with free tokens (Salend & Allen, 1985). The group is given a certain number of tokens, which are placed in full view of the students and in easy reach of the teacher (e.g., paper strips on an easel or marks on the chalkboard). A token is removed each time a class member misbehaves. If any tokens remain at the end of the time period, the agreed-on reinforcement is given to the whole group. As the group becomes successful, the number of tokens given can gradually be decreased. Adaptations of this system include allowing students to be responsible for removing the tokens (Salend & Lamb, 1986) and making each token worth a set amount. An illustration of the group response-cost system is presented in Figure 7.6a.

**Good Behavior Game.** The *Good Behavior Game* is an interdependent group system whereby the class is divided into two or more groups. Each group’s inappropriate behaviors are recorded by a slash on the blackboard (see Figure 7.6b). If the

![Figure 7.6 Illustrations of group-oriented management strategies](image-url)
total number of slashes is less than the number specified by the teacher, the groups earn special privileges.

You can modify the Good Behavior Game to account for different types and frequencies of misbehaviors. The system can be tailored to the students by having different groups work on different target behaviors and with different criterion levels. To minimize the competition between groups, each group can earn the reinforcement if the number of misbehaviors is less than the group’s own frequency level. For example, one group may work on decreasing calling out and have a criterion level of 25, and another group may work on reducing cursing and have a criterion level of 8. Rather than competing, each group earns reinforcement if its number of slashes is less than its own criterion level. You also can modify the Good Behavior Game by giving groups merit cards for positive behaviors of the group or of individual members. These merit cards are then used to remove slashes that the group has previously earned. Babyak, Luze, and Kamps (2000) provide guidelines for using the Good Behavior Game in inclusive settings.

**Group Evaluation.** A variety of group evaluation systems promote good classroom behavior. Two examples are the group average group evaluation system and the consensus-based interdependent group evaluation system. In the group average system, you give an evaluation form to each student in the group and ask each student to rate the group’s behavior. You then determine a group rating by computing an average of the students’ ratings. You also rate the group’s behavior using the same form, and the group rating is compared with your rating. The group earns points, which are exchanged for reinforcers, based on their behavior and accuracy in rating their behavior.

The consensus-based system consists of (a) dividing the class into teams and giving each team an evaluation form, (b) having each team use a consensus method for determining the team’s ratings of the class’s behavior, (c) having the teacher rate the class’s behavior using the same evaluation form, (d) comparing each team’s ratings with the teacher’s rating, and (e) giving reinforcement to each team based on the behavior of the class and the team’s accuracy in rating that behavior.

Group evaluation also can be adapted so that one student’s evaluation of the behavior of the whole group determines the reinforcement for the whole class. In this system, you and your students rate the class’s behavior using the same evaluation form. You then randomly select a student whose rating represents the class’s rating. Your rating is compared with this student’s rating, and the group receives reinforcement based on the class’s behavior and the student’s agreement with your rating.

**Use Dependent Group Systems**

A dependent group system is used when a student’s behavior problem is reinforced by his or her peers. In this system, the contingency is applied to the whole class, depending on the behavior of one member (Hansen & Lignugaris/Kraft, 2005). For example, you can use this system by randomly selecting several of your students who can earn free time for the whole class based on their achieving a specific level of appropriate behavior. When using a dependent group system, you need to be careful to assess the reactions of your students to their classmates who engage in behaviors that prevent the class from earning the desired contingency.

**Use Independent Group Systems**

In an independent group system, individual students are reinforced based on their own performance or behavior. Thus, reinforcement is available to each student, depending on that student’s behavior.

**Token Economy Systems.** One independent group system that works well in both general and special education classes is a token economy system (Cruz & Cullinan, 2001; Gunter, Coutinho, & Cade, 2002). Students earn tokens for showing
appropriate behavior and can redeem these tokens for social, activity, tangible, and edible reinforcers. The steps of token economy systems are as follows:

**Step 1.** Collaborate with students and their families to determine the rules and behaviors that students must use to receive tokens.

**Step 2.** Choose tokens that are safe, attractive, durable, inexpensive, easy to handle and dispense, and controllable by the teacher. In selecting tokens, consider the age and cognitive abilities of students and the number of tokens needed per student.

**Step 3.** Identify the reinforcers that students want and determine how many tokens each item is worth. You can establish a store where students may go to buy items with their tokens and allow students to work in the store on a rotating basis. Keep a record of what items students buy and stock the store with those items. Consider using an auction system in which students bid for available items.

**Step 4.** Collect other materials needed for the token economy system, such as a container for students to store their tokens and a chart to keep a tally of students’ tokens. You also can establish a bank where students can store their tokens, earn interest when saving them for a period of time, and invest in stocks, commodity futures, certificates of deposit, and Treasury bills (Cook, 1999).

**Step 5.** Arrange the room for effective and efficient use of the system. For example, desks can be arranged so that you have easy access to all students when dispensing tokens.

**Step 6.** Introduce and explain the token system to students.

**Step 7.** Use the token system. At first, give large numbers of tokens to students by catching students behaving appropriately, and allow students to exchange their tokens for reinforcers on a regular basis to show that the tokens have real value. Pair the delivery of tokens with praise and tell the students exactly which appropriate behavior(s) was exhibited. Use a timer to remind you to dispense tokens.

**Step 8.** Determine how to handle incorrect behavior. You can use a time-out card, which is placed on students’ desks for a brief period to indicate that no tokens can be earned. When students behave appropriately for a brief, specified time period, the time-out card is removed and students can earn tokens. Avoid taking away tokens when students do not have enough tokens.

**Step 9.** Revise the system to correct any problems. For example, if a student is suspected of stealing tokens from others, give the student tokens that are unique in shape or color.

**Step 10.** Begin to phase out the token system. You can do this by increasing the number of appropriate responses necessary to earn a token, increasing the number of tokens needed for a specific reinforcer, giving tokens on an
intermittent schedule, using fewer verbal prompts, giving students fewer chances to exchange tokens for reinforcers, and using a graduated reinforcement system that moves toward the use of naturally occurring reinforcers.

**EMPLOY BEHAVIOR REDUCTION INTERVENTIONS**

Teachers also are concerned about misbehavior and its impact on the learning environment and other students. When students misbehave, try to deal with it in a calm, matter-of-fact manner without holding grudges (Price & Nelson, 2007). There are many ways of decreasing misbehavior. In using one of these strategies, it is important to make sure you teach positive replacement behaviors that can serve as alternatives to the misbehaviors that are being reduced (Mitchem, 2005). For example, while using strategies to decrease Matthew’s calling out, Ms. McLeod also would use interventions that help Matthew learn to raise his hand to speak. You also want to make sure that your response to student behavior doesn't escalate it (Shukla-Mehta & Albin, 2003). Therefore, when selecting a procedure, carefully consider the following questions:

- Is the strategy aversive?
- Does it produce bad side effects?
- Is it effective?
- Does it allow me to teach another behavior to replace the undesirable one?

Another issue to consider is the *least restrictive alternative* principle, also referred to as the *least intrusive alternative*. Use this principle as a guide in selecting methods that reduce the problem behavior without limiting a student’s freedom more than necessary and without being physically or psychologically unappealing. Several methods for decreasing misbehavior are presented here.

**Use Redirection, Choice Statements, and Corrective Teaching**

**Redirection** involves making comments or using behaviors designed to interrupt the misbehavior and prompt students to use appropriate behavior and work on the activity at hand (Babkie, 2006; Herschell et al., 2002). Redirection is most effective when it is done unobtrusively and early in the behavioral sequence. Typically, this involves removing the individuals, objects, or stimuli that appear to be causing the misbehavior, and stating clearly what you want students to do. Other redirection strategies include

- introducing a new stimulus to recapture the student’s attention;
- signaling the student verbally and nonverbally to stop a behavior;
- offering to help the student with a task;
- engaging the student in conversation;
- reminding the student to focus on the assignment;
- changing the activity or some aspect of it;
- giving the student a choice between good behavior and a minor punishment, such as a loss of recess;
- modeling calm and controlled behavior, and using humor (Bucalos & Lingo, 2005).

You also can redirect students by using *choice statements*, which prompt students to choose between engaging in positive behavior and accepting the consequences associated with continued misbehavior. Based on the age of your students and the nature of the behavior, you can use the following choice statements:

- When-then (When you ___________, then you can ___________.)
- If-then (If you ___________, then I will/you can ___________.)
Corrective teaching is used to redirect and prompt students to behave well. Each time students misbehave, use corrective teaching by (a) approaching students individually with a positive or empathetic comment, (b) briefly describing the misbehavior, (c) briefly describing the desired behavior, (d) explaining why the desired behavior is important, (e) having students practice and role-play or repeat the steps in the desired behavior, and (f) delivering feedback, praise, or points. To view examples of a teacher redirecting students, go to “Case 1: Difficult Behavior” on the Inclusive Classrooms CD-ROM, and click on the “Anticipate and Redirect” and “Keystone Behaviors” video clips. How does the teacher use anticipation and redirection to promote positive behavior?

Employ Interspersed Requests

Interspersed requests, also known as preferred-based teaching, pretask requests, high-probability request sequences, and behavioral momentum, can be used to decrease students’ avoidance and challenging behaviors and to help students make transitions, and avoid a series of escalating misbehaviors (Olive, 2004; Reid & Green, 2006). Interspersed requests motivate students to do a difficult or unpleasant task by first asking them to perform several easier or preferred tasks that they can complete successfully in a short period of time. You do this by asking students to do two to five easy or enjoyable tasks before giving them a task that they might resist or refuse to perform. After the learning activity is completed, you also can have students engage in a preferred activity.

Use Positive Reductive Procedures/Differential Reinforcement Techniques

In using positive reductive procedures, also called differential reinforcement techniques, you reinforce and increase a positive behavior that cannot coexist with the misbehavior that you want to decrease; this reduces the incidence of misbehavior (Hester, 2002). For example, to decrease Matthew’s off-task behaviors, you could reinforce him when he is on-task.

Use Planned Ignoring

In planned ignoring, also called extinction, the positive reinforcers of a behavior are withheld or ended (Mitchem, 2005). When this happens, the behavior decreases. For example, Matthew’s teachers might be inadvertently maintaining his habit of calling out by reminding him to raise his hand and by responding to his off-task comments. Rather than giving him attention through these reminders, you could decrease the behavior by ignoring his calling out.

Planned ignoring takes time to be effective and often initially increases the rate and/or intensity of misbehavior (Payne et al., 2005). Therefore, you should use it only for behaviors that can be changed gradually and when you can identify and withhold all reinforcers that are maintaining these behaviors. You can speed up the effectiveness of planned ignoring by combining it with reinforcement of appropriate alternative behaviors. Planned ignoring should not be used for behaviors maintained by reinforcers that cannot be withdrawn, such as peer attention. Finally, planned ignoring might increase aggressive behavior.

Consider Careful Reprimands

Occasionally, you may need to use reprimands to deal with misbehavior. You can make these reprimands more effective by using them carefully and infrequently, by making them brief, firm, and matter-of-fact, and by delivering them immediately after the
misbehavior occurs and in close contact to the student. Reprimands are specific statements delivered in an assertive tone of voice that direct students to engage in an appropriate alternative behavior ("Stop now, and do your work") rather than questions ("Why aren’t you doing your work?"). Reprimands should be focused on the behavior rather than the student (Ferko, 2005). You also should combine reprimands with appropriate nonverbal behaviors such as eye contact, gestures and facial expressions, and avoid the use of sarcasm and judgmental language, which can harm students’ self-esteem and cause negative comments from peers.

Rather than use a public verbal reprimand, you can speak to students privately about behavior problems (Duda & Utley, 2005). In these meetings, you can briefly and succinctly tell them what you think, ask probing questions such as “Are you having problems with the assignment?” and discuss a plan for acting appropriately. To view an example of a teacher using a reprimand, go to “Case 2: Classroom Climate” on the Inclusive Classrooms CD-ROM, and click on the “Careful Reprimand” video clip. What aspects of the reprimand made it effective?

HOW CAN I PREVENT STUDENTS FROM HARMING OTHERS?

As reflections of society, schools, unfortunately, are dealing with a growing number of incidents where students are threatening or harming each other (Kaplan & Cornell, 2005). Therefore, your school will need to establish schoolwide programs and strategies for situations that involve bullying and other violent acts (Heinrichs, 2003). You also can work with students and their families and professionals to create a safe, caring school environment that does not tolerate bullying, harassment, or violent acts and that fosters and acknowledges acceptance of individual differences and the development of friendships (see Chapter 5).

STUDENTS WHO ARE BULLIES

You may need to deal with bullying or peer harassment in your classroom or school that has a negative academic, psychological, behavioral, and physical effect on bullies, their victims, and bystanders (Bennett, 2004; Olweus, 2003). Bullying reflects a power imbalance in social relationships that results in repeated instances of peer harassment that cause harm (Chamberlain, 2003b; Keenan, 2004). Bullying and peer harassment may take different forms:

- **Verbal and written:** name-calling, taunting, and negative and threatening comments, phone calls, or e-mails
- **Physical:** hitting; pushing; scratching; unwanted sexual touching; damaging personal property; extorting money; and gestures that imply disapproval, intimidation, or derogatory comments
- **Social:** spreading false rumors, excluding from a group, or sharing personal information
- **Sexual:** sexually harassing and/or abusing others, and engaging in exhibitionism or voyeurism (McNamara, 1996; Trautman, 2003)

With the growing use of the technology, cyberbullying has become a major form of bullying that you and your students may encounter (Franek, 2006). Cyberbullying can occur via harmful, inappropriate, threatening, embarrassing, and hurtful e-mails, text messages, blogs, and text, images, and photos postings on the Internet. You and your colleagues at school can counter cyberbullying by making sure that schoolwide antibullying policies and programs address this form of bullying. It also is important for
technology instruction to address rules and ways to use technology in appropriate, safe and respectful ways, and communicate with and share this information with students’ families. Jones (2006) provides online resources for promoting online citizenship.

Male bullies are more likely to engage in physical bullying (Olweus, 2003), whereas female students are more likely to bully by exclusion, manipulation of friendships, gossipping, and other forms of social bullying (Brown, 2005; Meadows, 2004; Simmons, 2004). Although all students may be targeted by bullies, as Table 7.4 suggests, some students are particularly likely to be victimized by bullies, including students with disabilities, students identified as gifted and talented, and those with other individual differences.

Rigby (2002), Olweus, Limber, and Mihalic (1999), Stein and Cappello (1999), Beane (1999), Mullin-Rindler, Froschl, Sprung, Stein, and Gropper (1998), and Garrity et al. (1997) offer bullying prevention curriculum guides that can be used with elementary- and secondary-level students. You can collaborate with students, families, professionals, and other interested parties to develop, implement, and evaluate your school’s bullying prevention program (Garbarino & deLara, 2003). Such a program should provide information to educators and families about the warning signs that a student is being bullied, which may include

- an avoidance of school;
- a sudden decrease in academic performance;

### TABLE 7.4 Possible characteristics of bullies and their targets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Passive Targets</th>
<th>Provocative Targets</th>
<th>Bullies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Physically weaker than peers</td>
<td>Physically weaker than peers</td>
<td>Physically stronger than peers (especially their targets)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Body anxiety&quot;</td>
<td>Typically boys</td>
<td>Physically effective in play, sports, and fights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physically ineffective in play, sports, and fights</td>
<td>&quot;Body anxiety&quot;</td>
<td>Aggressive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack physical coordination</td>
<td>Negative view of themselves</td>
<td>&quot;Want their own way&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cautious</td>
<td>Unhappy</td>
<td>Brag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quiet, withdrawn, or passive</td>
<td>Anxious</td>
<td>Hot-tempered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easily upset, emotional</td>
<td>Insecure</td>
<td>Impulsive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxious</td>
<td>Hot-tempered</td>
<td>Easily frustrated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insecure</td>
<td>Lack focus</td>
<td>Oppositional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor self-esteem</td>
<td>Attempt to fight or talk back when bullied but ineffective</td>
<td>Defiant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Viewed as &quot;easy targets&quot;</td>
<td>Hyperactive, restless</td>
<td>Good at talking themselves out of difficult situations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty asserting themselves</td>
<td>Viewed as offensive and rude</td>
<td>Show little empathy for targets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t tease, not aggressive</td>
<td>&quot;High-maintenance&quot;</td>
<td>Not typically anxious or insecure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relate better to adults than peers</td>
<td>Clumsy</td>
<td>Better than average self-esteem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor to good academic performance</td>
<td>Immature</td>
<td>Average to above average popularity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Irritating habits</td>
<td>Average to above average academic performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Highly disliked by peers</td>
<td>Both popularity and school performance tend to decline in middle and high school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disliked by some adults, including teachers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>May bully weaker students</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reflective
Does your school have policies for dealing with bullying, intolerant behaviors, and derogatory language? What procedures and practices are addressed in the policy? How effective is the policy?

Educators and families also should receive information to help them identify bullies (Heinrichs, 2003). As Table 7.4 also indicates, bullies tend to be physically stronger and more aggressive, impulsive, and defiant than their classmates.

The school’s bullying prevention program also should help students, professionals, and family members understand their roles and responsibilities in addressing peer harassment, and provide them with preventive and proactive strategies and policies to deal with bullying (Mishna, 2003). Bullying prevention strategies and policies include the following:

- Conducting a survey to determine the nature and extent of bullying problems
- Establishing school rules that prevent bullying, such as students in this school will not bully others, will treat everyone with respect, and will help others who are bullied; and consequences when these rules are not followed
- Using a confidential message box that allows students to report incidents of bullying
- Holding meetings with students to discuss bullying incidents
- Identifying locations where bullying is most likely to occur and increasing supervision of those places
- Modeling respectful behaviors toward others
- Creating a school environment that does not tolerate bullying by forming friendship groups and having students make No Bullying Zone posters
- Supervising problem locations, and confronting and disciplining bullies quickly and firmly by addressing their inappropriate behavior and using the situation as an opportunity to teach prosocial behaviors (e.g., “What you did to Juan was wrong, mean, and hurtful.” “I don’t know where you learned that type of behavior, but we don’t act that way in this school.” “Is there anything you wish to say to me?” and “What are we going to do to make sure it doesn’t happen again?”)
- Addressing victims of bullying by being supportive, refuting the actions of bullies, and informing them that you will take action to address the situation; for example, “I’m sorry that John did that to you. He was wrong and it was not fair to you. I don’t know where he learned that, but I am going to talk with him about this.”
- Referring bullies and their victims for counseling and other appropriate services
- Fostering communication among and between teachers and families (Bennett, 2004; Heinrichs, 2003; Kinnell, 2003; Migliore, 2003)

Social skills instruction may prevent bullying (Bennett, 2004; Heinrichs, 2003). You can help bullies develop empathy for others and teach them self-management and anger management skills. Kellner, Bry, and Colleti (2002) provide guidelines for teaching anger management skills to students, and Williams and Reisberg (2003) offer CALM, a mnemonic-based learning strategy that prompts students to manage their anger. You can give students a “cool card” that reminds them to take a deep breath, count backwards from 10, and think of something relaxing (Anderson, Fisher, Marchant, Young, & Smith, 2006). You also can have bullies engage in acts that benefit and show respect for others. For example, students who have used bullying can be asked to apologize and do something nice for their victims, clean up part of the school, reflect on how harassment
makes their victims feel, or keep a journal of their acts of kindness (Garrity, Jens, Porter, Sager, & Short-Camilli, 1997). Victims of bullying need to learn how to understand social cues to avoid being a victim and to respond in an assertive way that does not make the situation worse (Migliore, 2003). They must also understand when and how to get help from adults. Students who are neither bullies nor victims need to learn how to actively support victims and how to counteract bullies and their harassing acts.

**Students with Aggressive and Violent Behaviors**

As we have seen in our nation’s schools, all segments of society and all parts of the country are encountering violence. By being aware of the warning signs, you may be able to prevent aggressive and violent acts from occurring. The early warning signs include social withdrawal, feelings of isolation, persecution or rejection, low motivation, poor school performance, anger, frequent discipline problems, fights with others, intolerance of individual differences, substance abuse, and membership in gangs. While the signs vary, some of the common indicators of an escalating situation are verbal abuse (e.g., cursing and threats), shouting, body tenseness, destruction of property, self-injurious actions, threatening verbal statements and physical gestures, and possession of weapons.

If you encounter a violent incident, you should attempt to follow the school policies for dealing with such situations. These policies often include assessing the situation, evacuating the classroom as soon as possible, getting help, and trying to defuse the situation. Some strategies that you use to defuse a crisis include the following:

- Remain calm and controlled.
- Allow the student to vent anger and feelings verbally.
- Ignore irrelevant comments and have the student focus on the relevant issues.
- Listen to the student without interrupting or denying the student’s feelings.
- Use the student’s name, and speak in a clear, moderate voice and in a slow, empathetic manner.
- Establish limits that clearly and concisely inform the student of the choices and consequences.
- Maintain a positive body posture, with the hands open and in view and eye contact without staring.
- Consider the cultural and experiential background of the student.
- Remain close to the student while respecting the student’s personal space.
- Persuade the student to leave the room.
- Ask the student to carefully lay down any weapon carried.

After the incident, you may need to continue to calm the student down, give support, send for medical assistance (if necessary), notify administrators and/or the police, file a report, counsel students, contact family members, and seek counseling. Murdick, Gartin, and Yalowitz (1995) offer teachers precrisis, crisis, and postcrisis guidelines for dealing with violent behaviors, and Meese (1997) offers strategies for preventing and reacting to student fights.

**How Can I Adapt the Classroom Design to Accommodate Students’ Learning, Social, and Physical Needs?**

The design of the classroom environment can complement your teaching style and help students learn, behave well, and develop social skills (Everston et al., 2006; Strout, 2005). You can affirm students and the value of education by creating an aesthetically pleasing,
cheerful, and inviting classroom that is clean, well-lit, odor free, colorful, and respectful of your students’ unique identities and challenges. For example, background music in selected locations and at selected times (Rothman Press, 2006), varied and comfortable furniture, and quiet areas for reflection can establish a classroom environment that values learning and individuality (Nielsen & Higgins, 2005). Your classroom can also be designed to ensure student safety if you check to make sure that high-traffic locations are accessible to all of your students and free of congestion, electrical wires are anchored and covered, dangerous materials and equipment are locked in cabinets, sharp edges and broken furniture are removed, and walls, floors, and equipment are in good condition.

To view examples of effective uses of classroom space, go to “Case 1: Difficult Behavior” on the Inclusive Classrooms CD-ROM, and click on the “Materials and Space” video clip; also go to the “Participating in an IEP Meeting” section of the Developing Effective IEPs CD-ROM, and click on the video clip “Mrs. Maheady.” How do the classroom designs foster learning, positive behavior, friendships, and independence?

**Seating Arrangements**

Generally, students are seated in areas that allow them to see clearly all presentations and displays (Biddulph et al., 2006; Strout, 2005). These locations also allow you to see and reach your students. When small-group teacher-directed instruction is used, students can be seated in a semicircle facing you. In a larger-group teacher-directed activity, it may be better for all students to face you sitting in a row, circular, or horseshoe arrangement. When students work in groups, they can arrange their desks so that they face each other, allowing them to share information efficiently and quietly. You also can encourage students to personalize their work area.

Each student’s desk should be of the right size and should be placed so as to include the student in all classroom activities and maintain good posture and body alignment. The space around students’ desks should be large enough to give you easy access to students in order to monitor performance and distribute papers. Students also need a place to store their materials so that they are readily available to students when they need them. If students’ desks are not large enough, tote trays can be used to store their supplies.

**Teacher’s Desk**

The location of your desk allows you to monitor behavior and progress and to move quickly if a problem occurs. For monitoring students, your desk can be placed in an area that provides a view of the whole classroom. Any obstacles that prevent you from scanning different parts of the room can be removed. When you are working with students in other parts of the room, you can sit facing the other students in the class.

**Bulletin Boards and Walls**

Bulletin boards can help you create a pleasant, attractive environment that promotes learning and class pride. Decorative bulletin boards make the room attractive and interesting and often relate to a theme. Motivational bulletin boards encourage students by showing progress and publicly displaying their work. Instructional bulletin boards, or teaching walls, often include an acquisition wall, which introduces new concepts and material, and a maintenance wall, which reviews previously learned concepts. Manipulative bulletin boards use materials that students can manipulate to learn new skills.

 Displays should be planned so that they are at the students’ eye level. Whenever possible, involve students in decorating areas of the room so that the walls and ceiling of the classroom are colorful and attractive.

 You also can include a space for displaying student assignments, as well as pictures, posters, and art forms that reflect the students’ families, homes, neighborhoods, and other
cultural groups that may not be represented in the classroom. Posting the daily assignment schedule and examples of products on part of the bulletin board or wall can help students remember to perform all assigned tasks. Wall displays can include a clock, a list of class rules, and calendar large enough to be seen from all parts of the classroom.

**Learning Centers and Specialized Areas**

Learning centers provide variety in the classroom and help you individualize instruction (King-Sears, 2005; 2006). They also can help students develop independent and problem-solving skills and learn to work collaboratively. Special areas of the room may be established for specific functions such as areas for direct instruction, small-group discussions, and individualized interactions (Nielsen & Higgins, 2005).

**Classroom Design Adaptations**

Many students, especially those with disabilities, need specific classroom design modifications in order to perform as well as possible. Guidelines for physical adaptations of general education classrooms are outlined here.

**Students from Diverse Cultural and Language Backgrounds**

You can arrange the classroom environment to support the language learning of your students by making language part of all classroom activities and routines (Justice, 2004). For instance, you can label work areas and objects in the classroom. You also can give students access to materials and learning activities, set up social and work areas, listening areas, and meeting areas, and allow students to sit and work with peer models.

**Students with Hearing Impairments**

Classroom design adaptations should help students with hearing impairments gain information from teachers and interact with peers (Kaderavek & Pakulski, 2002; Williams & Finnegan, 2003). To make it easier to use lip reading and residual hearing, the desks of students with hearing impairments can be placed in a central location, about two rows from the front, where students can see the teacher’s and other students’ lips. Hearing and lip reading also can be fostered by having the students sit in swivel chairs on casters. This makes it easy for them to move and to follow conversations. If students with hearing impairments cannot see the speaker’s lips, they can be allowed to change their seats. During teacher-directed activities, these students can be seated near the teacher and to one side of the room, where they have a direct line of sight to the lips of peers and teachers. A staggered seating arrangement also can help students have a direct view of speakers (Dodd-Murphy & Mamlin, 2002). A semicircular seating arrangement can promote lip reading during small-group instruction, and it is recommended that you position yourself in front of the student when delivering one-on-one instruction.

Lighting and noise levels should also be considered in setting up work areas for students with hearing impairments (Haller & Montgomery, 2004; Kaderavek & Pakulski, 2002). Glaring light can hinder lip reading; therefore, the source of information should not be in a poorly lighted area or one where the light is behind the speaker. Structural noises such as those of heating and cooling units; furniture movements; and external airborne noises, such as cars or construction outside the school, can be reduced by using carpets and acoustic tiles on the floor, drapes on windows, and sound-absorbent room dividers. Also, classes containing students with hearing impairments can be placed in rooms in quiet locations and away from noise centers such as gymnasiums.
The acoustical environment and the noise level in the classroom also can be improved by placing fabrics on desks and tables, cork protectors on the edges of desks to reduce the sounds of desks closing, rubber tips on the ends of the legs of chairs and desks, and absorbent materials on the walls (Dodd-Murphy & Mamlin, 2002).

Students with hearing impairments may benefit from sitting next to an alert and responsible peer who can help them follow along during verbal conversations by indicating changes in the speaker (Dodd-Murphy & Mamlin, 2002). A peer also can be assigned to give these students information conveyed on the intercom system. Peers also can help students with hearing impairments react to fire drills (flashing lights for fire alarms also can be located throughout the school). However, as students with hearing impairments adjust to the general education classroom, the help they receive from peers should be phased out.

**Students with Visual Impairments**

Several classroom design adaptations can help students with visual impairments function successfully in inclusive settings (Brody, 2006; Cox & Dykes, 2001; Griffin et al.,...
Many classrooms contain background noises from the street, the hallways, and the ventilation and lighting systems. These background noises can interfere with student learning and behavior, especially for students with learning, attention, and hearing difficulties. While you can improve the acoustics in your classroom by adding carpets and drapes, you also can use technology such as sound-field amplification systems (DiSarno, Schowalter, & Grassa, 2002; Dodd-Murphy & Mamlin, 2002). Without having to raise your voice, sound-field amplification systems use FM and wireless technology to increase the sound of your voice and focus student attention on verbal information (Maag & Anderson, 2006). They serve to decrease the distance between you and your students and lessen the background noises that prevent students from hearing you.

There are two types of sound-field amplification systems: sound-field and personal FM (Hopkins, 2006; Pakulski & Kaderavek, 2002). In both systems, you wear a small, lightweight wireless microphone, which allows you to move around the classroom. In the sound-field system, your speech is amplified for all of your students via a loudspeaker installed in your classroom. In the personal FM system, selected students wear headphones with a receiver that allows them to hear you more clearly.

While these systems improve the performance of all students who use them, you need to remember to turn off the systems when you are directing comments to specific students or other professionals. You also should be aware that sound-field systems have several advantages over personal FM systems (DiSarno et al., 2002). They are less costly and are used by all students. Because individual students do not have to wear headsets, there is no stigma associated with their use. When using these systems, it is important to note that they do not lessen the negative impacts of noisy classrooms.

Here are some other ways you can use technology to create inclusive classroom environments that support student learning and behavior:

- Use an electronic system to prompt students to engage in prosocial behavior (Flaute, Peterson, Van Norman, Riffle, & Eakins, 2005) and provide students with feedback on their behavior (Condon & Tobin, 2001). For example, Flaute et al. (2005) used a vibrating electronic device set by teachers called the MotivAider to increase the appropriate behaviors of individual students and groups of students. Similarly, Condon and Tobin (2001) increased students’ prosocial behaviors by using an electronic digit-display device, which was activated remotely by a teacher to provide feedback on behavior.
- Use handheld computers or personal digital assistants (PDAs) to record and graph observations of student behavior and to send text messages to students about their behavior (Bauer & Ulrich, 2002; Parette et al., 2005).
- Teach students to use software packages to record, graph, store, access, and reflect on data regarding their learning and behavior (Gunter, Miller, Venn, Thomas, & House, 2002).
- Foster students’ use of self-management techniques by teaching them to use PDAs and auditory-based technology systems to visually and auditorially prompt them to demonstrate, self-record, self-evaluate, and self-reinforce their prosocial behaviors (Bauer & Ulrich, 2002; Post et al., 2002). For example, students can use digital storage devices such as Voice-It Plus (www.recorderplus.com) to create, store, and hear brief prompts and reminders related to their behavior.
- Use video self-modeling to help students learn and practice prosocial behaviors by viewing videos of activities and their behaviors in inclusive settings (Buggey, 2005; Wert et al., 2005).
- Use PDAs and computer-based activity schedules, which employ combinations of pictures, graphics, symbols, words, sounds, and voices to prompt students to engage in appropriate behaviors and social skills and help them make transitions from one scheduled activity to another (Ferguson et al., 2005; Parette et al., 2005; Schworm, 2006; Stromer, Kimball, Kinney, & Taylor 2006) and to depict the easiest, safest and best ways to transfer, transport, and assist students with physical disabilities (Peck, 2004).
- Allow students to earn opportunities to use technology by demonstrating appropriate behavior (Fabiano & Pelham, 2003), and to indicate their preferences for reinforcers via computer-based videos (Mechling, Gast, & Cronin, 2006).
- Use a TeachTimer, an electronic device that provides students and teachers with a visual record of the amount of time allotted for an activity and signals when one activity is over and another is about to begin (Mainzer, Castellani, Lowry, & Nunn, 2006).
- Use virtual reality to help students develop their social skills, and wheelchair driving and mobility skills. For example, the Oregon Research Initiative (www.ori.org/~vr/projects/vrmobility.html) has developed an on-line program that students can log onto to practice their wheelchair mobility in various
environments (Smedley & Higgins, 2005), and Moore et al. (2005) have developed a collaborative virtual environment that can be used to teach students to interpret facial expressions depicting happiness, sadness, anger, and fright.

- Help students develop their attention, concentration, and memory skills by accessing S.M.A.R.T. Brain Games (www.smartbraingames.com) or The Play Attention Learning System (www.playattention.com/main.html) to play a series of video games using neurofeedback technology and adapted automation that are designed to improve attention to tasks. In these games, students increase their chances of winning the games by improving their attention.

- Use on-line antibullying and violence prevention programs and resources. Stop Bullying Now (stopbullyingnow.hrsa.gov) is a website that uses novel ways to provide information to students, families, and professionals about bullying and ways to prevent it. At this site, students can play games that introduce them to information about bullying or view webisodes, brief animated scenarios depicting bullying behaviors that students can analyze.

- Provide students with visual impairments with illuminated magnifiers that allow them to coordinate the distance from the light source to the text, and the magnification of the print, and specially designed high-wattage, low-glare lightbulbs (Griffin et al., 2002).

- Incorporate the principles of universal design by having motion sensors, automatic buttons, keypad entry, and voice recognition to activate doors, lights, lockers, elevators, sinks, and toilets; using keypad entry of fingerprint; and installing Braille and audible buttons in important school locations and on signs, maps, and elevators (Pivik et al., 2002; Wehmeyer et al., 2004). Similarly, students with visual impairments can carry a small Global Positioning System (GPS) receiver offering orally or Braille presented step-by-step directions that can guide them in moving around schools and classrooms and finding locations, objects and materials (Noonan, 2006).

You can encourage them to use their residual vision by providing a glare-free and well-lit work area, having adjustable lighting, and locating their work space so they don’t face the windows. You also can reduce problems associated with glare by painting mild colors on walls, covering shiny surfaces with small rugs or sheets, using a gray-green chalkboard, placing adjustable translucent shades or blinds on windows, installing furniture and equipment with matte finishes, and positioning desks so that the light comes over the shoulder of the student’s nondominant hand. During teacher-directed activities, the student should not have to look directly into the light to see the teacher. To reduce the fatigue associated with bending over, desks should have adjustable tops.

The work area for students with visual impairments should offer an unobstructed view of instructional activities, and a direct trail to the major parts of the room (Voltz, Brazil, & Ford, 2001). When these students first come to your classroom, they can be taught how to move around the room and from their desk to the major classroom locations. These students can learn to navigate the classroom and the school by using trace trailing, directing them to the routes between their desks and major classroom and school landmarks by having them touch the surfaces of objects on the path (Tolla, 2000). Visual descriptions of the room and routes can supplement trace trailing and help students develop a mental picture of the room. When the room is rearranged, provide time so that these students can learn to adjust to the new arrangement. Students with visual disabilities also may benefit from color contrasts so they can identify and access important areas, materials and objects in the classroom (Brody, 2006). It also is important for you to use tactile symbols and signs in Braille placed in important locations in the classroom, and contrasting strips on the floors of areas to delineate dangerous areas of the room or school that require extra
caution (e.g., the edges of steps, the floor near the radiator). These students’ work areas should be in a quiet place, away from potentially harmful objects such as hot radiators, half-open doors, and paper cutters. Pathways throughout the room should be free of objects, and all students should be reminded not to leave things in pathways (Cox & Dykes, 2001).

To help all students compensate for their visual impairment by increased attention to verbal information, they should be seated where they can hear others well. Masking tape markers on the floor can help students with visual impairments keep their desks properly aligned. Since students with visual impairments may need prosthetic devices and optical aids, you also should consider providing them with a sufficient, convenient, safe space to store this equipment. For example, a music stand or drafting table can be placed next to the students’ work areas to reduce the problems of using large-print books.

**Students with Health and Physical Disabilities**

Students with health and physical disabilities may encounter a variety of environmental barriers that limit their access to inclusive settings. These barriers include doors, hallways, stairs, steep or unusable ramps, and inaccessible bathrooms, lockers, water fountains, recreation areas, and elevators. You can help students avoid these barriers by placing signs around your school to direct individuals to the most accessible routes to important locations in your school.

Students who use wheelchairs or prostheses will need aisles and doorways at least 32 inches wide so that they can maneuver easily and safely in the classroom (Voltz et al., 2001). If possible, arrange desks and classroom furniture with aisles that can accommodate crutches and canes, and have turning space for wheelchairs. Some students may also need space to recline during the school day.

For students who use wheelchairs, the floor coverings in the classroom are important. Floors should have a nonslip surface; deep pile, shag, or sculptured rugs can limit mobility. Floors should be covered with tightly looped, commercial-grade carpet smooth enough to allow wheelchairs to move easily and strong enough to withstand frequent use. To keep the rug from fraying or rippling, tape it down from wall to wall without placing padding underneath it.

Ergonomic furniture that is rounded, with padding on the edges and with no protrusions, is appropriate for many students with physical disabilities. Work areas should be at least 28 inches high to allow students who use wheelchairs to get close to them. Because the reach of students who use wheelchairs is restricted, work tables should not be wider than 42 inches. For comfortable seating, chairs can be curvilinear, have seat heights at least 16 inches above the ground, and be strong enough to support students who wish to pull up on and out of the chairs. Work areas for students with physical disabilities can include space for computers or other adaptive devices that they may need.

Although students with physical disabilities should have the same type of furniture as their peers, some students may need specialized chairs to help them sit independently and maintain an upright position (Best & Bigge, 2005). For example some students may need corner chairs, floor sitters, or chairs with arm and foot rests (Best, Reed, & Bigge, 2005). The chairs of some students also may be adapted by inserting foam, towels, wood, and cushions or installing shoulder and chest straps. Some students also may use special chairs with abductors or adductors to support them in aligning their legs.

Students with physical disabilities also may need the height and slant of their work areas to be adjusted to accommodate their needs and wheelchairs or prostheses (Best et al., 2005). Therefore, you may want to request that your classroom include desks with adjustable-slat boards and adjustable-height workstations. Some students may need stand-up desks; others may use a desk top or lap board placed on their wheelchairs. These desks can have a cork surface to hold students’ work with pushpins.
Since students with physical disabilities will have to work at the chalkboard, at least one chalkboard in the classroom can be lowered to 24 inches from the floor. To help students work at the chalkboard, attach a sturdy vertical bar as a handrail, and provide them with a sit/stand stool.

Teachers must understand the importance of body positioning and know how to reposition students and move and transfer students who use wheelchairs (Best et al., 2005). To prevent pressure sores and help students maintain proper positioning, their position should be changed every 20 to 30 minutes. Posting photographs and descriptions of suggested positions for students with physical disabilities can remind you and others to use the right positioning and transferring techniques. Equipment such as side-lying frames, walkers, crawling assists, floor sitters, chair inserts, straps, standing aids, and beanbag chairs also can help students maintain or change positions.

Several classroom adaptations can help students whose movements are limited. Buddies can be assigned to bring assignments and materials to the students’ desks. Boxes or containers can be attached to students’ work areas to provide them with access to and storage for their work materials. You can allow these students to leave class early to get to their next class and avoid the rush in the hallway. Securing papers by taping them to the students’ desks, and using clipboards or metal cookie sheets and magnets, can help with writing assignments. Similarly, connecting writing utensils to strings taped to students’ desks can help students retrieve them when dropped. Desks with textured surfaces or with a barrier around the edge also can help prevent papers, books, and writing utensils from falling. Built-up utensils, velcro fasteners, cut-out cups, switches, and nonslip placemats can be used for students with physical disabilities.

**Students with Behavior and Attention Disorders**

You can organize your classroom to support the positive behavior of students with behavior and attention disorders (Carbone, 2001; Garrick Duhaney, 2003; Swanson, 2005). Since it is easier for you to observe students, monitor performance, and deliver IDEAs to Implement Inclusion

Transferring Students Who Use Wheelchairs

When Ms. Wade felt a twinge in her back as she helped transfer Mickey from his wheelchair to his seat, she knew she had to talk with Mr. Roman, the occupational therapist. When she caught up with Mr. Roman, he smiled and said, “Welcome to the club. Luckily, there are some things that you can do so that you won’t hurt your back. Before you move Mickey, loosen up so that your muscles are ready to be exerted, tell Mickey what is going to happen, and encourage him to help you in the transfer. Then, approach him directly so that you can square up, lift him with your legs, not your back, and keep your back straight. Try to maintain a smooth, steady movement and a wide base of support by placing one foot in front of the other and getting as close as possible to Mickey. As you move, take short steps and avoid becoming twisted when changing directions.” The next time Ms. Wade saw Mr. Roman, she thanked him and said, “It’s a piece of cake.”

Here are some other strategies you can use to implement the IDEA in your inclusive classroom and transfer students who use wheelchairs:

- Wear comfortable footwear that minimizes the likelihood of slipping.
- Encourage students who are able to bear some weight by standing to wear slip-resistant footwear and sturdy belts.
- Use walls or sturdy objects to assist in maintaining balance.
- Ask for assistance from others when necessary as it is easier for two people to transfer students who are difficult to lift.
- Consult with a physical or occupational therapist (Best & Bigge, 2005).
cues and nonverbal feedback when students are sitting nearby, you may want to locate the work areas of students with behavior and attention disorders near you (Marks et al., 2003). Placing these students near good peer models with whom they feel comfortable can also help them learn appropriate classroom behaviors. To make peer models more effective, you can praise them.

It is important for you to try to minimize visual and auditory distractions for students with behavior and attention disorders, and establish physical and visual boundaries for them (Swanson, 2005). Examine the movement patterns in the classroom when determining the work areas, and avoid putting the desks of these students in parts of the room that have a lot of activity or visually loaded areas of the room (Biddulph et al., 2006). You also can decrease visual distractions by placing a cloth over them when they are not important for learning, and decrease auditory distractions by giving students earplugs (Marks et al., 2003).

Some teachers use a study carrel for students with attention problems. However, study carrels should not be used often because they may isolate or stigmatize these students. You can reduce the potential problems of study carrels by discussing how individuals learn and function best in different ways, allowing all students to use the study carrel, referring to it in a positive way, and using it for several purposes, such as a relaxation area and a computer or media center.

**SUMMARY**

This chapter offered guidelines for helping students learn in inclusive classrooms by promoting good classroom behavior and modifying the classroom design for various types of students. As you review the chapter, consider the following questions and remember the following points.

**How Can I Collaborate with Others to Conduct a Functional Behavioral Assessment?**

**CEC 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, PRAXIS 3, INTASC 8, 9, 10**

An FBA involves collaborating with others to identify and define the problem behavior, record the behavior using an observational recording system, obtain more information about the student and the behavior, perform an A-B-C analysis, analyze the data and develop hypothesis statements, consider sociocultural factors, and develop and evaluate a behavioral intervention plan.

**How Can I Promote Positive Classroom Behavior in Students?**

**CEC 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 9, PRAXIS 3, INTASC 5, 6, 9**

You can use relationship-building strategies, social skills instruction, antecedent-based interventions, consequences-based interventions, self-management techniques, group-oriented management systems, and behavior reduction techniques.

**How Can I Prevent Students from Harming Others?**

**CEC 5, 9, PRAXIS 3, INTASC 9**

You can work with students and their families and professionals to create a safe, caring school environment that does not tolerate bullying, harassment, or violence of any kind. This collaboration should also foster and acknowledge acceptance of individual differences and the development of friendships. You should be aware of the warning signs of violence and of the steps to take when violence occurs.
**How Can I Adapt the Classroom Design to Accommodate Students’ Learning, Social, and Physical Needs?**

*CEC 2, 3, 5, 9, PRAXIS 3, INTASC 5, 9*

You can consider such factors as seating arrangements; positioning the teacher’s desk; designing bulletin boards, walls, specialized areas, and learning centers; and using classroom design adaptations.

### What Would You Do in Today’s Diverse Classroom?

It is 2 months into the semester and one of your students, Victor, is misbehaving. During teaching activities, he often calls out answers without your permission, talks to other students, and makes inappropriate comments. When this happens, you reprimand Victor and remind him to raise his hand. He rarely completes his assignments, and several of your students have complained that he bothers them.

1. How would you assess Victor’s behavior and the environmental events that seem to be associated with it?
2. What environmental factors might be antecedents and consequences of Victor’s behavior?
3. What should be the goals of Victor’s behavioral intervention plan?
4. What antecedents- and consequence-based strategies, curricular accommodations and physical design changes could be included in Victor’s behavioral intervention plan?
5. What knowledge, skills, dispositions, resources, and supports do you need to implement Victor’s behavioral intervention plan?
6. How would you evaluate the effectiveness of Victor’s behavioral intervention plan?

It is nearing the beginning of the school year, and your principal has given you the list for your class. Your class of 23 students will include 1 student with a hearing disability, 1 student with a visual disability, 3 students with learning disabilities, 1 student with a behavior disorder, and 2 students who are learning English. Sketch a classroom plan including seating arrangements, the teacher’s and students’ desks, teaching materials, bulletin boards and walls, specialized areas, and learning centers.

1. What factors did you consider in designing your classroom?
2. How does the design relate to your educational philosophy and teaching style?
3. How has it been adapted for students with disabilities and students from diverse cultural and language backgrounds?
4. What knowledge, skills, dispositions, resources, and supports do you need to design and implement your classroom?

To answer these questions online and share your responses with others, go to the Reflection module in Chapter 7 of the Companion Website.