II
Environmental Antecedents for Behavior

Behavioral Model

The behavioral model views the locus of behavior problems as being within the environment rather than within a child. A three- term paradigm represents the model (S^A-R-S^C). The first term is an antecedent. An antecedent is any event that precedes behavior. It serves as a cue or prompt for the performance of or inhibition of a response. Events that function as antecedents can be of several types. They include objects, signs or signals, and actions. The second term is behavior, which refers to any response made to an antecedent cue or prompt. The third term is a consequence. A consequence is any event that follows behavior and serves to strengthen or weaken the future chance of that behavior. Consequences include both appetitive and aversive events. Consequences will be discussed further in Chapter 3.

Antecedents can be either simple stimulus events such as a word, e.g., "go" or complex stimulus events such as a setting, e.g., a classroom arrangement. Antecedents can be classified into four categories:

1. S (neutral stimulus), i.e., a stimulus that conveys no information. An example might be a stimulus with which one has no prior experience such as work in a foreign language.

2. S^D (discriminative stimulus), i.e., a stimulus that conveys the information that if a certain response is performed an appetitive or positive consequence is likely. Other terms often applied to this category are instruction, prompt or cue.

3. S^{D-} (inhibiting antecedent or stimulus), i.e., a stimulus that conveys the information that if a certain response is performed, not terminated or reduced an aversive or negative consequence is likely. Another term often applied to this category is warning.

4. $S^\wedge$ (delta stimulus), i.e., a stimulus that conveys information about a desired response but one which has no history of consequences associated with it. Since there are no likely consequences for responding, it usually does not result in the desired response being emitted or performed.

The primary concern of the behavioral model is an immediate environment such as a classroom. An extension of this model, often called the ecological model, takes a much broader view of the environment. Earlier both simple and complex antecedents for behavior were mentioned. Ecological antecedents are complex antecedent stimuli or events while most non-ecological antecedents are simple antecedents or events. Many complex antecedents are considered to be a part of one's social ecology. For students, the social ecology usually consists of the home, community, school and classroom. Ecological interventions try to modify both

antecedent and consequence conditions in the social ecology that affect behavior. In this chapter we will look at both complex and simple antecedents for behavior.

Teachers usually cannot modify complex ecological antecedents such as schools, homes and communities. There are some complex antecedents, however, that teachers can affect. These include many aspects of their classroom and to some extent their school. They can also extend behavioral interventions into other classrooms, programs, or the home. Chapters Three, Four and Five will briefly discuss ecological extensions of classroom interventions. This chapter discusses a number of environmental antecedents that affect behavior management. The antecedents covered fit into four broad groups: school climate, the classroom, teacher behavior and curriculum.

School Climate

School climate is the cornerstone of behavior management and is a descriptive term for a complex set of antecedent events that affect behavior. The principal is responsible for providing the leadership for creating a positive school climate. The principal should be a behavior management advocate. The principal should seek humane and just, system-wide rules and procedures that affect discipline. These rules and procedures include those directly related to behavior, such as suspension policy. They also include those indirectly related to behavior, such as grading policy. The principal is also responsible for discretionary rules and procedures within his or her school. A positive school climate, however, goes beyond general policy. A variety of elements go into a positive school climate. For example:

1. Proper curricula.
2. Flexible response to individual needs.
3. Competent personnel.
4. Recognition of accomplishment.
5. A comfortable and safe facility.

A positive school climate promotes the interests of students, not the convenience of administrators and teachers. When policies and attitudes don't promote the interests of students, there is a negative climate. Both students and parents perceive a negative school climate as aversive. As Murray Sidman has pointed out, a negative school climate alienates both students and parents. It may also promote either passive or active resistance. One way to assess school climate is to monitor the level of active and passive resistance to a school's program.

Passive resistance, in students, may underlie several problems that interfere with education. For example:

1. Withdrawal from participation in instruction.
2. High absenteeism or truancy.
3. Dropping out of school.

Passive resistance, in parents, may underlie common problems that are often the subject of complaint from educators. For example:

1. A lack of involvement in the educational process.
2. Refusal to become involved in their child's school problems.
3. Use of private school placements.

Active resistance, in students, may include troublesome behaviors. For example:

1. Disruptive behavior.
2. Vandalism.
3. Aggression.

Active resistance, in parents, may include behaviors that can create considerable conflict. For example:

1. Accusations and complaints.
2. Administrative actions.
3. Legal actions.

Discipline Policy

Discipline policy has at least two levels. The first level is school-wide and includes rules and procedures that uniformly apply to all students. The principal is responsible for discipline where school-wide rules apply. The second level is within an individual classroom and includes the rules for conduct in that classroom. Classroom discipline policy may be wholly or partially consistent across classrooms or unique to each classroom. Classroom policy should not be inconsistent with or contradict school-wide policy. When classroom policy is, in whole or part, consistent across classrooms, all involved faculty should help set the policy. Formulation of a school-wide, classroom discipline policy should include input from teachers, administrators, parents and students. A good discipline policy should:

1. Set positive expectations for student behavior rather than simply listing prohibited behaviors.
2. Set objective criteria for determining deviance from expectations, including the seriousness of the deviation.
3. Specify the available consequences for deviation from expectations.
4. Set objective criteria for selecting an appropriate consequence according to the seriousness of the deviation.
5. Provide a systematic process for evaluating the effect of consequences and for modifying the policy.
6. Promote, in teachers, students, parents and the community, a perception of the school environment as orderly and safe.

Procedures that Facilitate a Positive Climate

Recognition of Diversity:

The United States is a diverse society that is comprised of peoples from very heterogeneous backgrounds. Even when an individual's family has been in this country for a number of generations, his or her family will probably persist in socializing their members in a manner relatively consistent with their origins. Therefore, it can be expected that persons whose origins lie within a background that is not broadly represented in American culture will have been socialized in a manner somewhat different from the majority.

Usually, when we talk about diversity, it is diverse racial and ethnic backgrounds that are the focus. However, it must be kept in mind that racial and ethnic groups are not homogeneous. There is considerable diversity within racial and ethnic groups. To further confound the task of adapting to this diversity is the interaction of socio-economic status, religion, sex and language (not everyone from the same racial or ethnic background have the same language background) with race and ethnicity. Thus, there is a considerable range of variation that can occur. To suggest that sound advice can be given that is valid across this range of diversity is foolish. What is clear is that is important to recognize and make adaptations to this diversity.

The first step is simply to recognize that many differences do exist and for quite legitimate reasons. Second, all of us, including those of us from minority backgrounds, must be aware of our tendency to judge others people from our own frame of reference. In short, we often prejudge other people based on our own cultural biases. In short, it is important for us as teachers to reserve judgment of our students and their behavior until we think we have a reasonable understanding of them.

Derald Sue has suggested two dimensions that can be useful when first trying to get a fix on an individual from a background different from our own. One of these is the concept of locus of control (LOC). This is a dimensional personality trait that ranges from external to internal locus of control. A person who is high on external LOC is one who perceives the consequences of his or her behavior as being outside of their direct control. A student high on external LOC might attribute success or lack of success in an academic subject to their relationship with the teacher rather than to any effort or lack of same on their part. A student high on internal LOC might readily accept personal responsibility for their success or lack of same in an academic subject even if there has been a significant contribution from outside factors. Research has demonstrated that LOC varies in individuals from different cultural backgrounds.

A second and related dimension is locus of responsibility (LOR). This is a social trait that ranges from personal to system LOR. An individual high on personal LOR is one who tries to understand others in terms of their personal traits, for example, their motivation and

skills. Likewise such and individual tends to place responsibility and blame on individuals. A person high on system LOR is one who tries to understand others in terms of their affiliations, for example, their family or church membership. Such an individual tends to place responsibility and blame on membership in social units such as a particular family. A student who is high on internal LOR might place responsibility for their or others' success or lack of same in an academic subject on personal skills or lack of same. A student high on external LOR might place responsibility for their or others' success or lack of same on support or lack of support by the family. Again research has shown that LOR orientation varies in individuals from different cultural backgrounds.

It is important to recognize that variation on these two dimensions is not wholly accounted for by variation in cultural background. Individual life experiences, many of which may occur purely by chance, also contribute heavily to one's orientation on these two dimensions. Thus, you can't be certain that an individual from a background that tends to have a high external LOR will necessarily have this orientation. However, the two dimensions do represent a structured way of initially trying to understand a person from a background different from your own.

Sue discusses four basic configurations. First, there are those who are high on internal LOC and high on internal LOR. Such individuals believe that success is due to their own efforts and their unique personal attributes. Second, there are those who are high on external LOC and high on internal LOR. Such individuals tend to be dependent upon external sources of approval but feel personally responsible for their circumstances and deny that prejudice and discrimination may be involved in their life situations. Third, there are those who are high on external LOC and external LOR. Such individuals tend to believe that there is little that they can personally do about their circumstances in the face of significant external systemic factors such as prejudice. Finally, there are those high on internal LOC and high on external LOR. Such individuals believe that they have the ability to be successful but haven't had a reasonable chance because of external systemic factors such as prejudice and discrimination.

Placing individuals within the above matrix can provide one with useful insights into how another individual perceives his or her circumstances and how they may approach dealing with those circumstances. You may find that many students with a common background tend to be similar in their orientations in similar circumstances. Knowing this can be helpful in trying find the best approach to teaching and promoting the development of such students. It is also important to know more about a student's specific background in terms of social, cultural, religious and economic circumstances. Obviously, this can be so varied as to require individual investigation by a teacher. There is one useful guide, however, to making an initial judgment about whether or not a behavior or attitude in a student is based in the student's cultural background. That is, simply observe whether or not the behavior or attitude appears to be common in students from a similar background. If so, there is a good chance that cultural factors are at work. If not, it is likely that the behavior or attitude is peculiar to that student's experience and is not culturally based. Teachers should also make use of

parents and community leaders as a source of information about the cultural backgrounds of their students.

Recognition of Accomplishment:

Every school should have a systematic program to provide recognition for student accomplishment. There are many ways to give recognition to students. Here are some examples of ways you can recognize accomplishments.

1. Through class and hallway bulletin boards.
2. Honors list.
3. Community publications.
4. Letters of commendation.
5. Plaques.
6. Trophies.
7. Dinners.

You must recognize student accomplishment and treat it as something special. Recognition needs to go beyond simple acknowledgment. Positive consequences should follow recognition. There are many possible rewards that might appeal to students. For example:

1. Special privileges such as extra menu choices at lunch, a reserved parking space, or position as a peer tutor.
2. Access to special programs such as clubs, elective courses, or special recreational programs.
3. Passes to school-sponsored events that charge admission such as special trips, dances, or sporting events.
4. Discount coupons to community activities such as skating rinks, movies, or miniature golf.
5. Free rental coupons for taped movies and electronic games.
6. Special enrollment rates in the community for programs like karate, soccer, or gymnastics.
7. Preferential treatment in the community for part-time and summer jobs.

A good recognition program should have objective criteria for qualifying. Objective criteria protect the program from being perceived as unfair. One important consideration in setting such criteria is that differences in ability are taken into account. It is not fair to hold a disabled student to the same standard applied to normal students. On the other hand, normal students should not be held to the same standard as gifted students. You should not limit recognition only to outstanding accomplishments. It is also important to recognize students who have made significant improvement. Recognition of improvement should include students who have improved their behavior as well as those who have increased achievement. Recognition for improved behavior is particularly important. It helps to counter the negative expectations misbehavior sets in teachers and students. These negative expectations result in

biases that make it very difficult to rehabilitate troublesome students. Recognition of improvement will reinforce good behavior in the student and help to change negative expectations and biases held by others.

Flexibility of Response:

All schools should have a program for academic assistance that is available to any student that needs help. There are several ways to provide this type of assistance. First, setup a peer tutor program. This can be done within an individual classroom or school-wide. Peer tutors should always receive some instruction in basic teaching techniques before they begin tutoring. Being a peer tutor can be a privilege for students who have a high level of skill in some subject area. Second, recruit adult volunteers such as parents, retirees or business people to serve as tutors. Like peer tutors, volunteers should receive basic instruction in teaching techniques before beginning to work as tutors. Third, assign one or more teachers to tutoring duties during one class period each day. A different teacher tutors each period and tutoring is available throughout the day. Fourth, assign a teacher or teachers to the tutoring program on a full-time basis. Fifth, operate a special help center for a short period before or after school or both. Staff the center with peer tutors, volunteers, or paid personnel. Finally, setup a help hotline to operate in the evenings to provide help with homework problems. Again, staff this hotline with any of the types of personnel already discussed.

Flexibility of response also requires schools to have a classroom assistance program. This program should provide teachers with immediate help if a classroom crisis occurs. A classroom crisis can have many forms. For example, a crisis may be a medical emergency, a student out-of-control, a student with a weapon, or a potential suicide. There should be a system in place that allows quick and easy access to crisis assistance. Access might be through a two-way intercom, an alarm system, or messenger system between each classroom and the school office. The personnel designated to provide assistance must be able to go to a teacher's aid quickly. These crisis managers should have a variety of skills such as counseling, physical management, and first aid. Crisis managers should also have contacts with community crisis services such as emergency medical services and police. Crisis managers need to know how to contact community services quickly and how to help them when they arrive.

Schools also need to have a system for alerting classrooms about potentially dangerous situations. Administrators should alert the faculty when there are situations such as an outside intruder or a student in the school with a firearm. The school intercom can serve this purpose well by using a set of prearranged signals. The signal could be an announcement over the intercom system for some non-existent individual. For example, "Mr. Wang please report to the office." might signal all teachers that there is an intruder in the building. The signal might also cue a specific action such as locking classroom doors. The all clear signal should be a similar signal over the intercom, for example, "Cancel that last request."

Another useful support program that promotes flexibility is a short-term detention room. This is a room where teachers can send unruly, oppositional, or unprepared students.

Such a program needs an adult, but not necessarily a teacher, to supervise students. Students should only work on assignments in the detention center. Prohibit all non-educational activity. In particular, there should be no activity permitted that might be rewarding like leisure reading or socializing. Detention should last no longer than a class period.

Traditionally, suspension has been a mainstay of discipline programs in public schools. A better alternative is an in-school suspension (ISS) program. In-school suspension keeps students in school and engaged in constructive tasks. It also avoids turning students loose in the community where there are many potential rewards available. Suspended students may engage in a variety of rewarding activities. They may sleep late, watch TV or videos, listen to music, snack at will, ride bicycles or motorcycles, drive around in cars, go to movies, or go bowling. They may also meet other youth who are out of school and get involved in various illegal activities, such as drinking, drug use or shoplifting.

The author and Sandra McKittrick have discussed several basic policy guidelines for an in-school suspension program.

1. The age range among students in a program should be no more than three grades or three years.
2. A maximum enrollment should be set. The suggested number is fifteen.
3. Specific criteria should be set for assigning a student to the program.
4. All placements should be for fixed periods that are pre-set and uniform.
5. Placement in a program should have a consistent beginning point, for example, Monday or Wednesday.
6. Dismissal from a program should require successful participation in the program. There should be specific criteria for defining success.
7. Failure to meet the criteria for successful participation should result in a hearing to consider other options.
8. Successful participation in an ISS program should be a prerequisite for acceptance in other school programs, for example, athletics.

An in-school suspension program has two curricula options. First, continue with each student's regular curriculum during ISS placement. The major difficulty with this option is logistics. That is, coordinating assignments and materials with a student's other teacher(s). The other option is a stand-alone curriculum for an ISS program. Two possibilities in this option are either a learning skills curriculum or a functional academic curriculum or a combination of both. The major difficulty with the stand- alone option is that students might fall behind in their work in the regular curriculum. However, this would also be true for students suspended from school. One way to reduce this problem might be to have tasks from a student's regular curriculum assigned as homework.

Curriculum:

Curriculum and flexibility of response are related topics. However, curriculum is so important it deserves its own section. If schools desire well behaved and motivated students, involved parents and community support, these constituents must perceive the curricula options as appropriate. There is no one curriculum that is right for every student. The varied abilities, interests and goals of students require more than a single curriculum. Examination of traditional, public-school curricula show that they emphasize preparation for college. Elementary school curricula prepare students for the secondary curriculum, which then prepares students for higher education. Some school systems claim to offer alternative curricula, a few actually do, but the college preparatory curriculum prevails. Further, legislators and others concerned with public education want to strengthen the traditional curriculum. Increasing the requirements in the traditional curriculum may be proper for students with college as their goal. However, such efforts can make the curriculum less flexible and less relevant for students who do not intend to go to college. This latter group accounts for most of the students in the public schools.

In the U.S., estimates suggest that about 25% of the students who enter school will drop-out before graduation. Drop-outs are students who vote with their feet. They choose to get out of an environment that they perceive as negative. Of the remaining 75% who finish high school, about 50% go on to college. Of those that go to college, about 50% graduate. Thus, a college preparatory curriculum only meets the needs of about 20% of the public school population.

Some will argue that the proportion of students entering and completing college should be higher. They might say public schools aren't doing their job and academic requirements for high school graduation aren't rigorous enough. Unfortunately, the only way there can be a significant increase in college attendance is to lower the curricula standards in colleges. Only students who, intellectually speaking, are bright-normal or above can benefit from a college education. Given a normal distribution of intellectual ability, only about one-quarter of the population is college material. Further, not all students with the ability want a college education. Thus, there probably isn't much room for improvement in the proportion of the population graduating from college.

Completing high school or even some college often does not prepare one to make a positive contribution to the adult community. The rate of unemployment for young adults is several times higher than the rate for the general adult population. This would not be the case if most young adults entered the work force with a proper education. Leaders in business, industry and public agencies all lament the level of functional skills in young people seeking employment. Students need functional skills in reading, writing, and mathematics. Skills for problem solving, and independent learning are needed too. There are many life skills such as parenting skills, that are deficit in our youth. Work skills such as taking directions and cooperation that are critical to success are lacking. Finally, there are the skills needed for

employment in specific occupations. All of these needs can and should be met by public school programs.

What is a proper curriculum? The curricula options available in public schools are important for students, their parents, and the community. There is wide variation in the needs and goals of these constituencies and within each of them. Therefore, no single curriculum is likely to be proper for every student. Only diverse curricula will meet the wide ranging needs and goals of public school students. Consumers must have input into what curricula will meet their diverse needs. Decisions about curricula matters should not be left solely to professional educators. Students, parents and representatives of the community need to participate in the decision process. An outline of a diverse public school curriculum follows. It is not a proposal but an example. It is simply a stimulus for thought about what a diverse curriculum might look like.

The curriculum example has three levels: Readiness, basic literacy and advanced options. The curriculum is uniform at the first and second levels. It becomes more diverse at the third level. It rests on several assumptions.

1.   The delivery model used will promote flexibility in the choice of teaching materials and methods. Such a model will make it possible to adapt to different learning styles and rates.
2.   The curriculum represents a continuum. Placement in and movement through the curriculum depends on the mastery of objectives.
3.   The curriculum will be open and movement between options available any time a student chooses. The offerings at the upper level are not age restricted. That is, older individuals wishing to return to school and pursue a different option can do so at any time.
4.   The curriculum is appropriate for most students, including those with mild disabilities and learning problems. Special adaptations and modifications would be necessary for students with moderate to severe learning problems.

The readiness curriculum (see Figure 1) would serve children during the early childhood period. It lays the foundation for basic literacy. There are four strands in this curriculum. First, the language strand would focus on developing language skills including both vocabulary and syntax. It would emphasize interpersonal, language stimulation activities. Second, the developmental abilities strand would focus on gross and fine motor skills and social skills. It would employ stimulating activities involving movement and peer interaction. Third, the psychological abilities strand would focus on various prerequisites for efficient learning. It would work on abilities like visual and auditory attending and memory and problem solving skills. Fourth, the pre-academic strand would lay the foundation skills for reading and math instruction. It would teach skills such as letter and number discrimination, letter sound relationships and number and quantity relationships. Mastery of the readiness curriculum would be the prerequisite for moving on to the basic literacy curriculum.

<u>**Readiness Curriculum**</u>

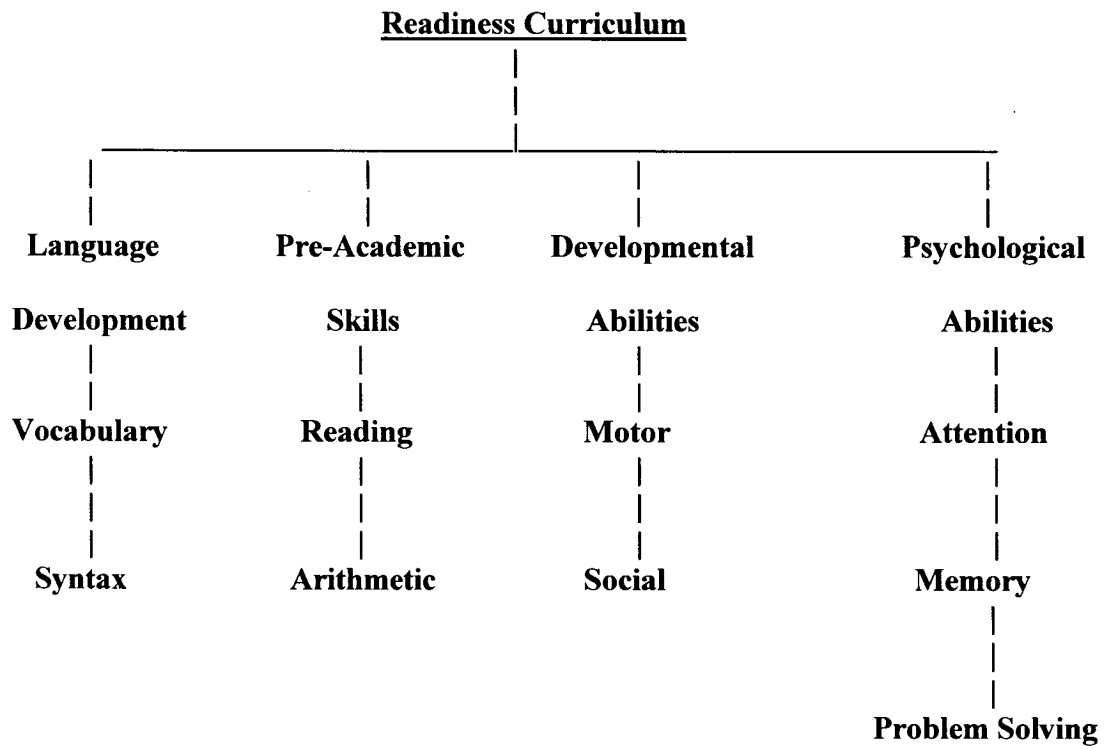|			
Language	**Pre-Academic**	**Developmental**	**Psychological**
Development	**Skills**	**Abilities**	**Abilities**
Vocabulary	**Reading**	**Motor**	**Attention**
Syntax	**Arithmetic**	**Social**	**Memory**
			Problem Solving

Figure One

The basic literacy curriculum (see Figure 2) would serve children during the middle childhood period. It would provide basic literacy skills at a functional level. That is, the essential skills generally needed to function in the everyday world. Delivery of this curriculum would be through classroom instruction with extensive use of both simulated and real-life application experiences. In short, instruction would focus on developing functional academic skills.

This curriculum would also have four strands. First, the language arts strand. This strand would have three sub-components: Oral expression, reading and written expression. Second, the math and science strand. This strand would have three sub-components: Arithmetic, physical sciences and biological sciences. Third, the citizenship strand. This strand would also have three sub-components: U.S. history, civics and current events including geography. Fourth, the career development strand. This strand would have three sub-components: Social skills for daily living, occupational awareness and leisure skills. Minimal competency in this curriculum would be a prerequisite to move on to the advanced curriculum options. Minimal competency would be at about third to fourth grade level in traditional terms. Mastery would be competency at about fifth to sixth grade level in traditional terms.

The advanced options curriculum (see Figure 3) would serve students in late childhood, adolescence and occasionally adults. The curriculum would have two major strands: College preparatory and vocational. Entry into the college preparatory curriculum would require mastery of the basic literacy curriculum. Entry into the vocational curriculum would depend upon the strand entered. Entry into the technical and business strands would require mastery of the basic literacy curriculum. Entry into the arts, trades and service strands would require minimal competency in the basic literacy curriculum.

The college preparatory curriculum would have three sub-components. The arts sub-component would be for students interested in pursuing higher education programs in such fields as art, music, literature, history or religious studies. The science sub-component would be for those interested in pursuing higher education programs in such fields as biology, physics, computer science or mathematics. The professional sub-component would be for those interested in pursuing higher education in fields such as education, medicine, law, business or engineering. This curriculum would have two parts. The introductory phase would emphasize advanced instruction in a broad range of academic disciplines. Advanced instruction would concentrate on the core curriculum in higher education programs. In addition, there would be career development activities for daily living skills, social skills for employment and career exploration. The specialization phase would emphasize advanced study in the disciplines related to a student's specific career goal. This would also include career internships in appropriate settings.

The vocational curriculum would have two parts. In the first phase, the students would focus on career specific development of applied academic subjects. This would include career development programs that address daily living skills, social skills for employment and career exploration. In the specialization phase, the emphasis would be on vocational preparation and
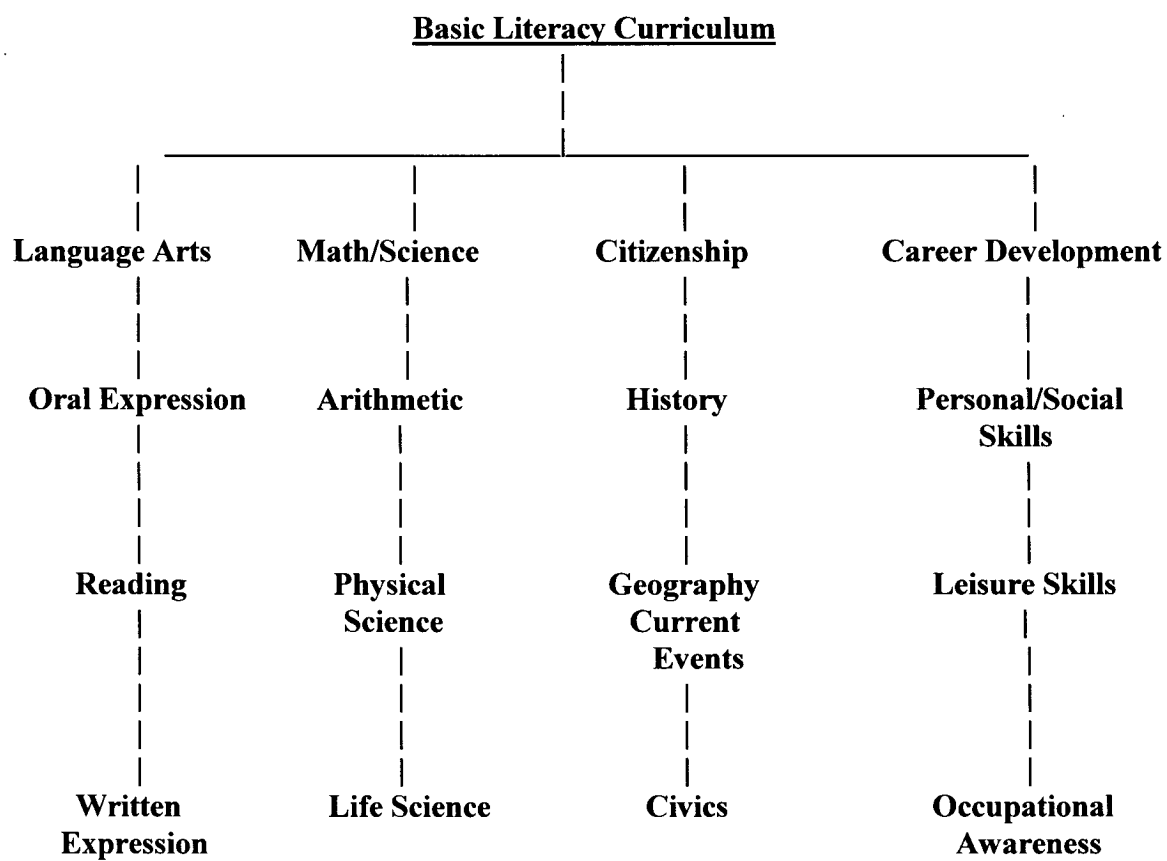
Basic Literacy Curriculum

Language Arts	Math/Science	Citizenship	Career Development
Oral Expression	Arithmetic	History	Personal/Social Skills
Reading	Physical Science	Geography Current Events	Leisure Skills
Written Expression	Life Science	Civics	Occupational Awareness

Figure Two

Advanced Curriculum

College

Preparatory

Arts

Sciences

Professions

Vocational

Technical

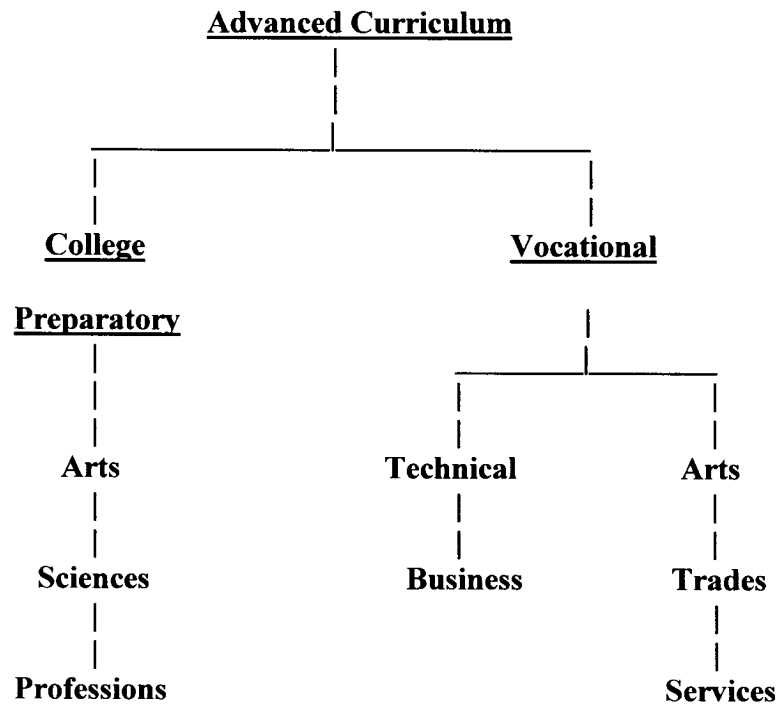Business

Arts

Trades

Services

Figure Three

supervised work experiences. The vocational curriculum would have five strands. Entry into strands one and two would require mastery of the basic literacy curriculum. Entry into strands three through five would require meeting minimal competency in the literacy curriculum.

The first strand would be the technical strand. This strand would be for those individuals who desire careers in technical fields. Technical careers would include laboratory technician, electronic repair and maintenance work, and communications media. The second strand would be the business strand. This strand would be for individuals interested in careers in fields such as office management, commercial sales and secretarial services. The third strand would be the arts strand. This strand would be for those pursuing applied careers in commercial art, graphics, and entertainment. The fourth strand would be the trades strand. This strand would be for individuals seeking careers in areas such as construction trades, home appliance repair and equipment operation. The fifth strand would be the services strand. This strand would be for those interested in careers in service occupations such as retail sales, personal grooming and child care.

Comfort and Safety:

The school environment should be a comfortable setting. There should be adequate provision made for a comfortable level of space. Every classroom should have adequate space for the students and the class activities. Adequate space certainly means providing ample room for seating. It also means providing room for specialized functions such as small group work, learning centers, and individualized programming. Space requirements include storage space for each student and for the storage of instructional materials and records. Teachers also need suitable space for non-teaching duties such as planning, conferences and record keeping. In addition, teachers need an area where they can get away from the classroom to take a break. Finally, there must be suitable space for functions such as eating, recreation, discipline, administration and toileting. Furthermore, the physical facility must have good lighting, ventilation, heating and cooling.

Safety begins with a well maintained physical facility that is adequate for its purpose. In addition, safety depends on having a good discipline policy and following it. Many of the points discussed earlier concerning discipline policy and support programs impact directly on the issue of safety. Safety is an issue throughout the school and not just in classrooms. Safety is also important in bathrooms, the lunchroom, recreational areas, and hallways. Safety concerns include the school grounds and transportation services for students as well. Discipline policy and support programs must satisfactorily address all of these areas of concern.

Parent Involvement

A positive school climate is much more likely when parents are supportive of the school and involved in its program. Educators frequently complain about the lack of parent interest and involvement in schools. There are at least two reasons parents fail to become involved.

First, if parents' perception of the school climate is negative, they will probably be either passive or active resisters. Second, parents seldom feel that they have any constructive avenues for influence available. Traditionally, the only role for parents has been as a member of a PTA or PTO or as a volunteer worker. Parent organizations seldom amount to more than cheerleading squads. These organizations do not provide an opportunity for meaningful input into the educational program. With two-income families being the norm today, few parents have the time for activities that don't make constructive use of their limited time.

Since parents and children are the consumers of our educational programs, they need to have a significant role in the program. Parents need to have a voice in decision making. Every school should have a democratic parent organization that has a voice in the management of the school through an elected advisory committee. The advisory committee should represent the majority and dissenting views of parents on a wide range of matters, including discipline policy, curriculum, and program evaluation. A parent organization should serve as a vehicle for parent- initiated changes. It should also provide a forum for criticism of existing policies and programs. In addition, there should be an advisory committee that represents parents on a system level. A system-wide committee might include the chairperson for each of the school-level committees. The system-wide committee should represent the views of parents to the superintendent and school board. Educators must provide for this type of input and incorporate it into the decision-making process.

If parents have a mechanism for constructive participation, their interest and involvement in the schools will improve. Apathy is, in large part, a product of feeling powerless. Create a process that values parents and makes them feel effective and apathy will decline. Real participation by parents requires that educators recognize the need to share their professional power with the consumer. If educators want parent involvement, they must not be defensive but open and inclusive. Parent participation in education will increase support for public schools and lead to improvements in the schools and their programs.

Community Involvement

A quality educational program not only needs the involvement of educators, parents and students but also the community. Community resources are very important for the support programs discussed earlier. The community is also a consumer of public education and needs representation in the decision making process. Representative members of the community should sit on school advisory committees along with parents. There are many constituents in the community that need an opportunity for input into public education. These include local businesses and employers, public service agencies and organizations, colleges and universities and vocational and technical schools.

Conclusion

This section has focused on the "big picture" relative to antecedent events important to behavior management. You can evaluate your school's climate using the School Climate

Checklist (see Figure 4). Certainly, many of the topics discussed are outside the control of an individual teacher or even a group of teachers. It is, however, not outside your influence. As a professional educator you have a responsibility to voice your opinions about the needs and goals of your profession. You can serve as a model for good practice within your own classroom. You can also lobby for change at the school level and system level as an individual and through your professional organization. The next section will discuss antecedent events as they relate to behavior management at the classroom and student level.

School Climate Checklist

Rate each of the items below using the scale provided. Then compute a mean score for your school.

Ratings:

1 = Poor or non-existent   4 = Excellent
2 = Fair   5 = Out-standing
3 = Good

_____ 1.   My school provides special academic assistance programs for students.

_____ 2.   My school has specific procedures for providing classroom assistance to teachers experiencing a classroom crisis.

_____ 3.   My school has a staffed short-term detention program.

_____ 4.   My school has an in-school suspension program.

_____ 5.   My school is aware of the diversity among its students and constructively takes this into account in dealing with and planning for students.

_____ 6.   My school has programs such as recognition of accomplishment by students that promote a positive climate.

_____ 7.   My school offers a variety of curricula options that meet the needs and interests of virtually all students.

_____ 8.   My school provides a comfortable and safe environment for faculty, staff and students.

_____ 9.   My school has a program for soliciting input from parents on important school issues and for meaningfully involving parents in decisions that affect the school and its programs.

_____ 10.   My school has a program for soliciting input from the community served by the school on important school issues and for meaningfully involving the community in decisions that affect the school and its programs.

_____ Total   _____ Mean

Note: You might also find it useful to administer this checklist to a sample of faculty, staff and students to see if their perceptions match yours.

Figure Four

The Classroom

Decontamination:

Decontamination of a classroom is the first preventive action that every teacher needs to take. Decontamination means inspecting your classroom carefully for two types of objects. Objects in the first class are distractors. They entice students into engaging in off-task behavior. For example, toys that are present may attract a student's attention and prompt play behavior. Some types of classroom equipment, like a slide projector, may attract a student's attention and prompt exploratory behavior. Hazards are another type of distractor. For example, exposed electrical wires or a broken window pane may attract a student's attention and prompt dangerous exploratory behavior. Objects in the second class are potential weapons. They are objects that may appeal to a student who is upset and acting-out. For example, a knife, broom, hammer or letter opener are all potential weapons. You should regularly inspect your classroom for distractors and potential weapons. Remove any objects of either type from your classroom or secure them so students do not have access to them.

Proximity Control:

Classroom arrangement for good proximity control is the second preventive action that every teacher should take. Proximity control depends on you serving as an inhibiting antecedent for inappropriate behavior. The first type of proximity control is visual proximity control. A good classroom arrangement must include visual proximity control. This means you can visually monitor student activity from any position in the classroom. There should be clear lines of sight throughout the room. It should be obvious to students that you can see whatever they do. Take particular care when placing tall furnishings such as dividers, bookcases, movable chalkboards and file cabinets. Place these and other furnishings so they do not obscure student behavior.

Another type of proximity control depends on physical proximity. Physical proximity requires that the teacher be as close to each student as possible. This increases a teacher's potential as an inhibiting antecedent. There are two common way teachers use this technique. One way is to go to the side of a student who is misbehaving. Another way is to move a student close to the teacher, for example, next to the teacher's desk. The effectiveness of proximity control can be increased by using a planned seating arrangement. That is, a seating plan that makes it easy for you to use physical proximity with any student in the class. Such an arrangement allows you to quickly increase physical proximity until a misbehavior comes under control.

There are several seating arrangements that increase your physical proximity to all students. The first two are appropriate for whole group instruction. The first arrangement is the U-shaped seating pattern. Use this arrangement with either individual desks or rectangular tables. The instructional area, for example, chalkboard or teacher's desk, should be the focus of the open end of the U. If the number of students is too large to arrange in a

single U-shaped row, arrange them in a double or triple U-shaped row. When seating is in the U configuration, the teacher should move around in the center of the U. This increases your proximity to all of the students in the class. The second arrangement is a variation on the U. Use this variation for different types of instruction in two separate areas. Alter the U shape by removing the closed end to form two parallel rows (| |) for seating. Setup an instructional area at each end. You change the focus for instruction by moving from one end to the other. Use double or triple rows (see Figure 5) to expand the number of students this arrangement will accommodate.

The third arrangement for proximity control is one suggested by Frank Hewett and Frank Taylor. This arrangement is good for small group or tutorial instruction. The originators of this arrangement refer to it as a wheel. We will call it the teaching triangle. Effective use of the teaching triangle requires either a teacher's aide or student assistants. The first step is to divide the students into three groups. A group can vary in size from as few as one student to as many as ten. If all the students are at about the same instructional level in each subject area, divide them anyway that is convenient. If the students are not all on the same level, divide them into three groups where each group is at about the same level. If each student is at about the same level for each subject, the groups will remain the same across subjects. If students are at varying levels in different subjects, the membership of the three groups will change by subject. Once the membership of the groups is decided, arrange the seating for three groups. This can be done using three tables, one for each group, or three desk clusters. If the seating is clusters of desks, use the U-shaped arrangement discussed earlier.

The teaching triangle works this way. One table or desk cluster is for instruction. The second group is for application or practice activities. The third group is for review work. You stay with the instructional table or cluster. The teaching aide or student assistant supervises the other two groups. If desk clusters in the U-shape are used, place the U's open-end to open-end ([ ]), if possible. This permits the aide to move in the center between groups and maintain good physical proximity. With the parallel row (l l) arrangement each row can serve as one piece of the triangle. If there are student assistants, use one assistant for each of the non-instructional groups. The student selected should be the highest functioning student in each group. With the U-shaped seating arrangement, each student assistant should sit in a central position (C*) [see Figure 6].
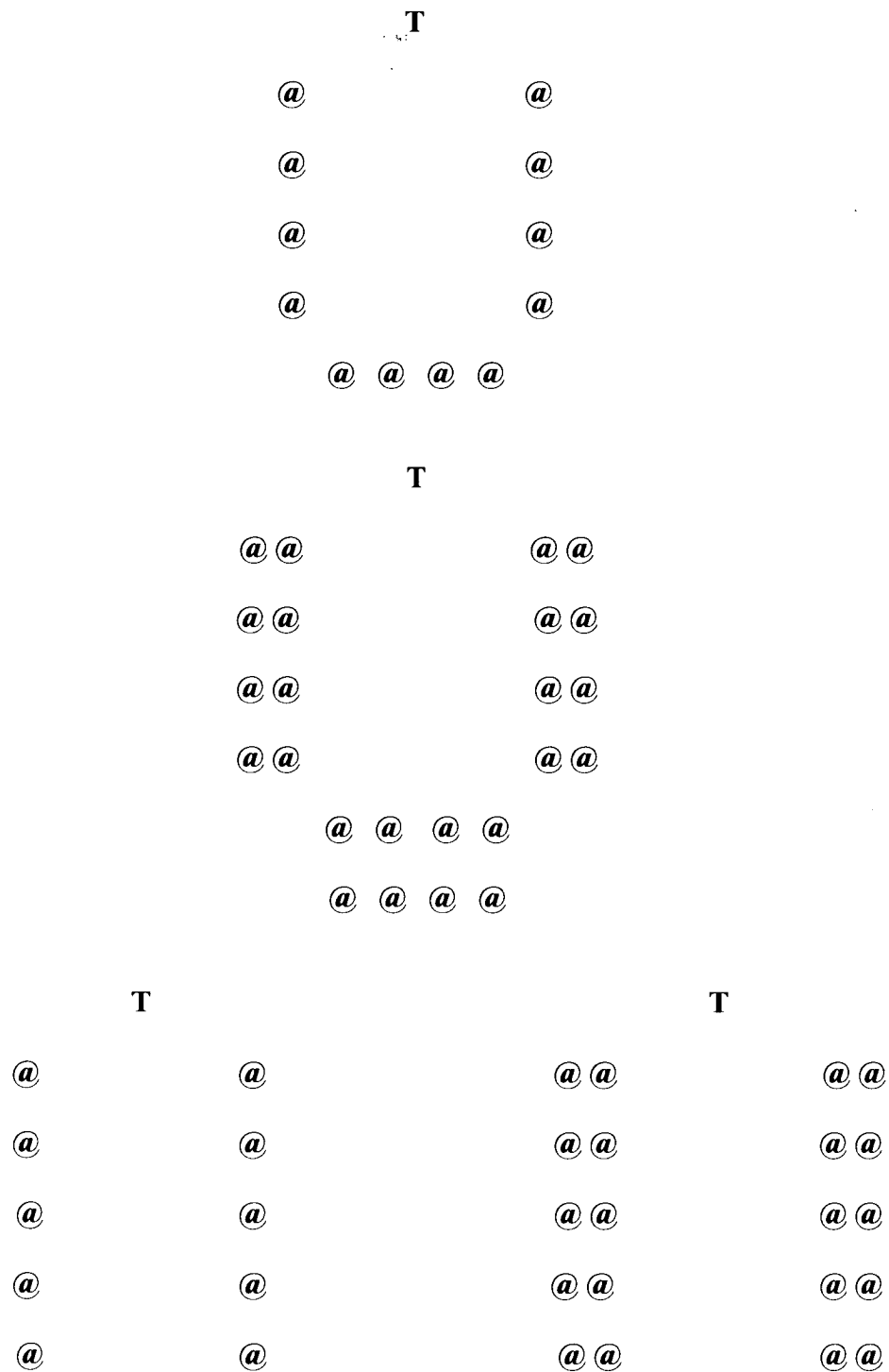
Seating for Proximity Control

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Figure Five

To illustrate how this procedure works, let's assume a one- hour period for reading instruction (R). The instructional group will be (I), the practice group (P) and the review group (R). The three student groups will be (1), (2) and (3). The arrangement for the first 20 minutes is as follows: R-I-1, R-P-2 and R-R-3. During the first 20 minutes you provide reading instruction to group 1. Group 2 gets practice activities based on the most recent reading instruction. Group 3 gets review activities based on earlier reading instruction. Review activities help to maintain material learned earlier. At the end of the first 20 minutes, the groups rotate. During the second 20 minutes the arrangement is as follows: R-I-3, R-P-1 and R-R-2. At the end of the second 20 minutes, the groups rotate again. During the third 20 minutes, the arrangement is as follows: R-I- 2, R-P-3 and R-R-1.

You provide small group instruction throughout the one-hour period. The teaching aide manages the practice and review groups throughout the one-hour period. If student assistants are used, they manage their respective groups while doing their own work. Tasks for student assistants may be briefer than tasks for other students. This will make it easier for them to perform their other duties. Student assistants need to be the highest functioning member of their group. Good students are less likely to suffer from shortened assignments. They also have the level of skill necessary to provide assistance.

Teacher Behavior

There are several aspects of teacher behavior to discuss. These include setting behavioral expectations, teacher expectations and the use of signal control. Another important teacher behavior that involves antecedent factors is learning to read antecedents in the behavior of students that precede problem behaviors. Once these antecedents are observed, a teacher can employ interference to head off the developing problem behavior.

Behavioral Expectations:

You must make clear what your expectations are for student behavior in your classroom. Do this in a public manner, for example, by posting a set of classroom rules. If you don't use public posting, give each student a personal copy of the class rules. Rules should state how students should conduct themselves rather than what they shouldn't do. There should be a small number of class rules. State rules as briefly as possible. Usually, five to seven rules are enough to cover behavioral expectations. Simply having rules is not enough to get consistent compliance with them. However, you must set rules before there can be compliance with your expectations. Compliance depends on the consequences for both compliance and violation of the rules. There will be more on consequences in later chapters.

Seating for Proximity Control

Instructional Triangle

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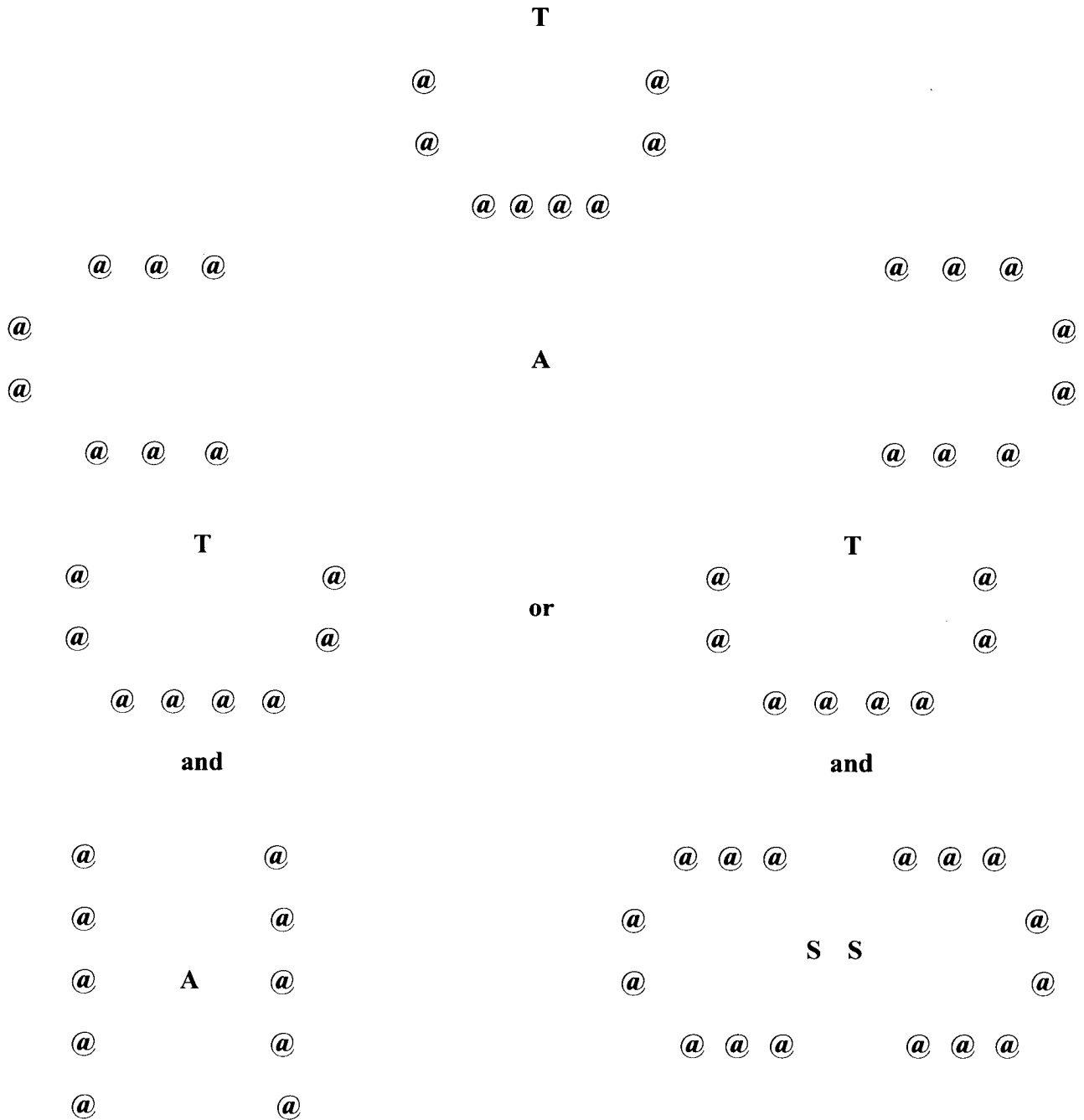@   @   @ @ @   @ @ @

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Figure Six

You must review your rules regularly to keep attention on them and to communicate that you think they are important. Review of the rules does not mean just occasionally reading the rules. Rather, call on students to cite rules. This will help them remember the rules. Also, ask students to discuss what rules mean for behavior. The discussion should include examples of rule violations. Discussions of this kind are important to help students both know and understand the rules. Provide positive feedback to students for correct recall or explanation of a rule. A sample set of class rules might look like the following.

1. Get permission before speaking.
2. Get permission before leaving your desk.
3. Maintain a good sitting position.
4. Be quiet and calm.
5. Be courteous to others.

Teacher Expectations:

Any teacher familiar with Rosenthal's self-fulfilling prophecy will also be careful about his or her personal expectations for individual students. Research shows that your expectations for a student can affect the student's performance. It is not your expectations per se that affect a student's performance. Rather, it is the effect your expectations have on your behavior that affects student performance. Thomas Good and Jere Brophy examined the connection between teacher expectations and behavior. Their study showed that holding negative or positive expectations for students resulted in different patterns of behavior toward the students.

In particular, they found low expectations associated with a higher level of criticism. Teachers also asked low expectation students fewer questions. In addition, low expectation students got less prompting when they didn't know the answer to a question. They also got more negative feedback for an incorrect answer. When low expectation students gave a correct answer, they often got no positive feedback from their teacher. If they did get positive feedback, they got less than other students. The pattern of teacher behavior toward high expectation students was just the opposite. Other studies show teacher expectations also affect a teacher's non-verbal behavior. Teachers get physically closer to students they have high expectations for. Such students also get more face-to-face interaction with teachers. Further, teachers give high expectations students more signs of approval such as smiles.

Your attitude toward a student can affect the your behavior toward that student. A negative attitude toward a student can arise from many sources. It may result from a bad experience with the student. It may also result from prior experience with a sibling or parent of the student. Often, it is the product of informal remarks made by another teacher about the student. You must try to put aside personal prejudices about students regardless of how they arise. Deal with all students in a professional manner. Professionalism requires positive

expectations for every student. You need to watch and judge both your attitudes and behavior toward your students. If they are less than professional, you have a responsibility to change them.

A final comment, teachers are also models for behavior. When you are unreasonable, unfair, mean, vindictive, blaming, or cruel, you are modeling those behaviors. Your behavior leads students to expect that those kind of behaviors are acceptable. The same, of course, applies to being reasonable, fair, kind, forgiving, supportive, or respectful. In short, your behavior is important. In fact, in many ways, your behavior is the most powerful behavior management tool available to you. Just remember that if you can't manage your own behavior you probably will have limited success in managing your students' behavior.

Signal Control:

The first type of teacher signal control is the use of audible signals. One common method for giving an audible signal is the gavel technique. This is simply a single or double, forceful rap of an object on a desk or table. The object can be a gavel, the knuckles, a ruler or any object that will produce an audible signal. The hand technique is another option. This uses snapping the fingers or clapping the hands together to produce an audible signal. You can no doubt think of other ways to produce audible signals. You must plan, in advance, on what signals you will use. You must use your signals consistently over time so they are clearly understood. To be effective, there must be consequences for either responding to or failing to respond to signals. Signals will usually not control behavior unless they are paired with a consequence. Consequences are discussed in later chapters.

An audible signal to control attention to task and work rate is a kitchen timer. The timer ticking and the bell serve as audible signals. For example, suppose you have four paragraphs on the chalkboard or on overheads. The students are to read and identify the misspellings in the paragraphs by writing the misspelled words on paper. Instead of allowing a fixed period for the whole task, use brief periods, for example, five minutes to complete each paragraph. Tell students that you are going to set a timer for five minutes. Tell them when the bell rings you will remove the first paragraph. Finally, tell the students that after the first paragraph is removed the timer will start again for the second paragraph. Continue in this manner through all four paragraphs. This technique will keep attention focused on the task. It also provides external pacing for work on the task.

Commonly used vocal signals include either a name or a cue word. Use a name for a single errant student. If more than one student needs prompting, use a cue word. Examples of cue words include general terms like class, group, or children. Give vocal signals in a loud and forceful manner. You can also pair vocal signals with visual signals to increase their effect. For example, you can use an open-hand with palm-out as a stop signal. Two other hand signals are the vertical finger across the lips for quiet and the pointing finger to single-out an errant student. Accompany verbal signals to a group with roving eye-contact. Accompany a verbal signal for a single errant student with fixed eye-contact. If eye-contact is not possible,

use a fixed gaze instead. In short, clearly communicate intense visual attention along with the other signal or signals.

Another type of signal control uses body language to communicate. First, be sure to use a proper facial expression. The overall facial expression should be the so-called "poker face." That is, your feelings should not be readable in your facial expression. Sometimes inappropriate behavior is amusing. However, it is dangerous to communicate this because it sends a mixed message. You may also be angry or distressed by inappropriate behavior. Giving this away through facial expression can actually reinforce inappropriate behavior and prompt further misbehavior. This is especially likely if one or more students are trying to manipulate your emotions for their own amusement. Even if manipulation was not the intent, your reaction may be amusing and stimulate further misbehavior.

Another aspect of body language is posture and gesture. If you are sitting, your body posture should be erect with shoulders squared before giving a signal. If you are standing, your body posture should be erect with feet spread as in the military position of parade rest. Place your hands on your hips to show readiness for further action. An alternate posture is to point, with the other arm at your side, at a single errant student. If you begin walking toward a student or group, your walk should be direct, at a quick pace and confident. Your hands can be either on the hips or at the sides. In a discipline situation, don't clasp your hands in front of or behind your body. If a student is agitated and could become aggressive, your arms should be in a less threatening position. A non-threatening and defensive position for your arms is to fold them across the mid-body area.

Another use of body language is blocking. Use blocking when one student's misbehavior is an antecedent or consequence for another student's misbehavior. Move directly to the two students to increase proximity control. Place your body between the students to block the signals passing between them. If necessary, continue to increase physical proximity with one of the students. Get as close as necessary to inhibit the student's behavior unless the student is negatively aroused and might strike you. Continue to block signals between the two students as you increase proximity to the targeted student.

Jacob Kounin has investigated factors that affect the use of what he calls desists. Desists are similar to signal control. His research shows what the major factor is in effective signal control. This effectiveness factor is student perception of teacher competence. Perception of teacher competence for behavior management depends on several teacher behaviors.

1. The teacher consistently targets the correct student.
2. The teacher consistently targets the most serious misbehavior first.
3. The teacher responds immediately to misbehavior.
4. The teacher can handle more than one event at a time.
5. The teacher's signal control is clear and firm.

6. The teacher's management style is smooth:
    a. The teacher maintains a comfortable classroom pace.
    b. The teacher communicates a sense of purpose and progress.
    c. The teacher only engages in necessary talk.
    d. The teacher maintains focus on the task at hand.
    e. The teacher can make smooth transitions from one activity to another.

A third type of signal control involves verbal behavior. One common verbal signal is instructions. There are many types of instructions. They can be either spoken or written. Instructions can be for academic tasks, non-academic activities or conduct. Be sure that all instructions are clear and concise. Ambiguous instructions create confusion, require unnecessary discussion and waste time. Ambiguous instructions may also bore students. Students who become bored often seek a way to escape. Escape frequently means engaging in behavior that is disruptive.

Further, you should word oral instructions to minimize commotion in your classroom. For example, don't use an instruction that gives general permission to students to get out of their seats and move around. That is, don't say, "When you have finished, bring me your paper." This type of instruction can result in several students being up and moving about at the same time. Usually, it is better to say, "When you finish, raise your hand and I will come and pick up your paper." Now, no one has permission to be up and moving about.

Another type of verbal signal is questions. You should also use questions that reduce commotion in your classroom. For example, don't ask, "Who knows how to spell 'diskette'?" This is an invitation for everyone to respond and if they do, auditory bedlam results. It is better to ask, "Ken, how do you spell 'diskette'?" Now, only one person has an invitation to respond. Further, you should only acknowledge a response from Ken. You should also randomize your selection of students for directed questions. Random selection makes the target of the next question unpredictable. Uncertainty increases attention to the task at hand. Everyone attends better when no one knows when he or she will get a question.

Never use a question in place of a command. For example, don't say, "Jack, will you stop poking Leon?" When you ask this, you are setting yourself up for a response like, "No." Then, what will you say? It would be much better to say, "Jack, stop poking Leon." In short, think about the likely effects of your instructions and questions on student behavior before you use them. Careful attention to how you word your instructions and questions can have a big impact on student behavior.

Combine instructions and questions with audible, visual, or vocal signals. For example, use an audible signal for quiet like the gavel before giving an oral instruction. Before beginning a question use the extended open-hand with palm out as a signal not to answer at will. For an in-unison response, use the vocal signal "everyone" combined with a visual signal like out- stretched, open arms. For an individual response, use the name of the student as a

verbal signal and the pointing finger prompt as a visual signal. Usually, established combinations of audible, visual and vocal signals produce the best results.

Interference:

Interference refers to a teacher response to disrupt a psychological state in a student that may lead to inappropriate behavior. Teachers should be particularly alert for negative signs in students. Negative signs usually signal that a student is in a state of emotional arousal. Negative arousal is often related to anxiety, helplessness, frustration or anger. Signs suggesting negative emotional arousal may appear in facial expressions, body posture or behavior (see Figure 7). Gerard Nierenberg and Henry Calero describe these signs in their book on reading body language.

These signs may not always signal trouble brewing, particularly if they occur in isolation and are brief. It is especially important to look for congruence. That is, several different signs that all suggest the same internal state. When there is a clear sign of negative emotional arousal, you should head off further escalation of the condition. Interference is begun by making supportive, verbal contact with a student.

You should be close to a student for the initial contact. Don't make verbal contact with a student from a distance. Loud, public verbal contact may embarrass a student or otherwise aggravate the situation. Go to a student or ask the student to come to you. You must be close enough to a student to have a quiet, private conversation. However, don't get within hitting or kicking distance of a student. If a student should lash out, you don't want to be within striking distance.

Non-verbal Signs of Negative Emotional Arousal

Facial Expression:

1.   Tight, thin lips that are either straight or turned down at the corners.
2.   Narrowed eyes with eyebrows drawn slightly down and chin drawn in toward the neck.
3.   Widened eyes with nostrils slightly flared and chin forward.
4.   Clenched teeth shown by tight, flexed jaw muscles.
5.   Pursed lips.

Body Posture:

1.   Slumped shoulders with head and eyes down. If sitting, a student may cross his or her arms or if standing the hands may   be in pockets.
2.   Arms crossed with hands clenched into fists or arms crossed with hands tightly gripping upper arms.
3.   Standing with body leaning forward and hands spread wide apart and resting on or gripping the edges of a table or desk.
4.   Tightly clenched hands resting on a table or desk or forming the apex of a triangle supporting the head.
5.   One hand holding the other in a hand-wringing gesture.
6.   Sitting in a chair with ankles locked. The student will either grip the arms of the chair or one hand will hold the other hand down in the lap.
7.   Eyes closed with one hand covering and appearing to grip the nose.
8.   Head down with face covered by both hands.
9.   Standing, arms behind back with one grasped by the hand of the other as if restraining the arm.
10.   Sucking or chewing motions directed at the hand or fingers.

Incidental Behavior:

1.   Rapid, shallow breathing.
2.   Sighing.
3.   Rapid, short up and down or back and forth movement of a leg or foot.
4.   Repeated kicking at the ground with the toe of one foot.
5.   Non-verbal sounds such as tisk or a groaning sound.
6.   Breaking something such as a pencil.
7.   Tearing or wadding up a sheet or paper.
8.   Exaggerated behavior such as slamming a book shut.
9.   Undirected utterance of an expletive such as damn!
10.   Mumbling or talking to oneself.

Figure Seven

Initial contact should be in a calm, non-threatening manner and not imply any prejudgment of the situation. The contact should be in a form that invites a response. The contact will usually be either an information-seeking question or an observational statement that invites a response.

Information Seeking:

"Are you having trouble with something?" OR
"Do you not understand something?"

Observational Statement:

"It looks to me like you are upset about something." OR
"Are you having a problem?"

If there is no answer or comment from the student, begin a follow-up probe.

Follow-up:

"Why don't you tell me about it." OR "Maybe I can help."

Frequently, in a classroom situation, a student's problem is the task at hand. There are several common sources of difficulty.

1. The task may be too difficult.
2. The task may be too long.
3. The task instructions may not be clear.
4. The necessary preparation such as a homework assignment was not done.
5. A particular point in a task is causing difficulty.
6. The need for some available resource such as a glossary or number line is not recognized.

If the source of the emotional arousal is one of the above or something similar, try to provide some help. Help a student get past the difficulty and engage the task constructively. Often, the solution is as simple as pointing out the need for some resource, explaining a direction, changing the task somewhat, or giving a prompt or cue. If the source of the problem is not task related, you will need to further explore the difficulty with the student through a supportive dialogue. Do this immediately, if possible. Otherwise, offer to talk with the student about the problem at another time during the day.

Frequently, just having a sympathetic ear is enough to diminish the negative emotional arousal associated with a problem. Elizabeth Koopman and her colleagues suggest that supportive dialogue with a student about a problem is an important aspect of a teacher's role.

Teachers should attend to several aspects of any communication with a troubled student. When you talk with a negatively aroused student, listen for the emotional content of the student's responses. These feelings may appear in either verbalizations or body language or both. Listen for emotionally laden words like hate, mad, and unfair. Watch body language for clues like those discussed in the section above. In addition, listen for the source of the feelings. That is, what event or actions appear related to the negative emotional arousal?

Help a student talk through a problem situation rather than impulsively acting on it. Be careful about the way you respond to a student. Your response style can disrupt rather than aid communication. Avoid the use of such response styles as:

1. Advice Giving: "You need to be more tolerant." Constructive advice is alright, if a student seeks it. Before giving advice, try to lead the student with questions or prompts.
2. Changing the Topic: "How's your sister doing these days?"
3. Criticizing: "You don't ever think anything through."
4. Disagreeing: "I don't believe there is any truth in that at all.
5. Labeling: "You special education students are all just alike."
6. Lecturing: "When I was your age, I'd have never let myself be talked into cheating."
7. Moralizing: "A decent person would never speak that way."
8. Threatening: "If you don't get your act together, you're going to wish you had."

Use response styles that are likely to aid rather than disrupt communication when trying to discuss a problem with a student. Use response styles like:

1. Agreeing: "I understand why that would make you angry."
2. "I Feel" Statements: "I really regret that you're having problems. "I want to help you, if you'll let me."
3. Information Giving: "The right way to deal with this is to petition the discipline committee."
4. Questioning: "Why do you think Mr. Wilson is out to get you?"
5. Reflecting: "If I understand you, you think that you were unjustly singled out."
6. Sharing: "I know being an adolescent is tough. When I was your age, I thought no one liked me either."

A supportive talk with a troubled student helps the student to be open and talk about what is bothering him or her. The purpose is to help the student find an acceptable outlet for negative emotional arousal. It is also an opportunity for the student to think through the problem and understand it. In the process, you may learn something useful about the student's perspective. Any resulting solution to the problem is incidental and a bonus outcome.

There are several difficulties that may arise while trying to conduct a supportive dialogue with a troubled student. The student may become defensive and question or challenge you, as in the following example.

"What about Charles? He isn't doing his work either."

Your response should be to calmly re-direct. "Perhaps, but I'm trying to find out why you aren't doing your work."

Or, a student may say, "If you don't get off my case, I'm going to lose it."

The correct response is to remain controlled and supportive while setting limits. "I just want to understand what the problem is, but if you can't control yourself, I'll have no choice but to send for the principal."

If you are rebuffed by a student, don't pressure the student to talk about the problem. Make a tactful withdrawal. Your offer to engage in a dialogue alone may be enough support for the student. Back-off and take a wait-and-see attitude.

A student may have an emotional outburst and become destructive or aggressive. In this event, your first responsibility is to assure the safety of your other students and yourself. You should always have a planned response available for this type of occurrence. It is just this type of situation that makes school-wide, support programs such as a crisis management team an important part of discipline policy. As a last resort, when there is a clear and inescapable danger, you may have to control the student's behavior directly. There will be a brief discussion of physical management in Chapter Three.

Curriculum Adjustment

Introduction:

The earlier discussion of curriculum and the general role it plays in student discipline was a look at curriculum as a part of a complex set of antecedent events that make up school climate. Curriculum can also be looked at less broadly as an antecedent for classroom discipline. Below is a story from the author's experience. The story illustrates the use of perceived relevance to control off-task behavior and motivation in a ninth grader.

Web was a bright, 15 year old, underachiever who was not motivated by any of his classes. He frequently created minor disturbances. Most of the time, Web minded his own business and read books that he brought from home. His favorite reading materials were volumes from a set of books on automobile repair. At the time, Web's goal was to be a mechanic. About the only time Web created a big disturbance was when a teacher took one of these books away from him.

Two teachers tried to use Web's interest in automobiles. Mrs. Black, his algebra teacher, repeatedly told Web that he couldn't be a mechanic unless he understood algebra. Web knew this was either a lie or ignorance speaking. He knew several good mechanics and they didn't know anything about algebra. Mrs. Black was not successful. Mrs. Suder, his

English teacher, made a deal with Web. Mrs. Suder gave him a pass each day to go to the library and do research. He could use books he brought from home or books from the library. Mrs. Suder told Web that she wanted him to learn as much as possible about automobile engines. All he had to do was turn in a paper describing in detail what he learned during the semester. She also provided a list of composition standards that the paper had to meet. Mrs. Suder was successful. Web worked diligently on his research, never got into trouble in the library and produced a product that met Mrs. Suder's standards.

Now let's take a look at the role of curriculum adjustment in behavior management. Research by the author, Sam Deitz and Melvin Kaufman shows that proper individualization of curriculum tasks has important implications for classroom behavior. Appropriate individualization of curriculum tasks must include two steps. First, determine each student's ability level in a given subject area. Second, determine each student's work rate. When planning instruction and application activities, adjust the demand level of the work based on these two steps. This research shows that an inappropriate match between student performance level and the demand level of instructional tasks contribute to behavior problems. When such a condition was present, classroom misbehavior increased by as much as 100%. When a curriculum adjustment brought performance level and task demand level into alignment, there was a significant reduction in the level of misbehavior (see Figure 8). Proper planning for instruction is critical for good behavior management in the classroom. If possible, make needed adjustments before beginning work with a student.

Some students exhibit a lot of inappropriate classroom behavior such as being off-task. While off-task they engage in various escape behaviors such as talking or doodling. When these behaviors occur, your first strategy should be to determine if the student's work is properly individualized. Immediate adjustment, on a trial basis, can often provide useful information. The effects of such trials help determine if curriculum adjustment will reduce misbehavior. Curriculum tasks may be inappropriate because they are too difficult or too easy. Even if the demand level is proper, the amount of work expected in a task period may be too much or too little. Of course, the problem may be due to a combination of these factors. When work is too easy or the amount is too small, a students become bored or finish too quickly or both. Students will then look for some way to fill up the left-over time. Such students may find a way to entertain themselves at your expense. When work is too difficult or the amount of work is too much, students become frustrated and give up. A frustrated student is in a state of negative emotional arousal. Such students may become explosive or involved in less dramatic forms of disruptive behavior.

If you must give students tasks that some may finish early, have planned activities available that are interesting and not disruptive. Some classes have a regular set of activities of this type. Students in such classes know what and where these activities are. They also know to go get one of them when they finish early.

Developmental Curriculum:

Frank Hewett and Frank Taylor suggest that a proper curriculum should be developmental. They have designed a curriculum sequence with six stages: Attention, Response, Order, Exploratory, Social and Mastery. As they point-out, many students enter school at the Attention Stage of development. Unfortunately, the beginning academic curriculum in most schools starts at the Order Stage. You can adjust curriculum by using a student's developmental level. When the predominant developmental stage is identified, focus curriculum tasks at that stage (see example below). Once a student is successful at one stage, modify his or her curriculum tasks to reflect the next stage in the sequence. This process should continue until the student is functioning at the stage that predominates among his or her classmates. Tasks at a lower level do not have to be different in form from tasks at the predominate developmental level in a class. What is important is to focus on the stage appropriate aspects of the task.

The following is a brief description of the stages in the sequence. Frank Hewett and Frank Taylor's text has a detailed description of the stages along with teaching suggestions.

1. Attention Stage: This stage covers both visual and auditory attention, including both discrimination and memory skills.

2. Response Stage: This stage covers motor coordination, both large and small motor skills, as well as eye-hand coordination. It also covers both non-verbal and verbal language, including articulation, comprehension and expression. It includes skills for both motor and verbal responses to tasks.

3. Order Stage: This stage covers direction following, including imitation and both position and sequence. It also covers school adjustment, including both task related and person related behavior.
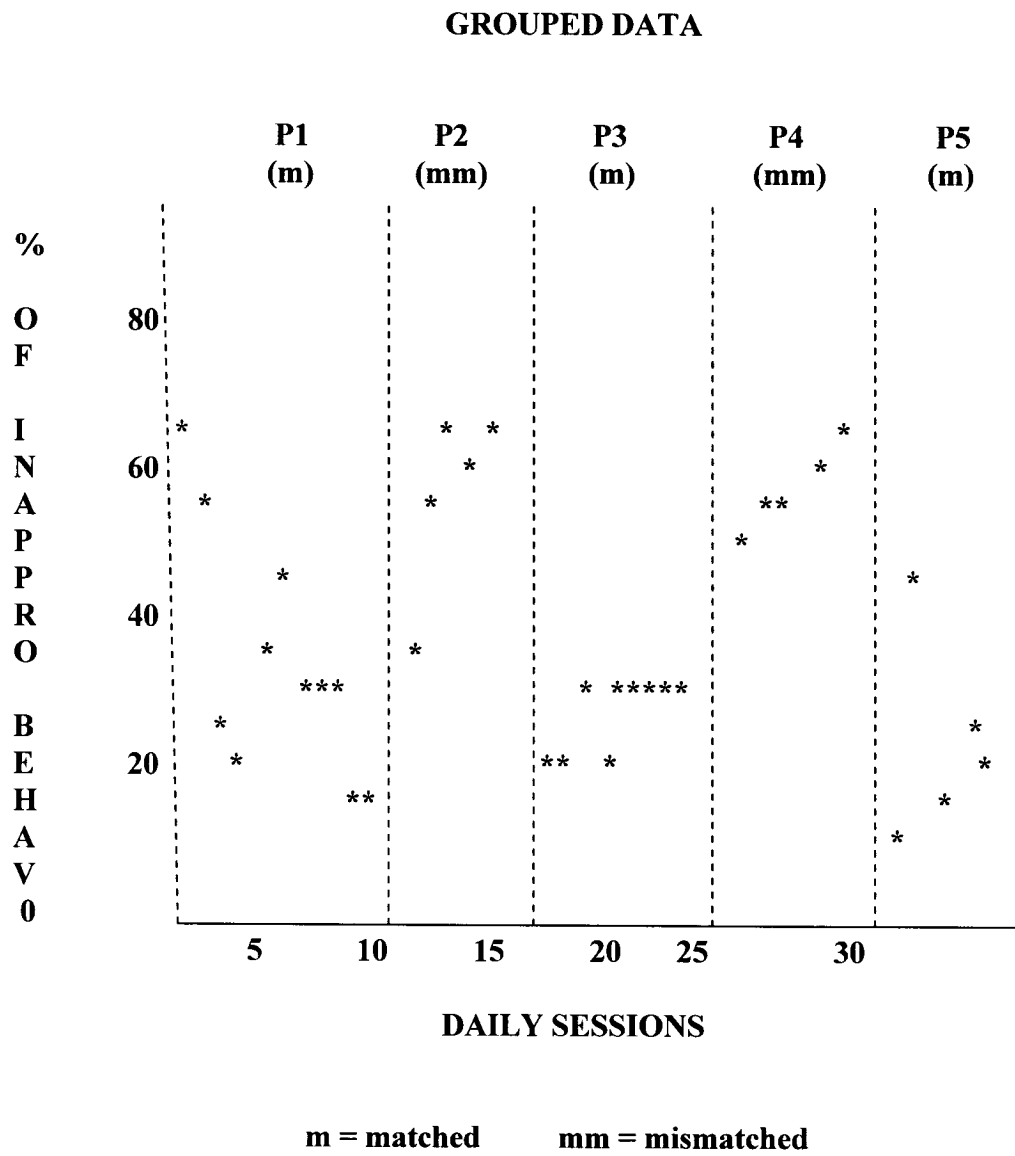
GROUPED DATA

| | P1 (m) | P2 (mm) | P3 (m) | P4 (mm) | P5 (m) |

% OF INAPPRO BEHAV

80

60

40

20

0

5   10   15   20   25   30

DAILY SESSIONS

m = matched   mm = mismatched

Figure Eight

4.   <u>Exploratory Stage</u>: This stage covers active participation and knowledge of the environment, including objects, events, experiences and beliefs.

5.   <u>Social Stage</u>: This stage includes relationships with others including both adults and peers and both in and outside the school context. It also covers self-concept including self-confidence, self-efficacy and mood.

6.   <u>Mastery Stage</u>: This stage includes self-help, health and hygiene, reading, writing, math and vocational and career development skills. This is the stage at which most teachers want to focus their instruction. However, a student cannot successfully function at this stage if he or she has significant skill deficits at any of the earlier stages.

<div align="center">An Example of an Educational Task with a Shifting Stage Focus</div>

The following are objectives for a reading task at different stages:

1.   Attention Stage: The student will listen to the story and identify and remember characters' names. Or, the student will identify and remember at least five words in the story containing the short "e" sound.

2.   Response Stage: During oral reading, the student will follow along in the text and underline the central character's name each time it occurs. For a more academic focus, the student will underline each word in the story containing the short "e" sound.

3.   Order Stage: The student will listen to the story and verbally describe, in proper sequence, the major events in the story.

4.   Exploratory Stage: The student will listen and follow along in the text. The student will participate in the follow-up discussion of the story. Discussion will include both answering and asking questions about the story.

5.   Social Stage: The student will listen and follow along in the text. Following the story, the student will participate in a cooperative learning task based on the story.

6.   Mastery Stage: The student will follow along in the text and read aloud when called on. The student will correctly answer questions on a comprehension work sheet following the story.

Adapting Instruction:

In their handbook on mainstreaming educationally handicapped students, Leroy Lott, Barbara Hudak and Janet Scheetz discuss a number of useful curriculum adaptation techniques. Many of their suggestions require little additional teacher preparation time.

A. General Guidelines.

1. Use Small, Distinct Steps: Break learning tasks into discrete pieces, teach the task one piece at a time and then integrate the pieces.

2. Use Reference Charts: Sometimes a deficit skill may impeded learning another skill. Compensate by providing a reference chart for the deficit skill, for example, a multiplication table or guide to alphabetizing.

3. Use Correct Responses: To help a student develop a more positive attitude, emphasize the positive. Marking only correct responses when giving task feedback.

4. Use Progress Charts: A graphic representation of progress can be motivating to any student. A student making slow progress may not be aware of that progress without a progress chart.

5. Use Programmed Materials: Programmed learning materials reduce the need for teacher attention to a student's learning task. It also allows a student to move at his or her on speed.

6. Use Organizing Cues: Mark the beginning point of a task with green and the end point with red. For complex tasks, provide a list of the steps involved in the task.

B. Reading Guidelines.

1. Use Student Readers: A good reader can help or even read to a poor reader. This is most useful when the emphasis is on content rather than reading skills.

2. Use Tape Recorders: Put content reading material on audio tape for poor readers. This can be done by the teacher, other students, or community volunteers.

3. Use Underlining: Mark important words and ideas in reading material to draw attention to them.

4. Use Alternative Materials: Locate alternative reading materials on the same content at the student's reading level.

5.   Use Longer Task Periods: Give slow students more time to complete the reading assignment. Another approach is to shorten the assignment to a manageable length.

C.   **Arithmetic Guidelines.**

1.   Use Fewer Problems: For slow students, reduce the number of items that they must complete or give them more time.

2.   Use A Different Grading Criterion: For a specific grade, set a lower criterion for a student who is having difficulty.   Progressively raise the criterion as the student improves.   Another alternative is to base a student's score only on the items attempted rather than on all items on a task.

3.   Use Spacing: For distractible students, space the problems farther apart. Put problems on graph paper to help students keep focused on figures in columns.

4.   Use Grouping: Group similar problems together to reduce the possibility of confusion.   An alternative is to put only one type of problem on a page. This provides a natural break in the task and reduces the possibility of perseveration.

5.   Use Examples: Provide examples of various processes as models for students to follow. Color coding can also be useful to help students identify the steps in a process.

6.   Use Rewording: For poor readers, rewrite word problems at the their reading level. Further, underline important words and divide necessary but difficult words into syllables. Include hints or reminders where they will help.

7.   Use Pictures: Whenever possible, visually illustrate word problems to help the student understand it.

8.   Use Computational Aids: When the focus is on process or reasoning rather than computation, let students use computational aids such as counting blocks or calculators.

D.   **Science and Social Studies Guidelines.**

Some of the earlier suggestions on reading for content apply in this section as well.

1.   Use Study Questions: Study questions on text material will help students focus on the important points in reading assignments.

2.   Use Advance Organizers: Provide students with a key question for each reading assignment or major section in the assignment.

3.	Use Visual Materials: Locate film strips, films or video tapes that cover the topic for a lesson. Use these materials as a substitute for reading assignments or to reinforce them.

4.	Use Oral Reports: Substitute oral reports for written reports and essay tests for students who have problems with written expression.

5.	Use Objective Tests: Some students have problems with both written and oral expression. For these students, substitute multiple choice, true and false or fill-in-the-blank tests for written or oral tests.

6.	Use Projects: Substitute hands-on projects for written reports or tests for students who have problems with both oral and written expression and reading.

E.	Handwriting Guidelines.

1.	Use Choice of Style: Let students use either cursive of manuscript rather than requiring one style or the other.

2.	Use Technology: Let students with chronic and significant handwriting problems use a typewriter or word processor to prepare assignments.

Curriculum changes of all kinds are well worth the time investment they require. Remember, a student who is involved in a learning task is less likely to be a behavior management problem. Usually, managing a disruptive student is much more time consuming than changing the curriculum to engage a student's attention and interest.

Conclusion

There are many things that you can do at the classroom level to modify antecedent conditions that may affect both discipline and motivation for learning. If you would like to evaluate your own classroom environment, you might begin by using the Classroom Environment Checklist (see Figure 9).

Classroom Environment Checklist

_____ 1. The classroom has been decontaminated of all distractors, dangerous objects and potential weapons.

_____ 2. The classroom arrangement permits good visual proximity control.

_____ 3. The classroom arrangement permits good physical proximity control.

_____ 4. Non-verbal signal controls have been determined.

_____ 5. Verbal signals for behavior management have been determined.

_____ 6. The instructional level has been established for each student.

_____ 7. Work rate for each student has been determined.

_____ 8. Curriculum adjustments and modifications that will be used have been determined.

_____ 9. The behavioral expectations for the class have been determined and posted.

_____ 10. A professional code of conduct for interacting with students has been set.

Figure Nine

2
Activities

1. Design a recognition program that you could use in your classroom.

2. List some statements that students have made to you that could indicate how they fall on the LOC dimension and on the LOR dimension discussed by Derald Sue. Do you think these attitudes are based on the students' personal experiences or on cultural background? Why?

3. Develop a process for evaluating school climate based on the concept of resistance.

4. Evaluate your school's climate using the School Climate Checklist (SCC). Develop some suggestions for how your school might improve its program in any area you rated either (1) or (2) on the SCC.

5. Develop a code of professional ethics or principles to guide your behavior as a teacher.

6. Develop two dialogues illustrating the wrong way and the right way to conduct a conversation with a student intended to interfere with what appears to be a state of negative emotional arousal.

7. Draw a floor plan for your classroom that maximizes the use of proximity control.

8. Evaluate the teaching triangle and discuss the pros and cons of using it in your classroom.

9. Describe signals you could or do use for signal control (non-verbal signals, body language, verbalizations) in your classroom.

10. Develop a set of rules for the use of the signals describe in the above activity that draws on Kounin's work on the effective use of desists.

11. Describe how you might make your curriculum, in a specific subject area, perceived as more relevant by your students.

12. Develop an objective for a specific subject focused at each of Hewett and Taylor's developmental curriculum stages.

13.   Describe some things that you would be willing to do to modify your curriculum or learning tasks for students having problems.

14.   Develop a set of behavioral expectations for your classroom.

15.   Develop a code of professional conduct or behaviors to guide your interactions with students.