DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 228 459 CE 035 598

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TITLE Behavior Management in Vocational Education Laboratories. Technical Assistance Services: Illinois Special Needs Populations.
SPONS AGENCY Illinois State Board of Education, Springfield. Dept. of Adult, Vocational and Technical Education.
PUB DATE Feb 83
NOTE 28p.; Print is small.
PUB TYPE Guides - Classroom Use - Guides (For Teachers) (052)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Behavioral Sciences; *Behavior Modification; Behavior Problems; *Classroom Techniques; Disabilities; *Discipline; Guidelines; *Mainstreaming; Performance Contracts; Problem Children; *School Shops; Secondary Education; Student Behavior; Token Economy; *Vocational Education

ABSTRACT

This guide is intended to help vocational teachers to manage student behavior, including that of students with handicaps and behavioral problems, in vocational educational laboratories. The guide is organized into three sections. The first section explains the different types of vocational laboratories (active and passive) and what types of behavior problems may be expected in each setting. The main section of the booklet focuses on tools of behavior management, suggesting techniques teachers can use to manage their classes. These techniques include setting rules, discipline, positive reinforcement, contingency contracting, negative reinforcement, modeling, extinction, and punishment. The final, summary section outlines basic principles of human behavior and summarizes tips for working with behavior problems. Appendixes contain a behavioral self evaluation for teachers and steps for implementing a behavioral strategy. (KC)

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ED228459

Behavior Management in Vocational Education Laboratories

Illinois State Board of Education

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TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE SERVICES: ILLINOIS SPECIAL NEEDS POPULATIONS

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Behavior Management in Vocational Education Laboratories

Behavior Management in Vocational Education Laboratories was developed by Thomas L. Erekson, Northern Illinois University and Robert Schultz, Naperville North High School through a contractual funding agreement with the Illinois State Board of Education, Department of Adult, Vocational and Technical Education.

The material has been selected for dissemination through the TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE AND DISSEMINATION NETWORK FOR SPECIAL NEEDS POPULATIONS. The Dissemination Network was developed pursuant to a funding agreement with the Illinois State Board of Education, Department of Adult, Vocational and Technical Education/Research and Development Section, 100 North First Street, Springfield, Illinois, 62777. Opinions expressed in this document do not necessarily reflect, nor should they be construed as, policy or opinion of the State Board of Education or its staff.

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BEHAVIOR MANAGEMENT IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION LABORATORIES

Like all teachers, vocational education instructors are faced with the problem of maintaining appropriate behavior in their classrooms. Student misbehavior which is annoying or disruptive in an academic class can be very dangerous in a vocational setting where realistic dangers, such as power tools, require close supervision.

Typically, secondary teachers, including vocational education teachers, receive little or no training in behavior management as a part of their preparation in college for teaching. In addition, the frequency and severity of behavior problems in school seems to be on the increase. There is some argument whether this phenomenon merely reflects better reporting methods or a real change in student behavior. Educational writers point to a number of factors which explain the increase in maladaptive student behavior. Some reasons offered include: a general erosion or respect for adult authority, the instability of early adulthood roles, the lengthening of adolescence and dependence of adults, changes in child rearing practices, societal discord and the breakdown of the family, marital conflict, and the deleterious effects of television shows and films which teach values incopsistent with the traditional teacher-student relationship.

The passage of federal legislation requiring mainstreaming--the education of handicapped students in the "least restrictive environment" appropriate to their needs, has resulted

in the placement of some students in public schools who, in the past, would have been excluded or placed in special schools because of their behavior (Walker, 1979). Thus the vocational instructor is faced with the problems of providing an effective, safe, educational environment for all students, including some who may have been excluded in the past due to their misbehavior.

TYPES OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION LABORATORIES

Before considering some specific behavior management techniques, vocational education teachers should be aware of the fact that all vocational education labs are not the same, and thus, may require different techniques for effective behavior management. Vocational education labs can be categorized into two major types (1) active labs and (2) passive labs. Active vocational education labs are those that "require" the students to move throughout the lab and use several different pieces of equipment and/or work stations, e.g, machine tool lab, food service lab. Passive vocational education labs are those that more closely simulate a traditional classroom where the students remain at one work station for most of the time, e.g., drafting lab, electronics lab, word processing lab. Obviously, whether a lab is considered "active" or "passive" is relative and will greatly depend on the instructional program of the teacher. In some cases a traditional "passive" lab will become "active" due to the specific activities for a unit of instruction. The reverse is also possible.

Vocational education teachers should realize that students

probably will act, and react, differently in the different types of labs. For example, a student who has some hyperactive tendencies could be a real discipline problem in a passive lab where he/she is required to sit/work at one station. This same student may present no major behavior management problems in an active lab where the student is free to move around the lab and work at several work stations. Therefore, just because a student presents discipline problems in one vocational education setting does not automatically mean that the behavior will transfer to all other vocational education settings or instructional formats.

Each student should be evaluated for discipline concerns for each class/setting. Often, vocational education classes will start with passive learning activities, e.g., drafting, safety, terminology and other "seat" work. The intent is to prepare the student for the "active" learning experiences. However, for behaviorally handicapped students who have difficulty learning in passive settings, this instructional format may bring out their worst behavior. Once a behavior problem is presented in a passive setting, the student may not be allowed to participate in "active" experiences eventhough the student might perform well in the active setting. Therefore, the teacher should remain aware of these differences and should not pre-judge handicapped students and automatically classify them as discipline problems. Also, learning experiences should be correlated with the learning style/behavioral characteristics of each student.

TOOLS OF BEHAVIOR MANAGEMENT

One of the most effective tools teachers can employ to manage student behavior is "applied behavior analysis" (ABA). Wallace and Kauffman (1978) defines applied behavior analysis as "any systematic arrangement of environmental events which produces a specifc change in observable behavior" (p.17). The emphasis in this approach is on observable and measurable behavior, rather than on inner state or personality traits. A student's feelings or attitudes are not directly addressed in the ABA approach because they can only be inferred by the behavior the student exhibits. By focusing on objective behaviors, the teacher is in a position to directly change those behaviors which are interfering with instruction or those which must be strengthened in order to maximize student performance.

The careful reader may have noticed that the term "behavior modification" was not used in the above discussion. This terminology has been avoided because so many misconceptions and misunderstandings have grown up around the use of "behavior mod". The use of the term often alienates educators who were falsely led to believe that behavior modification would quickly solve all of their behavior management problems with a minimum of effort. Also, some educators object to the use of behavioral techniques because they think students should perform in the classroom simply because it is expected. This attitude ignores the fact that school is not a pleasant intrinsically rewarding experience for many students. Finally, the "bribery" issue often is raised as an

objection to the use of behavior modification. There are two answers to this criticism. First of all, in the "real world" behavior is often rewarded with material or social reinforcers--such as a paycheck or a supervisor's praise for a job well done. Second, and this relates to the use of the term "applied behavior analysis" in the present paper, the use of consequences for behavior is only a part of the behavioral technique. To be effective, behavior management must also deal with antecedents and the behavior itself. Together, these three aspects--antecedents, behavior, and consequences--have been referred to as the ABC's of behavior modification.

The overemphasis on consequences in the popular view of behavior modification has obscured the value of observing and manipulating the antecedents of behavior--those elements in the environment which elicit and maintain behaviors. Sometimes problems in the classroom can be attributed to the physical environment, including such factors as the seating arrangement, surrounding objects, active or passive nature of the program, or the lesson itself. Every teacher should be self critical; that is, should constantly step back and objectively observe the value of one's own teaching methods. Perhaps the curriculum itself needs revision. Sometimes the students' behavior is a sign of disinterest which is a legitimate result of uninspired teaching that has little apparent relevance to the world of work.

Setting Rules

One of the most important antecedent manipulations is the

establishment of rules of conduct in the classroom and vocational education laboratory. Students will test to find the limits of the teacher's tolerance without clearly stated expectations. That is not to say that rules alone will preclude disruptive behavior--in fact, some students will test to see if the rules (and stated consequences) are really in effect. It is important to swiftly and consistently discipline rule breakers at the first opportunity. The effect on the rest of the class will be dramatic and pervasive.

When constructing a list of rules, it is a good idea to keep them positive and simple. It is more effective to tell students what you want them to do rather than what you do not want them to do. Setting rules entails more than just the laboratory safety rules. Safety rules should be included in the rules that are set for the overall operation and management of the vocational education program.

Discipline

Many people equate discipline with punishment. In fact, the use of punishment is only one small part of a comprehensive discipline plan. Punishment, in behavioral terms, has a specific definition which will be discussed later. Webster's New Dictionary (1980) defines "discipline" in this context as "training that develops self-control, character, or readiness and efficiency". It is not until the fifth definition that punishment is mentioned.

An effective discipline plan has a number of characteristics. Among these characteristics are:

1. It is planful. A program of discipline is well thought out, planned, and not merely reactionary.

2. It is systematic. Procedures are established and followed which have proven effective.

3. It is environmental. That is, it generalizes across settings and individuals. It is not dependent upon the presence of a certain individual to be effective.

4. It is aware of antecedent and consequent events. It does not view behavior in isolation, but recognizes that what happens before (curriculum, environment, modeling, materials) and after (R+, R-, punishment) will affect the likelihood or probability of that behavior occurring again.

5. It is in the best interest of the individual. Punishment, for example should not be administered for the benefit of the teacher, but in an attempt to eliminate behavior, which is detrimental to the student and/or others in the class.

6. It is designed to ultimately foster independent self-control.

Behavior management in any setting, including the vocational education laboratory, essentially consists of increasing the incidences of some behaviors and decreasing the incidences of others. Which behaviors are to be encouraged and which discouraged is to some extent specific to the situation. But in general, it can be said that behavior which enhances learning, promotes good interpersonal relations and does not violate the rights of others is desired over behaviors which are counter to these goals.

Positive Reinforcement

Increasing behaviors can be accomplished through reinforcement and modeling. There are two types of reinforcement:

positive and negative. It is said that positive reinforcement is in operation when consequences following a behavior result in an increase in the behavior. Putting it another way, a positive reinforcer is something which increases the probability of the re-occurrence of a behavior.

There are many ways to categorize reinforcement. One way is to talk of primary, tangible, token activity or social reinforcers. Primary reinforcers are edibles or other items which are inherently reinforcing. Training is not necessary to teach the value of the primary reinforcer to the student. In behavioral terms, primary reinforcers are also called "unconditioned" reinforcers because their value is not something which needs to be "conditioned".

Tangible reinforcers are concrete objects which can be offered in a reinforcement situation. For example, high school students may value items such as t-shirts, posters, records, wood or tools. These items may serve as reinforcers to them. This approach may be expensive, but it is very effective if the proper reinforcement is chosen. Tokens or points are often used to earn other reinforcers such as tangible ones. But sometimes, points alone can be positively reinforcing, especially if they are displayed publically or some sort of recognition is given for the accumulation of points.

A "token economy" is a full scale program which has been shown to be very valuable in institutional and/or special class settings for managing behavior. It utilizes "tokens" that can be "earned" for appropriate behavior. The tokens can be exchanged

for privileges or other items of value to the student. Money earned on the job and exchanged for goods and services is an example of tokens that are used in our society. However, it generally is very difficult to arrange a token economy and maintain consistency. Much training and experience are necessary for a token economy to work effectively in managing behavior. It is not something that the regular class teacher can expect to institute and maintain without outside help.

In effect, points for grades are a form of tokens, but their positive reinforcing value is only there if the student in fact values grades. This value is not always the case.

Activity reinforcers are those that provide access to activities contingent on behavior. Some activities which are often offered as reinforcers are free time in the vocational education lab, field trips, access to parts of the laboratory which has in them activities desirable to the student, washroom breaks, etc. Often activities are used as backups for token or point systems. The use of activities as reinforcers has been referred to as the "Premack Principle" also known euphemistically as "grandma's law". The Premack Principle states the access to high probability behaviors is contingent on occurrence of low probability behaviors. In other words, the student earns the right to do something that he/she would be likely to do on his/her own by doing something the teacher would like him/her to do first. It is very commonly used by parents in raising children, "you may eat your dessert when you clean your plate". In vocational education, teachers often say "you can work in the lab when you complete your homework".

Social responses, primarily praise, are commonly used as reinforcers. The problem with social reinforcers is that they are often given non-contingently. That is, teachers provide social reinforcement when student behavior may not warrant it. There are many types of social reinforcers. Martin and Lauridsen (1974) have broken down social reinforcers into verbal and non-verbal reinforcers. Verbal reinforcers include:

1. teacher comments received as praise, written and oral statements, sentences, words;
2. engaging in a conversation enjoyable to the student about personal interests or experiences;
3. acknowledging the student in the hall or on the street, maintaining a personal relationship with a student;
4. offering help in a pleasant tone of voice;
5. calling on students using phrases and names;
6. using student's names in funny stories or anecdotes told to the class;
7. sending home regular letters, notes, and asking parents to react with additional social reinforcers in the home setting.

Some non-verbal reinforcers that Martin and Lauridsen (1974) discuss are:

1. eye contact with the student when the student desires eye contact;
2. a handshake or handclap as a greeting or acknowledgment of good performance;
3. hugging, holding an arm lightly or an arm lightly around the neck;
4. standing close to students during class;

5. esoteric signals between teachers and individual students or groups to signify a favorable outcome, the commonly used forefinger and thumb together as OK or good job, for example;

6. facial expressions which are non-threatening and even exaggeratedly open or inviting.

Social reinforcers can be very valuable with high school students. But teachers must be sensitive to the needs of adolescents, and of course, understand which of these are appropriate in which settings.

To summarize then, positive reinforcement seeks to increase the probability of the occurrence of a behavior. An important point to remember when thinking of using positive reinforcement for the management of behavior is that the reinforcement must be perceived as such by the student for it to be a positive reinforcer. If the student does not wish to be acknowledged by a teacher in the hallway, it would not serve as an appropriate positive reinforcer. There is, in fact, no universal reward or punishment, but each type of reinforcer, social, verbal, and nonverbal exists as a reinforcer only in its relationship to the individual. Primary reinforcers, such as food, may be close to universal, but they are as close as any reinforcer can possibly be.

Contingency Contracting

The Premack Principle, as stated earlier, refers to a high probability behavior employed to develop or maintain a low probability behavior. In other words, if you do X, then you may do Y. One application of the Premack Principle is the contingency

contract. The contingency contract has great utility with adolescent students and is an especially useful method when working with adolescents for whom other methods have not succeeded. Homme (1970) has written extensively about the topic of contingency contracting with students. Homme explains that contingency contracting is based on two underlying principles of human behavior., 1) a desired behavior is likely to occur if it is followed by some kind of reward each time it occurs, i.e., a positive reinforcement, and 2) students learn more willingly and satisfactorily if the framework within which learning takes place has been mutually agreed upon between teacher and student. In effect, contingency contracting is a formalized use of the Premack Principle. Homme (1970) lists a number of rules for the effective use of contingency contracting:

1. The contract payoff, i.e., the reward, should be immediate.
2. Initial contracts should call for and reward small approximations (known as shaping in behavioral terms, i.e., rewarding approximations of the desired behavior and then as time goes by, requiring closer and closer approximations for reinforcement to occur).
3. Rewards should be frequent and small at first. In other words, if the time between reinforcements is too long, or if the rewards are too large or too great, it isn't likely that the contract will be successful.
4. The contract should call for and reward accomplishment rather than obedience.
5. The performance should be rewarded after it occurs not after a promise of performance.
6. The contract should be fair, that is, the task and reward should be of roughly equivalent weight. This part of the contingency

contracting model is probably the most complex. It is at this step that negotiation between the contracting parties (the student, the teacher, the parents, and other school personnel) comes into play.

7. The terms of the contract must be clear and must be written out.

8. The contract must be honest, and must be carried out immediately according to the terms stated in the contract.

9. The contract must be positively stated in terms of what to do, not what not to do, and must avoid the use of threats and punishment.

10. The contracting method must be used systematically, and the rules must be in effect at all times.

Homme also states that a contingency contract should contain certain elements if it is to be effective. In the interest of fairness and clarity, the contingency contract should specify:

1. What--exactly what it is the student must do? For example, a contract which stated that the student should "work in class everyday" is open to interpretation. A better contract would define work in objective terms. For example, "the student will complete at least three welds each day".

2. When--precisely at what time the task is to be completed and what are the time limits?

3. Where--at what location is the assigned task to be completed?

4. How--with what materials, tools, assistance is the task to be completed?

5. How Much--precisely how many projects or tasks must be completed?

6. How Well--what are the criteria for successfully completing the task?

Contingency contracting may be arranged between teacher and parent; parent, teacher, and student; parent and student; or the

tudent by him/herself. It may be useful to begin with much input from the special education teacher and parents regarding expectations and consequences. Then allow more and more student input, thus the responsibility for planning and carrying out the plan eventually becomes the student's.

Negative Reinforcement

A second type of reinforcement is negative reinforcement. Negative reinforcement is not the same as punishment. There is often much confusion between the two but it is easy to remember if it is kept in mind that reinforcement always increases the probability of the occurrence of a behavior. Negative reinforcement is in operation when following a behavior, a stimulus or situation is removed. The result is an increase in the likelihood of that behavior occurring again. Negative reinforcement is less commonly used as a control technique, but it occurs in the natural environment all of the time. For example, the teacher who allows students to forgo an assignment by completing other assignments, is using negative reinforcement. Another use of negative reinforcement is to allow students to earn free time at the end of class providing work is finished earlier.

Modeling

Another means to increase student performance is through the use of modeling. Modeling refers to the demonstration of an activity by a competent person. The modeling may be accomplished simply by visual observation. Research has shown that modeling has a powerful effect on the behavior of other individuals who observe the modeling as well as on the individual for whom the

behavior is being demonstrated. Vocational teachers commonly use modeling in their classrooms especially when teaching new operations through demonstration. Modeling is often used with positive reinforcement, especially social reinforcement or praise. A student who is closely approximating the desired behavior should be encouraged and perhaps minor adjustments made through the use of hands-on guided modeling to closer approximate the desired behavior.

Extinction

Positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement and modeling are used to increase behaviors. Often in vocational education labs, there are disruptive and/or dangerous behaviors that need to be decreased. One means to decrease behavior is extinction. Extinction refers to the withdrawal of reinforcement following a behavior, that is, when a behavior which was previously reinforced is no longer reinforced, the probability of its reoccurrence declines. Extinction does not take effect immediately. When using extinction by withdrawing reinforcement, it is important to realize that there may be an immediate short-lived increase in the behavior probably because the student is still seeking reinforcement for something which in the past was reinforced. For example, a teacher may think that by verbally criticizing a student in class he/she is punishing that student and will likely decrease the student's talking out. In reality, the teacher may be reinforcing the behavior in an attempt to decrease the talkouts. To extinguish this behavior, the teacher needs to stop referring to the student and just ignore the behavior. For

while, the student may become more disruptive to attempt to obtain reinforcement for behavior from the teacher.

Punishment

Extinction can be used and has been proven effective for decreasing many types of behaviors. Extinction, however, is not appropriate when one wishes to quickly eliminate dangerous classroom/laboratory behavior or behavior which so seriously disturbs the educational process that the rights of other students are being violated. To quickly eliminate a behavior, it may be necessary to use punishment. Punishment, in behavioral terms, refers to the application of an aversive stimulus following a behavior. The stimulus must reduce the probability of that behavior occurring again to be properly termed punishment. Thus, like reinforcement there is no universal punishment. Something which is considered a punishment by the teacher may not be perceived as a punishment by the student. The example used earlier of verbal reprimand before a class may be seen as punishment by the teacher, but in fact, may be positive reinforcement for the student. Punishment does not connote physical pain or some sort of very complex and serious consequence. There are a number of minor punishments which can be used in the classroom. Martin and Lauridsen (1974) give some examples of minor punishments which may be useful:

1. Warning cues, preferably non-verbal. There should be only one warning and the less seen by the rest of the class, the better. If complaints occur, then social reinforcement such as stated above should follow. Another word for these are soft reprimands.

2. If it is necessary to reprimand a student, it is much more desirable to have a private conversation. This conversation should be an aversive situation for the student and not a friendly banter. When reprimanding a student alone, the problem of positive reinforcement, that is, making an example of the student in front of his peers, does not enter the picture. When using a private conversation, the teacher should express disapproval, tell the student what behavior is expected, allow the student to respond, and make modifications based on information the student may give the teacher. However, the teacher should not get into an argument with the student--this action would be counter-productive. By setting up the student in an argument situation, the teacher is in effect, backing the student into a corner and the student would seek some way to save face.

3. Time-out is a third minor punishment suggested by Martin and Lauridsen (1974). Time-out refers to the removal of an individual from a reinforcing situation. This method is very commonly used by teachers. Sending a student out in the hall may be considered time-out. Sending a student to the administrative office may be considered time-out. Also, sending the student out of the vocational education lab can be considered time-out. The important point with time-out is that the student must be sent to a non-reinforcing area. Sending a student from a shop class to the dean's office that is the only air conditioned room in the school is probably not time-out. Remember if time-out is to be considered a form of punishment, then it must be likely to decrease the probability of a behavior occurring again. A student who is repeatedly sent to the office and who repeatedly continues to behave inappropriately in the vocational education lab/classroom is probably not being punished by those trips to the office.

Another form of punishment is the cost contingency. Cost contingency refers to the loss of privileges previously earned. Cost contingency is often used within the context of token economies where points may not only be earned, but also lost for

inappropriate behavior. Thus, the purchasing power, so to speak, of the individual is decreased by inappropriate behavior.

Punishment is a very controversial area. There is concern about any potential side effects of punishment and the possibility that the person being punished will respond in aggressive terms toward the individual administering the punishment. But if certain guidelines and procedures are kept in mind, and if it is made clear from the outset that the punishment is a direct consequence of the student's behavior these concerns are likely to be minimized. By setting rules earlier, the consequences for inappropriate behavior can be de-personalized. The student can be told and in fact the student may perceive that his own misbehavior has earned him/her the punishment and it is not a personal vendetta of the teacher toward the individual student.

Herron and Harris (1982) have listed some limitations of, and recommended procedures for, the use of punishment. These limitations include:

1. Punishment must be aversive. If there are other sources of reinforcement in the environment for the behavior, then the individual teacher's punishment may not be effective. If the motivation to perform the punished behavior is there as well as the opportunity, it is still likely that the inappropriate behavior will occur again.

2. If a teacher uses a punishment technique to remove an aversive stimulus, for example a noisy classroom, and if in fact the noise does subside the teacher may be negatively reinforcing him or herself. This is sort of the insidious or negative side of negative reinforcement. For example, if yelling at a class quiets students, the teacher is likely to use this method again in the future. While the immediate effect is one of stopping the inappropriate behavior, in the long run, it is

not an effective or useful technique for maintaining an appropriate classroom relationship between the teacher and among the students.

3. Punishment may produce side-effects such as aggression, escape, or avoidance. If the students perceive the classroom as a place where punishment is likely to occur, then the whole setting of the classroom may become so aversive that students are likely to avoid that setting. This effect translates into tardiness and truancy.

4. Punishment may produce spill-over effects. Students who observe another student being punished may also be adversely affected by the punishment addressed towards the target students. One of the major problems of punishment is that it does not tell the student what to do; it only tells the student what not to do. It is important when using punishment to clarify behavioral expectations as well as making clear that the behavior being punished is not acceptable. If this is not done, punishment will simply reduce all behaviors in a classroom including ones which may be desired.

Herron and Harris (1982) also give some procedures when using punishment. They suggest:

1. Vary the types of punishments that are used. If the same punishment is used repeatedly, students may become saturated or used to the punishment and may come to view it as a naturally occurring characteristic of the environment. As stated earlier, this is not likely to enhance the learning situation.

2. The punishment must be intense enough or aversive enough to suppress the behavior. But it is not useful to gradually increase the intensity of the punishment because a student may simply develop a tolerance for that punishment. In that case, the punishment loses it effect. It is difficult to determine at the outset how severe a punishment should be so that it does in fact eliminate the behavior but is not so aversive that escape or avoidance techniques will be used by the student.

3. Punishment delivered at the beginning of a sequence of disruptive or inappropriate behavior is more useful than punishment delivered at the end of the sequence. In colloquial terms, it is best to nip the behavior in the bud rather than to catch a student after the behavior has run its course and then apply a punishment.

SUMMARY

In summary, the following basic principles of behavior are presented. Vocational education teachers need to have a basic understanding of human behavior to effectively manage student learning and behavior in the vocational education laboratory.

1. Behavior is some specific human activity that can be seen.

2. The probability that a behavior will be repeated is strongly influenced by what happens immediately after it occurs.

3. Reinforcement should follow the behavior as quickly as possible if the behavior is desirable.

4. Reinforcement should be of value to the person receiving it. If it is not of value, it cannot be called a reinforcer.

5. Reinforcers can be intrinsic (learning to talk) or extrinsic (arranged by others).

6. In the real world, reinforcement doesn't always follow performance; rather, it is intermittent and delayed.

7. Behavior is also influenced by negative reinforcement, the removal of something unpleasant (negative reinforcement and punishment are not synonymous). Negative reinforcement is powerful and can be a factor in the formation of maladaptive patterns of behavior.

8. Punishment exists in the real world. Feedback from the environment which is aversive and therefore reduces the probability of a behavior occurring is punishment. Also, a

neutral response in the real world (extinction) also reduces the probability of a behavior reoccurring (Martin and Lauridsen, 1974).

The "laws" of behavior are in operation whether teachers are aware of them or not. Positive reinforcement, punishment, and negative reinforcement occur every day in the classroom. Behavior management is simply an attempt to knowingly apply these laws for the benefit of the youth we teach.

The following tips for working with students with behavior problems are also presented to give the vocational education teacher some assistance in managing behavior.

1. Separate the behavior from the behavsr. Make it clear that while you accept the student as a person, you cannot accept behavior which violates rules.

2. High expectations and clearly established limits are the most important prerequisites for positive social and academic behavior.

3. Praise and encouragement are not equivalent. Encouragement is always useful; praise can have a negative effect if it is not sincere and deserved.

4. Students in stressful situations tend to create the same feelings in the adults around them. Therefore, be aware of and accept your own feelings when dealing with crises.

5. It is usually best to ignore negative behavior and attend to positive behavior.

6. Verbal exchanges with students, especially those before an audience of their peers, serve only to reinforce the behavior you are seeking to change.

7. Behaviors learned in 14 years are not likely to be eliminated in one week.

8. Reinforcement (rewards) can be described as effective only if they increase the frequency or intensity of the behavior they are designed to enhance.

9. Punishment can be described as effective only if it decreases the frequency or intensity of the behavior it is designed to eliminate.

APPENDIX A
Behavioral Self Evaluation

This instrument is designed to assist the vocational education teacher in evaluating his/her methods for managing behavior.

1. Name three behaviors which interfere with your teaching, or in other words, cause you to stop and address the problem.

2. How do you usually deal with such behavior.

3. Is your method effective? That is, does the behavior stop?

4. How and how often do you provide positive feedback to students? Do you let students know when they are meeting or exceeding expectations?

5. How and how often do you give negative feedback? Do you ever use hostile or sarcastic remarks?

6. Do you set expectations (rules) at the beginning of the semester?

7. Do you negotiate with students who have broken your rules?

8. Do you use warnings or threats often? Do you explicitly follow through when you make them?

9. What causes you to "lose control"? What types of behavior under what conditions infuriate you to the extent that you react rather than act?

APPENDIX B
Steps For Implementing A Behavioral Strategy

1. Identify a significant behavior problem and describe it in observable and measurable terms. Significant means frequent enough and serious enough to warrant intervention.

2. Accurately measure the incidence of the behavior for several days. Do not change your usual way of handling the problem. This can be either a frequency (number of times per time period) or duration measure (% of time in a given time period). Chart, graph or otherwise record this data.

3. Analyze the conditions under which the behavior occurs. This includes the environmental factors before (antecedents) and after (consequences) the behavior. Remember, the teacher is the single most important component of a classroom environment.

4. Choose a goal--reduction of maladaptive behavior to a specific level or an increase of desirable behavior. It helps if the behavior you are seeking to increase is incompatible with behavior you are trying to reduce. (For example, in seat vs. out of seat).

5. Choose your strategy. It may include positive or negative reinforcement, extinction or punishment. Positive reinforcement can be social (verbal or non-verbal cues) or non-social (grades, points, free time, checks, etc.). As much as possible, involve the students, parents or others in this choice of strategy. Contingency contracting is one means of involving the student.

6. If you choose punishment, be sure it is truly aversive to the student, consistent and in the student's best interest. The key is that punishment should be a planful action, not a reaction to your loss of control.

7. When implementing the strategy, be sure other rewards and punishments naturally occurring in the environment are not ignored. Neutralize them as much as possible. (For example, another staff person who is unwittingly reinforcing behavior you are seeking to eliminate.)

8. Continue to measure and record the behavioral data so that accurate evaluation is possible.

9. Assess progress and amend your strategy as needed. Remember that change takes time. Don't set your goals too high at first--they can always be raised as progress is made.

10. If using positive reinforcement, you may want to fade out, or "thin the schedule" to build independence.

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