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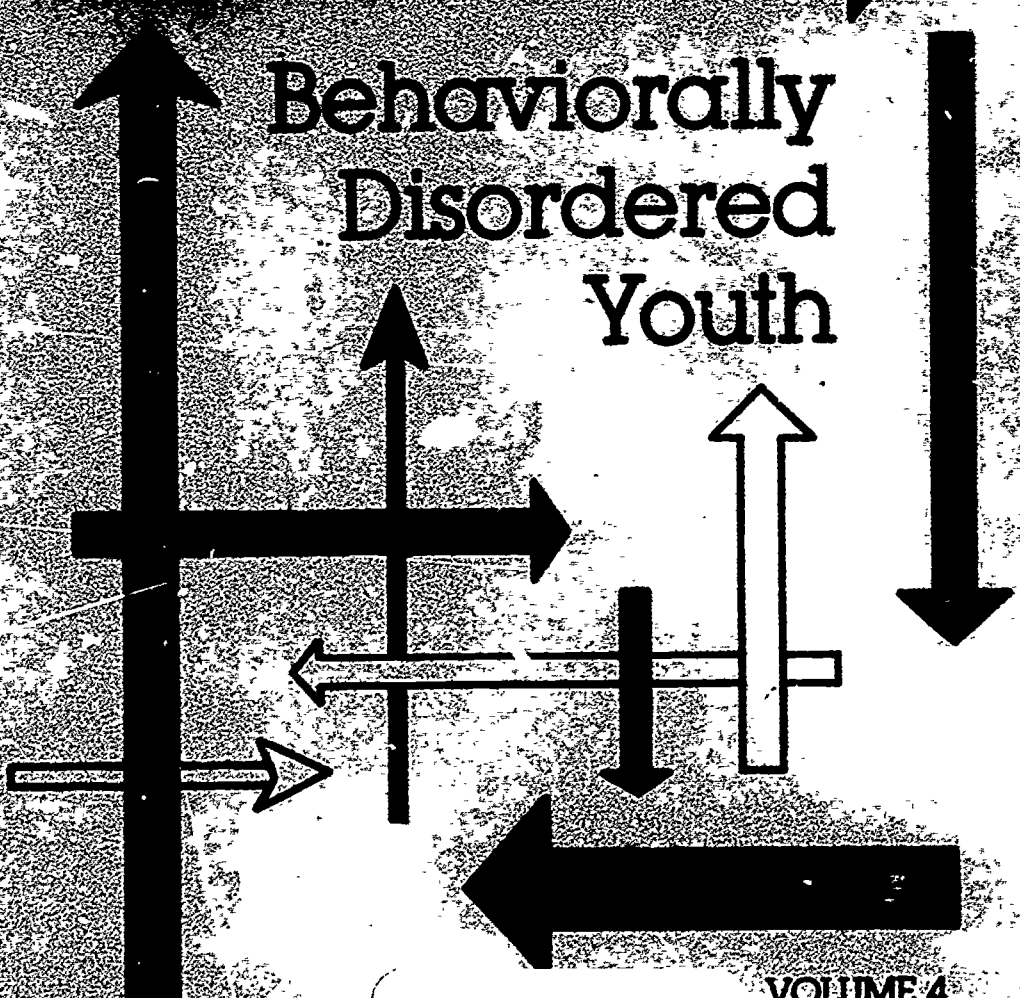
ABSTRACT

This volume contains an advice column and five papers on teaching behaviorally disordered youth. The "Grand Rounds" column offers advice on two teaching situations involving extremely disruptive classroom behavior and elective mutism. "The Franklin-Jefferson Program: Demonstration of an Integrated Social Learning Approach to Educational Services for Behaviorally Disordered Students" (Patrick Schloss et al.) discusses components of a social learning program, including planning and contingency management tools, an aggression management system, relaxation and social skills training, fading procedures, and parent involvement. "Factors Affecting Program Attendance by Parents of Exceptional Secondary Students" (Kent Hamilton and Mark Koorland) identifies differences between attending and nonattending parents on discussing problems, transportation difficulties, school paperwork requirements, and parent meeting content. "Time Estimation Abilities of Emotionally Disturbed Elementary Children" (Vernon Francis) describes results of a study which indicated that emotionally disturbed children had more difficulty estimating time lengths of various events than other students. "Mainstreaming the Student with Autism: Strategies to Promote Integration" (Jan Handleman et al.) outlines programs implemented at the Douglass Developmental Disabilities Center in New Brunswick, New Jersey. "A Whole Language Approach: Teaching Reading and Writing to Behaviorally Disordered Children" (Carole Cutler and Ellen Stone) looks at the use of whole language techniques in two elementary classrooms. (JDD)

TEACHING:

Behaviorally Disordered Youth



VOLUME 4

COUNCIL FOR CHILDREN WITH BEHAVIORAL DISORDERS

The Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders is a national professional organization for those interested in the education and well-being of behaviorally disordered individuals. The council functions to develop lines of communication and interaction among professionals, disciplines, and organizations; to promote adequate programs for recruitment, training, and consultation; to encourage research and development; to support legislation for services to these children. Toward this end, the council publishes a quarterly journal, *Behavioral Disorders*, and sponsors national conferences in relation to these interests. An organization of some 7,500 members, the council maintains central offices at 1920 Association Drive, Reston, Virginia 22091.

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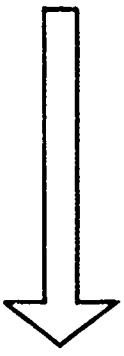

VOLUME 4

Mary Kay Zabel, Editor

Anne M Rhodes, Technical Editor

Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders

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From the Editor

Volume Four of *TEACHING: Behaviorally Disordered Youth* represents the achievement of one of our original goals stated when this publication began. In this issue, every article was written, all or in part, by practicing teachers of behaviorally disordered students. Our authors include higher education personnel special education teachers, regular education teachers, administrators, and others concerned with the education of behaviorally disordered students. It is this *team approach* that makes our field, and this publication, strong. The notion of a team approach is one that is given much lip service in special education -- indeed, it has become something of a cliche over the years. But most cliches contain a grain of truth, and this one is no exception. Behaviorally disordered students are difficult people to reach and to teach, and no one discipline of education, psychology, research, or counseling has all the answers to our many questions.

Our combined expertise is the only method that will really be successful in teaching the skills, competencies, and adaptive behaviors necessary to fully accommodate behaviorally disordered students in school and society. This issue of *TBDY* offers assistance to that end. Included are articles dealing with individual skills such as time estimation, extra-curricular issues such as parent involvement, full program issues involving administrative models, and specific teaching methods such as the whole language approach. The Grand Rounds column presents two situations of interest to those of us dealing with behaviorally disordered kids, and the review column in this issue reviews a teaching approach rather than a specific material.

I appreciate receiving your letters and comments — after all, the readers are a major part of any publication team — and I again would encourage any of our readers to submit articles for our next issue. We encourage writing in APA style, but will be glad to work with and adapt to the needs of the particular author or article. Submissions to Grand Rounds, suggestions for techniques or materials to review, new ideas are all welcome Please feel free to contact me if you have questions on applicability of content, style, or procedure If you wish to submit an article or Grand Rounds situation, send four copies to the address below I look forward to hearing from more of you this year.

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CONSULTING EDITORS

Grand Rounds

In this section, teachers, administrators, or others working with behaviorally disordered students may write in describing a situation they would like to discuss The situations are then sent to other professionals and their opinions solicited. In this issue, Situation 1 has only one response due to its length. Readers who have situations to submit should send four copies to the editor (see *From the Editor* for address).

THE SITUATION

Randy is an overweight, 12-year-old boy of average ability and achievement. He had been in a program for the emotionally/behaviorally disordered for 4 years prior to my experience as his teacher He is now in his 5th year of emotionally/behaviorally disordered programing in a self-contained classroom with three other 12- and 13-year-old students The school he is in now is a different school from the one he was in the previous 4 years, although within the same school system

Randy is an only child and lives in a two-parent household Both parents work days at service jobs and have been supportive regarding Randy's education. As an only child, Randy seems to have a great many material possessions (electronic toys, etc) and expresses a desire to have more possessions.

The classroom environment is rigidly structured utilizing a daily behavior point system, weekly goal charting, and a levels system to earn more rewards and privileges to gain access to the mainstream classes. As a reminder to the students, the basic rules of the classroom are posted in the room.

Since the first week of school, I have noticed an inappropriate behavior of Randy's that is disruptive to the classroom structure as well as contagious — that of snickering, sometimes accompanied by inappropriate gestures Snickering is defined as a short outburst of laughter, similar to a snort

Randy was observed on several occasions and charted for the number of times he snickered. My aide or I did the charting to establish a baseline for intervention purposes Randy was charted as snickering 50 to 60 times in a 50-minute class period. This was average, although he snickered up to 100 times an hour on some days. (It was difficult to keep up on charting!)

Randy snickered at everything including the teacher's instruction, others' coughing, blowing their nose, passing gas, and so forth. One day I introduced the new science unit on ecology and he laughed. I asked what was so funny about ecology and he replied that it was a funny word.

When the student is not engaged in snickering or gesturing (as wiping his bottom with his hand and smelling it), there is a permanent smirk on his face. The student sometimes maintains the smirk following negative consequences such as timeout or harsh reprimands from the principal When asked to state why he is in timeout or if he broke his goals at group meeting each day, Randy replies with a "smile in his voice " There does not seem to be a serious bone in his body

Not only is the snickering disruptive to the classroom, but it is contagious as well, which creates more off-task time. Randy does not complete his assigned work approximately 90% of the time.

The stringent classroom environment as well as rewarding the other students for ignoring negative behavior has reduced the inappropriate snickering to about 10 to 15 times per day on a good day, this has remained stable over the last 2 months. Verbal mediation essays have also been utilized for talk-outs or verbalizations without permission. Although the snickering has decreased, it is not at an acceptable level The smirks have increased to replace the snickering. When the teacher uses proximity control or facial cues, the smirks

sometimes stop, although the student makes all kinds of facial gestures (e.g., nose wiggling, eye squinting, moving mouth from side to side, rubbing nose, raising eyebrows).

Numerous reward systems have been used for positive behavior including buying things with behavior points from a set-up store, free time, and earned activities such as bowling, games, videos, and parties. The student rarely earns an activity. When the student does receive positive reinforcement for his behavior, he takes advantage of it in a big way. He draws attention to himself, talks about how great he is, and so forth. This is observed in the home as well as in school.

I would appreciate a response as to what to do with a student like this, who does not seem to have a serious bone in his body. Because of his inadequate behavior, he has not moved from level one, although he is very much capable of achieving in a regular class. He is presently receiving counseling weekly. His past 4 years seem to have been a ditto of what I am observing, therefore, any attempts to mainstream this student have been disastrous.

Sherrie Bettenhausen, Box 797, Watford City, ND 58854

THE RESPONSE

Indeed, Randy is a challenge and you as a special educator should be saluted for your perseverance in trying to find a viable technique which will turn this youngster on to learning. You describe a variety of techniques you've already implemented with this difficult-to-motivate youngster. Here are two basic concepts which might be useful to you immediately: The importance of *consistency* in program implementation, and the powerful role *motivation* plays in behavior control. These two variables can contribute significantly to the effectiveness of behavior control programs and must be approached systematically if learning is to be maximized.

Consistency

Systematically following through with a plan on a day-by-day basis is extremely important. Many of our behaviorally disordered youngsters previously have had inconsistent daily discipline. This produces a tenacity in the child which evolves into an innate resistance to treatment. Children with lengthy histories of erratic/variable schedules of reinforcement or punishment yield behavior patterns which do not respond immediately or succumb to treatment (Alberto & Troutman, 1986).

As a teacher, it is very easy to become discouraged and assume that an ongoing treatment is ineffective, especially if the initial data indicate the child maintains or even worsens the inappropriate behavior. In early program implementation, it is crucial for the teacher to maintain consistent program implementation, strictly adhering to the preestablished plan for a prespecified time period. This consistency is in contrast to a potpourri of treatments started across time, but never used consistently or long enough to reveal the effectiveness.

Unquestionably it is difficult to implement consistently a program exactly as specified hour after hour, day after day. It's also mundane, and can be downright boring. But unequivocally, consistency is critical when working with a resistive student such as Randy. Items which identify things you as an educator can do to increase consistency in a behavior management program are listed below.

1. Formally, on paper, describe in simple terms the treatments to be implemented to (a) increase on-task and completion of work behaviors, and (b) decrease snickering, gesturing, and smirks.

2. Involve your associate teacher (paraprofessional) in the program design as much as possible. Her/his involvement increases the likelihood that s/he consistently will follow through with the program (Pickett, 1986). It is crucial that both teachers consistently use the program.

3. Post the plan in a brightly colored folder, label it, and keep it readily available Easy access to the plan for quick referral is also crucial for consistency in program implementation

4. In the folder, place an empty calendar to use in evaluating your consistency in following through on your plan for Randy At the end of each day, on a scale of 1 to 3 with 3 being strict adherence and 0 being minimal adherence, record the numeral that you think best reflects your consistency in program implementation Reward yourself daily according to your degree of success. Encourage your associate teacher to do the same.

5. Set a big reward for yourself when you have earned a fixed number of points across time on the evaluation scale for being consistent Regardless of Randy's behavior, evaluate yourself on consistency in program delivery Consistency is a skill that teachers acquire across time and can be measured by degrees

6. On the treatment plan, specify the date you will look at the data and evaluate the effectiveness of a particular treatment Generally recommended is 10 days (Walker & Shea, 1980) Stick to the plan even if you have three other good ideas in mind.

7. After a particularly bad day, remind yourself that the inappropriate behavior did not emerge overnight and that it will take time to change it Remember, brief periods of erratic inappropriate behavior are likely given th youngster's lengthy conditioning history (Gardner, 1978) Stick to the plan

8 Post signs on the classroom walls and at your desk to remind yourself to consistently follow the program for Randy Each day say to yourself ten times, "Consistency in program implementation is crucial"

Motivation

Randy obviously lacks the intrinsic motivation to sustain his work on a task and complete it. Therefore, extrinsic reinforcement is required until "work" can acquire reinforcing properties in and of itself You mentioned that you tried "numerous reward systems for positive behavior including permission to buy things with behavior points" You state, "The student rarely earns an activity" I think this is a key statement which points to a variable contributing to the ineffectiveness of the motivational program The powerful role motivation plays in behavior control cannot be overstated It is crucial that teachers recognize that the effectiveness of a behavior management lies in the desirability of the reinforcers selected. As Stainback and Stainback (1972) point out.

> If an individual desires a reinforcer, s/he will strive hard to achieve it If, however, the reinforcer is not perceived as being highly desirable, it may not be worthwhile in her/his eyes to perform the appropriate action to attain the end result It is for this reason that the reinforcers selected for a child must be perceived by her/him as being worth the expenditure of her/his time and energy to achieve (p 134)

The fact that Randy rarely earns a reward suggests that the stimuli, objects, or events selected to motivate him are not really reinforcers Several recommendations and guidelines for designing a program to maximize motivation for a youngster such as Randy are listed below

1 Research conducted by Raschke, Stainback, and Stainback (1982) indicates that educators and parents are not good predictors as to what stimuli, objects, or events are potential reinforcers for a youngster If you want to know what a child will work for, it is best to ask the youngster her/himself Several published reinforcement inventories are available in the literature to obtain this information (Cautela, 1981, Shea & Bauer, 1987, Stellern, Vasa & Little, 1976, Walker & Shea, 1988) Or you, the teacher, can design an inventory to include items that are unique or specific to Randy's educational environment (Raschke, 1981, 1985). Administer the reinforcement survey to Randy and tabulate your results to identify potential reinforcers.

2 Once potential reinforcers have been identified, establish a contingency arrangement based on baseline data in which Randy is capable of succeeding and readily earning reinforcers.

3 As Randy becomes more and more successful, require more completed papers in shorter periods of time for a reward. That is, begin fading out rewards which will not be available in less restrictive environments.

4. Always pair verbal praise with lower level tangible rewards so that the praise statements acquire some of the reinforcing properties of the tangible rewards.

5 Require Randy to repeat back to you exactly what he must do to earn the reward Teach Randy to whisper verbal praise statements to himself when he is successful

6 Assess Randy's reinforcer preferences periodically and vary rewards to avoid satiation. Remember, incentive preferences are influenced by a variety of variables such as friends, seasons, and the weather.

7 The ultimate goal of any behavior management program is to teach the youngster to guide and direct her/his own behavior (Workman, 1982) As Randy becomes more and more successful, gradually begin to shift program design and control to him. Help Randy set his own goals, specify his own reinforcers, establish the contingency for the reward, and record progress himself.

8 Lastly, beware of the criticism trap (Becker, Engelmann, & Thomas, 1975). Make every effort to catch Randy "being good" and when you praise Randy, label the desirable behavior There's truth to the statement "you can catch more flies with honey than with vinegar."

Good luck in redesigning the management program for Randy Randy is lucky to have a genuinely committed teacher who refuses to be thwarted in her efforts to help this youngster learn.

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Donna Raschke, Associate Professor, Department of Special Education, University of Northern Iowa, Cedar Falls, Iowa 50614

THE SITUATION

I work as a teacher for the emotionally impaired for an intermediate school district. Recently, I was assigned to a kindergarten student identified as having the same symptoms as in Elective Mutism Children with this disorder speak only in restricted settings and only to a select group of people Daryl has not spoken in the school setting for one and a half years He was in a Head St program for one year prior to his present program and did not communicate verbally that entire year He is 6 5 years old at the time of this writing He is the third of four children and has no known medical problems Daryl's parents report that he does talk at home with his family and talks a limited amount when out shopping and visiting relatives

Daryl interacts at school with his classmates and teacher He is cooperative in following rules and directions from the teacher and will shake his head for "yes" or "no" in response to questions asked of him He does make inappropriate grunting and nasal sounds, car and truck noises, but other than making these noises, gets along and fits in well.

Daryl is very oral in that he taps at his mouth, tongue, teeth, and cheeks frequently and more often when he is asked a question which needs a verbal response

Daryl's parents are very concerned, but at this time do not want to seek further professional advice other than what the intermediate school district has done up to this point. I have looked for information regarding this disorder and have found very little. I work with Daryl for 20-30 minutes daily and would like to keep this time light and fun so that he can develop a trust in me and feel comfortable with me I would very much like to hear of different approaches and treatment plans that someone else has used successfully with a student like Daryl I'm open to any ideas Please respond!

Cheryl Kivisaari, Dickinson Iron Mountain Intermediate School District. 800 Crystal Lake Boulevard, Iron Mountain. MI 49801

FIRST RESPONSE

While many questions occur about appropriate assessment and evaluation, I think Cheryl Kivisaari is on the right track when she mentions her desire to provide a trusting environment for Daryl to experience A mistake often made with young children presenting a language delay or disorder is to force them into a "what's this" response pattern, where they are required to name objects and label actions Such a response is not language, and does not add to the child's ability to communicate with her/his environment Providing a comfortable, nonthreatening situation at school, one where teachers and peers encourage but do not require, will go much farther toward showing Daryl that language is a useful, rewarding, and nonthreatening way to interact More discussion with Daryl's parents would be valuable The teachers need to know in detail the type and quantity of language he produces at home, under what conditions he does and does not speak, and whether changes are noticed at different times of the day

Further information on Daryl's cognitive performance, his social interaction, the level and clarity of his speech at home, his hearing and articulation abilities would also be necessary for the teacher in providing appropriate services. Activities that involve a nonverbal response would be a good starting point for this child — things such as puppet plays acting out a story read by the teacher, sand and water play with other students, art activities where casual conversation is allowed and encouraged, songs sung in unison that also have finger and hand motions, and play with Legos or other blocks and building materials, all of which would allow Daryl to participate at a safe level initially.

Lorraine Perlman, Kindergarten Teacher (former special education language delay teacher), Carpenter School, Park Ridge, IL

SECOND RESPONSE

Although my fields of expertise and experience are behavioral disorders and early childhood handicapped, I cannot say I've had much experience with children of this type. However, since I am responsible for finding respondents, I guess I'll have to make an attempt myself. I agree with both Kivisaari and Perlman that an atmosphere of trust and acceptance is crucial to making progress with Daryl Any attempt to force or require spoken language is likely to backfire. A procedure of systematic desensitization might be appropriate where the teacher meets with Daryl outside the school and encourages conversation there This might even be accomplished by taking walks during schooltime, or at lunch. Constantly exposing Daryl to the joys and reinforcements of language would also be necessary. It sounds as though he is in a regular kindergarten class, and that seems to be a good idea. He will be exposed to 'normal' kindergarten language and observe the interaction between his peers. Using alternate forms of communications, such as music, art, drama, sign language (most kindergarteners are thrilled to begin learning a few signs), and games (a modified form of Pictionary, for example) would also be fun and nonthreatening.

From the situation, it sounds as though Cheryl Kivisaari is seeing Daryl on a resource basis. Since language (and therefore interaction) is the goal, it would be helpful to have Daryl choose another child to accompany him to some sessions, so child-child interaction could be observed, modeled, and encouraged The resource teacher would also want to work closely with the regular classroom teacher, so that techniques, methods, and attitudes could be consistent and continuous. Language is a public declaration of our personal selves. The way we choose to use or, in Daryl's case, not use language has much to say about our view of ourselves and our world An approach that supports Daryl in his attempts to use language and shows him the positive advantages in using such communication may allow his parents and teachers to help him resolve other conflicts in his world.

Mary Kay Zabel, Kansas State University, Manhattan, Kansas

The Franklin-Jefferson Program: Demonstration of an Integrated Social Learning Approach to Educational Services for Behaviorally Disordered Students

Patrick J. Schloss, Joe Holt, Melinda Mulvaney, and Jan Green

ABSTRACT

The Franklin-Jefferson program exemplifies an integrated social learning approach to classroom engineering and management for students with behavioral disorders. The present article describes essential components of this program including the school note which serves as both a planning, monitoring, and contingency management device; the aggression management system that includes response cost, relaxation, restitution, and behavior rehearsal elements; relaxation and social skills training that are used to provide alternatives to aggressive responses, a level system that gradually fades intrusive program elements, and parent involvement through program planning and implementation. In addition to the program description, outcome data are provided for 35 students that have been served in the program over the past 3 years.

A survey of literature reveals numerous social learning strategies that may be effective in altering school related behaviors of disruptive children and youth. These strategies include reduction procedures such as timeout (Gast & Nelson, 1977), response cost (Burchard & Barrera, 1972), and differential reinforcement of other behaviors (Repp, Barton, & Brulle, 1983); accelerative procedures such as social reinforcement and token reinforcement (Gable & Strain, 1981), instructional procedures such as social skills training (Warrenfeltz et al., 1981); relaxation training (Walton, 1979) and self-control training (Albion, 1983), and antecedent control procedures such as classroom scheduling (Schloss, 1984).

Despite the overwhelming support for the use of these isolated procedures with specific behavior problems, few reports exist that integrate the procedures into a comprehensive program for behaviorally disordered students. Administrators, supervisors, and teachers are left to engage in a process of trial and error in developing effective programs as few models of comprehensive programs exist. Further, teachers and administrators must engage in the difficult process of translating general behavioral principles into discrete classroom procedures.

Recognizing the need to develop a comprehensive program for behaviorally disordered students, the Franklin-Jefferson Special Education District has developed and evaluated such an integrated program. The purpose of this article is to describe the major elements of the Franklin-Jefferson program so that it may be replicated by other educational agencies. Highlighted in the article are the following: the school note procedure that combines the use of a token economy, differential reinforcement of incompatible behaviors, self-control, contingency contracting, antecedent control, and parent involvement; the aggression management system that combines the use of restitution, positive practice, self-control, relaxation training, social skills training, and timeout; curriculum strategies that include social skills and relaxation training procedures; and fading procedures that insure that at any given time, students are exposed to the minimum amount of structure necessary to maintain success. Of equal emphasis are monitoring procedures used to make instructional decisions.

At the present time, the program described is used throughout the Franklin-Jefferson

Special Education District in Benton, Illinois. Included are two self-contained high school classrooms, two elementary self-contained classrooms, and one segregated school placement for intermediate and high-school level students In addition, the state mental health facility's educational program, provided by the Tri-County Special Education District in Illinois, uses program elements described in this article Students from each of these programs are typically integrated from one of the more restrictive programs (e.g., the state mental health facility's educational program) to one of the less restrictive programs (e.g., the segregated school placement) Also, all students in the programs are integrated into regular education classrooms where performance criteria indicated later in this article are achieved.

School Notes

The school note is the focal point of the Franklin-Jefferson program for the behaviorally disordered. It is the tool with which all elements of the educational system are bound together. The school note is used both as a planning instrument that insures that all IEP goals are given appropriate attention, and an implementation instrument that is carried by the student throughout the school day. As depicted in Figure 1, the school note includes the following elements.

Scheduled periods. Along the left-hand column of the school note, the teacher records time periods in which educational activities occur. The schedule periods are sufficiently short to reflect the attention capabilities of individual students Highly distractable and younger students are likely to have brief schedule periods (e.g , 15 to 30 minutes). Older and more focused learners may have schedule periods that reflect those of the classrooms or schools that they will enter upon leaving the Franklin-Jefferson program (e g , 40 to 55 minutes).

Scheduled breaks for reinforcement. Three break periods of 15 minutes each are scheduled daily. As will be discussed later, students earn breaks by completing a predetermined amount of assigned work, remaining in their assigned areas and not exhibiting disruptive social behaviors. Failure to earn break results in the student remaining in his or her seat and silently completing enrichment seatwork with minimal teacher assistance Enrichment

SCHOOL NOTE

NAME _____ DATE _____

PERIOD		GOAL AREA	ASSIGNMENT	DOCKAGE				AWARD	
				NONCOMPLIANCE	VERBAL AGGRESSION	OBJECT AGGRESSION	PHYSICAL AGGRESSION	ASSIGNED AREA	WORK COMPLETION
1	8:30			5	10	10	60	5	5
2	9.00			5	10	10	60	5	5
3	9:30			5	10	10	60	5	5
4	10.00			5	10	10	60	5	5
B	10.15		BREAK						
5	10·30			5	10	10	60	5	5
6	11:00			5	10	10	60	5	5
7	11:30			5	10	10	60	5	5
8	12:00			5	10	10	60	5	5
B	12:15		BREAK						
9	12:30			5	10	10	60	5	5
10	1:00			5	10	10	60	5	5
11	1:30			5	10	10	60	5	5
12	2:00			5	10	10	60	5	5
B	2:15		BREAK						
			tt				%		

Figure 1. *School note used in the Franklin-Jefferson program*

seatwork typically involves dittoed worksheets that include additional practice in concepts developed during instruction.

Goal areas corresponding with IEP goals. Goal areas (e.g., math, English, reading) are entered in the second column of the school note. This is accomplished initially by the teacher establishing non-negotiable activities and/or times. For example, physical education must occur from 10:10 to 11:00 because of the limited availability of the gym. Similarly, a student must have 30 minutes of math though the student may choose the time of day.

The student may write in the remaining goal areas as desired following consultation with the teacher. The teacher's input at this point involves assisting the student in developing the most enjoyable and productive schedule. For example, the teacher may point out to the student that goal areas involving sedentary activities that require concentration and attention to task (e.g., math, reading, and spelling) are best scheduled early in the day. More active goal areas (physical education, writing) are best scheduled later in the day. He or she may also encourage the student to alternate pleasant and unpleasant activities.

Assignments. In the next column, the teacher records specific products that are expected to result from the student's participation in scheduled activities (e.g., pages 12 to 14 in math facts workbook). As will be discussed later, these assignments should be accompanied by materials contained in a file folder with the same label as the goal area. This will insure that at the start of the math period, students are aware of specific assignments to be completed. Further, they can independently obtain the necessary materials from a math folder and begin work without assistance. Additional pleasant activities may be identified for students to engage in when scheduled assignments are completed before the end of the period.

Dockage areas. Behaviors that may result in a student failing to earn break periods are identified to the left of the upper righthand corner of the school note. Dockage areas correspond with IEP goals that indicate a reduction in disruptive social behaviors. For a majority of students in the Franklin-Jefferson program, dockage areas include noncompliance, verbal aggression, object aggression, and physical aggression. Alternative dockage areas (e.g., masturbation, self-abusive behavior, talking out) may be used when indicated by the IEP. In no case should more than four behaviors be identified for reduction on the IEP or dockage area.

Award areas. Behaviors that will result in a student earning break periods are identified in the upper righthand corner of the school note. Award areas correspond with IEP goals that indicate an acceleration in positive social behaviors. For a majority of students in the Franklin-Jefferson program, the award areas include assigned area and work completion. Alternative award areas such as specific social skills are used when indicated by the students' IEP. From two to five accelerative goals are typically identified in students' IEPs and school notes.

Point values. Dockage and award areas as well as point total required to enter break are posted on the wall in the classroom. An economy is developed that balances awards with dockages. Point totals required to enter break reflect the quality of behavior expected of students. For example, work completion and remaining in assigned areas result in 5 points for each period. If verbal aggression or object aggression occurs in the period, the student loses 10 points each. Noncompliance results in the loss of 5 points each period. Physical aggression results in the loss of 60 points.

A student may enter break if he has any positive points. Extra points may be used to purchase additional privileges during break (e.g., 5 points for each play of an electronic game, 10 points for 5 minutes of ping-pong, 5 to 20 points for nutritional snacks). Under this economy, a student may receive all work and assigned area points for the four periods preceding the first break (i.e., 40 total points). If he is physically aggressive any time during the five periods, he will lose break (40 points for assigned area and work completion minus 60 points for physical aggression). Points gained in one period in which both assignments are completed and the student remains in the assigned area (i.e., 10 plus points) are offset by an incident of verbal aggression or object aggression (i.e., 10 minus points).

Positive points cannot be carried over from one break period to the next. This is to avoid students saving up sufficient points to earn a break even though he or she recently engaged in extremely disruptive behavior. Similarly, negative points cannot be carried over. This is to

avoid students losing so many points prior to one break period that it eliminates any possibility for the student to earn a subsequent break later in the day.

All dockage points in a category (e.g., 10 points for verbal aggression) are taken for any occurrence of the behavior during the period. No more points may be taken for the specific behavior until the next period. This provision reduces the likelihood that a single chain of disruptive behavior (excluding physical aggression) in one period will result in the loss of incentive to regain control for the next period.

Finally, the only provision for students to regain lost points is to earn prestated work and assigned area points. In some cases, a dockage may be so severe (e.g., physical aggression, or verbal aggression coupled with noncompliance and object aggression) that the remaining work and assigned area points are not sufficient to produce break. In this case, the student must wait until the periods preceding the next break to begin work toward break. This provision avoids situations in which a chain of disruptive and positive behavior is reinforced. For example, in the chain aggression — point dockage — apology and restitution — reinstatement of points — the reinstatement of points may not only reinforce apology and restitution but also the initial aggressive behavior.

Rules for implementing the school note are taught to professional staff (e.g., speech therapist, school psychologist, administrators) and paraprofessional staff (e.g., instructional aides, lunchroom supervisors, custodian, social worker). All staff members entering the classroom are expected to enforce the contingencies prescribed in the school note.

In addition, all students admitted to the program receive a student handbook describing the school note and other classroom procedures. A substantial amount of time is spent in teaching students these procedures. Specific implementation rules are emphasized. First, students are told that they may engage in scheduled assignments, pleasant activities resulting from the early completion of scheduled assignments, or nothing. If math is assigned and not completed, the student is not permitted to engage in any other activity.

Second, consistent with this provision, scheduled periods are not altered once negotiated and agreed upon by the student and teacher. Students are taught that math occurs at a predetermined time and that it takes an act of the building administrator to change the schedule. It is hoped that this provision will result in students habituating on their schedule. It also reduces the likelihood that students will manipulate the schedule using disruptive behavior (e.g., engage in disruptive behavior to avoid unpleasant activities).

Third, folders corresponding with school note assignments are prepared in advance. Students are taught to habitually enter each new period by identifying the assignment, going to their folder, pulling out necessary materials, and beginning work. This provision reduces transition time from one activity to another. It also reduces disruptions typically associated with unstructured time between planned activities.

Fourth, students are taught that warnings are not given prior to awarding or docking points. The only exception is for noncompliance which is defined as the failure of a student to comply with general instructions following one request. Points are docked immediately following the occurrence of the dockage behavior. To insure that students can accurately anticipate the consequences of any behavior, staff agree at least 80% of the time on what constitutes dockage and award behaviors. This requires substantial discussion between all staff regarding specific behaviors and their definitions as related to the dockage and award categories.

As an informal test of the staff's consistency in enforcing dockage and award rules, two members of the instructional staff periodically score students' school notes independently through an entire day. At the end of the day, the number of agreements for awards and dockages is divided by the number of agreements plus disagreements. The resulting coefficient is expected to be above 80% for each award and dockage area. If it is not, the staff members discuss responses that created confusion and redefine the dockage or award area (if necessary) to resolve future confusion.

Break Activities

The most pleasant noninstructional activities occurring through the day are made available only by earning break. Typical grade school and high school students are allowed to

participate in pleasant school events *automatically.* Typical students also engage in positive behaviors automatically. Behaviorally disordered students may need extraordinary incentives to engage in positive behaviors. Consequently, these breaks are used to develop an unvarying relationship between positive behavior and positive consequences. At such time that a student no longer needs this structure, breaks may be made automatic as in typical classes.

Students earning breaks may have free time, participate in the anticipated break activity, or buy special privileges with extra points. Students not earning breaks continue to do seatwork at their desks. Unfinished work from the preceding periods and enrichment worksheets are completed by students not earning break.

Aggression Management Strategy

The Prosocial Response Formation Technique described by Schloss (1984) is used as a back-up procedure for insuring that students do not use disruptive behaviors to gain satisfying consequences or avoid unpleasant consequences. Further, the technique insures that students make restitution for physical or emotional damage that results from their disruptive behavior. Also, it requires the student to identify and practice alternative prosocial responses that may replace the disruptive behavior.

Following any aggressive action, the following procedures are carried out by the attending staff member.

1. *Response cost.* Points are docked from the student's school note as described above

2. *Relax.* Aggressive reactions typically are associated with heightened negative emotionality. Negative emotional behavior is further heightened by the response cost. Reducing negative emotional behavior will increase the likelihood that the child or youth will benefit from subsequent socially enhancing activities. Therefore, the second step is to remove the youth from all sources of reinforcement until he or she is relaxed. The student is required to enter a timeout area until he or she is relaxed for 3 minutes. Relaxed is defined as talking in a normal conversational tone, keeping body parts still, breathing deeply through the nose, maintaining normal facial tone and expression. Until the criteria for relaxation are achieved, all social interaction and other potentially reinforcing events are withdrawn from the student. Once the criteria are achieved, the student may progress to the next step.

3. *Rectify.* The student is instructed to correct any physical or emotional damage caused by the aggressive behavior. Any reoccurrence of negative emotional behaviors at this time or later in the process automatically results in a return to the relax condition.

4. *Recognize.* The youth is assisted in identifying the discrete and observable events that led to the aggression. The child or youth is also asked to identify alternative positive behaviors that may have been used in the situation. For example, a youth may indicate that he was verbally aggressive as the result of another student calling him names. He may also indicate that it would have been better to ignore the student or to ask the teacher for assistance in resolving the problem.

5 *Rehearse.* Once the provoking events and alternative prosocial behaviors are identified, the youth is required to go through the provoking situation using the alternative prosocial behavior

6 *Reinforce.* The student is then praised for engaging in the alternative positive behavior

7. *Reflect.* The child or youth is asked to compare the consequences of the two ways of acting. He or she will invariably indicate the number of points lost through the first behavior. The learner will also indicate the associated loss of privileges and the required restitution activities. For the alternative prosocial behavior, the student will indicate that there were no comparable negative consequences. In some cases, favorable consequences such as praise from the teacher may be available.

8. *Reenter.* The child or youth reenters the schedule printed on the school note at the most unpleasant activity missed during the aggressive episode. The schedule may subse-

quently be readjusted to make up for the time spent engaging in the preceding process. Readjustments typically take the form of eliminating the most pleasant activities missed. This is to reduce the likelihood that the student will engage in disruptive behaviors to avoid unpleasant scheduled activities.

9. *Record.* A narrative of each aggressive reaction is kept for each student. The narrative includes a detailed description of antecedents and consequences of each response

10. *Repeat.* This procedure is used each and every time an aggressive reaction occurs. It is carried out by any staff member working directly with the youth when he or she becomes disruptive. The students should not learn that only one person in the classroom or school is responsible for encouraging positive social behavior. They should know that all adults are equally demanding of positive behavior.

Relaxation Training

A large number of students served in programs for the behaviorally disordered exhibit deficiencies in establishing or maintaining emotional control. Aggression and other nonadaptive reactions often result from this lack of emotional control. Therefore, the program includes procedures designed to enhance emotional control. Progressive muscle relaxation exercises described by Berstein and Borkovek (1973) are scheduled 3 days each week on each student's school note. Skills acquired during relaxation training are prompted daily in the classroom as a preventative measure. In addition, relaxation responses are prompted following aggressive reactions to assist the child or youth in regaining emotional control. Specific relaxation skills include breathing deeply through the nose, talking in a normal conversational tone, keeping hands and body parts motionless, and maintaining a normal facial expression.

Social Skill Instruction

Many behaviorally disordered students do not possess interpersonal skills expected by mainstream educators (Schloss, Schloss, Wood, & Kiehl, 1987). Specific deficits often include appropriate responses to criticism, asking others to behave differently, complimenting others, greeting others, and negotiating rather than fighting. A new social skill becomes the focus of instruction in the Franklin-Jefferson program every 2 weeks of the school year. The first 2 weeks, for example, focus on appropriate ways to ask teachers for assistance. The next 2 weeks focus on reactions to criticism.

Direct instruction in social skills is scheduled on each student's school note every other day. Beyond this classroom, personnel continually strive to identify and praise students using the social skill during the day. As with relaxation skills, social skills are promoted as part of the preceding aggression management process. Specific social skills are often indicated as the alternative prosocial behavior that is expected to replace aggressive reactions.

Fading Procedures

Extraordinary scheduling, instruction, and motivational procedures included in the school note and the prosocial response formation technique are faded once the student demonstrates that he or she is able to benefit from more traditional classroom conditions. The fading procedures are expected to increase the likelihood that students will make an effective transition from the Franklin-Jefferson program to mainstream classes The program, therefore, includes levels of structure beginning with the most restrictive and ending with the least restrictive. Students enter the Franklin-Jefferson program at a more restrictive level of structure. Once students meet predetermined behavioral criteria, they progress to a less restrictive level. Specific levels include:

Level 1 — Standard Program. Level 1 involves the use of all program procedures described in this article. These include the full school note, the prosocial response formation

technique, social skills training, relaxation training, and so on. Students enter the program at Level 1 and move to Level 2 depending on their behavior.

Level 2 — Unrestricted Program. Level 2 involves the same program procedures as Level 1 except that the dockage and award areas are removed from the school note Also, breaks and privileges are given automatically Students enter Level 2 by achieving 80% of their points in Level 1 for 3 consecutive weeks

Level 3 — Mainstream Class. Level 3 is integration into one or more mainstream classrooms in the local junior or senior high schools Students are eligible for entry to Level 3 when they have had no occurrences of unassigned area, noncompliance, verbal aggression, object aggression, or physical aggression and have completed over 80% of their assignments for two consecutive weeks.

Long-Term Incentives

As we discussed previously, students begin each period following break with 0 points Prior to each break, students can have up to 50 points, depending on their behavior. Point dockages and awards are never carried over Beyond these short-term incentives, we would like students to eventually work toward long-term goals (e.g., grades every 9 weeks) Therefore, percentages of points earned each week are computed Students earning over 80% of available points gain a special weekly privilege (e g , Friday party, a special VCR movie, a field trip)

Restriction Room

Students enter the restriction room (an isolated room with an absence of amenities) immediately following an incident of physical aggression toward staff All classroom procedures are in effect except that regardless of points earned for a period, the student is not eligible for break Also, social interactions are limited to direct instruction by the teacher. The student must earn all assigned area points and 80% of work points and not lose any noncompliance or aggression points for one day to return to the classroom.

Monitoring System

The daily percentage of points earned for assigned area and work and points lost for each of the dockage areas are recorded on separate graphs for each student in the class As was discussed previously, these data are used to determine if a student is ready to be advanced to a less restrictive level of the program.

This record also assists the teacher in identifying students who are not responding to the general program. When a student's data indicate that one or more of the target behaviors is not being changed in a positive direction, the staff's first approach is to develop an individualized management program Depending on the staff's impression of why the student is not progressing, the individualized program may include more frequent break periods and more frequent but shorter work periods, the use of primary reinforcement rather than secondary reinforcement (i e., points), modifications in scheduled activities, use of more severe consequences, and so on

Family Involvement

Parents or guardians of students in the Franklin-Jefferson program are considered to be critical agents in both developing and carrying out the educational program Their first direct role is in assisting with the identification of goals and objectives As was discussed previously, these goals and objectives are reflected in the school note content through selection of the goal areas, dockage areas, and award areas

The parents' second role is in supporting the use of the school note It is recognized that parents are often able to exert a stronger influence over their children than school personnel. Also, many social and academic objectives developed through the school day can be dramatically enhanced through parent involvement in the evening (Imber, Imber, & Roth-

stein, 1979). A major impediment to parent participation is the absence of active and ongoing communication (Edgar, Singer, Ritchie, & Heggelund, 1981).

The school serves this communication function in the Franklin-Jefferson program. While contributing to the selection of goals and objectives, parents are also told how the school note operates. This allows parents to receive the school note each evening and evaluate the student's day, period by period. Parents are encouraged to be alert for periods in which there were no dockages and all points earned on assigned areas and work completion. They are asked to point these periods out to their child and provide strong social praise. In special cases, the school personnel may work with a student s parents in developing home-based contingencies for meeting specific criteria on the school note

PROGRAM OUTCOMES

Since its creation in the fall of 1983, 35 students have been enrolled in the program. The largest number of students served in the program at one time was 14 and the smallest was 3. The average enrollment over the 3-year period was approximately 9 The average age of the students was 10 4 with a standard deviation of 5.27. Of the 35 students, 6 were female. The average IQ, as measured by the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children — Revised, was 88.83 with a standard deviation of 13.17

Previous placements prior to being enrolled in the program included inpatient mental health programs (n = 7), self-contained classes for learning and behaviorally disordered students (n = 13), resource room programs for learning and behaviorally disordered students (n = 10), and regular education programs (n = 5). The average duration of enrollment was 5.78 months with a standard deviation of 2.96 months. At the time of this writing, 10 students were enrolled in the program.

Upon meeting the behavioral criteria for exiting the Franklin-Jefferson program, 9 students were placed in self-contained classes for learning and behaviorally disordered students, 3 students were placed in resource room programs for learning and behaviorally disordered students, and 6 students were placed in regular education programs. Two students failed to meet the behavioral criteria despite numerous attempts to develop specialized programs. These learners were placed in more restrictive settings. One student entered a sheltered workshop, 1 became pregnant and was provided homebound instruction, and 3 were remanded to a correctional facility as the result of offenses not related to the educational program. These results emphasize that the program was effective in moving students from more to less restrictive placements.

Over the average term of enrollment of approximately 1.5 years, the average student gained 2.34 years in math achievement (SD = 2.07), 1.09 years in reading recognition (SD = 1.06), 2.0 years in reading comprehension (SD = 1 74), and 1.92 years in spelling (SD = 1.23) These data are not complete for all students enrolled in the program, and motivational aspects may have suppressed entry scores. However, they emphasize that the program was effective in enhancing academic as well as social functioning of the students.

CONCLUSIONS

The present article has described an integrated social learning approach to providing educational services for behaviorally disordered children and youth. Major elements discussed included the school note, aggression management system, relaxation and social skills training curriculum elements, fading procedures, and parent involvement. Outcome data emphasized the effectiveness of these strategies. Specifically, a large number of the referrals to the program were previously placed in inpatient mental health programs. Following an average duration of placement in the Franklin-Jefferson program of approximately 6 months, only two students returned to more restrictive settings. The remaining students were enrolled in self-contained classes, resource programs, or regular education classes. Finally, achievement data emphasize that students enrolled in the Franklin-Jefferson program, on average, made above average progress in the major curriculum areas. Reading, spelling, and math achievement levels, upon leaving the program, were substantially higher than the entry achievement scores.

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Factors Affecting Program Attendance by Parents of Exceptional Secondary Students

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ABSTRACT

Parents of mildly handicapped exceptional secondary students were surveyed concerning factors affecting their attendance at parent program meetings. The survey was given to both parents who attended meetings and to those who did not Significant differences between attending and nonattending parents were obtained on items related to discussing problems, transportation difficulties, school paperwork requirements, and parent meeting content. These findings are discussed, and general suggestions for increasing parent attendance are offered

Traditionally, regular educators have been advocates for parental involvement at the elementary level, but involvement at the secondary level has received less emphasis (Thornburg, 1981) Involvement by parents of exceptional secondary students in their child's education has also been underemphasized in many schools across the country (Alexander, Kroth, Simpson, & Poppelreiter, 1982; Gorham, 1975). Nevertheless, because Public Law 94-142 mandates involvement of educators and parents, special educators are acutely aware of the needs for parent-school partnerships. Attendance at parent programs is perhaps one form of involvement that has obvious value for special educators

Parent programs may be classified in various ways. Some programs, for example, focus on problem solving, disseminating information, counseling individuals, or behavior management (Kroth, 1975) Unfortunately, parent attendance at the various types of meetings and programs, especially at the secondary level, is often difficult to obtain (Alexander et al., 1982) Numerous reasons for limited parent attendance have been cited, and problems emerge in certain areas

First, parent programs may not meet the needs of parents Parents need to benefit from school programs rather than school programs benefiting from parents (Turnbull & Turnbull, 1978). Karnes and Zehrbach (1972) suggest programs need to provide practical information to parents, and that parents will attend if they receive such information. A frequently mentioned factor is that parents do not feel a part of the educational "team" (Alexander et al., 1982; Karnes & Zehrbach, 1972, Kroth & Schroall, 1978, Stile, Cole, & Garner, 1979) Another difficulty is the lack of adequate programs for parents of secondary exceptional students (Alexander et al., 1982)

A second problem area is parents' attitudes toward the school A poor attitude may affect parent attendance (Karnes & Zehrbach, 1972, Kroth & Schroall, 1978) Parents may feel alienated from the school, fear getting bad news, and suffer from poor school experiences themselves (Karnes & Zehrbach, 1972, Stewart, 1978).

A third area, meeting times, may be a factor affecting attendance in parent programs Often meetings are schedules on inconvenient nights for many parents (Karnes & Zehrbach, 1972) Alexander et al (1982) point out that the burden of taking time off from work for meetings hinders parent attendance.

Although authorities have much to say about why parents do not attend parent programs, there is little research to suggest that factors cited are actually ones that hinder attendance Recognizing the value of exceptional parent program attendance, especially at the secondary level, a survey covering variables affecting attendance of parents of exceptional secondary students was conducted. Item content was based on the three previously noted problem areas

METHOD

Parent needs, attitudes toward the school, and meeting schedule problems were evaluated with a 12-item survey using a 5-point Likert type scale. Parents of 12- to 14-year-old mildly handicapped learning/behaviorally disordered students enrolled in varying exceptionality resource rooms participated. Identified for the study were 42 parents drawn from a middle school in a medium-size Florida school district. The school had an ongoing parent program that provided information. Topics included what exceptional student education means, how to deal with a student's learning and behavior problems, sharing experiences, and parent/teacher discussion of child progress. The program was informational and produced good attendance with over half of the eligible parents attending.

The survey was field tested with parents in a different locale. They were asked to judge survey item statements for clarity and to suggest revisions. Finally, the survey was constructed so that items from each of the three targeted problem areas would appear randomly throughout the entire instrument.

All potential parent program attenders were sent the survey via their children. The targeted sample included approximately 40% black parents. Also, the sample included approximately 50% single parents, while the remainder were parents in intact families. To insure a reasonable proportion of return, the students were reinforced specifically for bringing back completed surveys. Students were instructed to be certain that only their parents complete the survey and surveys that appeared to be the work of someone other than a parent were investigated. Two surveys were discarded for lack of authenticity and replacements were obtained.

RESULTS

Surveys were sent to 42 parents: 26 were attenders and 16 were nonattenders. Attenders were defined as parents attending meetings at any time that year, and nonattenders were parents that never attended. Attenders returned 24 surveys (92% return rate) and nonattenders returned 10 surveys (63% return rate). Additionally, it was noted that attenders were prone to write comments on the survey.

The age, educational background, and racial composition of the respondents did not vary between the two groups. The family size for each parent did not significantly differ between the attending and nonattending groups.

Table 1 shows the percentage of responses by item for attenders and nonattenders. Item responses — agree and strongly agree, and disagree and strongly disagree — were collapsed into an agree category and disagree category, respectively. Middle responses (i.e., neither agree nor disagree) were discarded. Data analysis of response frequencies, using the Fisher Exact Probability Test (Roscoe, 1969), was performed by item between attenders and nonattenders. Significant differences ($p < .05$) were found on four items (items 5, 7, 8, and 11). In addition, there were notable differences between groups in response to item 3, but not at a statistically significant level.

DISCUSSION

It appears that the parents in this study had definite views about their own needs, especially those not attending the parent meetings. It is ironic that a significant percentage of nonattenders were willing to rate meetings not worthwhile in content, even though they had never attended a meeting that year. It is possible that nonattenders had unsatisfactory experiences with previous programs or meetings.

To improve attendance, perhaps the exact content of each scheduled parent program needs to be disseminated aggressively. The notion that some parents do not attend meetings because schools seem preoccupied with their child's problems might have some merit. On item 6, concerning negative reports about the child, 10% of nonattenders noted difficulty discussing their children's problems. Item 11, parent program content, may also relate to the content of item 6, since parents may perceive that program content ultimately focuses on negative aspects of their child's school experiences. In any event, discussion of student weaknesses needs to be handled sensitively.

TABLE 1

Ratings on Parent Program Attendance Survey Items

	Item	Attenders		Nonattenders	
		Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree
1.	Night of week meeting held hinders my attendance	71%	29%	67%	33%
2.	I liked school when I was a child	83%	17%	100%	0%
3.	Babysitting services would increase my attendance	11%	89%	43%	57%
4.	At school conferences, I feel I am part of the team	100%	0%	100%	0%
5.	It is hard for me to talk about my child's problems*	9%	91%	33%	67%
6.	I don't come to parent meetings because I get bad news about my child	0%	100%	10%	90%
7.	Transportation problems keep me from attending parent meetings*	22%	78%	62%	38%
8.	I feel the school is too concerned about paperwork*	18%	82%	40%	60%
9.	I sense the school doesn't want me involved	0%	100%	12%	88%
10.	I am too busy to come to parent meetings	0%	100%	13%	87%
11	The content of parent meetings is worthwhile*	95%	5%	78%	22%
12	I enjoy visiting my child's school	96%	4%	100%	0%

*$p < .05$

Responses to item 7, transportation problems, suggest that alternative transportation systems are needed to help certain parents attend. Results also suggest that scheduling affects parent meeting attendance All respondents agreed that the meeting night was important to their attendance. Babysitting was a concern for nonattenders. Provision by schools for supervision of children during meetings could help. Perhaps nonattenders' responses to item 10, indicating that they are too busy, underscores the need for scheduling that is responsive to parents' already limited time. Schools might explore weekend meetings or perhaps meetings at a more centrally located facility than the school.

Concerns about school paperwork (item 8) produced significance in the nonattender group. School requests for returned forms may affect parents' general attitude toward the school If schools are perceived as a source of additional work for a parent, then involvement may suffer Use of simplified, shortened forms, or forms that handle multiple functions, might be helpful.

A number of responses seemed incongruent with the literature. Nonattenders felt a part of the school team, at least during a conference Of nonattenders, 100% indicated that they enjoyed school themselves. It should be borne in mind, however, that self-reported data may be inconsistent within and between respondents. For example, participants may respond to school personnel in a manner that is likely to promote a positive image. Also, the possibility of a selection bias factor for the nonattenders who returned surveys exists.

In summary, it appears that many attendance problem areas discussed in the literature have merit in terms of this study's respondents. While the limited sample size restricts the representativeness of the findings, the responses align with most authorities' views, and offer insights about parents of secondary exceptional students. Special educators interested in developing well attended parent programs may want to minimize problem areas

noted in this study. It would be unfortunate to lose a parent's participation in program meetings by inattention to a number of correctable difficulties.

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Time Estimation Abilities of Emotionally Disturbed Elementary Children

Vernon Francis

ABSTRACT

This study addressed the ability of emotionally disturbed children to estimate time lengths of various events The Functional Time Estimation Questionnaire *(FTEQ), a pencil and paper, four-part multiple choice test, was given to elementary children at three different schools The test results of emotionally disturbed children were compared with the test results of same-aged children from a regular public school classroom. The t test resulted in* $p < .001$ for most comparison groupings An ANCOVA, necessary in some cases due to slight differences in ages of the two groups, also resulted in $p < .001$ for most comparison groupings A comparison of regular education children and emotionally disturbed children on the FTEQ indicates that emotionally disturbed children may have more difficulty estimating time than other students Implications were considered as they related to learning in the public school

Modern society is dependent on the clock. Nowhere is this more evident than in the public school. At an early age, students are expected to be on time, study and learn according to timed intervals, and even schedule such things as recreation and nourishment around someone else's clock.

Many emotionally disturbed students appear to have inaccurate and nonfunctional concepts of time (Allard, Anderson, Dodd, & Martin, 1984) Such individuals seem unable to demonstrate such things as waiting, scheduling, budgeting of time, using good on-task skills, sequencing events accurately, and estimating the time elapse of future or past events

Purpose

Evidence has been cited that indicates differences among social and ethnic groups in the ability to understand, predict, or identify time concepts (Baker, 1967, Gonzales & Zimbardo, 1985; Shannon, 1976; Strang, Rust, & Garrison,, 1973). Unrealistic and inaccurate time concepts were found with juvenile delinquents (Barabasz, 1973, Barndt & Johnson, 1955; Brock & Del Guidice, 1963; Brown, 1981). In addition, learning difficulties and an inaccurate understanding of time concepts have been found to co-exist (Burton & Edge, 1985, Herman, Norton, & Roth, 1983; Lomranz, 1983; Wolf & Savickas, 1985).

The labels *learning disabled* and *emotionally disturbed* are used for identifying students for special education services Learning disabled students have been found to differ from other students in their use and understanding of time (Burd, Dodd, & Fisher, 1984, Dodd, Griswold, Smith, & Burd, 1985; Hayes, Hynd, & Wisenbaker, 1986, Lorsback & Gray, 1985). Less evidence has been developed concerning time and the emotionally disturbed although it seems that the emotionally disturbed, like the learning disabled, have difficulty with concepts (Allard et al., 1984; Forness & Dvorak, 1982).

This study questioned the differing abilities of emotionally disturbed children and other same-aged children to estimate time. If emotional disturbance and time concept difficulties do seem to co-exist, it could influence the teaching and management methods used to serve the emotionally disturbed population. A functional time estimation skill was defined as the ability to estimate the amount of elapsed time for specific events. This skill was measured by using the *Functional Time Estimation Questionnaire* (Dodd, Burd, & Cook, 1987).

Emotional disturbance was defined as one of the terms used by public schools in the

states of Montana and Wyoming to identify students for special education services The term is established by the state education office and the two states' definitions are similar. Emotionally disturbed was thus defined as exhibiting to
"a marked degree for a long period of time" such characteristics as inability to learn not explained by intellectual, sensory, or health factors; inability to build or maintain interpersonal relationships; a pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression; or a tendency to develop physical symptoms or fears associated with personal or school problems (Special Education Reference Manual: Montana Laws and Rules, 1985). The degree of emotional disturbance was such that students were served in a self-contained classroom in a regular elementary school building. Most emotionally disturbed students assessed for this study were served for part of the school day in a regular education setting.

METHOD

Subjects

For this study, two groups were tested: students who had been diagnosed as emotionally disturbed by their local school, and students from a regular classroom who had not been diagnosed as emotionally disturbed. All participants, both emotionally disturbed and other students, were from three public elementary schools in Montana and Wyoming communities with populations of 50,000 to 100,000.

At each elementary school, all available emotionally disturbed students and all available students from one classroom each of grades two through six were assessed. Assessment results from 8 emotionally disturbed girls and 116 other girls, and 26 emotionally disturbed boys and 135 other boys were compiled for this study. All students lived in similar geographical areas. Ages of the students in the two groups ranged from 8 to 13 years.

Assessment Device

Very few assessment instruments have been developed to assess time. *The Time Appreciation Test* (Buck, 1946) developed for an adult psychiatric hospital is the only published test that directly addresses the subject. The *Functional Time Estimation Questionnaire* (FTEQ) is an unpublished pencil and paper test developed by Dodd, Burd, and Cook (1987). It is designed to measure the time estimation skills of grade school children, ages 7 through 11.

The FTEQ was tested for reliability. On the basis of even- and odd-numbered test items, the Pearson product-moment correlation was .84. The split-half reliability yielded .91 using the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula. Internal consistency, using Cronbach's alpha, was .91.

The FTEQ was used in this study to assess the students' abilities to estimate timed events. The FTEQ is a 46-item, four-part multiple choice test. The four choices are designed so that there is a most logically correct answer, and other choices progressively less correct. Each test item score is weighed according to correctness, zero points for most correct to as many as three points for least correct.

Individual test items encompass a wide variety of situations with questions that usually begin with the words "How long does it take". Items include timing the growth of corn, ages of students at specific grades, length of the time necessary to complete specific training, timing of a stop light, and many other events. Items are evenly balanced among events measured by seconds or minutes, days, and months or years About 60% of the items include things an elementary child would have experienced, and of 40% an elementary child would have only observed. About 30% of the items related directly to the events of the schedule at school (see Table 1).

Design and Procedure

Testing was done in the late spring during the school day and in the school building where the students attended. Each student was tested in familiar surroundings by a familiar teacher or aide. Students were given copies of the test and encouraged to do their best. The teacher read the questions out loud to the group, thus limiting as much as possible the

TABLE 1

Sample of Test Items from the FTEQ

12.	About how long does it take to sharpen a pencil?	
	1. 15 seconds	3. 30 minutes
	2. 15 minutes	4. 360 seconds
17.	About how long do you go to college and medical school to get to be a doctor?	
	1. 2 years	3. 8 years
	2. 4 years	4. 20 years
23.	About how long are children out of school at lunchtime?	
	1. 5 minutes	3. 40 minutes
	2. 2 hours	4. 10 minutes
32.	About how long does it take most seeds to sprout after they have been planted?	
	1. 3 to 10 days	3. 3 to 10 months
	2. 3 to 10 weeks	4. 3 to 10 hours

influence of reading skills. Teachers administering the tests were asked to informally observe the students during the testing procedure and indicate whether the students tried to do their best. In each situation, the teachers felt that their students' performances were fair representations of their abilities.

Test scores of emotionally disturbed children with other children were compared using the *t* test. Students were grouped according to age, sex, and local school. A *t* test was also used with each comparison grouping to determine if any differences in the ages existed between the emotionally disturbed and other children. In addition, one-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was also used for comparing test scores to control for differences in ages among comparison groups.

RESULTS

At School A, 8 emotionally disturbed boys and 41 other boys were tested. No significant difference in ages was found (*t* test, $p = .357$); however, significant differences were found with test scores (*t* test and ANCOVA, $p < .001$).

At School B, 6 emotionally disturbed boys and 46 other boys were tested. No significant differences in ages were found (*t* test, $p = .424$); however, significant differences were found with test scores (*t* test and ANCOVA, $p < .001$).

At School C, 12 emotionally disturbed boys and 46 other boys were tested. No significant difference in ages was found (*t* test, $p = .571$); however, difference in test scores was only slightly significant (*t* test, $p = .140$; ANCOVA, $p = .144$)

When boys of all three schools were combined, the age differences were even less significant (*t* test, $p = .508$), and the test scores remained highly significant (*t* test and ANCOVA, $p < .001$).

Girls were also considered according to individual schools and with results similar to those found with the boys; however, the small number of emotionally disturbed girls assessed make the results tentative. A total of 8 emotionally disturbed girls was compared with 73 other girls whose ages were within the range set by the emotionally disturbed girls. Age differences were significant (*t* test, $p = .038$), as were the test scores (*t* test and ANCOVA, $p < .001$).

Similar results were discovered when all students were grouped according to age and sex, and then the FTEQ results were compared according to *t* test and ANCOVA (see Table 2).

DISCUSSION

In almost every possible comparison examined in this study, the emotionally disturbed students scored lower on the FTEQ than did the other students of same sex and age

TABLE 2

FTEQ Results of All Boys and Girls According to Age Groups

	Test Score			Statistical Treatment		
	N	M	SD	t-statistic	significance	ANCOVA
8/9y ED boys	11	44.3	17 1			
8/9y other boys	45	26 9	15.0	-3 36	001	.001
10/11y ED boys	9	28.0	14.0			
10/11y other boys	55	18.0	10 4	-2 55	013	.001
12/13y ED boys	6	38 3	17.7			
12/13y other boys	35	12.1	9 6	-5.41	001	.001
10/11y ED girls	3	35 0	12.1			
10/11y other girls	51	15.4	8 0	-4.02	.001	.001
12/13y ED girls	5	26.8	10 5			
12/13y other girls	22	9.4	3.7	-6.52	001	.001

($p < .001$). The ability to estimate time among children diagnosed as emotionally disturbed seems to consistently differ from the ability of other children

If significant differences exist between the emotionally disturbed and other students in the ability to understand time, it could influence the methods and materials used by educators in instructing and managing a classroom with emotionally disturbed students. Emotionally disturbed children may find estimating time lengths too difficult a concept to address accurately and rationally. For example, a teacher trying to develop on-task behavior may reward a student every 10 minutes. Timeout is a procedure commonly used in schools for the emotionally disturbed children, yet its effectiveness may not be related to length of time in timeout if the student has little concept of elapsed time.

Similar problems may occur with the child's ability to plan ahead. If present time is not well understood, it would be logical to assume that time in the future would be comprehended even less. Teaching to increase rate, organize tasks, or accept appropriate reward and punishment schedules may not be comprehended fully by the emotionally disturbed student. Students may be asked to perform time requirements that they do not understand. If true, educators may need to teach time concepts directly. Such instruction may assist the child to understand better the environment and be more successful at time tasks and activities engaged in under the rigor of time at school

More studies should be carried out concerning skills in time estimation and other time-related concepts of the emotionally disturbed population. Older populations need to be considered. More assessment devices need to be developed that address other phases of time concepts such as predicting skills, comprehension of rate, and proper use and management of time skills. Assessments other than pencil and paper devices need to be developed since often emotionally disturbed children do not communicate accurately by this method. As our time conscious society considers how best to use time, the possible misunderstanding of time concepts held by emotionally disturbed children should also be considered.

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Mainstreaming the Student with Autism: Strategies to Promote Integration

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ABSTRACT

Over the last two decades there has been growing interest in the mainstreaming of exceptional students. It is only recently, however, that attention has been focused on the needs of students with severe developmental disabilities. The specialized needs of children with autism, for example, have often precluded the implementation of mainstreaming in the traditional sense of the word. Recent reference to mainstreaming as the integration of handicapped students with less handicapped learners has broadened the application of the concept.

This article outlines a number of programs implemented at the Douglass Developmental Disabilities Center designed to promote the mainstreaming of autistic children. The intricacies of transitioning students from a highly specialized program to less structured, community-based schools are described. Sensitivity to each child's need for transition and the importance of collaborative planning are emphasized.

Growing concern for the integration of the student with special needs with those of normal cognitive potential has been witnessed in recent years. The variety of discussions have resulted in a myriad of concepts and definitions designed to describe what is referred to as mainstreaming. Examination of the more prominent views on mainstreaming reveals the two major components of physical integration and service delivery (Handleman, 1984; Martin, 1974). Broadly speaking, the essence of mainstreaming includes interactions between handicapped and nonhandicapped individuals (Martin, 1974).

Over the last two decades, the mainstreaming concept has been applied to many populations: physically handicapped (Rapier, Adelson, Carey, & Croke, 1972), emotionally disturbed (Vaac, 1968), mildly retarded (Gallagher, 1972), and learning disabled (Glass & Meckler, 1972). Difficulty, however, has been experienced when attempting to apply the concept to children with autism and other developmental disabilities (Handleman, 1984; Russo & Koegel, 1977). While the nature of the deficits demonstrated by the autistic youngster often precludes mainstreaming in the traditional sense of the word, referring to mainstreaming as the integration of the handicapped with less handicapped learners can increase the implementation of the concept (Handleman, 1984).

Children with autism share language deficiencies and disturbed interpersonal relationships as primary characteristics (Handleman & Harris, 1986; Lovaas, Koegel, Simmons, & Long, 1973). Disturbances such as pronoun reversal, echolalia, or the absence of speech mark the language development of many autistic children. Self-injury, self-stimulatory behavior, and the desire to maintain environmental sameness characterize some of the interpersonal social difficulties demonstrated by these youngsters. While there exists some confusion regarding the terminology and definition of autism, the characteristics cited by the National Society for Autistic Children (Schopler, 1978) and the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (DSM III-R) of the American Psychiatric Association (1987) provide a clearer delineation of diagnostic criteria.

Many students with autism are being placed in settings designed to provide specialized programing such as low student/teacher ratio, behavioral techniques, and parent training (Handleman, 1981; Handleman & Harris, 1986). This systematic approach to education has

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resulted in often distancing these programs from the mainstream of public education. For example, the need of many autistic children for one-to-one instruction not only precludes participation in public educational opportunities, but also community activities such as recreational programs. In addition, the initial dependency that many of these children have on food rewards or very specialized teaching techniques often prevents them from responding to natural environmental contingencies. Creating strategies for the eventual re-entry of these students into the more traditional educational mainstream has, therefore, become a priority of those facilities providing services (Handleman, 1979, 1981; Russo & Koegel, 1977).

This article will outline a number of strategies implemented at the Douglass Developmental Disabilities Center of Rutgers University designed to promote the mainstreaming of autistic children. The intricate process of transitioning students from a highly specialized, behaviorally-based school to less structured, community-based programs will be described.

THE PROGRAM

Located on the New Brunswick, New Jersey campus of Rutgers University, the Douglass Developmental Disabilities Center (DDDC) serves as a research and training facility for the study of children with autism. Founded in 1972, the Center functions as a state-operated demonstration program currently serving 48 children diagnosed as autistic according to DSM III-R criteria In addition, approximately 200 graduate and undergraduate students receive training at the Center each year.

The behaviorally-based programing implemented at the DDDC is designed to facilitate the social, cognitive, and communication development of the students. Instruction in academic and life skills areas is enhanced by year-round attendance and active family involvement. The Center's primary goal of transitioning the youngsters to less restrictive, community-based programs is accomplished by a hierarchical educational curriculum. For example, most children enter a primary level program which emphasizes instructional control teaching and progress through intermediate level programing which attempts to approximate community education. After varying years, some children transfer to more typical special education classes or enter the Center's adolescent education program.

The DDDC's recently expanded preschool program also offers a number of options. After spending a minimum of one year in a classroom of autistic preschoolers, students can either transfer to other classes within the Center, to schools in the community, or to an integrated program where there are an equal number of normal preschoolers in attendance. Hopefully, this time the students spend in the integrated classes will prepare them for other mainstreamed situations.

A Commitment to Mainstreaming

A highly individualized and increasingly complex curriculum has become the framework for mainstreaming efforts at the DDDC. A child can progress through a carefully designed program where variables such as number of instructors, reinforcement, and complexity of curriculum are manipulated systematically For example, in a primary level classroom a child could be taught instructional control skills and the rudiments of communication in a one-to-one tutorial setting where primary reinforcement is used on a continuous basis. Upon mastery of basic skills, the child could enter an intermediate setting where an attempt is made to wean her/him from the structure imposed in the primary level. S/he could then be exposed to small group instruction to build basic speech skills and more complex communication, in addition to increasing social responsiveness. As a final step, the child could progress to a transitional setting designed to approximate a community placement. In each instance, an attempt is made to expose the youngster to experiences created to normalize the curriculum and environmental contingencies.

The success of transfer to a new program is not left to chance. Through observation of various potential settings during the year prior to transition, DDDC staff attempt to locate the best child/placement match. Following a skills assessment of the new placement, the requisite skills are identified and eventually taught. Programing efforts are then directed

toward approximating the new educational setting in order to facilitate optimal adjustment. To ensure continuity, a comprehensive educational plan is provided to the new school to guide preparations. In addition, family support and involvement is encouraged to facilitate and monitor the transition process. Follow-up consultation services provided by the DDDC also add to the success of the transfer.

Professionals from the new program also assume an instrumental role in the transition process. Periodic visits to the current placement before the transfer can assist the process in a variety of ways. Familiarization with current methods, materials, and techniques can ensure continuity of programing, and direct work with the child by the new teacher can facilitate generalization of responding Information gathered from the visits can also be used to modify the new classroom setting to approximate current instructional strategies. All of these efforts can serve to increase the administrative and programing support that is necessary for success.

A Special Mainstreaming Project

While on an individual basis the DDDC's transition efforts have been successful for approximately 78% of the students enrolled over the last 15 years (Williams, 1987), the model has also proven successful for a classwide transfer. After determining the readiness of youngsters in the Center's prior transition class, arrangements were made with a local private school for a systematic group transition process. This unique partnership of agencies provided a valuable placement bridge and resulted in successful student transfers.

Based on prior coordination of transition for individual students, the administration of the Highland School was approached and ultimately agreed to the proposed transition project. In a series of meetings attended by members of each school's staff, various administrative, financial, and instructional issues were surveyed. These meetings served to cement the cooperative efforts and to confirm the unanimous commitment to the project.

The Highland School is a private, nonprofit school for neurologically impaired and communication handicapped children with specific learning disabilities Students typically manifest difficulties in attention, information processing, and gross and fine motor coordination. Often behavior problems interfere with learning.

The Highland School provides a wide range of educational services. Each child's program is individually planned and students are grouped according to age and achievement levels. Also, class size is small (typically 8 students) in order to maximize instructional efforts. In addition, supplemental programs are provided in adaptive physical education, movement, speech and language, and occupational therapy.

The Children

Two groups of children were selected for the transition project; 3 youngsters were identified as potential candidates for Highland School; 2 others were targeted for other community programs. While at least 2 of the children would probably be placed in more local settings, it was determined that they could also benefit from the experiences of the project

Transition Activities

The transition project was conducted in three phases. Phase I involved the identification process which included a number of observations at the Douglass and Highland programs by various participants. In Phase II, carefully planned transition activities were implemented over a 6-month period Phase III involved intricate programing designed to support total program participation.

Phase I. In September the DDDC staff, in conjunction with parents and representatives from school districts, visited a variety of public and private schools throughout the state. These visits helped to identify potential placements and assisted in assessing those school life skills that the youngsters would need for the following year. Staff members from prospective schools were also encouraged to observe the candidates for transition.

Upon preliminary selection of new placements for the fall, appropriate approvals for the transition project with the Highland School were secured from parents and school districts.

Consents for the exchange of information were also obtained and more formalized observations were conducted During this initial stage of the project, the classroom teacher began to prepare the youngsters for transition by teaching identified prerequisite skills such as independent work, following group directions, and comprehension of more complex conversation. In addition, a series of half-day visits to Highland were scheduled for the children.

Phase II. Beginning in January of the transition year, participating children spent a minimum of one-half day a week at the Highland School. Children were accompanied by DDDC staff members and were transported in the school van. By June, visits were increased to one hour daily. Throughout this phase of the project, curriculum and other educational activities continued to be jointly coordinated by Douglass and Highland and progress was formally reported to individual school districts.

Early efforts emphasized parent participation and included tours of the Highland program and assurances that the project would be a joint effort between the two schools. Parent support was viewed as being critical to the success of the project. Also, teacher support and enthusiasm were actively solicited. The director of Highland briefed her staff, requested volunteers, scheduled tentative student placements. and provided necessary resources and training. Teacher/student matches reflected variables such as teacher personality, student needs, and teacher commitment.

Initially, the Douglass students visited the Highland School 3 days a week for the first 2 weeks of the project and then daily for the next 6 months. Children arrived at the school around 10 a.m. and remained until 11. Each child followed the daily schedule of the class including special activities. In April, the schedule was changed to substitute 2 afternoons for morning visits to allow the students to participate in Highland's departmentalized afternoon program. Programing emphasized large group activities, an essential experience for the Douglas students.

A DDDC staff member usually accompanied those students who demonstrated the greatest adjustment difficulties. Initially, some one-to-one instruction was provided to facilitate the transition. Eventually, the Douglass staff assumed a supportive role by working with other children in the class and assisting the teacher. It was the goal of the project for the Douglass children to respond to classroom and instructional demands without intervention from the DDDC staff.

Each day was carefully planned in order to provide the Douglass students with a full range of educational opportunities during the transition project. For example, instruction in preacademic and academic areas occurred during the morning hours, and afternoon sessions were devoted to more group programing and school life activities. Time at Douglass was often devoted to reinforcement of Highland activities and remediation of transition deficiency skills. Weekly progress reports were exchanged between schools and with parents in order to maximize communication.

By late spring, the children's progress and success of Phases I and II of the transition project were confirmed when application to Highland was made for 5 of the 6 students. The sixth child was targeted to attend a more local private school similar in structure to Highland. With the intricacies of program transfer accomplished, Phase III of the project began with the goal of total program integration.

Phase III. During the children's first school year in the Highland program, intensive support was provided by the school's director, the DDDC project coordinator, and a consulting behavioral psychologist. The goal of the first semester was to facilitate the new students' adjustment to a less staff intense and structured milieu. Emphasis was placed on decreasing isolate activities and noncompliance and on increasing independence and task completion. The second semester focused on developing reciprocal social interaction skills. A specialized peer tutoring program was very instrumental in facilitating growth in social development.

By the end of the first year, all 5 students were described as being fully integrated into the Highland program. While the safety network that was in place throughout the project was still available for the next school year, less support was needed. Formal follow-up visits by the Douglass staff continued and communication between the two schools remained frequent.

DISCUSSION AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Mainstreaming as a philosophy of education is as important for the autistic child as for any other student with special needs (Handleman, 1984). While attempts at mainstreaming the autistic-type child may be problematic, modifications of the concept itself can be useful. Viewing mainstreaming, for example, as the integration of handicapped students with less handicapped learners, along with strategies designed to facilitate transition to more instructional settings, can improve chances for success.

The collaborative efforts between the Douglass and Highland programs were clearly responsible for the success of the project. While the students from Douglass clearly benefited from the transition experiences, other participants also reported positive gains For example, teachers at Highland discussed during end-of-project interviews that they never believed themselves capable of working with autistic students. As one teacher stated, "I never would have thought that a child that needed that much one-to-one attention could ever work independently or side-by-side with his/her less handicapped peer without behavioral outbursts." Teacher reports of increases in self-confidence by project participants were unanimous. Furthermore, the majority of teachers indicated that they would be receptive to including other autistic children in future classes. These reports of changes in self-confidence appeared consistent with the findings of Glass and Meckler (1972) and Shotel, Iano, and Mcgettigon (1972) with other special populations.

The students from Highland also derived benefits from the project. While difficult to measure, teacher reports and student behavior suggested that the children demonstrated a better understanding of individual differences and increases in self-image and leadership skills. As suggested by Higgs (1975), peer tutoring and class meetings appeared to provide the structured situations needed to promote reciprocal social interactions with nonautistic students. Further research is needed, however, to assess the power of this type of integration.

Just as the group of students from Douglass presented a common and unique need for the transition project, another group has been recently identified. This group of children includes preschoolers within the mild range of autism, as measured by the Childhood Autism Rating Scale (Schopler, Reichler, & Renner, 1986), who are targeted for mainstreamed special education settings. Once excluded from the DDDC due to their need for exposure to peer models that could not be provided, 12 youngsters are now receiving a very specialized preschool program.

The preschool project originally included a self-contained class of 5 students, a teacher, and a number of assistants. The program balanced a developmental curriculum with behavioral instruction and emphasized social and communication training. As the end of the first year approached, it was determined that the students needed exposure to more normal social and communication development in order to progress. To achieve this goal, the DDDC created an integrated classroom where the youngsters were able to attend school with an equal number of normal peers.

After 2 years of operating both segregated and integrated preschool classes, administrative activities have now been directed toward the systematic study of some of the observed changes in student performance. Integrated experiences not only seem to have a direct effect on the social development of both autistic and normal preschoolers, but also appear to facilitate the transition process to mainstreamed special education environments. Efficacy of validation research is currently being conducted.

The results of these transition projects confirm the notion that preparing autistic children for placements previously deemed inappropriate because of the nature of their difficulties must be systematically planned (Handleman, 1984). Due to the individual needs of the youngsters, only guidelines can be suggested now. Nonetheless, transition must be considered within the context of the total program for each child and must be individually designed and carefully coordinated.

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A Whole Language Approach: Teaching Reading and Writing to Behaviorally Disordered Children

Carole Cutler and Ellen Stone

This article provides an in-depth look into two elementary classrooms of behaviorally disordered children that are currently using whole language techniques to teach reading and writing. The curriculum focus is on materials that reinforce a literate environment and draw on the student's natural learning styles.

Individually and as a group, behaviorally disordered children can be challenging and sometimes frustrating to educate. They often have learning difficulties such as short attention spans, low frustration tolerance, and impulsivity. These children generally have low self-esteem and often underachieve academically. A structured combination of group and individual instruction is necessary to meet the affective and cognitive needs of these students. Group work must be stressed to improve social skills and peer interaction. Individual approaches are also necessary to ensure success and build self-esteem.

By the time many children have reached kindergarten and first grade, they have had numerous literacy experiences. Bedtime stories and trips to the library are fairly commonplace. These experiences provide a necessary foundation for learning to read. Behaviorally disordered children, however, may not receive appropriate literacy experiences at home due to the child's activity level, the stressors on the family, or the parent's lack of awareness.

The whole language model begins with the language each child brings to school. It is therefore inherently positive and forward thinking. The approach builds on the child's strengths and provides opportunities to broaden literacy experiences. Children who lack basic literacy experiences are not necessarily problem learners. Children want to read and write when those skills are valued and modeled in their environment. The teacher's role becomes one of organizing a literary environment and supporting students' natural inclination to read and write.

DEFINITION OF WHOLE LANGUAGE

Whole language is a model of teaching that is based on natural language learning. Early reading and writing that approximate conventional behaviors are met with praise and encouragement similar to a baby's first attempt at spoken language. The term *whole language* indicates that language is learned from whole to part (Goodman, 1986).

For example, an infant saying "cookie" is not simple labeling an object, but rather attempting to communicate a more complex idea such as "I want a cookie now, Mom." The more sophisticated parts of language learning occur later: first comes basic communication. Reading and writing begin in similar ways. A child hears a favorite story several times and begins to recognize that the story is made up of words and that words are made up of letters. A child writes in order to communicate an idea and eventually realizes that letters and words are necessary elements of communication. Reading and writing, therefore, are acquired holistically in much the same way as spoken language.

This concept is part of a literacy movement spanning the last 15 years. Familiar authors include Marie Clay and Don Holdaway from New Zealand and Donald Graves and Ken

Goodman from the United States. The literacy movement can be described as follows (adapted from Holdaway, 1984):

1. There is an emphasis on development and learning from the child rather than teaching from the instructor.
2. Children learn to read by reading; they learn to write by writing.
3. Reading and writing are inherently connected.
4. Children's literature is used as an instructional base.
5. Evaluation of progress is descriptive, developmental, and longitudinal rather than based on standardized testing.

Research Findings

Current research indicates that what children know about reading and writing before coming to school enhances their abilities to learn from classroom instruction (Holdaway, 1979, 1984; Sulzby, 1985). However, the manner in which most reading and writing is taught in school does not match the way children learn from their natural experience with literacy materials.

Preschool readers have learned important "rules" about printed matter from their repeated use of storybooks (Rossman, 1982). These rules change as the child develops and learns more about reading. Schickedanz (1986) describes a developmental sequence for gaining meaning from storybooks:

1. child retells the text (from illustrations);
2. child develops awareness of print;
3. child matches speech and print; and
4. child is aware of specifics in text (letters, words)

The manner in which children learn does not follow a hierarchy of skills from letter recognition to reading whole texts (Teale, 1982). However, this is often the manner in which reading is introduced to the young child at school.

Similarly, children have discovered much about writing from exposure in the home. In his book, Graves writes, "The vast majority of first graders have no problem when asked to write on the first day of school. Their 'writing' ranges from pictures to scribbles to letters to words" (1985, p. 29). Sulzby, Barnhart, and Hieshima (in press) identify 12 forms of early writing from drawing to conventional writing. In her research with early writers, Clay (1975) found that children tend to experiment with the various parts of the writing system (letters, words, word groups) all at once. Yet, writing instruction often breaks writing into isolated components (letters, words, punctuation, and grammar) with no emphasis on content (Graves, 1985). The result is that writing often has no function or meaning to young children, nor does it prepare them to think about printed material — an eventual outcome of learning to read and write.

Whole language teaching provides a meaningful context for language, interaction in a literate community, and encouragement to take risks in order to learn. It is the primary method of teaching reading and writing in New Zealand (Goodman, 1986), a country with the world's highest literacy rate (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1984). In the United States, the state of California has developed a language arts curriculum based on the use of children's literature and the writing process. Whole language methods have been endorsed by many professional organizations including the International Reading Association, the National Association for the Education of Young Children, the National Association of Elementary School Principals, and the National Council of Teachers of English (reported in Sulzby & Teale, 1985).

Whole language techniques have not been widely reported in special education populations. McClure (1985) found predictable books helped learning disabled students experience success in reading due in part to the students' motivation to read and the material's familiarity. She suggested this whole language technique can be used with an existing reading program or as a supplement. Weaver (1988) states a whole language approach best meets the needs of students with learning difficulties for the following reasons: (a) It is a

global approach (whole to part) incorporating kinesthetic/tactile, auditory, and visual channels; (b) the environment provides opportunities for varying learning styles; and (c) the approach can adapt to the needs of individual learners.

Due to reading failure, behaviorally disordered students can view themselves as incapable of learning. Goodman (1986) describes the need for revaluing students who experience reading difficulties through the use of a whole language approach. The goal of a revaluing program is to help students view themselves as capable of reading and writing.

A description of two classrooms using whole language techniques follows. The focus will be on practical application of the theory with behaviorally disordered children.

CLASSROOM ONE: A WHOLE LANGUAGE APPROACH TO LEARNING

One child is sitting at his desk writing MOTRSQD (monster squad). Another is reading about cacti. Two boys are building with legos. It is morning free time, a time when this class of 7- to 9-year-old behaviorally disordered children have a chance to socialize, play, and settle in to school. The fact that two of the children have chosen to read or write during their free time would have been astounding back in the fall. Not so in May. This is a whole language classroom in which reading and writing are an integral part of the curriculum.

Description of the Class

There are four students in the classroom ranging in age from 7 to 9 years old. They have been referred for a multitude of reasons including aggressive behavior, learning disabilities, suicidal ideation, and preoccupation with fantasy. Additional characteristics include a history of parental abuse or neglect, low self-esteem, poor social skills, anxiety around learning situations, and distrust of adults.

Goals and Objectives

In implementing a whole language curriculum, the primary goal at the start of the year was to make reading and writing pleasurable, accessible, and meaningful. Additional goals were to create positive learning experiences, to focus on the developmental needs of the students, and to ensure success. Behavioral objectives included raising the student's level of self-esteem and improving social interaction skills.

Establishing a Literate Environment

The first step in developing a whole language curriculum was to organize the classroom so that literacy materials were plentiful and accessible (Schickedanz, 1986). A book corner was established with shelves low enough for the children to reach and with comfortable cushions on which to sit. The book corner included a variety of storybooks, magazines, poetry books, science books, dictionaries, and story tapes. The books came from local libraries as well as the school library and were rotated on a regular basis.

Several shelves were filled with writing and drawing materials. Included were paper of all shapes and sizes, fat and skinny markers, crayons, pencils, stamps, and letter stencils. Supplementary literacy materials included magnetic and felt letters, alphabet puzzles, and rhyming games.

The importance of literacy was reflected in the materials throughout the room. Enlarged poems written on chart paper were posted on the walls along with a calendar and weather chart, labels and signs, the daily schedule, and a helper chart with children's names. Throughout the year signs, charts, poems, and bulletin boards changed to reflect current topics being studied.

Implementing the Curriculum

A daily schedule was established to include consistent, predictable times for reading and writing. Shared book experience (Holdaway, 1979) was an important element in the whole language curriculum. Approximately 15 to 20 minutes were spent reading chorally from an enlarged text while the teacher or one of the students pointed to each word. A combination

of print materials were used including commercially made and homemade big books, poems written on chart paper, and text enlarged by an overhead projector

Three types of predictable literature were selected for choral reading (McClure, 1985). The first book used in September was *Brown Bear, Brown Bear* (Martin, 1970) This is an example of repetitive literature in which a word, phrase, or theme is repeated again and again making it easy for children to discern the pattern and predict upcoming words. A second type used familiar sequences such as the days of the week, months of the year, or number words. *The Very Hungry Caterpillar* (Carle, 1969) was one example of this type of literature used successfully in the fall. The third type of predictable literature contained a cumulative pattern in which previously stated information is incorporated into new information. *The Great Big Enormous Turnip* (Tolstoy, 1968), an example of cumulative literature, is more complex than the previously described books and was used later in the year.

Shared reading was new for all the students and was met with some anxiety. The students worried that they would be expected to read all of the words. They were not used to functioning as a group and were concerned about not being able to read as well as the other students. Expectations needed to be clarified from the start. The children were only asked to read the words they knew, but they were encouraged to take the risk of guessing an unfamiliar word. It was required that the students be respectful of one another by waiting for their turn to talk and by not deprecating another student's reading.

Immediately after shared reading the students participated in 20 to 30 minutes of follow-up reading and writing activities. While many books and poems were read each day, one or two were used thematically for an extended period of time Activities were skill oriented and centered around the theme For example, when *The Very Hungry Caterpillar* (Carle, 1969) was used as the theme, activities focused on the study of caterpillars, days of the week, numbers, and types of food — all important elements of the book.

There were certain reading and writing activities which were particularly successful with many books. One such activity was a modified cloze procedure (Holdaway, 1980) in which phrases, words, or parts of words were masked and students had to use a combination of semantic, syntactic, and phonetic strategies to predict the missing part. Other activities included matching words or phrases to the text, sequencing a series of scrambled words or sentences, and matching words and pictures from the text. Several games were played on a regular basis using words or phrases from the text. They included Concentration, Bingo, and Hangman.

Individual and group writing projects relating to the current theme were implemented. The students participated in writing and illustrating their own big books Often a variation of a theme or pattern was created by substituting key words or phrases. One example was a rewrite of the poem *Bugs* by Margaret Wise Brown (1938) The poem beings with

I like bugs,
Black bugs,
Green bugs,
Bad bugs,
Mean bugs.

The students renamed the poem *Monsters* and began it with

I like monsters,
Clawy monsters,
Hairy monsters,
Furry monsters,
Scary monsters.

Another important element in the whole language curriculum was the use of the writing process (Graves, 1983) As mentioned previously, students' writing often related to thematic literature. At other times, however, students had the option of writing about topics of their choice. They were provided with a journal in which they could illustrate and write as much as they wanted. The students were encouraged to use invented spelling for all of their writing. Some chose to look for the conventional spelling of a word in a familiar book.

The quality of their drawings and stories fluctuated throughout the year. Often their work reflected the emotional state they were in at the time. Some students found the 30-minute writing period to be soothing. Others longed for the structure of being told what to write about. For those students, magazine pictures and extensive teacher-student conferences were provided to help elicit ideas for writing.

Finally, the students participated in 15 minutes per day of silent reading. Because of their ages and behavior difficulties, however, it was rarely a silent period. Students often spent their silent reading time listening to a story tape, reading quietly with a teacher, or reading alone. In September, this was an extremely difficult time of day. As the year progressed, however, the children became increasingly able to attend to a story independent of teacher assistance.

Summary

In order to monitor student progress, extensive records were kept on each child. They included writing samples, reading tapes, and written observations of reading and writing behaviors. The primary goal of making reading and writing pleasurable, accessible, and meaningful was realized. By early spring, the children were initiating their own reading and writing activities during their free periods. They had all experienced positive, successful learning, and as a result, increased their feelings of self-esteem. One student memorably commented, "I'm reading this fast. I'm good at this!" Social interaction skills also improved. The children had many successful experiences reading, playing games, and writing as a group. However, this is an area that needs continual work with this population.

All of the students made gains within the specific skill areas of reading and writing. They each became skilled at using semantic and graphophonic cues for determining words. Also, students were able to recognize many words in meaningful context. The students' spelling increasingly approximated conventional spelling throughout the year.

One area where improvement is still needed involves risk taking. At times it was difficult to tape reading samples because of the students' inhibitions about reading words incorrectly. A similar difficulty arose during writing time when some of the students felt embarrassed about their spelling abilities. Risk taking is an important element in the whole language curriculum and is particularly difficult for behaviorally disordered children. Teacher and student modeling of risk taking, as well as helping students learn from their errors, are two ways to encourage students to take risks.

CLASSROOM TWO: MOVING TOWARD A WHOLE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

Introduction to the Classroom

The classroom of 5- to 7-year-old behaviorally disordered children described in this section cannot officially be termed a whole language classroom. The classroom was set up as a child-centered environment, that is, the schedule of the day revolved around the needs of the children. There was time to work, often manipulating objects first, then moving on to pencil and paper or workbook tasks. There was also time to play and interact with the environment. A large library area was available for the children with plenty of books, puzzles, tapes, and records. A play area with toys and child-sized furniture for housekeeping was nearby. Art materials were available including all types of paper, markers, crayons, chalk, paint, and clay.

This classroom had all the necessary equipment to become whole language based. Additionally, behavioral interventions were modeled through language. Children were consistently reminded of expectations, counseled through disagreements, and above all, encouraged to use language instead of body actions to achieve their goals. The children were constantly verbally interacting with their teachers, social worker, and each other. The shift to see themselves as literate beings capable of reading and writing to communicate might be a lifelong task for some of the children. However, it was felt that the classroom could be a beginning for this change. The whole language philosophy felt compatible to the current goals of the classroom — learning as a group how to manage individual and collective behavior in order to use the environment for exploration, discovery, and pleasure.

Description of Class

This classroom consisted of four behavio ally disordered children ranging in age from 5 to 7. Additional handicaps of the children included developmental, speech and language, and fine and gross motor delays. These children could be characterized as either overactive and acting out or severely withdrawn or shy All the children had low self-concept and poor social skills. Some had been abused or neglected. Family involvement ranged from limited to exceptional.

Whole Language Activities in the Classroom

Some whole language reading activities had been incorporated into the classroom. This year the children illustrated two big books: *Brown Bear, Brown Bear* (Martin, 1970) and Favorite Mother Goose Rhymes. These books were used in group choral reading as well as individual supported reading with a teacher.

Story tapes (with individual copies of books) had also been popular, both used as a listening/reading activity and during free play and quiet times. This infusion of listening to and reading the same stories over and over ensured a "favorite book" quality (Holdaway, 1979) to the stories. This seemed helpful in this classroom of young behaviorally disordered children as the activity level of the classroom did not always provide enough time for adults to read privately to children.

One of the stories, *The Gingerbread Boy* (Galdone, 1975), was used as the theme of a puppet show put on by the children. Because the children were well acquainted with the story (several had memorized it word for word), there was no worry over forgotten lines — everyone chimed in. Taking the story from the oral and visual channels into the kinesthetic channel was helpful for these often overactive children. One extremely active child with language delays was observed repeating the puppet show as a one-man show soon after the event. He had the tape playing, a book in his hand, and all the puppets used in the show surrounding him. He repeated the story along with the tape, turned the pages to keep up with the book, and simultaneously had the different puppet characters act out the story!

Group stories were dictated after science experiences such as walking in the fall woods or holding baby chicks in spring. The success of these group stories seemed to depend in part on the concreteness of what was written about. Young children with behavioral disorders need a focus — something to capture their attention. Asking them to draw from their memory is often difficult. Found objects brought back from the walk were handled, counted and categorized, and then written about. Pictures were taken of the children taking turns holding the chicks. They were presented on tagboard in a sequential order; the children provided the captions and a story was created.

Various literacy materials that were most popular with this group of children were rubber alphabet puzzles (individual letters), magnetic letters, and letter stamps It was important for children who lacked fine motor coordination to have the opportunity to "write" without having to manipulate an instrument at first.

A writing process approach had not been attempted with the children. Initially, it was felt that attention problems as well as fine motor difficulties might make it difficult for writing to be successful for the children. Judging from artwork done previously, several of the children were quite delayed in their ability to make shapes and human figures. However, various authors had chronicled beginning writing of normal children younger than these children (Clay, 1975; Holdaway, 1979; Sulzby & Teale, 1985, Teale, 1982). Furthermore, if the children were to think of themselves as writers, they had to begin writing on their own. So, a story writing process was attempted.

A Story Writing Process: Goals and Objectives

A story writing process was established with the class. The overall goal of the story writing was to determine if a writing process approach was appropriate to use with young behaviorally disordered children. Although ideally time should be provided daily for writing, it was felt a consistent weekly writing session would provide sufficient feedback to evaluate the following objectives: (a) to expose the children to printed text through a variety of picture

books; (b) to develop the children's sense of a story; (c) to encourage the children to write on their own; and (d) to observe the children's movement through beginning writing steps as described by Sulzby et al. (in press).

Set Up and Structure

Each Monday morning, a story was read to the class. The book was often introduced by its theme which usually related to events in school, holidays, or a science or social studies unit. Special care was taken to point out the author of each book After the book was read, a brief discussion was initiated by the teacher. The focus of the discussion was the story's plot, characters, and sequence of events.

Each child was then told it was time to write a story. An attempt was made to elicit ideas from the children about what to write. Children were encouraged to take ideas from the storybook and expand on them. Often the same characters were used; sometimes a similar theme was employed. Children were provided with large sheets of construction paper and markers. It was suggested they could write a one-page story or fold the paper into a book. In the beginning of the storywriting process, a general description of children's writing versus adult writing was given. This entailed showing different examples of the stages of writing (Sulzby et al., in press) as "kids writing." After the children had completed their stories, time was offered for each child to read the story to the group. This time was called Author's Chair as a special chair was chosen for each author to occupy while reading.

The story writing group met for a total of 30 to 45 minutes at two separate times throughout the day. Generally, this meant that children were able to listen to a story first and then begin their own After a break, stories wre alternately finished and read in the Author's Chair.

Guidelines

The format for this writing approach is drawn from Sulzby (1987). The following guidelines were used.

1 If the children are asked to write, accept those behaviors shown by the children as developmentally appropriate. Beginning writing varies according to the child. Not all children go through each stage.

2. Use language that reinforces what you expect from the children. Refer to all writing as "writing" even if it does not look like writing. Similarly, use the term "reading" during Author's Chair. Telling a story is not reading it

3. Value writing from the children. Display it, have it read to you, share it with visitors, send it in letters to important people in the lives of the children Treat the children's writing as a serious pursuit and so will they.

Summary

A lot of time was spent in the first few months helping the children to value their own writing. Much of this time was spent providing positive feedback and praise as the writing was observed. Graves (1985) points out the need to provide less generalized praise and more specific praise so that children can learn to evaluate their own writing. A general tendency for a few of the children was to say they couldn't write, or they wanted to write like grownups did. Some children asked continually how to spell words. The response was reflected back on the child. "How would you spell it?" Often the children used the adult's vocalization of words as the support they needed to attempt the writing on their own.

Although some children seemed to experiment with different forms of writing in the beginning (particularly scribble), each seemed to settle into a certain style after about a month. One child was clearly able to use invented spelling and did so relatively confidently. Another child used drawings almost exclusively for his stories; however, if asked to write someone a letter, he would use letter strings. The other two children began the year using drawing only. Throughout the year, one began to use a circular scribble, right to left, adding occasional letters. The other child experimented with scribble, moved to letter strings, and finally added invented spelling. She did not move distinctly out of one stage and into the

next, but fluidly moved back and forth between them. Overall, the children's progress in writing was evident by their willingness to write, and their movement through and experimentation with different forms of early writing.

Further, it was noticed that writing became an activity of choice for the children. Colorful writing paper was chosen as a reward at the end of the day. Children wrote instead of doing puzzles; one child even wrote on the bus. It also became common for the children to practice making letters throughout the day — on the chalkboard, with playdoh, or even with pretzels and orange peels during snack.

Assessing the children's sense of a story from the story writing activity was problematic. Most of the children's writing were not sophisticated or mature enough to have clear beginnings and ends. In fact, stories would change from moment to moment depending on what someone else wrote that sounded good, or what a drawing developed into. One girl's leaky marker precipitated her story happening in a rainstorm! However, the majority of the stories had recognizable characters and some simple plot. Most children wrote their stories on one page instead of in book form. However, this may have been due to the relatively short amount of time spent on the writing activity.

In summary, the majority of the story writing process objectives were realized. The teacher was able to provide the children with a rich variety of picture story books to which to listen. The children were motivated to write beyond the writing sessions — they often asked to write at free play times. Furthermore, the weekly writing sessions allowed the teacher to observe each child's writing style, and in most cases, the progress that occurred throughout the year. It was more difficult to assess each child's sense of a story from the writing sessions alone. Although the story writing usually led to more writing, most of the children did not seem to link their stories to books. However, if these formal writing sessions occurred more than once weekly, the story writing could lead into the making of books, a more concrete method of associating written stories with books. This would be a helpful transition for the beginning reader.

CONCLUSION

This article has described whole language theory and its application to a behaviorally disordered population of elementary school children. A whole language model is developmental in nature, focuses on natural language learning, and builds on the child's strengths. This model can meet the cognitive needs of these students through its use of group and individual instruction, its incorporation of varied learning styles, and its focus on developmental stages. Whole language also addresses the affective needs of behaviorally disordered children by promoting positive peer interaction, building self-esteem, and ensuring success through learning.

Two classrooms currently using a whole language approach with behaviorally disordered children were presented. The first classroom presented provided a global view of a whole language curriculum throughout the course of a year. This curriculum examined the use of predictable literature, shared reading, and the writing process with 7- and 9-year-old children. The second described a transition towards a whole language curriculum. It focused on a story writing technique and additional steps toward becoming a whole language classroom with 5- and 7-year-old children.

A shared goal for both classrooms was to encourage students' reading and writing behaviors. In both classrooms, students chose to read or write during their free time by year's end. Progress in reading and writing was observed in both settings through students' increased use of books, story writing development, and their move toward conventional spelling.

Social/emotional growth was an additional goal for one of the classrooms. The objectives of improved social skills, positive peer interactions, and increased self-esteem were partially met through the use of shared reading, group writing, and classroom games. However, it was noted that continual emphasis on the affective needs of behaviorally disordered students is necessary while using whole language as a base of instruction.

A whole language classroom is not created overnight. It is important for teachers to become acquainted with current literature, interact with whole language teachers, and

participate in available workshops and conferences. Careful planning and preparation is essential for the effectiveness of the approach. It is up to the teacher to create the structure in the classroom through selection of materials, organization of lessons, and evaluation of students' progress.

As a beginning step toward creating a whole language classroom, teachers might try one technique such as the use of the story writing process described in the second classroom application. Teachers may also find that they are already doing whole language activities in their classrooms and can expand further. Recommended beginning resource materials include Holdaway's *Foundations of Literacy* (1979) and Graves' *Writing: Teachers and Children at Work* (1983).

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APPENDIX

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6. The Wright Group
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