PREVENTING BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS IN EARLY CHILDHOOD SPECIAL EDUCATION CLASSROOMS THROUGH ENVIRONMENTAL ORGANIZATION

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ABSTRACT

The current trend in designing classroom programs for young children with handicaps is to provide a balance between activity-based instruction and free play experiences that encourage children to initiate, elaborate, and generalize learned skills. To achieve this goal, classrooms must be organized to promote engagement with the environment and prevent behavior problems. In this article the contributions of both the physical and programmatic features of early childhood special education classrooms are described, with special emphasis given to the importance of understanding how these features work together to promote engagement and prevent behavior problems. Suggestions are offered to help teachers discriminate problems that require environmental reorganization from problems that are better addressed by focusing on individual children.

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The potential benefits of early childhood programs for children with handicaps have been thoroughly described and frequently corroborated by empirical research (Bailey & Wolery, 1984; Bricker, 1978; Odom & Karnes, 1988). Although early childhood special education classrooms vary considerably in terms of important components such as philosophy, program goals, assessment and evaluation procedures, and staff composition (Peterson, 1987), they increasingly share the common goal of promoting learning through a balanced schedule of activity-based instruction and experiences that encourage independent initiation, elaboration, and generalization of acquired skills (Beckman, Robinson, Jackson, & Rosenberg, 1986; Bricker, 1989). Activity-based instruction is conducted best in classroom environments that are responsive to children's cues and facilitate active involvement with people and materials by providing activities that match each child's current developmental level. It includes procedures to integrate children's specific needs into an organization of classroom activities that are enjoyable, functional, and educational, thus, insuring optimal learning for all children by maximizing opportunities for engagement with the environment (McCarran, 1989; McWilliam, Trivette, & Dunst, 1985).

Learning cannot occur at optimal levels when behavior problems disrupt classroom activities and preclude or interrupt the engagement process. For this reason teachers must be able to identify and remediate conditions that make it more likely that behavior problems will occur. Experience has shown us that teachers usually seek solutions for children's behavior problems...
through the application of behavior modification procedures, particularly contingency management. For example, teachers may praise appropriate behavior, ignore or use mild timeout for inappropriate behavior, or design token programs. Perhaps this is because the behavior modification literature is replete with studies documenting the positive effects of such procedures in early childhood classrooms (Risley & Twardosz, 1976). There is no doubt that contingency management procedures are useful and appropriate for dealing with many childhood problems, but there are some problems for which these procedures are not appropriate. It is very important, therefore, that teachers learn how to discriminate between child behavior problems that are best addressed by contingency management and problems that are better addressed by other approaches to child behavior change.

Many mild but potentially disruptive behavior problems are due to poor classroom organization (Twardosz & Risley, 1982). Our impression is that early childhood teachers are frequently not aware of conditions in classroom environments that make it more likely that these kinds of problems will occur. However, in recent years much more attention has been paid to how the physical, social, and programmatic features of early childhood classrooms affect a variety of child behaviors, including some problem behaviors (Bailey, 1989; Bailey & Wolery, 1984; Rogers-Warren, 1984; Rogers-Warren & Wedel, 1980; Twardosz, 1984; Twardosz & Risley, 1982). Our purpose in the present article is not to reexamine this literature, but rather to draw upon it as a basis for illustrating how teachers can prevent or remediate some behavior problems by organizing classroom environments in ways that promote engagement and support the implementation of contingency management procedures.

We begin our discussion by defining environmental organization. Our purpose is to show how it differs conceptually from contingency management yet complements it in applied ways by preventing mild behavior problems. Then we turn our attention to the environmental arrangements of early childhood classrooms that maximize engagement. After this we discuss the importance of an integrative view of environmental organization, describing how the physical and programmatic aspects work together. We conclude the article with a description of important signs of poor organization and discuss how teachers can use them to discriminate organizational problems from the problems of individual children.

**Conceptual Issues**

The term environmental organization refers to the physical, social, and programmatic aspects of early childhood classrooms. The physical aspects that will be discussed include architectural features, furnishings and equipment, play materials and activities, and food. Social and programmatic aspects include the presence and location of people, the division of responsibilities among staff, activity schedules, and the movement of children from one activity to another (Rogers-Warren & Wedel, 1980; Twardosz, 1984).
The environmental aspects of classrooms are different from immediate antecedents or consequences of behavior, such as prompts and reinforcers, and are conceptualized as setting events. Setting events are complex social and physical conditions that make it more likely that previously acquired behaviors will occur (Bijou & Baer, 1961; Twardosz, 1984; Wahler & Fox, 1981). There are two types of setting events: those immediate surrounding conditions in the child's environment that influence which of several responses are likely to occur and conditions that occur separately in space and time from the behavior they influence.

The first type of setting event precedes and overlaps behavior. For example, serving food family style, in which bowls with food are placed in the center of a table and passed around by children, tends to increase social interaction compared to a cafeteria style method of serving food (VanBiervliet, Spangler, & Marshall, 1981). The manner of obtaining food can be conceptualized as a setting event; it either facilitates or impedes social interaction by requiring (or not requiring) people to communicate to obtain food (Twardosz, 1984). Classrooms that provide certain kinds of toys and play materials tend to increase social interaction compared to classrooms that do not provide them (Quilitch & Risley, 1973). The provision of toys and materials can be conceptualized as a setting event too and, like the manner of obtaining food, either facilitates or impedes social interaction.

The second type of setting event does not overlap behavior and includes the child's response to the event. For example, children's active play outdoors may increase the probability of disruptive behavior during a quiet activity if there is an immediate switch to the quiet activity without the benefit of a rest period scheduled between them (Krantz & Risley, 1977).

Organizational aspects of early childhood classrooms affect children's behavior in "impersonal" ways; that is, they do not have to be personally delivered by teachers each time to have effects on young children (Risley & Twardosz, 1976; Twardosz, 1984). For example, children who are seated on a rug in close proximity to one another during a story reading period are inclined to be inattentive and more disruptive than children who are seated on carpet squares separated by arm's length (Krantz & Risley, 1977). Teachers can therefore control mild group behavior problems during some activities just by making sure that seating conditions are not crowded. Interventions that are "personally" mediated, those that depend upon administration by teachers for their effects (e.g., differential attention, contingent privileges, and ignoring), may not be necessary, therefore, to control some problem behaviors although they may be equally effective as Krantz & Risley (1977) demonstrated.

If teachers conceptualize behavior problems in terms of individual children, they will be inclined to use contingency management or other intervention procedures directed at the children to remediate them. Aspects of the classroom environment, such as play materials, will be viewed, therefore, as potential reinforcers or punishers, and teachers will seek ways of making
these classroom features follow the child's behavior in an effort to remediate problem behaviors. On the other hand, if teachers conceptualize individual problems as possible symptoms of a poorly organized classroom, they will seek ways of reorganizing the environment to maximize occasions for the occurrence of appropriate behavior and the prevention of behavior problems; that is, they will try to set the occasion for appropriate behavior to occur.

Arrangement of the physical, social, and programmatic features of environments has been shown to increase children's appropriate behaviors and decrease mild forms of disruption. For example, open environments that facilitate supervision, division of space into activity areas, and availability of toys and play materials have been associated with greater percentages of appropriate engagement and fewer behavior problems such as disruptions, opposition, self-stimulation, wandering, and aggression (Horner, 1980; Murphy, Hutchinson, & Bailey, 1983; Nordquist, Twardosz, & McEvoy, in press; Quilitch & Risley, 1973; Twardosz, Cataldo, & Risley, 1974).

Social and programmatic aspects of classroom environments also have been shown to promote engagement and decrease the occurrence of behavior problems. For example, predictable activity schedules may cause fewer disruptions and higher rates of task completion than random schedules (Fredericksen & Fredericksen, 1977). Similarly, schedules that permit young children to use play materials after they wake up from nap produce more engagement and fewer disruptions compared to schedules that require children to remain on their cots for preselected periods of time (Eck, 1976). When staff are assigned to supervise activity areas rather than groups of children, transitions from one activity to another occur more quickly and children are more likely to show a high level of appropriate engagement with the scheduled activity (LeLaurin & Risley, 1972).

Organizational features of classrooms can also be arranged to make it more likely that previously acquired skills will be practiced. If children know how to talk, then providing opportunities for speech will make it more likely that they will do so and master more elaborate speech. If children know how to play, then providing an area rich in materials and opportunities for exploration will set the occasion for more play and for learning to play in more complex ways. However, it is important to emphasize that environmental organization cannot substitute for individualized teaching and contingency management programs when such desirable behaviors are not in children's repertoires.

Sometimes a very small change in the environment can produce dramatic changes in previously acquired behaviors, making it appear as though the behaviors are newly acquired. Siegel (1977) reported such a change in a study of boys with mental retardation who urinated habitually on the bathroom floor. Each of the boys was capable of urinating in the toilet, but did not do so reliably. When a floating target was attached to the back of the bowl, all of the boys immediately began to urinate properly; inappropriate urination was eliminated completely. Such a rapid and socially significant change
would not have been possible if the boys did not have the ability to control their urine streams. If they had not already been capable of doing so, individual training programs certainly would have been necessary.

To summarize, organizational or impersonal features include the physical, social, and programmatic aspects of early childhood classrooms. When properly arranged, these features provide the organizational foundation for maximizing engagement through activity-based instruction and frequent opportunities to initiate, elaborate, and generalize previously learned skills. Under these circumstances optimal learning is more likely to occur and mild behavior problems are less likely to occur. Organizing the environment to promote engagement, therefore, is crucial.

Organizing the Classroom for Engagement

Engagement is one of the best indicators of children's progress toward a variety of learning goals (McWilliam et al., 1985). Its definition differs according to the nature of activities and teachers' expectations of appropriate behavior (Bailey, Harms, & Clifford, 1983a). For example, engagement during free play might include playing with materials and interacting with peers and adults; during meals it might consist of sitting appropriately in a chair, requesting and passing food, placing food on a plate, pouring liquids, eating with utensils, and talking to peers or teachers (Bailey, Harms, & Clifford, 1983b); and during instruction, sitting, attending, responding on request, imitating, and using materials might be good examples of appropriate engagement. Although definitions vary, teachers should have little difficulty recognizing the essential behaviors that constitute engagement for a given activity (Bailey, 1989; McWilliam et al., 1985). Moreover, engagement can be easily assessed with the Planned Activities (PLA) Check (Risley & Cataldo, 1974). Once a teacher knows the daily activity schedule and the behaviors that are appropriate for each activity, checks may be conducted at prespecified intervals by counting the number of children present in an activity and the number participating. The ratio obtained for that particular check can then be compared with others taken later during the same activity or at other times of the day. In this way a profile of engagement can be developed that provides information about times or activities that may require reorganization (Twardosz & Risley, 1982).

A variety of information is currently available to assist early childhood teachers in using aspects of the physical environment to maximize engagement (Bailey & Wolery, 1984; Hart, 1978; Rogers-Warren & Wedel, 1980; Twardosz, 1984). However, information on how the social and programmatic aspects of the environment may be arranged is sparse. Virtually no attention has been given, for example, to describing how the physical, social, and programmatic features of early childhood classrooms can be integrated to achieve the goal of promoting engagement. In this section, therefore, we only summarize briefly what others have said about arranging physical features. Most of our discussion focuses on the social and programmatic
aspects of early childhood classrooms and ways that teachers can facilitate engagement through a thoughtful integration with physical features.

The Physical Environment

Perhaps the best descriptions of how organizational aspects of the physical environment can be adapted and modified to maximize engagement in classrooms for children with handicaps are provided by Bailey and Wolery (1984) and Hart (1978). Bailey and Wolery note, for example, that open space, bounded by low partitions or shelves, facilitates access to materials and activities by allowing children to visually inspect areas and choose among a variety of play opportunities. They recommend organizing the classroom into visible activity areas, ones that are designed to accommodate different types of activities (e.g., one-to-one tutoring, small group instruction, and free play).

Hart (1978) indicates that activity areas should be "functional" in the sense of providing many cues for appropriate behavior. For example, an area that contains a limited number of small manipulative materials, some of which are broken or too advanced for children to use appropriately, does not provide cues that set the occasion for engagement. Hart also suggests that functional areas maximize engagement by: minimizing the amount of space children have to cover during activity transitions; providing unimpeded traffic lanes so access to areas is facilitated; allowing enough space for an activity to occur; and being compatible so that activities in one area do not intrude on the activities of another area.

The selection of materials can further encourage children to engage the environment. Toys that are reactive, that is, temporarily sustain motion and/or produce auditory, visual, or tactile feedback, usually interest children with handicaps more than toys that are nonreactive (Hooper & Wambold, 1978; Murphy, Carr, & Callias, 1986). Adaptive equipment such as bolsters, prone boards, and modified chairs help to facilitate engagement in children with physical handicaps (Campbell, Green, & Carlson, 1977).

A physically interesting and responsive environment is critical if teachers wish to encourage children with handicaps to initiate and elaborate previously learned behaviors. It also allows teachers to develop a balanced schedule of instruction, exploration, and practice activities by creating opportunities for free play periods that can occur concurrently with one-to-one tutoring or small group instruction. Such a schedule permits a few children to receive close attention from one or more staff while the remaining children who are engaged with toys and play equipment require less supervision.

During free play teachers can also encourage children to elaborate their skills by using incidental teaching. This occurs when a child initiates an interaction with an adult, usually by a verbal or nonverbal request for assistance, an activity, or a preferred material. If the adult decides to use the situation to conduct incidental teaching, a fairly complex set of instructional steps occurs, depending upon the child's current level of ability and response to the adult's behaviors. The goal is to facilitate skill elaboration
by using the child's desire to engage as a means of focusing her or his attention on the adult in order to receive just enough information to produce elaborated responses successfully (Hart & Risley, 1978, 1980). Free play is particularly well suited for incidental teaching because it provides many materials and activities that children want to engage. In addition, some of these materials may be stored in sight but out of reach to prompt children to request assistance.

When the physical features of early childhood classrooms are not organized to promote engagement, several problems are likely to occur. Perhaps the most serious but least obvious is the problem of passivity where children typically wait for teachers to prompt engagement. Some children may use unoccupied time to wander and self-stimulate. Other kinds of problems may occur when traffic lanes are impeded or incompatible activity areas are located in close proximity to one another. Some children may be frustrated when efforts to access areas are delayed or their behavior is disrupted by activities in an adjacent area. If children have to compete for materials, if some materials are developmentally inappropriate, or if materials become too familiar because they are not rotated occasionally with other materials, boredom or frustration may result and lead to behavior problems. Under these circumstances children are likely to wander, whine, cry, complain, or behave aggressively. If, in addition, the classroom space is arranged so that teachers frequently cannot see individual children, supervision suffers and teachers may be unaware sometimes that problems are occurring.

The Social and Programmatic Environment

Early childhood programs that emphasize activity-based instruction and frequent opportunities to initiate, elaborate, and generalize learned skills require a well-designed, responsive, physical environment. However, they also need a means of scheduling activities and assigning staff responsibilities that facilitate children's access to these experiences and allow teachers to do what they do best, namely, teach (Hart, 1978). Planning the schedule and specifying where teachers should be and what they should do at given times during the day is just as important for promoting engagement as the arrangement of the physical environment. Two commonly used approaches to scheduling activities and assigning teachers to responsibilities will be described: sequential scheduling and assigning staff to children; and concurrent scheduling with the assignment of staff to activity areas.

Sequential scheduling and assignment of staff to children. In sequential schedules, teachers and children move together through successive activities and each activity ends before another begins. For example, the schedule might include a small group instruction activity followed by free play and a large group activity such as singing or storytime. If the classroom has 10 children and two teachers, both adults may conduct small group instruction activities simultaneously, with one group focusing on language acquisition and the other focusing on fine-motor development. The instruction formats may be
similar with respect to individualized learning goals, use of multisensory materials, and frequent shifts of teacher attention across children to facilitate engagement. Children may have to wait while teachers work with other children, find materials and organize them, or record child responses. Some children may have to wait again if teachers require all children in both groups to meet learning goals before they move together to free play.

During free play each teacher might focus on individual children, using incidental teaching to elaborate language skills (Hart & Risley, 1978, 1980) or other personally-mediated interventions, such as prompting and shaping, to expand fine motor abilities by using small play materials (Bailey & Wolery, 1984). If materials are accessible and interesting, engagement should occur frequently. Problems may develop, however, when teachers ask children to replace materials and move to the large group area. Some children will clean up quickly, have nothing to do, and try to leave the area or misbehave, thus causing problems for the teachers who are assisting the remaining children with clean up.

After the free play area has been cleaned, teachers and children would move together to an area in the classroom designated for large group. Once again the sequential schedule requires teachers and children to be in the same place at the same time, as movement to the next activity occurs only when all of the children (or perhaps a group of children) have completed learning goals.

Concurrent scheduling and assignment of staff to areas. In a concurrent schedule activities overlap, teachers are assigned to conduct activities in specific areas of the classroom, and are responsible for children who enter their area (LeLaurin & Risley, 1972). Because activities occur concurrently, children can move individually from one activity to another when they are ready or when they have met a learning goal. Using the same activities described above to illustrate, suppose that free play is scheduled to occur at the same time as an instruction activity. One teacher might be responsible for the instruction activity and the other responsible for supervising children in the free play area. As children meet their individual instruction goals, they would move to the free play area and have their places taken by children sent from free play by the teacher assigned there. Rotation between instruction and free play would continue until all children scheduled for instruction met their learning goals. Children in the free play area might be encouraged by the teacher to elaborate or practice skills acquired during instruction by using incidental teaching (Hart & Risley, 1978, 1980) or other personally-mediated procedures (Bailey & Wolery, 1984).

After the teacher has completed the instruction activity, she or he could assist with free play. Then, shortly before large group, a teacher could leave free play to select and organize materials for the large group activities. Preparation might be a cue for the other teacher to begin instructing some of the children to start cleaning up. As children finish their assigned task, they could move individually to the large group area where the teacher who will lead the activity is waiting. When several children have arrived, part of
the activity, such as a song, could begin. In this manner all of the children will finish cleaning eventually and join the large group activity. None of them will have to wait too long and all will be supervised. Concurrent schedules with assignments of staff to areas, therefore, promote engagement by reducing the amount of time children have to wait. Of course, the contribution of group size and staff/child ratio used in these examples is only one of many possibilities. A greater number of staff provides the opportunity of scheduling additional concurrent activities.

The inadvertent programming of waiting. Low levels of engagement in early childhood classrooms result not only from poorly organized physical environments but also from the inadvertent programming of unnecessary waiting. Waiting periods rob children of opportunities to engage and learn; they also set many occasions for the occurrence of behavior problems. Waiting is one of the unfortunate by-products of a sequential schedule of activities through which teachers, staff, and children move (Twardosz & Risley, 1982). Because concurrent schedules permit assignments of teachers to areas through which children move individually, they reduce waiting time and with it occasions that are likely to cause behavior problems.

Waiting is most likely to occur during transitions between activities that are scheduled sequentially because there is no concurrent activity in which children can participate. As the examples above illustrate, children had to wait until both adults supervising instruction completed individual learning goals. They also had to wait because the sequential schedule left little time for teachers to locate and organize materials. Children who cleaned up and seated themselves for the group activity had to wait until all of the children arrived before the activity began. In this type of situation, children who followed instructions and completed tasks were rewarded by having to wait, while those who did not received additional prompts and attention.

In addition to the above examples, sequential schedules can cause waiting at other times. Meal times, for example, often produce a lot of waiting because the food is not ready by the time the children are seated at the table. Children who are dressed and ready to go outside may have to wait in line until all the children are ready. In many of these situations children are likely to be frustrated and begin to whine, cry, complain, aggress, or try to leave the area. Teachers will have to attend to some of these behaviors, of course, and may try to manage them by using contingency management procedures. Not only is this inappropriate (because waiting is the problem, not individual children), it is bound to make other children who are waiting patiently wait even longer, thus wasting additional time that could have been used for learning. Of course, it must be recognized that the permanent physical features of some buildings may prevent the operation of concurrent scheduling during parts of the day because children and teachers must move long distances for some activities.

To summarize, it is very important that teachers understand how to organize classrooms so that all children have opportunities to learn through
activity-based instruction, and to initiate, elaborate, and generalize skills through a variety of play experiences. The physical features of classrooms should call forth established behaviors and set numerous occasions for practice and exploration. Activity schedules and assignment of teacher responsibilities should make it possible for children to engage materials, activities, and people through the provision of concurrent activities and very limited periods of waiting. Classrooms that are organized in this manner will prevent many mild problem behaviors by setting the occasion for engagement.

**An Integrative Perspective**

Effective organization of classrooms requires that teachers understand how the physical aspects of the environment work together with programmatic aspects, such as activity scheduling and staff assignments. Even if the physical features of classrooms are arranged to be functional and responsive, activity schedules or methods of assigning staff responsibilities may prevent children from benefitting from them. For example, there may be a free play area stocked with inviting toys that children can use for only brief periods during the day because small group instruction and waiting to move from activity to activity occupy much of the time. Or, a teacher may have planned an excellent instruction activity only to discover that the method of assigning staff responsibility does not permit him or her to remain in the instruction area when problems develop elsewhere in the classroom. If children have to wait for the group to complete instruction tasks instead of being reinforced for task completion by moving individually to a more preferred activity (Baer, Rowbury, & Baer, 1973; McEvoy & Brady, 1988), the teacher is likely to find that many of the children progress more slowly than she or he had hoped. Being able to integrate the physical, social, and programmatic aspects of classrooms to achieve program goals, therefore, is critical for maximizing engagement and preventing mild behavior problems.

**Recognizing Some Signs of Poor Organization**

There are several signs of poor organization that teachers can look for in early childhood classrooms to determine whether behavior problems are best addressed by reorganizing certain aspects of the classroom or implementing personally-mediated interventions. Some of the most common signs are presented below.

First, low levels of engagement usually indicate an organization problem. Therefore, a determination should be made of the level of engagement within and across activities. This can be done by conducting several PLA-Check observations (Risley & Cataldo, 1974) and looking for trouble spots (e.g., activities or transition periods that consistently are associated with low levels of engagement).

Second, the nature and extent of behavior problems may suggest organizational difficulties. Problems exhibited by only one or two children, for example, usually mean that the environment is not at fault, but the same prob-
lem in a number of children often indicates that the environment needs to be reorganized.

Third, excessive waiting is an important indication of a poorly organized classroom. Therefore, it is a good idea to examine the daily schedule and observe its operation to obtain an approximation of the average time that children wait within and between activities. Instructional activities, self-care routines, and transition periods should be examined first because they are more likely to reveal a waiting problem. If observations show that children frequently have to wait at these times, it is probably because of the activity schedule and assignment of responsibilities. Waiting can often be reduced substantially by programming concurrent activities and assigning teachers to areas.

Fourth, the affective tone of the teachers might be a sign of organizational problems. When teachers rarely smile at the children or one another, classroom organization may be creating a work atmosphere that is depressing, inefficient, and unrewarding. Classrooms that are well organized may also tend to encourage expressions of affection toward children (Nordquist et al., in press).

In addition to recognizing the above signs, care should be taken not to draw conclusions too quickly. Suppose, for example, that a teacher expresses concern about an individual child who shows very little interest in play materials. A quick solution might call for personally-mediated interventions such as shaping toy use, reinforcing toy use with praise, or making access to a preferred activity contingent on toy use (Bailey & Wolery, 1984). However, additional observations may reveal that a number of children show little interest in the play materials. In this case it may be necessary to assess children's toy preferences (Favel & Cannon, 1976) or add new materials to the classroom. Maybe teachers are not in a position to facilitate use of materials and therefore a different schedule and assignment of responsibilities is needed. Perhaps children's access to the materials is impeded, suggesting that traffic lanes need to be evaluated. On the other hand, access may be impeded only for an individual child (e.g., one who has a visual impairment and cannot see the areas or materials very well). In this case it might be necessary to modify the environment further by including cues that facilitate movement (e.g., sandpaper lines on the floor) or stimulate tactile and olfactory senses (e.g., using paints that produce familiar smells often associated with specific colors). It may even be necessary to place the child in a more appropriate program if the classroom cannot be modified or adapted sufficiently to meet the child's needs.

Finally, some behavior problems may be so serious that they require immediate intervention. Severe disruptive, aggressive, or self-injurious behaviors, for example, must be controlled immediately regardless of how poorly organized the classroom environment may be. However, efforts should then be made to determine if aspects of classroom organization might be contributing to such problems in order to help prevent them in the future.
Conclusion

Although most children will benefit immensely from an integrated approach to classroom organization, some will not, either because they lack skills or motivation, or because they have serious behavior problems. In either case individual interventions will be necessary to deal effectively with the problems. However, a well-designed environment can make it easier for teachers to use personally-mediated training or contingency management procedures (Twardosz, 1984). Area assignments and open space allow teachers to focus attention on individual children and mediate engagement by prompting, shaping, or reinforcing appropriate behaviors (Bailey & Wolery, 1984). A rich environment comprised of varied and preferred materials also enhances the effects of some contingency management procedures; timeout, for example (Solnick, Rinzcyer, & Petersen, 1977). Thus, a well-organized classroom may not prevent every type of behavior problem from occurring, but it does make it possible for teachers to use personally-mediated procedures more effectively than a poorly organized classroom.

References


