semester 1

Child Development

FACULTY RESOURCES
Associate Degree in Education/
B.Ed. (Hons) Elementary

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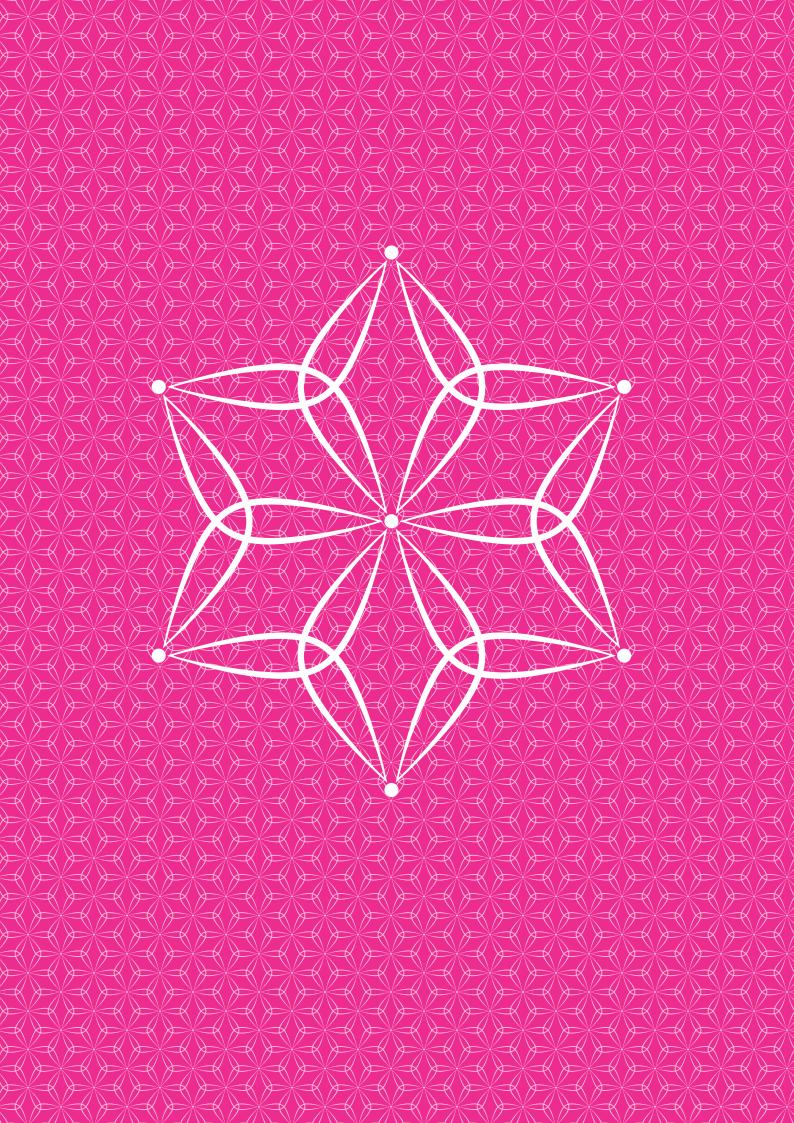Higher Education Commission

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Introduction

CHILD DEVELOPMENT
FACULTY RESOURCES

Introduction

Faculty Resources is a collection of readings and materials to supplement the course in child development. It includes readings for Student Teachers as well as resources for faculty. *Faculty Resources* includes notes, readings, student activities, and additional materials such as student handouts. The Student Teacher Readings are drawn from diverse sources and include articles from both academic and popular media, work-sheets, and other materials. *Faculty Resources* is organized by unit so that the readings and materials parallel the structure of the course. In some cases, reflection questions are included at the conclusion of the readings to help guide students in thinking about content. A glossary of terms may be found in the Appendix.

Most resources and readings are matched to a particular session. Faculty will find them listed under the lesson options in the Course Guide. Not all readings have been assigned to specific course sessions, however. Other readings are included to provide choices and extra information. A complete list of unit-specific readings can be found at the beginning of each unit in the Course Guide. Usually readings should be assigned before the session in which they are discussed.

All materials have been written under the auspices of the USAID's Teacher Education Project in Pakistan unless otherwise noted. <u>They are for educational purposes only and may not be included in other works offered for sale</u>. Faculty are free, however, to duplicate and distribute them to students as needed.

UNIT 1

Unit 1, week 1, session 2: Psychosocial models
Student Teacher Reading

Erik Erikson's Theory of Child Development

Erik Erikson's theory is a psychosocial theory. Most people who know his work talk about his stages of human development from birth to old age. Erikson thought that people experience a series of life stages. Each has 1) a crisis and 2) a task. The crisis stimulates growth. How a person resolves the crisis will affect their overall social, psychological, emotional, and cognitive development. If the crisis is not resolved, it will be an issue for years to come. So it is important to resolve the crisis in a healthy way.

Trust vs. mistrust (0–1 year-old)
Erikson thought that if infants are treated in a loving way and their needs are met, they learn to trust. If not, they become mistrusting. This is true even when they are very young. Parents or caregivers should encourage the growing child to try things. When the child fails, he or she needs reassurance and love. This helps the child develop a healthy sense of autonomy. But some children are always being told 'no' and treated as if they can't do anything for themselves. Such children begin to feel shame and self-doubt.

Autonomy vs. shame/doubt (2–4 years old)
When they reach preschool age, children need encouragement to start and finish tasks. They need to learn how to cooperate and to make good choices. If this does not happen, they feel guilty because they always seem to fail. Their imagination and independence do not flourish.

Learning initiative vs. guilt (4–5 years old)
By school age, children are forming friendships and following rules. They want to work hard, be responsible, and 'be good'. When parents or teachers do not encourage them, recognize their accomplishments, and support their efforts, they can develop feelings of being inferior.

Industry vs. inferiority (5–12 years old)
Adolescents are exploring who they are as unique persons. They want to know what their place is in the world. They depend on their peers. They need parents and teachers to be patient with their need to know 'Who am I?' and to provide teens with boundaries and freedom.

Stages of play

Erikson also talked about stages of play as a way of understanding psychological and social needs. Erikson points out that the baby begins to play before we know it. She plays with self: sounds, feet, and hands. But at about 18 months old, babies begin to use small toys in a new way. They seem to understand that toys are not a part of themselves. They include glasses, noses, and hands of caregivers in their play, too. They use play to act out feelings. They explore rules and begin to master their world.

From about four years old, the child is able to engage in cooperative play with toys and tools. Sharing play is a way of exploring the social world.

Erikson believed that we need all three kinds of play all of our lives. Sometimes we need to be alone to think and figure things out. We meditate, take a walk, sing, or just reflect. Sometimes we need to work with things, but alone—by doing calligraphy, putting together a picture puzzle, making a quilt, cooking, playing ball, or working with something that allows us to express our feelings. But at other times, we really need other people.

Erikson and education

Many teachers like to use Erikson's stages of play as a way of thinking about the classroom environment. Does the classroom provide a place for being alone? Does it provide opportunity for exploring ideas with materials and small toys? Are there times for cooperative work?

Reflection questions

Erikson's stage theory can be helpful to teachers, too. Here are some questions to think about:

- In what ways might teachers benefit from knowing about Erikson?
- Can you identify any of Erikson's stages in your own experience?

Unit 1, week 1, session 2: Psychosocial models
Student Teacher Activity

Identifying Erikson's Stages of Child Development

(S)

This activity will give you the chance to try out your knowledge of Erikson's theory. See if you can match each situation described below with one of the psychosocial stages Erikson talks about. Do you think that the child described is going to move through the stage in a healthy way, or not? If not, what might need to happen to help the child develop in a healthy way?

Erikson's Stages
Trust vs. mistrust
Autonomy vs. shame / doubt
Initiative vs. guilt
Industry vs. inferiority
Identity vs. identity diffusion (role confusion)

1) It is cricket season and eight-year-old Hafiz is very excited. Last spring he was one of the best players on the team and every time it was his turn, he made a hit, winning the game for the team! Hafiz's friends and parents are really looking forward to him serving as captain of the team this season.

2) Six-year-old Kamran doesn't want to eat the vegetables that his mother made for him. He refuses to eat that part of his dinner. After waiting for an hour for Kamran to eat his vegetables, his mother gives up and lets him play on the computer.

3) Baby Saadia's mother feeds her every three or four hours, burps her, walks with her when she is upset or crying, and makes sure she is dressed warmly every time she goes outside for a walk with her.

4) Twelve-year-old Asra's parents are doctors. Her grandparents are also doctors. In fact, Asra's parents have told her that one day she will be entering the same university they attended for her medical degree. Asra waits for just the right time to tell her parents that she is not doing well in school and does not expect to pass her exams in at least two subjects.

5) It is time for three-year-old Fatima to get ready for bed. Her mother asks Fatima to brush her teeth while she cleans the dishes. Fatima insists on helping her mother, and she grabs a hand towel to dry the dishes. She reaches up and knocks over a cup, which breaks on the floor. Her mother thanks her for trying to help. She reminds Fatima that she will be a big help if she does her own job: brushing her teeth.

Unit 1, week 1, session 3: Behaviourism and socio-cultural models
Student Teacher Reading

Behaviourism and Social Learning Theory

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Behaviourism

Many learning theories are based on behaviourism. Behaviourists think that all the things that people do, from acting to thinking and feeling, are behaviours. People learn as they are *conditioned* by experience. What a person is feeling or thinking is not as important as what a person is doing. Biological make-up or a person's background is not as important as the experiences a person has. Learning is understood as a change in behaviour. Two important theorists who hold this perspective are Watson and Skinner.

John Watson believed that things we can observe directly (stimuli and response, or S-R) should be the focus of study. Watson said that he could take any child and turn them into anything he wanted—from doctor to thief—if he had complete control over their environment. Watson's most famous experiment shows how he thought stimulus-response associations could be controlled.

Watson conducted an experiment with a nine-month-old baby, Albert. He taught Albert to fear a 'neutral stimulus'. The stimulus was a white rat. At first, Albert was curious and wanted to play with the rat. But Watson played a loud, frightening sound whenever the rat appeared. As a result of the conditioning with the noise, Albert cried whenever he saw the rat.

B. F. Skinner believed that reward (or reinforcement) and punishment form children's behaviour. According to his theory, when we want a child to behave in a certain way, we watch for the behaviour and follow it with positive reinforcement. For example, we might smile, praise the child, or offer a new toy. Behaviours that we do not want can be discouraged by punishment. For example, we might take away privileges or frown to show disapproval.

Criticisms of behaviourist theory include:

- Making something happen by conditioning children does not explain child development in natural contexts.
- Behaviourism offers too narrow a view of important environmental influences.
- Behaviourism underestimates the extent to which children actively contribute to their own development.

Social learning theory

Social learning theory builds on behaviourist theory. It includes inner motivation. It also challenges the idea that learning represents a change in behaviour. Alfred Bandura is associated with social learning theory.

Alfred Bandura thought that when the child observes, he or she learns behaviour such as helping, sharing, selfishness, or aggression. They even learn the ways people expect boys and girls to act differently. Children watch and listen to others around

them. Social learning theory talks about three things that people need to learn and model behaviour. These are: retention (remembering what one observed), reproduction (ability to reproduce the behaviour), and motivation (good reason) to want to adopt the behaviour. Bandura later introduced more cognitive elements to his theory. He began to focus on motivation as well as environment as factors that influence learning. He introduced the idea of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is a person's belief in his or her ability to succeed in a particular situation. Bandura believed self-efficacy is a powerful influence on how people think, behave, and feel.

Using behaviourist theory in education

Behaviour modification is often used with children who have behaviour problems. It uses conditioning to eliminate children's undesirable behaviours and increase their socially acceptable behaviour.

Self-efficacy is important in learning. The child who thinks they can succeed is more likely to succeed. Teachers can promote self-efficacy through:

- setting up environments that are age appropriate and welcoming to children
- accepting that every child has something important to offer
- believing every child can learn
- using methods of teaching that allow children to experience success and gain confidence.

Unit 1, week 1, session 3: Behaviourism and socio-cultural models
Student Teacher Reading

Socio-Cultural Theory: Lev Vygotsky

Lev Vygotsky investigated child development and the important roles of cultural mediation and interpersonal communication. He observed how higher mental functions developed through these interactions also represented the shared knowledge of a culture. This process is known as internalization.

Internalization can be understood in one respect as 'knowing how'. For example, riding a bicycle or pouring a cup of milk are tools of society and initially outside and beyond the child. The mastery of these skills occurs through the activity of the child within society. A further aspect of internalization is appropriation, in which the child takes a tool and makes it his own, perhaps using it in a way unique to himself. Internalizing the use of a pencil allows the child to use it very much for his own ends rather than draw exactly what others in society have drawn previously.

Guided participation, which takes place when creative thinkers interact with a knowledgeable person, is practiced around the world. Cultures may differ, though, in the goals of development. For example, Mayan mothers in Guatemala help their daughters learn to weave through guided participation.

Less known is Vygotsky's research on play, or children's games, as a psychological phenomenon and its role in the child's development. Through play the child develops abstract meaning separate from the objects in the world, which is a critical feature in the development of higher mental functions.

Best known for work on language and thought

Social context is important to Vygotsky. He believed that it influences all human development. For Vygotsky, development is the result of the interactions between children and their social environment. In his view, social interaction comes before development. Consciousness and cognition are the end product of socialization and social behaviour. Social context and environment can include interactions with parents, teacher, friends, and sibling and with objects such as books and toys. Children are active in making these interactions. They construct knowledge, skills, and attitudes. They do not just copy the world around them. Language is critical. People use social and cultural tools such as speech and writing to mediate their environment.

The zone of proximal development (ZPD)

The ZPD is those concepts or skills a child had begun to develop but has not mastered. Vygotsky talks about an understanding or skill that is a 'bud' or 'flower' rather than a fully developed 'fruit'. It is this stage of development that the teacher should nurture. With help, a child can understand and do new things.

Using Vygotsky's theory in education

Vygotsky's theory is one of the foundations of constructivist theory in education. Constructivist theory holds that learning is co-constructed by a learner and the environment (including teachers and other children). Teachers can support language development and help to build bridges from what they know to the unknown. Rich, interactive learning environments will support children's learning.

Unit 1, week 2, session 4: Cognitive models
Student Teacher Reading

Cognitive Theories

Piaget's cognitive theory

Jean Piaget is the best-known cognitive development theorist. He focuses on children's logical thinking processes and how they change over time. Children play an active role in their own development

Piaget's research is known around the world. It describes emotional development, peer relationships, moral reasoning, and cognitive development. When he first began working, Piaget was interested in biology. He studied how the brain processes information.

The environment provides information. Interaction with people and the environment is critical for cognitive development. As mental structures (schemas) are formed, new information is included or new structures are created to accommodate the new information.

Children observe the world around them. They make decisions about the world from their observation. They are naturally curious. Their ideas are very different in kind from others at different ages or stages. Their ideas are based on how they have made sense of things. A little child who notices that the sun shines when he gets up and goes down when he goes to bed may conclude that the sun follows his schedule. The young child may think, 'It is morning because I have to get up'.

As they form schemas, or groups of similar thoughts, these schemas become part of larger mental groups or operations. Children adapt to their environment through assimilation and accommodation. Assimilation is when people deal with a new event in a way that is consistent with an existing scheme. When new events or objects are unfamiliar, people use accommodation, or modify or create a new scheme.

Piaget's four stages of cognitive development:

- Sensori-motor development (0–2 years). The infant is learning through movement and observation.
- Preoperational thought (2–7 years). The child is forming ideas, but the child can only view the world from its own perspective (egocentrism).
- Concrete operations (7–11 years). Now the child can consider the viewpoints of others. The child can understand relational concepts. However, the child cannot solve problems of an abstract nature.
- Formal operations (11–15). Abstract thinking is now possible and scientific problem-solving strategies emerge.

Bruner's cognitive theory

Jerome Bruner is a cognitive psychologist who had a great deal of influence on education. He describes three modes of representation or thinking about things:

- Enactive representation is based on movement and direct involvement with things. Thoughts are based on concrete, direct experience.

- Iconic representation is semi-concrete. It involves images or models of concrete things (icons) that help the individual understand the idea or concept.

- Symbolic representation involves language. It is abstract thinking and does not require the concrete thing or experience to mediate understanding.

Bruner does not propose an ages-and-stages theory. His modes of representation are only loosely related to age. Bruner suggests that even young children can learn complex material if the instruction is organized properly. It must be organized in a way that allows progression from concrete to abstract. He also identifies the need that people have to put things into groups or categories to understand them. He also talks about scaffolding learning.

A scaffold is a temporary framework that is erected to support a structure that is being built. Bruner first suggested that scaffolding occurs in early language learning. Parents seem to know how to scaffold their children's attempts to use words to be understood. A child may not be able to explain or explore learning independently. But if the teacher provides ways of handling the task that support greater independence—for example, materials, a problem to work out, key questions, an outline, or an interesting task—the child can do it.

Using cognitive theory in education

Following Piaget's theory, teachers should:

- Give students opportunities to experiment with physical objects such as water, sand, balls, colour paints, and by going on nature walks. Adolescent students can experiment with science lab equipment, cameras, food, and cooking tools.

- Help students reason through giving problem-solving tasks and deep questions.

- Remember the four stages when developing lesson plans to help guide thinking.

- Present new situations that challenge students to rethink their current understandings.

- Plan group activities so that students can share their beliefs and perspectives with one another.

Bruner's theory suggests:

- When facing new material a student can go from concrete to abstract and achieve success.

- Teachers should provide scaffolding for students to differentiate instruction by using concrete, semi-concrete, and abstract examples and materials in their teaching.

- Children benefit from experiences that allow them to categorize information through use of materials as well as ideas.

Unit 1, week 2, session 4: Cognitive models
Student Teacher Reading

Piaget: Changing Ideas About Children's Learning

Jean Piaget changed the way people think about how children learn. People used to think that if you want to teach something to a young child, you just need to make it more simple. Piaget argued that children think about things in a very different way than adults. To teach them, you have to understand how they think. He believed that a teacher does more than a give a child knowledge. The teacher is an observer and guide. The can help children build their own language and develop their thinking.

When Piaget graduated from college, he got a job in Paris. He worked to standardize IQ tests. He needed to be sure that questions were right for children. That is when he began to notice how children think in ways different from adults. He noticed that many children of the same ages gave the same kinds of incorrect answers. Piaget wondered why.

Piaget talked with hundreds of children. He learned from them. One thing that he learned is that when a child makes a mistake, the child usually knows it. They naturally explore and learn how to correct their mistakes. They learn how to learn. Piaget thought that teachers should learn from children's mistakes. By observing children and studying their mistakes, the teacher can learn how they are thinking and where they need help. The teacher's job is to help children construct their own knowledge by providing support—materials, questions, and opportunities.

Piaget explored the 'why' questions that children ask. He learned that children draw conclusions based on the way things look to them. To a young child, it may seem like the sun gets up because he has to get up. Or it may seem that the sun goes to bed because she has to go to bed. Children are interested in things. They love to explore. They ask about almost everything. Their conclusions are based on evidence: evidence as they understand it. Piaget then concluded that child thinking is different in kind than adult thinking.

Piaget has been criticized. For example, Margaret Donaldson said that Piaget underestimated young children. She used several experiments to show that with language and meaningful tasks, younger children can think logically. She also challenged Piaget's idea that children are egocentric. She believed that children can see things from another person's point of view. They aren't very good at it, but they can do it. Many adults have trouble seeing things from another person's perspective, too.

Applying Piaget's theory in your programme

The art of applying Piaget's theories in your programme is in making children's experiences hands-on and concrete. Remember, children need to explore the nature of things through trial and error.

- Introduce unusual materials to encourage exploration.

- Encourage children to talk about changes they notice when manipulating objects.

- Invite children to learn more about the world through field studies and trips.

- Treat their mistakes as opportunities to learn more about how they think.

Additional resources

A good discussion of Piaget's work may be found at:

➢ http://www.ecdpak.com/Roots-of-ECE/01-Champion-of-Childrens-Idea.pdf

Unit 1, week 2, session 5: Factors that affect the child—Key issues and controversies

Student Teacher Reading

Key Issues and Controversies: Three Big Debates

Nature vs. nurture

Nature refers to genetic influences on growth and functioning. Some of these influences appear in almost all members of the species; for instance, almost all children have natural talents for upright mobility (walking, running), language, and the use of simple tools. Other genetic characteristics differ from one person to another; for example, people's physical appearance and athletic ability vary widely. Such psychological traits as temperament (for example, being shy or outgoing), aggression, and intelligence may also be partly influenced by genes. Such types of characteristics are not always perceived at birth. Many come about slowly by maturation. Although certain basic kinds of environmental support, such as food, are necessary for maturation, a person's genes provide powerful instructions for certain changes to occur despite a wide range of environmental factors.

Nature's equal partner is *nurture*, the influence of factors in children's environments. Nurture includes the effects of family, peers, schools, neighbourhoods, culture, the media, and the society in which people live. It affects children's development by many ways—physically through nutrition and opportunities for activity, knowledge-wise through experience and instruction, socially through adult role models and friendships. Historically, the relative influences of nature versus nurture have caused much debate among developmental theorists; you will find many instances during this course. But increasingly, those who study development are beginning to realize that nature and nurture connect in ways that we can probably never separate.

- The relative effects of heredity and environment vary for different categories of development. For example, many traits related to seeing and hearing appear to be genetic. On the other hand, development in school subjects and strong ability in athletics or artistic ability appear to be brought about by environment.

- Inherited characteristics may cause children to be more strongly impacted by environmental influences. For example, children who are by nature quiet and shy may stay this way if they live in a situation with few social contacts.

- Some environmental experiences play a greater role at some ages than others. For example, children seem to master the grammar of a language better if they are exposed before age four.

Universality vs. context specific

Some changes occur in just about everyone; this reflects a degree of universality in development. For example, unless disabilities are present, all young children learn to sit, crawl, walk, and run in that order. Other changes are highly individualistic, reflecting a context-specific nature. For example, children differ in strength and the ability to keep running fast as they engage in physical activity. Some theorists propose that genetics lead to universality. Others say that children acquire similar ways of thinking about the world because, despite their unique interactions with objects and people, they are all likely to see similar things occur (for example, objects always fall down rather than up, people often get angry when something is grabbed away from them).

Continuity vs. discontinuity

Sometimes development comes in sudden, dramatic changes in behaviour or thinking, reflecting discontinuity, or discontinuous change. For example, when children learn to run, they move their bodies forward in a way that is very different from walking. When they begin to talk in two-word sentences rather than with single words, they are, for the first time, using beginner forms of grammar that restricts the ways in which they combine words. More often, however, development occurs as a gradual process, with many small additions to behaviours and thought processes, reflecting continuity, or continuous change.

Theorists' fascination with discontinuous change is reflected in their tendencies to identify development in stages, or fixed periods of time during childhood and adolescence when changes occur. Often however, research does not support theories of stages, at least not that children progress in a fixed, distinct way. Many children display traits of two or more different stages at the same time. At the same time, many researchers are hesitant to abandon the idea of stages because it is clear that children of different ages tend to think and act in extremely different ways.

Additional resources

An in-depth discussion of this topic may be found in T. M. McDevitt, and J. E. Ormrod, *Child Development and Education* (Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill Prentice Hall, 2002), 7–11.

Unit 1, week 2, session 5: Factors that affect the child—Key issues and controversies

Faculty Resource

Comparing Examples of Developmental Theory

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Theorist	Birth: 18 months–2 years	Preschool: 2–4 years	Younger children: 4–6 years	Older children: 7–12 years	Adolescence: 13–19 years
Psychosocial theories					
For example: Erikson	Autocosmic (self) play	Microcosmic play (with small toys and things)	Macrocosmic play (social)		
	Trust vs. mistrust	Autonomy vs. shame / doubt	Learning initiative vs. guilt	Industry vs. inferiority	Learning identity vs. identity diffusion
Social-cultural theories					
For example: Vygotsky	Affiliation	Play		Learning	Peer

Vygotsky's idea of the zone of proximal development is not unlike Bruner's notion of scaffolding. The ZPD is the difference between what a learner can do without help and what he or she can do with help.

Theorist	Birth: 18 months–2 years	Preschool: 2–4 years	Younger children: 4–6 years	Older children: 7–12 years	Adolescence: 13–19 years
Cognitive theories					
For example: Piaget	Sensori-motor	Preoperational		Concrete operations	Formal operational
For example: Bruner	Enactive, concrete, psychomotor	Iconic, semi-concrete		Abstract	

Bruner does not assign ages and stages, but his modes of learning roughly fall into early childhood, childhood, and beyond. He is also considered the father of constructivism because of his idea about learning by scaffolding, or how a child can reach beyond what he or she might do without support.

Behavioural theories For example: Watson, Skinner	Behavioural theories do not offer ages and stages of development, but instead they focus on the study of behaviour and how to shape it through conditioning by reinforcement and punishment.
Social learning theories For example: Bandura	In this this theory, people learn through observation, mental stages are essential to learning, and not all learning leads to a change in behaviour. Observing can be of a model, through verbal descriptions of things, or symbolic through books, film, and the like that describe behaviour of fictional characters. Self-efficacy is a person's belief in his or her ability to succeed in a particular situation. It is a powerful influence on how people think, behave, and feel.

Unit 1, week 2, session 5: Factors that affect the child—Key issues and controversies
Student Teacher Activity

Review: Comparing Examples of Developmental Theory

The blank form of the table is for student review any time during the course and following. Remember: the theorists given here are only examples of theories on development.

Theorist	Birth: 18 months–2 years	Preschool: 2–4 years	Younger children: 4–6 years	Older children: 7–12 years	Adolescence: 13–19 years
Psychosocial theories					
For example: Erikson Forms of play					
Life stages					
Social-cultural theories					
For example: Vygotsky					
The ZDP is:					

Theorist	Birth: 18 months–2 years	Preschool: 2–4 years	Younger children: 4–6 years	Older children: 7–12 years	Adolescence: 13–19 years
Cognitive theories					
For example: Piaget					
For example: Bruner					
Bruner's idea about scaffolding is:					
Behavioural theories					
For example: Watson, Skinner	Behavioural theories focus on:				
Social learning theories					
For example: Bandura	People learn through: Self-efficacy is:				

UNIT 2

Unit 2, week 3, session 7: Unit introduction: Preschool child development
Student Teacher Reading

Ready to Learn or Already Learning?

The amount of development that happens to a baby in the first few years of life is astonishing. Understanding what they have accomplished is important for teachers in a number of ways.

First of all, schools usually focus on developing the mind. Teachers and parents know that children who are ready for school already know how to do many things. But most people think that *real* learning begins in school. The child entering school is seen as someone who is ready to be formed. The child is ready for real learning: reading, writing, doing mathematics, and the like.

Children do not go to school ready to learn: *they have been learning all along*. Children are more than a lump of clay ready for a teacher to shape into a scholar. What any child has done in the first five years of life is a miracle. In five short years, a child has doubled and doubled again in size. He has learned how to talk. She has learned how to get along in her family. Every child knows a lot about the world around them. Based on how things feel and look, the child has made sense of their world and the people in it. Development has been going on in mind, body, emotions, and spirit.

Teachers and even parents often think of children entering school in terms of what they don't know. But think how much a child already knows! The preschool years are years of enormous accomplishment. When we really understand what each little child has already accomplished, our attitude should be one of *profound* respect and appreciation.

A second thing that teachers who understand child development know is that the ways of knowing a child has mastered are different than what schools will offer. The child has been learning how to live successfully by direct experience. When family and friends have supported the child, they believe the world is good and the adults in it are to be trusted. When the child has not been given the love, attention and support that they have needed, that child comes with mistrust and may find that it isn't easy to accept what a teacher has to give. The kind of knowledge the child brings will show up in how they act.

Every child comes with a long list of accomplishments. The child has organized the world into categories that have meaning and make sense to her. The way she understands the world and how things work in the world, has been formed through direct, concrete experience with things and people. For example, the child knows how to walk because she has done it. Knowing how to walk is not the same as knowing about walking. Her family may have tried to teach her to walk or helped her as she took her first steps, but she walked when she was ready. Growth and development were happening. She saw the people around her walking and she wanted to do it, too. But she didn't reason it out in the same way she will later reason about things and events. Learning to walk is knowledge in being. When she begins to read, the child can draw meaning from reading *about* walking because she already knows how to walk. But she did not learn to walk because she read *about* it! She did not have a checklist of things she needed to do in order to walk. The *concept* of walking is formed in the mind as a mental construct that can be thought about and read about. It can be understood through language, but it isn't the same as actually walking.

Teachers who understand child development will respect that when children form new concepts, they do so on the basis of direct experience. Sometimes concepts take on a life of their own. Sometimes teachers introduce new concepts as if they were things-in-themselves rather than ways of representing things. Often, preschool children are introduced to concepts without really understanding the actual things they represent. They are taught something like: $4 + 4 = 8$. This is presented as a great truth. In itself, $4 + 4 = 8$ has no meaning for the child. They are asked to learn it, but unless they have experiences with things that require them to group four things with four other things and conclude that they now have eight things all together, the concept of $4 + 4$ equalling 8 is empty. If they stop to wonder about it, they often feel confused. They may memorize $4 + 4 = 8$ because it is important to the teacher, but it has no meaning in itself.

School often asks children to live in a world of ideas that seem out of touch with their own personal experience. The teacher who understands child development should be able to respect the child's way of understanding and need for concrete experiences. Concrete experiences can then be a bridge to forming new concepts. Only as the child continues to develop should we expect that he or she can understand the nature of things through introduction to abstract concepts without direct experience of them.

Another thing that teachers will know if they really understand child development is two truths that seem to contradict each other: 1) Every child is like every other child, and 2) Every child is unique. In the first case, all children go through a similar process of development. But they do so in their own unique way. Their passage through stages of development is shaped by their family and culture. But it is also shaped by themselves and by their own unique, direct experiences and biological make-up. The teacher who knows this will not make the mistake of expecting all children to be the same. That teacher will also understand the needs that all children share.

So the message for the teacher is: Be thankful in the presence of the wonderful knowledge and skills that children bring to school. Be mindful that all the great truths we have to teach them from our world of concepts and symbols are there to enrich life. Helping the child to discover them and incorporate them meaningfully should be a joyful experience.

In other words, never forget that all the human knowledge we have to pass along to children is not more important than they are! Always remember that our traditions of knowledge are meaningful to children when they help them to learn in ways that are consistent with how they have been thinking and growing for the few years that they have been alive. They've been good at it. We should use their expertise rather than trying to replace it with 'school knowledge'. We can then respectfully build bridges between what we know and what they know.

Frances Schoonmaker, Professor Emeritus, Teachers College, Columbia University

Additional resources

For a philosophical discussion of this subject, see P. Phenix, '*Promoting Personal Development Through Teaching*', Teachers College Record, 84 (1982), 301–16.
➢ http://www.tcrecord.org

Unit 2, week 3, session 8: The three domains of toddler development
Faculty Resource

Fact Sheet on Toddler Development

The first year of a child's development often ends with his or her first step. It is around this time that the child enters their toddler years (word origin: *toddle* (verb): to walk with short and wobbly steps). Toddlerhood is a time of transition. Toddlers are working on two major goals at the same time: 1) maintaining attachment to parents or significant caregivers, and 2) exploring the world and establishing a sense of self. Sometimes the goals are in conflict.

Physical development

- Weight is now approximately three times the child's birth weight.
- Respiration rate varies with emotional state and activity.
- Rate of growth slows.
- Head size increases slowly; grows approximately 1.3 centimetres every six months.
- Chest circumference is larger than head circumference.
- Legs may still appear bowed.
- Toddler will begin to lose the 'baby fat' once they begin walking.
- Body shape changes; takes on more adult-like appearance; still appears top-heavy; abdomen protrudes, back is swayed.

Social development

- Egocentric view of the word, combined with the need to feel autonomous and in control, limits the toddler's ability to share or acknowledge that other people may have different intentions for her (16 months to 3 years).
- Beginning understanding of reciprocity develops through play with peers (two to three years).
- Imitation of parental behaviour implicitly incorporates a beginning understanding of social expectations (two to three years).

Cognitive development

- Intense interest in understanding and learning about the world (one to three years).
- Development of conscious expectations, based on memory of prior experiences; awareness of violations of expectations (18 months to 3 years).
- Ability to observe and imitate others facilitates learning (1 to 3 years).
- Conscious goals and plans: toddlers can formulate plans, consciously remember them, and persist in trying to realize them (18 months and older).

Suitable activities for toddlers

- A warm and supportive interaction with the child builds trust and security.

- An environment rich with materials for the child to sort and explore (these need not be expensive, for example, squares of fabric of different textures, leaves, seeds, or rocks from the environment to look at and classify).

- Scribbling activities with crayons. Dress up and play at adult roles; pretending. Listening to stories. Singing and dancing. Building with large blocks. Playing with toys.

Unit 2, week 3, session 9: Developmentally appropriate practices for toddlers
Student Teacher Reading

The Importance of Childhood Health and Care

There is an important relationship between health, nutrition, and stimulation. Research tells us that an adequate food supply is not enough to assure a child's survival. Neither is access to education nor absence of disease. Children thrive when they have food, shelter, and stimulation within a caring environment. Children need someone to interact with them. Researchers who have studied the relationship between nutrition, care, and development point out that adult–child interaction is essential for healthy growth.

Worldwide economic conditions do not promise a hopeful future for all children. More children will grow up in situations where they cannot get the things they need for survival. Urban slums and squatter settlements are growing and will continue to grow. More children will be born into poverty. Those living in poverty are most at risk of poor physical and psychosocial development.

Young children have different needs at different ages. The youngest children are completely dependent on adults. As they become toddlers, children need a clean, safe environment with someone to watch out for them. They need good eating habits. As they get older, it is possible for children to survive if they figure out ways of getting food and shelter, and avoiding danger. But to grow into healthy adults, children need more.

What children need for healthy growth and development

Infants (birth to one year old)

Infants need:

- Protection from physical danger
- Adequate nutrition
- Adequate health care
- Adults with whom to form attachments
- Adults who can understand and respond to their signals
- Things to look at, touch, hear, smell, and taste
- Opportunities to explore the world
- Appropriate language stimulation

Toddlers (one to three years of age)

Toddlers need everything that infants need, plus:

- Support in acquiring new motor, language, and thinking skills
- A chance to develop some independence
- Help in learning how to control their own behaviour
- Opportunities to begin to learn to care for themselves
- Daily opportunities to play with a variety of objects

Children (three to six years of age, and older)

Children need everything that infants and toddlers need, plus:

- Opportunities to develop fine motor skills
- Encouragement of language through talking, reading, and singing
- Activities that will develop a positive sense of mastery
- Opportunities to learn cooperation, helping, and sharing
- Experimentation with pre-writing and pre-reading skills

The importance of care

A child's requirements for care include much more than keeping the child safe and free from harm. Caregiving behaviours include breastfeeding; providing emotional security and reducing the child's stress; providing shelter, clothing, feeding, bathing, and supervision of the child's toilet; preventing and attending to illness; nurturing and showing affection, interaction, and stimulation; playing and socializing; protecting from exposure to diseases; and providing a relatively safe environment for exploration (Zeitlin 1991, Myers 1992). A second set of caregiving behaviours includes the use of resources outside the family, including health clinics, prenatal care, traditional healers, and members of the extended family network (Engle 1992). All of these behaviours are part of supporting the development of young children.

Many years ago, Hunt (1982) studied infant care and development. He concluded that the quality and type of infant care in different institutions, cultures, and social classes make a difference in the long-term development of the child. Quality and type of care all affect the rate of development, level, and type of cognitive development. Quality and type of care also affect personality characteristics, such as trust and initiative. Many researchers have studied the same problem and support this early study.

Some children survive extreme living conditions, however. They do not show the same effects as other children. Werner (1982) studied children growing up in poverty in Hawaii. Over time, Werner identified children who were able to thrive in spite of conditions that would lead us to expect them to be malnourished and show signs of cognitive and emotional problems. She called these children *resilient*.

In her research, Werner wanted to identify what makes some children more resilient. She concluded, as have others, that the type of interaction between a child and their interaction makes a difference. The kind of care the child receives and stimulation from the environment are very important. It is not enough to just provide food. The child needs food and care. Later studies have supported the idea that being resilient is not something that comes from within the child. It develops as a result of the particular interactions a child experiences with his or her environment.

H. Ghassemi, M. Zeitlen, and M. Mansour, (eds). *Positive Deviance in Child Nutrition (With Emphasis on Psychosocial and Behavioural Aspects and Implications for Development)* (Tokyo: The United Nations University, 1990).

Reflection questions

- In what ways has the article changed your views about how to support early childhood development?
- How does development change from one phase to the next? What needs remain the same as pre-primary children develop?
- How can the information from this article inform your practice or your approach to working with pre-primary children? With older elementary children?

Additional resources

A discussion of this topic is at the website below. An Urdu version may also be available.
➢ http://www.ecdpak.com/nurture/old/parenting3.asp

This is one of several resources from the Nurture publication. Nurture is published in Pakistan and some of the articles referenced may also be available in Urdu.
Email: nurture@ecdpak.com or visit their website at: www.ecdpak.com.

Unit 2, week 4, session 10: The three domains of preschool child development
Faculty Resource

Fact Sheet on Preschool Child Development

Preschooler (three to five years old)

Preschool is a period of consolidation. Basic skills such as walking gradually begin to become more automatic. They do not require as much conscious attention to task. Performing multiple tasks is still a challenge. Sometimes a child who is focusing on how to use scissors, for example, will fall out of his chair because the attention needed to stay seated has been directed to another task. Or after working and playing cooperatively all day, the preschooler becomes stubborn or explodes into fits of anger. All the control mechanisms seem to be occupied with being tired! Parents and teachers need to be patient with the challenges that preschoolers face and celebrate their enormous accomplishments.

Preschool physical development

- Runs, jumps, climbs, and balances with assurance.
- By the age of five, gross motor skills are well developed.
- Likes risks as well as tests of physical strength and skill.
- Increasing finger control. Can pick up small objects, cut on a line with scissors, hold pencil in adult grasp, and string small beads. (Most children in this age group can begin using toys with smaller components. If child is still mouthing objects, select toys without small parts.)
- Expert builder. Loves small construction materials and also vigorous activity with big blocks and large construction materials.
- Rudimentary interest in ball games with simple rules and scoring.

Preschool cognitive development

- Children become familiar with common shapes and primary colours, and gain interest in simple number activities, alphabet play, copying letters, and matching and sorting.
- Child also sorts and matches, using more than one quality at a time.
- Around the age of four, begins to be purposeful and goal directed, make use of a plan.
- Preschool children increase interest in producing designs, including puzzles, and in constructing play worlds.
- Draws first representational pictures, prefers realism, interest in nature, science, animals, time, how things work, and peak interest in dramatic play.
- Recreates adult occupations, uses costumes and props.

Preschool social development

- Beginning to share and take turns, learning concept of fair play.
- Play is cooperative, practical, and conforming.
- Interested in group pretend play.
- Not ready for competitive play because hates to lose.
- Enjoys simple board games based on chance, not strategy.
- More sex differentiation in play roles and interests.
- Enjoys looking at books and listening to stories from books.

Unit 2, week 4, session 10: The three domains of preschool child development
Faculty Resource

College Students' Beliefs About Preschoolers' Literacy Development: A Discussion

Research suggests that early childhood literacy programmes using college student mentors can be effective for preschoolers. But little is known about the effects of such programmes on the college student mentors. The study summarized here asked what beliefs college student mentors hold about literacy development in preschool children. It asked whether these beliefs change after involvement in an intensive mentoring programme. Participants were in a national programme for at-risk preschoolers using literacy practices that are child centred. National surveys asked students to rate the importance of six literacy practices: (1) having conversations with children where they allow for turn taking and listening as the children talk, (2) following a child's lead in talking, (3) asking questions requiring only one-word answers, (4) allowing the child to pretend read, (5) allowing the child to attempt writing, and (6) engaging the child in rhyming. An additional question asked students to rate the value of play in language development.

The study suggested that before beginning their work as mentors, the college students held some views that were consistent with the six literacy practices they were asked to rate. That is, they already believed the six practices to be important to some extent. These beliefs became stronger after their year-long experience mentoring a preschool child. The most gains were made in understanding the practice of following a child's lead in conversation and in allowing children to pretend to read to adults.

Similarly, many college students initially thought that using activities such as flash cards to drill students were a good idea. Their views changed after their mentoring experience. They began to think of literacy as focusing on the child rather than the skills of reading.

Results from this study indicate that one-on-one mentoring programmes can have an impact on the mentors' beliefs about literacy development and practices. This study indicates that the mentoring experience benefits college students. It may be that field experiences with children who are emerging into literacy would be particularly important for understanding literacy development.

Typically, the preparation of elementary education students does not include field experiences with preschoolers. While these first-hand experiences play a critical role in helping pre-service teachers learn about teaching literacy, most field placements are in kindergarten through eighth grade. This study suggests that preschool placements may be of value for students to gain a deeper understanding of the nature of literacy development, which is an essential component in education methods courses on reading and literacy.

The results also raise questions about how much elementary education students can learn about teaching and learning other subjects such as mathematics, Pakistani studies, and the like by working with preschool students.

Adapted from Martha A. Adler and Mary Trepainer-Street, *'College Students' Beliefs about Preschoolers' Literacy Development: Results from a National Survey of Jumpstart'*, Early Childhood Research and Practice, 9 (2007).

Additional resources

A full report of the study may be found at:

➢ http://ecrp.uiuc.edu/v9n2/adler.html

ECRP (*Early Childhood Research and Practice*) is an online journal devoted to the development, care, and education of young children. It is an excellent resource for study of early childhood education.

UNIT 3

Unit 3, week 5, session 15: Encouraging healthy physical development
Faculty Resource

School Health Programme: A Strategic Approach For Improving Health and Education in Pakistan

F

Child development and role of school

The development of children and the quality of their learning depend on a number of factors, including their own health status. Learning healthy behaviour at school will support physical development, and children will take their knowledge of health-helping behaviours home to family and community. There is a strong relationship between the health of students and their learning, also.

Concept of School Health Programme

Improving health conditions and learning among schoolchildren through school-based health and nutrition programmes is not a new concept. School Health Programmes are primarily based on two beliefs: 1) healthy students learn better and 2) the state should support physical and mental growth of children for their future roles as productive members of society. A third reason is that students can take what they learn about health and hygiene back to their parents and community at large.

Why School Health Programme?

Schools prepare people to work and be leaders in society. Teachers are leaders in their community. They enjoy respect and they can support change. According to the latest statistics, more than 34 million children and young people aged 5 to 24 are enrolled in 228,304 educational institutions in Pakistan (Pakistan Economic Survey [2008–2009], Ministry of Finance, Government of Pakistan, Islamabad, p. 161). These are the future builders of Pakistan.

Basic components or pillars of School Health Programme

A number of factors influence the physical and mental health of schoolchildren and their learning process. These factors include health conditions of the children themselves, the physical and social environment in their school, the quality of life of their parents, their own knowledge about health-promoting practices, and the availability of health services around them. Two of these components are the school health environment and school health education.

School health environment. The school environment plays a key role in the learning outcomes of students. Proper facilities are important for a healthy environment in school.

To be safe, clean, and ready to learn, children at school need:

- Safe, clean drinking water (with regular water-quality monitoring)
- Gender and culturally appropriate sanitation / toilet facilities
- Adequately spacious classrooms
- Comfortable seating arrangements
- Playgrounds etc.
- A child-friendly environment
- Access for the disabled and physically challenged

Without the listed facilities, overall health and mental concentration of students will be negatively affected. Many children are likely to leave the school due to its uncomfortable and unattractive environment.

School health education. Young children are at a greater risk of various infections and diseases. Schools have the responsibility to educate their students and help them to have healthy and hygienic behaviour. They need to warn their students about various health risks and guide them to protect themselves and others against diseases and other forms of ill health by adopting health- and hygiene-promoting habits and practices. Teachers need health training, and health needs to be built into the school curriculum. There should be:

- Education about cleanliness, personal hygiene, and sanitation
- Preventive information against various non-communicable common diseases
- Prevention against communicable diseases, including H1N1 and hepatitis
- HIV and AIDS prevention education
- Anti-drugs and anti-tobacco education
- Healthy food (balanced diet) and clean drinking water
- Sports and physical education
- Environment education
- Life skills–based education
- Orientation of teachers and PTAs / SMCs to stop corporal punishment in schools

Provision of information, knowledge, and skills to children on these subjects will enable them to develop healthy behaviour and protect themselves from diseases and practices that can make them vulnerable to various hazards in their lives.

Adapted from Ministry of Education, Curriculum Wing, Government of Pakistan, Islamabad, in Collaboration with United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), '*School Health Programme: A Strategic Approach for Improving Health and Education in Pakistan*', February 2010.
➢ http://unesco.org.pk/education/documents/publications/School%20Health%20Programme.pdf

Unit 3, week 6, session 16: Cognitive development—Overview and Piaget's concrete operational theory
Student Teacher Reading

Going Deeper: An Overview of Piaget's Theory of Concrete Operations

Piaget considered the age from 7 to 11 a turning point in child development. He labelled it the concrete operational stage. The child becomes able to use logical thinking or operations. Thought is organized into more coherent systems. Though logical thinking is limited to physical—or concrete—objects, children use their minds and reasoning approaches to construct their understanding of the world around them rather than relying entirely on the appearance of things. Children are less egocentric.

Piaget noted a number of accomplishments that occur during this stage.

Conservation

The child understands that something stays the same in mass number and volume even when you redistribute it so that its appearance changes. Conservation requires *decentration*, or focusing on more than one part of a problem at a time. Being able to conserve requires *reversibility*, or the ability to think through steps of a problem and mentally change direction to return to the starting place. The mastery of conservation tasks comes in steps, one at a time, not all at once.

Classification

Children now recognize hierarchies. They can think about more than one category at a time.

Seriation

The child can measure and order items, such as length or weight. The child is able to mentally determine that A is longer than B, B is longer than C, so A is longer than C—mental skills important in mathematics.

Spatial reasoning

Children are able to give and follow directions and create maps of things.

- **Directions**: children are able to change points of reference. They can think about right and left. They can give well-organized directions using a 'mental walk' strategy; that is, imagining how another person moves around.
- **Maps**: children can make maps that show landmarks on a route they travel. They can show an overall view of spaces with correct orientation.

Reflection questions

- As a teacher, how would you use Piaget's idea about concrete operations?
- In what ways is Piaget's description of children at this age like or unlike your own observations of and experiences with children?

Unit 3, week 6, session 16: Cognitive development—Overview and Piaget's concrete operational theory
Student Teacher Activity

Assessing Abilities in Primary Childhood

For each of the following scenarios, make an estimated guess about whether the primary child would have the necessary skills to accomplish this task. Briefly explain your decision.

1) Hafiz wants to learn to play the tabla and likes to drum on tables and on his books.

2) Ismail wants to try out for the advanced soccer team. He is 10 years old, and the players on the advanced team are 13 years old.

3) Jamal wants to put together a model airplane. The kit he would like to purchase has more than 100 small pieces to assemble.

4) Aisha wants to learn to *kathak* dance and practices in the mirror.

5) Azra wants to sew clothes for her dolls.

6) Idris wants to learn how to water-ski.

7) Hamid wants to write short non-fiction essays.

8) Nasrin would like to learn calligraphy.

Unit 3, week 6, session 17: Cognitive development—Industriousness and intelligences

Student Teacher Reading

Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences

Howard Gardner explored ways to understand intelligence besides IQ. Gardner was a researcher in developmental psychology when he introduced his theory of multiple intelligences. He argued that every person has a unique way of learning because there are many different kinds of intelligence. Gardner identified seven specific intelligences: bodily-kinesthetic, interpersonal, intrapersonal, linguistic, logical-mathematical, musical, and spatial. He said that every person has a combination of strengths and weaknesses in these areas.

Many educators welcomed his ideas. They see them as common sense. For example, people with 'body sense' are really good athletes. They might not be as good in music or in logical thinking as they are in sports. Other people really seem to know how to get on with other people. There are people who seem to know what is best for themselves. They make really good choices, while other people seem to make choices that don't seem to be good for them. Gardner's theory suggests that not every person is equally good at everything. We shouldn't expect them to be; instead, we should help them to develop and build on their strengths. Since 1983, when Gardner introduced the idea, he has added two more types of intelligences: naturalistic and existential.

Critics of Gardner's theory say that theories that overemphasize different kinds of intelligence are as simplistic as the theories that overemphasize the role of general intelligence. They also point out that there is no research that offers evidence that Gardner's multiple intelligences are more than branches of one general intelligence.

Additional resources

Read more at 'Howard Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligence Inspires Many in Education', William C. Kashatus, 'The Citizens' Voice'.

➢ http://citizensvoice.com/arts-living/howard-gardner-s-theory-of-multiple-intelligence-inspires-many-in-education-1.1142346#ixzz1Sguqs1S1

Also see Unit 5 for a lengthier discussion of Gardner's theory.

Unit 3, week 6, session 17: Cognitive development—Industriousness and intelligences
Student Teacher Reading

Environmental Strategies to Support Multiple Intelligences

The most significant modification we can make to meet diverse needs is by incorporating and using well-planned learning stations, or centres where children can spend most of their day. Learning stations are temporary activity locations where materials are put out and later put away, usually by an adult. Learning centres are permanent locations, visually and spatially defined, where materials are organized by subject and available for children to select independently. The following suggested learning centres foster the development of each type of intelligence and allow children opportunities to build on and expand their strengths.

Many schools in Pakistan will be able to furnish few if any of the materials to equip learning centres. However, teachers all over the world who face limited resources have learned to create spaces by recycling no-cost and throw-away materials. Think of ways you might equip centres without a budget for one.

Verbal/linguistic

Library or book nook

Story time

Writing centre

Listening centre

Publishing centre

Logical/mathematical

Math centre

Science centre

Take-apart centre

Puzzle centre

Computer centre

Cooking centre

Musical

Music centre

Instrument centre

Singing circle

Listening centre

Visual/spatial

Art centre (e.g. sculpting dough, collage, painting, and drawing)

Block centre

Media centre (e.g. videos, slides, photos, and charts)

Kinesthetic

Gross motor centre (e.g. open space for creative movement, climbing structure)

Dance circle

Wood-working centre

Manipulative centre

Imaginative-play centre

Playground/outdoor play

Tactile-learning centre (e.g. sandpaper letters, sample textures, and cloth)

Interpersonal

Puppet theatres

Dramatic play centre

Sharing/social area

Group discussion area

Cooking centre

Intrapersonal

Lofts

One-person centres and stations

Life skills/self-help centre

Reflection questions

- In what different ways can we measure children's skills and capacities in their primary years?

- Why should teachers pay attention to children's strengths and learning differences if, ultimately, they have to learn the same material?

- What are some no-cost materials you might use to furnish each of the learning centres? What low-cost teaching-learning materials could you or community members make?

Additional resources

For a detailed discussion, see the website below, which is also the source for the table above.

E. Mays, '*Developing Multiple Intelligences in Children*', Nurture: Pakistan's Pioneer Publication on Early Childhood Development, 8.

➤ http://www.ecdpak.com/nurture/Nurture-8/developing_multiple_intelligences_in_children.html

Unit 3, week 6, session 18: Emotional development
Student Teacher Reading

Five Ways to Support Healthy Emotions

Awareness of emotions
Help children identify their emotions. If they are not aware of them, it will be difficult to help them deal with emotions.

Managing our emotions
Naming emotions helps us figure out how to deal with them. It also helps to know that how we feel is okay. We can't help how we feel. But we can choose how we act. Younger children are often afraid of strong emotions. They need an adult to help them find positive ways to express strong emotions such as anger, fear, or hatred. Some examples:

- 'Say it in words. Say how you feel'.
- 'Draw (or paint or shape with clay) how you feel'.
- 'Act out how you feel with stick puppets'.

Build in reasonable expectations
Sometimes children look at what we ask them to do and it seems impossible. Break the work into small bits that they can do. Help them set goals for themselves that are realistic. Then they will have positive emotions and feelings when they meet them.

Play to the child's strengths
Nothing makes us feel better than being successful. Find out what a child can do well and encourage it. Then they will feel better about trying things they aren't so good at.

Develop social competence
Many children do not acquire social skills as part of their normal development. They have to learn how to make friends. They have to learn how to be a friend, too. But having friends and getting along with others help children have positive regard for themselves and positive emotions and feelings.

Unit 3, week 6, session 18: Emotional development
Student Teacher Reading

Children and Stress

S

There is no duty we so much underrate as the duty of being happy. By being happy we sow anonymous benefits upon the world.

(Robert Louis Stevenson)

People all over the world face stress. While some worry about losing their jobs, others are stressed about unfinished homework. Some may worry about a sick member of the family or feel anxious about the effects of global warming. Others fear the effects of terrorism on their lives. Still others worry about how to live with war going on around them. The following article discusses ways to help children cope with stress.

Helping kids cope with stress

To adults, childhood can seem like a carefree time. But kids still experience stress. Things like school and social life can sometimes create pressures that can feel over-whelming for kids. As a parent, you can't protect your kids from stress—but you can help them develop healthy ways to cope with stress and solve everyday problems.

A KidsHealth® KidsPoll showed that kids deal with stress in both healthy and unhealthy ways. It also revealed that while they may not initiate a conversation about what's bothering them, kids do want their parents to reach out and help them cope with their troubles.

But it's not always easy for parents to know what to do for a child who's feeling stressed.

Here are a few ideas:

Notice out loud. Tell your child when you notice that something's bothering him or her. If you can, name the feeling you think your child is experiencing. ('It seems like you're still mad about what happened at the playground'.) This shouldn't sound like an accusation (as in, 'OK, what happened now? Are you still mad about that?') or put a child on the spot. It's just a casual observation that you're interested in hearing more about your child's concern. Be sympathetic and show you care and want to understand.

Listen to your child. Ask your child to tell you what's wrong. Listen attentively and calmly—with interest, patience, openness, and caring. Avoid any urge to judge, blame, lecture, or say what you think your child should have done instead. The idea is to let your child's concerns (and feelings) be heard. Try to get the whole story by asking questions like 'And then what happened?' Take your time. And let your child take his or her time, too.

Comment briefly on the feelings you think your child was experiencing. For example, you might say 'That must have been upsetting', 'No wonder you felt mad when they wouldn't let you in the game', or 'That must have seemed unfair to you'. Doing this shows that you understand what your child felt, why, and that you care. Feeling understood and listened to helps your child feel supported by you, and that is especially important in times of stress.

Put a label on it. Many kids do not yet have words for their feelings. If your child seems angry or frustrated, use those words to help him or her learn to identify the emotions by name. Putting feelings into words helps kids communicate and develop emotional awareness—the ability to recognize their own emotional states. Kids who can do so are less likely to reach the behavioural boiling point, where strong emotions get demonstrated through behaviours rather than communicated with words.

Help your child think of things to do. If there's a specific problem that's causing stress, talk together about what to do. Encourage your child to think of a couple of ideas. You can get the brainstorm started if necessary, but don't do all the work. Your child's active participation will build confidence. Support the good ideas and add to them as needed. Ask, 'How do you think this will work?'

Listen and move on. Sometimes talking and listening and feeling understood is all that's needed to help a child's frustrations begin to melt away. Afterward, try changing the subject and moving on to something more positive and relaxing. Help your child think of something to do to feel better. Don't give the problem more attention than it deserves.

Limit stress where possible. If certain situations are causing stress, see if there are ways to change things. For instance, if too many after-school activities consistently cause homework stress, it might be necessary to limit activities to leave time and energy for homework.

Just be there. Kids don't always feel like talking about what's bothering them. Sometimes that's OK. Let your kids know you'll be there when they do feel like talking. Even when kids don't want to talk, they usually don't want parents to leave them alone. You can help your child feel better just by being there—keeping him or her company, spending time together. So if you notice that your child seems to be down in the dumps, stressed, or having a bad day—but doesn't feel like talking—initiate something you can do together. Take a walk, watch a movie, shoot some hoops, or bake some cookies. Isn't it nice to know that your presence really counts?

Be patient. As a parent, it hurts to see your child unhappy or stressed. But try to resist the urge to fix every problem. Instead, focus on helping your child, slowly but surely, grow into a good problem-solver—a kid who knows how to roll with life's ups and downs, put feelings into words, calm down when needed, and bounce back to try again.

Parents can't solve every problem as kids go through life. But by teaching healthy coping strategies, you'll prepare your kids to manage the stresses that come in the future.

Reflection questions

- What points in the article make the most sense to you?
- As a teacher, which suggestions will you want to use to manage healthy classroom practices?
- In what ways can you encourage parents of children to engage in stress management practices along with their children?

Unit 3, week 7, session 20: Social development—Peer interaction, friendship, and growth
Student Teacher Reading

Ways to Prevent Bullying in School

Angry. Helpless. Afraid. Guilty. All these words describe how teachers feel when they realize that their student is being bullied. Bullying is a serious issue. Bullying can cause both physical and emotional damage to a student. When bullying goes on over time, it can set up a cycle of harassment. Sadly, if a bully is popular, other children may join in with the teasing to gain the bully's approval. In these cases, bullying a particular student can become a cool thing to do in a school or neighbourhood.

Schools should try to prevent bullying of their students. When a student is being bullied, they must work with the students to soften the effects of the bullying. Bullying can damage a student's self-esteem, willingness to trust peers, and ability to make friends with other students. Here are some things teachers can do:

1) Provide your student with a place to interact with peers completely separate from the place or social setting of the bullying. Give your student a chance to work and play with other students who do not know about the bullying. When your student makes new friends, he or she will feel better about themselves and have some happy times to think about.

2) Involve the student in working with students who share the same interests. If she likes music, encourage her to sing or make musical instruments with other children who enjoy music. If he enjoys games, help him to become part of games during playtime. Provide a place she can be with others who like to do the same things. This will help her to make new friends and build self-esteem.

3) Find an older friend who can take an interest in your student. A child will often listen to an older student. A slightly older friend can offer the child support, advice, and hope for better days to come.

4) Give students a journal and encourage them to write openly and honestly or draw and colour about how they are feeling. Keeping the emotions caused by bullying to yourself can cause lasting damage to self-esteem. Sometimes children who are bullied feel ashamed. They are afraid they deserve the treatment because they are no good. They may not want to talk about it. A journal can provide a safe outlet for their emotions. For some children, modelling clay or play-dough is also an excellent way to express feelings.

5) Provide your student with chances to *excel*. Help your student find something they enjoy doing and will be able to do very well with a little practice. Developing self-confidence about a skill or talent can go a long way toward silencing the negative internal voice that says 'I'm not valuable'—the voice that can be in a victim's mind when he or she has experienced too much bullying.

Text modified from '*Ways to Prevent Bullying in School*' (2010). Nurture: Pakistan's Pioneer Publication on Early Childhood Development.

➢ http://www.ecdpak.com/nurture/nurture-6/ways_to_prevent_bullying.html

Reflection questions

• Have you witnessed any bullying during your child observations, or have you heard about bullying from the child or their parents and teachers? How do children react to bullying and how do adults handle bullying issues?

• Should teachers and school leaders come up with strategies to prevent and reduce bullying?

Unit 3, week 7, session 20: Social development—Peer interaction, friendship, and growth
Student Teacher Reading

Managing Conflict in the Classroom

The major focus of early year classrooms is the holistic development of young children, which includes all developmental domains—physical, cognitive, social, moral, and emotional. A child who develops holistically well during the early years is more likely to be a happy and productive member of society than one who does not. Thus, their contribution to society and culture will be effective as well. Research tells us that during the first eight years of life, children are highly influenced by their family, friends, and community. They learn values they see in the world around them. If we want children to grow up to be peacemakers, we must help them learn values and behaviours of peacemaking. We can help them learn to deal with conflict in positive ways.

Handling conflicts in classrooms in a productive and healthy manner can help build bridges for cooperative classrooms, good friends, and a better society.

Conflict can be healthy or unhealthy. Conflict happens when people have different ideas about things, want different things, want the same things when there are not enough to go around, or do not trust others. Conflict can be healthy when it helps us to think about problems and work to manage them in positive ways. It can bring out our creativity and push us to try new things.

What is so good or bad about conflicts?

Teachers usually try to stop conflicts in the classroom or on the playground. They take students or groups away from each other. But teachers can do more than avoid conflict. They can use conflict as a way of teaching about self-control, cooperation, and understanding.

Conflicts between children can be managed in positive ways by teaching conflict-management skills. Active listening, expressing anger in positive ways, and naming our feelings are positive skills of conflict management.

Stopping conflict in the classroom is not always the best choice. It is wise to make the classroom a comfortable place where children understand how to use and take care of materials and lots of choices for work and play. It is wise to have good classroom rules and to expect children to treat each other with respect. Having a plan for how to change activities in a calm and organized manner is wise, too. These things help create a peaceful classroom.

Responding to conflicts among young children

Conflicts will happen. They can be managed by using good conflict-management skills and teaching them to children. For example, a child or group of children may not like to work with other classmate(s) they are in conflict with. Children are egocentric. They have to learn how to think about how other people feel. They have to learn how to share and take turns. These are skills we think of as those children should bring to elementary school. But elementary school children, even older ones, still have problems with sharing, respect for others, and true cooperation.

There are many ways to resolve conflicts. Some researchers have identified six major steps to resolving any conflict among children:

1) **Approach the situation calmly.** Observe what is happening. Place yourself at the child's level and use a calm voice and gentle touch with a welcoming gesture. Stop any upsetting actions.

2) **Acknowledge children's feelings**. Identify and describe the children's feelings you observe and avoid asking questions until children are calm. Share the details of what you have seen. (Do not ask questions that put a child in the position of telling you something untrue. Not: 'Were you hitting him?' But instead: 'I see that you were hitting him' or 'I see that there is a problem' when you aren't sure what is causing the conflict.)

3) **Gather information.** With infants and toddlers or children with language delays, observe children's actions and describe the problem. With older toddlers and preschoolers, ask open-ended questions and try to ask questions from one child at a time. With children, ask each child to tell what happened. Do not let others interrupt. Say, 'I am getting everyone's side of the story. It is her turn'.

4) **Restate the problem**. Repeat the information again that you have observed or gathered to clarify the problem. Check your statement with the children based on what the children have said. 'If I hear you right, you … and ….Is that what you are saying?' If everybody tells you different things, don't try to find out what *really* happened. Just say, 'We seem to have different ideas about what happened. I think we all agree there is a problem. We need to deal with it'.

5) **Ask for ideas and choose one together.** Encourage children to talk to each other. Describe the choices or give suggestions that can work out for the simple misunderstandings. Ask simple yes and no questions and get ideas that might work and things they can agree to, for example: 'Does everyone here want to play ball? Can everybody be first? Can we agree that we will take turns being first? Could we make a list of who goes first at each play time so everybody gets a turn?'

6) **Be prepared to give follow up support.** Try to stay near the children and provide your support to encourage the solution and tell them, 'You solved the problem!'

Teaching students how to resolve conflicts will be more effective if they work to help children with:

- **cooperation**. Helping children learn to work together and trust, help, and share with each other.

- **communication**. Helping children learn to observe carefully, communicate well, and listen to each other.

- **respect**. Helping children learn to respect and enjoy people's differences and to understand prejudice and why it is wrong.

- **expressing themselves positively**. Helping children learn to express feelings, particularly anger, in ways that are not destructive, and learn self-control.

- **conflict resolution**. Helping children learn how to resolve a conflict by talking it through.

Text adapted and modified from S. Khalid and I. Raza, '*Managing conflict in the classroom*' (2010). Nurture: Pakistan's Pioneer Publication on Early Childhood Development.
➢ http://www.ecdpak.com/nurture/nurture-6/managing_conflict_in_the_classroom. html

Reflection questions

- Do you agree with what the writers say about the role of adults in handling classroom conflict?

- How can conflict be good for children's social and emotional development?

- Should teachers and school leaders make strategies with parents to prevent and reduce classroom conflict?

Unit 3, week 7, session 20: Social development—Peer interaction, friendship, and growth

Student Teacher Reading

Myths About Conflict

Myth: Conflict is something to avoid

Many people are afraid of conflict and try to avoid it. Sometimes this is a good idea. But not all conflicts should be avoided. Conflict can often be helpful. For example, if we avoid conflict within our family or with friends, we may miss the chance to work through important problems and deepen our relationships. To work through a conflict, we have to listen to each other, find out where we agree, and figure out ways to work together. When we face conflicts, we must be able to respect others and think about their views as well as our own.

Children can learn when it is healthy to avoid conflict. For example, if there is a fight on the school grounds, it may be smart to get away from it or not to take sides. They can also learn that when they disagree with others, it is possible to work out differences. The teacher can model this through daily classroom life when she asks students to tell each other how they feel, to listen to each other, and to think about how the other person might see things.

Myth: To resolve conflict, you have to find out who is to blame

Finding out who is at fault in a conflict may not be the best way to resolve it. Many things contribute to any disagreement. It is more useful to try to figure out what things contribute to a conflict than who is to blame. Usually everyone blames someone else. When you focus on contributing factors, it helps people to be less defensive and more ready to listen to each other.

When the teacher asks, 'Why do you suppose this problem happened?' rather than asking, 'Whose fault is this?', he is helping students to focus on contributing factors.

Myth: Conflicts can always be resolved

Sometimes people cannot resolve their conflicts. Rather than trying to convince people to compromise, it may be more useful to help them figure out how to respect each other's view.

We can also learn how to manage the conflicts that we cannot eliminate. We can agree to disagree, for example.

When the teacher points out that we don't all think the same way, she is helping students to develop the idea that people may not always work out problems. When the teacher respects differences of opinion, he is modelling living with conflicting opinions. When the teacher helps children learn to take turns doing something everybody wants to do, she is modelling how to manage a conflict that can't be eliminated.

Additional resources

An article on this topic is S. Khalid and I. Raza, '*Managing Conflict in the Classroom*' (2010). Nurture: Pakistan's Pioneer Publication on Early Childhood Development.

➢ http://www.ecdpak.com/nurture/nurture-6/managing_conflict_in_the_class-room.html

Unit 3, week 7, session 20: Social development—Peer interaction, friendship, and growth
Faculty Resource

Vignettes on Peer Interaction

(F)

Naeem

It is almost time for the school day to end. Soon the children will go home. You have been busy guiding small group work on social studies projects. Nina and Shida, girls in your second-year primary school classroom, tell you that Naeem is crying again. You noticed earlier that he was not working with his group, but stood watching the others. Now he is sitting quietly at his desk. Tears are running down his face, but he does not make a sound. The other children in his group are busy working to build a model house using mud clay that you have found near the school. Naeem helped to dig it up yesterday. He was very excited about building a model house with his group for their social studies project.

This is not the first time Naeem has cried at school. He is the only one in his family who goes to school. So he walks by himself. You have noticed that he often looks as if he has run all the way to school. He seems fearful. Sometimes he has trouble staying with his work. But after a while, he seems to be happy and goes about his work with all the other children. The other children tell you that some of the big boys chase him and call him names on the way to school. You have tried to get him to talk about it. He will say nothing.

Today he has been very quiet all day. He has done very little work.

As the teacher, what should you do? Think of ideas for short-term and long-term solutions.

Qamar

You have become concerned about Qamar, a boy in your second-year primary school classroom. Qamar and four of his siblings go to the school. He is the youngest. The oldest is in the eighth year. Several of the other boys will not play with him and do not want to work with him in small groups. You have had to put a stop to name-calling when you have tried to put them together in groups. They call him a baby. Unless you are there to watch, they will not include him in games during playtime.

You have put children in small groups to share creative writing they are doing in Literacy Studies. They are to listen to each other and give peer feedback. You have worked hard to help them learn how to listen with respect and offer good suggestions to each other. Children seem to be getting the idea.

Today the children in Qamar's group begin to laugh and make silly noises as he read his story. You heard somebody say, 'That's dumb'. As you move close to the group, Qamar slammed down his paper. He jumped up and grabbed another child's paper and tore it.

As the teacher, what should you do? Think of ideas for short-term and long-term solutions.

Unit 3, week 7, session 21: Utilizing play in the classroom
Student Teacher Reading

The Right Way to Play

(S)

‘You are always playing and not studying. When I was young I gave so much importance to studies’.

‘The world is full of competition. The sooner you understand the better it is for your future’.

‘Go and study. You don’t have to go out to play every day!’

Constant comparison with peers and resulting pressure on children to perform at school is increasingly taking the best efforts of parents these days. Many times, intentionally or unintentionally, these pressures greatly sabotage children’s play or any available free time. One reason for this can be attributed to adults’ lack of awareness that children learn a lot through play and that play provides them with the opportunity to actively explore, manipulate, and interact with their environment.

However, a graver point of concern is the changing shape and form of play. Factors that lead to lack of pure and undisturbed natural play include excessive TV viewing hours and children’s obsession with video games. Then the fact that there is forever the need for constant supervision of children in urban environments; parents find it easier to let children amuse themselves indoors rather than taking the time to take them to nearby parks. These factors contribute toward decreasing the imagination power of a child to create their own playing activity and look toward parents to provide entertainment. Sometimes even a room full of toys is not enough for the children, and one often hears children whining ‘I’m bored. Please can we go out today to the shop and buy new toys?’

Creative play is believed by many child researchers to form the foundation of emotional, creative, and intellectual growth in later years. Recent studies show that young children who do not receive sufficient nurturing, nutrition, parental interaction, and stimulus during their crucial early years may be left with a developmental deficit that hampers their success in life. Equally importantly, parents need to understand the importance of pure play and creative playing activities. It should be considered a normal part of a child’s development. It is important therefore that parents know how to balance electronic, programmed play with free, physical, creative play.

As parents, you should be willing to be fully involved with your child’s creative play. It will benefit them in many ways.

The following are some ideas to encourage your children's creative play:

- Start them early; encourage them to play from the time they are young.

- Let them experience nature when possible. Let them play with the soil, the sand, or the water whenever you can.

- Let them climb trees, ride bikes, and play their own pretend games.

- Children often do best with simple toys, or even household items that are readily accessible (such as wooden spoons, pots and pans).

- Practical everyday objects of adults are always fascinating to children. They enjoy using the same things that the important people in their lives use—a lunch box like dad's, earrings like mom's, etc. So let them use the objects that are safe for them to use.

- Provide artistic opportunities for your child to express what they are feeling and value their effects. Don't pass judgment on them.

- When you are in the garden, give them something to do to help; for example, provide them with a watering can so they can water the plants.

- Spend time with them in playing outdoor games. But most importantly, don't ever force them into doing anything, or they will develop a dislike for those activities.

- Once they join school, encourage them to participate in school sports. Be there to cheer them when they are participating in any school sport activity, and if they don't win any prizes, don't discourage them by criticizing them.

- Involve them in your household chores. Children relish being involved and love assisting in tasks such as sweeping, vacuuming, gardening, and cooking. If you are patient with them, you'll often get them started in their own role play.

When children engage in free and creative play, they are using their imagination to act out how they are feeling. Using their imagination in this way helps children to:

- explore their feelings as they learn to express themselves

- provide the opportunity to let off steam

- develop empathy and consideration for others

- develop listening and communication skills from social interaction with other children

- gain perspective and learn what is real and not real.

It is really up to us as parents and caregivers to give our children the chance to prepare for life as an adult in the best way possible. Indeed it's the only chance that they're going to get.

Text modified from M. Mahwish, '*The Right Way to Play*', Nurture: Pakistan's Pioneer Publication on Early Childhood Development, 5 (2008), 28–30.

➤ http://www.sef.org.pk/nurture/Nurture_V.pdf

Reflection questions

- How does play have many different functions for children's development?

- Why should play be encouraged? How can play positively affect children's academic achievement?

Additional resources

Volume V of *Nurture*, cited above, is focused on understanding children's play.

Unit 3, week 7, session 21: Utilizing play in the classroom
Student Teacher Reading

The Right to Play

> 'That every child has the right to rest and leisure, to engage in play and recreational activities appropriate to the age of the child, and to participate freely in cultural life and the arts'.
>
> From the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, Article 31

The UN Convention was addressing issues of child labour when it declared play among the rights of children. But today, many schools are finding less time for children to engage in free, unstructured play.

Play is as important in primary school years as it is for younger children. It is important in school as well as at home.

There are many benefits to play. It helps children's physical and mental development as well as the child's sense of well-being. Some of the benefits of play include:

- It allows children to be creative and develops imagination.
- It allows children to explore physical properties of things and develop concepts based on concrete exploration.
- It helps children to learn how to manage risks and important rules of safety.
- It allows children to feel successful.
- It helps children to learn how to make choices and experience natural consequences.
- It helps children learn how to manage conflict.
- It helps children learn how to face their fears.
- It helps children learn how to solve problems.
- It helps children adjust to school.

Primary schools can and should involve children in three kinds of play.

Structured play

Teachers set up areas in the classroom where children may go to explore and play on their own. The activities are fun and allow the child to be creative. But the teacher has specific goals in mind. The teacher creates each interest area so that it suggests particular kinds of play and interacts with children as they play. The teacher does not direct the play but engages the child in discussion of what is happening. For example, if the class is studying a unit on plants, the teacher might set up a greenhouse area with cuttings of plants to look at, pictures of plants, and books about plants. Pictures of plants with parts that are labelled clearly and a set of labels placed in an area where children play with blocks could encourage children to build models of plants and label them. Children could do prints or crayon rubbings with plant leaves, stems, and roots, or children could build a greenhouse with large blocks or boxes of different sizes.

Unstructured play at school

Teachers do not control the free play of the child. It may be play at recess or play in the room when projects or work is done. The teacher supervises and interacts with children if invited. But the child is the one who decides what to do. The teacher does not have specific outcomes in mind.

Out-of-school play

Children usually have some free time at home after school and on weekends. The teacher does not usually manage out-of-school time unless he or she makes an assignment that involves some kind of play. For example, the teacher who has set up the room to study plants might ask the children to collect a number of plants or plant parts to bring to school. How the child does this activity will be self-structured.

In Pakistan, many children often have limited opportunities for play because they must work. Even children who go to school may find themselves looking after younger brothers and sisters, fetching water, or doing agricultural work when they get home from school.

Unit 3, week 8, session 22: Teacher's influence on student motivation and unit conclusion
Student Teacher Reading

This reading may be reserved for Unit 6.

What Excellent Teachers Do

Children learn from the moment they are born. They are always looking, exploring, and asking about the world around them. So why is it that when they get to school, teachers must motivate them to learn?

The problem is that what we want children to do in school isn't always what they want to be doing. They are eager to learn. But they may not be eager to learn how to memorize facts that we want them to know, or they may not be eager to sit at a desk and read from a book we have given them. Many teachers act as if children arrive at school knowing nothing or as if everything the child knows is of little value.

Teachers who are able to help children be successful in school realize that children already know a lot. They try to find out what children know and like to do. Then they teach with children in mind. Here are some things that researchers on teaching tell us excellent teachers do.

They build bridges between what students know and need to know

They help them to solve problems. They not only know what to teach (their subjects), but when and how to get students interested in them. They're always looking for new ways of helping children. They notice the mistakes children make. They see children's mistakes as opportunities to learn more. Excellent teachers use children's mistakes to learn more about how they are thinking. They help children to learn that mistakes are part of problem-solving.

They know use their knowledge in flexible ways

Excellent teachers may not know more than anyone else, but they know how to organize their subject in different ways in order to meet children's needs. They help their students to go deeper into a subject by drawing on what students already know and scaffolding, or building a bridge to what students need to know. They help students to become risk-takers. They find a good balance between subject-centred and child-centred teaching.

They guide learning through the classroom environment and interactions

Really good teachers know how to create classroom environments for learning. They welcome mistakes as opportunities for students to learn. They know how to keep an eye on students and deal with issues before they get out of hand. They think through their plans, activities, and classroom organization with their students in mind. They ask what might go wrong and how their plans will effect particular students. So they are usually able to prevent problems. When problems occur, they have already considered possible solutions. They don't have to spend all their time on controlling challenging student behaviour.

They are always assessing student learning and providing them with feedback

They have a good idea of each student's level of understanding. They give useful feedback that will help students move along. They are able to help students develop skills in thinking about their own learning (meta-cognitive skills). They help students to develop hypotheses for learning and test them out. They form their own hypotheses about how each student learns and use these to guide the way they teach.

They attend to the emotional part of teaching and learning

They respect students as people of worth. They really care about them. They see possible barriers to learning and look for ways of overcoming these barriers. They don't need to dominate the situation. They see themselves as adult guides. The excellent teacher wants to support students to be more and more independent. They find satisfaction in helping students make connections between things. They see students holistically. They take pride in each student's work and their sense of self-efficacy as learners and as persons. They know that the student's life at school is only part of his or her life. Out-of-school events and experiences profoundly influence what the student is able to do in school.

They help students to set and meet challenging, but realistic, goals

They are more interested in students learning and mastering knowledge and skills than in their performance on exams. They want their students to have broad knowledge as well as deep understanding of subjects. They want them to go beyond surface knowledge about ideas and doing what is needed to get a passing grade. They want them to engage with, relate to, and extend ideas as well as understand meanings.

They respect students and listen to them

Excellent teachers spend more of their time in guiding students than in teacher-talk or lecturing.

Additional resources

For a discussion of this topic see John Hattie, 'Teachers Make a Difference: What Is the Research Evidence?' University of Auckland Australian Council for Educational Research, October 2003.

➢ http://www.acer.edu.au/documents/Hattie_TeachersMakeADifference.pdf

UNIT 4

Unit 4
Faculty Resource

Adolescence - A Social Construct?

by Timothy Manson

At the end of the 17th Century, the word 'adolescent' was little used. According to Furetière *'il ne se dit guère qu'en raillerie. C'est un jeune adolescent, pour dire, c'est un jeune homme étourdi ou sans expérience.'*[1] Up until the eighteenth century, we find that most of the time, the rough division into 'childhood', 'youth' and 'old age' is considered sufficient as a categorization of ages - although intellectuals would speak of six or seven different ages, referring to the writers of antiquity.

The definition of the three ages was rather loose. In the 15th Century, Charbonnier found that 'enfant' and 'jeune homme' might both be applied to persons of 18 or even 20 years old. This usage probably can be founded upon the work status of the individual - in agricultural communities, functioning according to strict rules of primogeniture, as in Southern Ireland, the eldest son, who stayed with his parents until they decided to retire, might be referred to as a 'boy' until the day that he took over the farm, which could be quite late in life.

Sociologically, the child is an individual who is still in the power of his parents. Adolescence, or youth, as a fully defined social category, can only appear when a group emerges which, while still not enjoying the full status of adulthood, nevertheless has been largely removed from direct control by parents.

According to Olivier Galland, this status is first discovered amongst the male offspring of the aristocracy. He cites the Chevalier de Fonvielle, who spent his adolescence in dissipation,
"fuyait la maison paternelle pendant huit ou dix jours, nourri par les polissons du quartier"[2]
From time to time, his father, feeling that too much was too much, would call his erring son to order, and have him whipped or thrown in prison for a short period, but this seemed to have little effect.

We may note that there is already a strong link between the idea of youthfulness and the idea of transgression, delinquency, and punishment. This, says Galland, is to be explained by the 'impatience' of aristocratic youth. Between the moment when they are recognized as capable of assuming the responsibilities of an adult, and the moment when they actually do assume them, there is a long period of waiting - waiting for the father to die.

Amongst those philosophers who provided the upper class with advice on such matters as child-rearing, the spectre of the 'spoiled child' was advanced to underline the need for a new pedagogy. The child must be educated so that good moral conduct would become second nature to him; particularly, the young person should refrain from bad behaviour for the sake of their their conscience - that is to say, that they should feel guilty of any temptation to transgress. Such a result was best achieved through the

[1] 'One cannot say this without an element of mocking. This is the young adolescent; that is to say, a thoughtless young man with no experience'.

[2] '... fled his father's home for eight or ten days, influenced by the neighborhood pranksters'.

inculcation of love, rather than fear. Punishment was regarded as a means of marking parental disapprobation, rather than of simply knocking vice out of the child.

> Ne les frappez surtout, que le plus rarement que vous pourrez; quand cela vous arrivera, faites que ce soit sans emportement, et marquez leur par la manière dont vous vous y prenez, la douleur que vous avez d'en venir là. (Jean Pic, 1690)[3]
>
> Songez dans les châtiments plutôt à faire monter le sang au visage qu'à le répandre. (l'Abbé Bordelon, 1694)[4]

Education, for the aristocracy, was as much a means of achieving control over the subsequent behaviour of the young as it was of inculcating knowledge. For the majority of the population under the Ancien Régime, childhood would come to a close at the age of 8 or 13, when the young person would be thrown upon the labour market, where they would simply exchange the authority of their fathers for that of their masters.

As both geographical and social mobility grow through the 18th and 19th centuries, so we find that the young increasingly come to be perceived as problematic. This is particularly the case in the large cities - London and Paris - where the young often provide the unruly mass of which the mob is formed and which threatens violence to life and property, and political revolution.

Over the same period, we find that there is an increasingly rigid distinction between the work-place and the home; the rise of the factory movement changed the work-habits of the lower classes radically : children found themselves working under conditions which took them out of the immediate control of the family. According to many observers, the results were disastrous. Not only was factory work bad for the health, it was also bad for the morals. In the works of the social inquirers who did the spade work for the movement which was to impose factory legislation during the nineteenth century, limiting the hours of work of the young, we find continual cries of alarm.

The factory, they believed, brought the young together in complete promiscuity - both sexual and social. The girls who were to be the mothers of the next generation were corrupted - often having to work semi-naked in the heat of the workshops, they were all too easily lead into depraved behaviour.

As for the boys, in this view they banded together, beyond the control of their elders, and provided the unruly and hotheaded base for the new trade-unions, and for radical politics.

The factory system was seen as undermining the family in many ways; by imposing long hours outside the home, and by employing female and youthful labour rather than that of adult males, the factory owners threatened to destroy the domestic virtues of good mothering and subordination to the male head of the household. The movement to limit and, if possible, exclude women and children from the workplace was an attempt to reinstate the authority of the father and husband. The family was to become, once again, one of the main agencies of social control.

[3] 'Above all, do not strike them except on rare occasions, so that when you do have to resort to this choice, you impress upon them your grave manner and the sadness with which you have arrived at this decision'.

[4] 'Think about the type of punishments that would shame the individual'

However, if the young were excluded from the work-place at just that time when the father was away from home, could the mother be expected to exert full authority on her own? It seemed unlikely, particularly as the working-class woman was seen as ignorant and undisciplined.

A solution was to be discovered in universal schooling, which would ensure that for most of the daylight hours, on most days of the week, the young would be under the direct control of a substitute father, who would maintain immediate discipline, and who would also instil an internal discipline in his charges which would ensure that they continued to behave well once they were old enough to leave his domain.

This was particularly necessary as factory labour was itself looked upon as degrading and stupefying. As James Mill put it, in 1824:

> The minds...of the great body of the people are in danger of really degenerating, while the other elements of civilization are advancing, unless care is taken, by means of the other instruments of education, to counteract those effects which the simplifications of the manual processes has a tendency to produce.

The adolescent, then, is first and foremost, the object of anxiety and fear. The development of the school in the modern age is in large part to be attributed to these anxieties, just as the subsequent development of probation services, social work departments, and youth movements such as the Boy Scouts, can all be seen to spring from a concern to ensure that the passage from childhood to adulthood, particularly among working-class youth, should be navigated with as little friction as possible.

We have seen, then, that adolescence is a social construct more than a biological one. It is a result of the process by which young people were excluded from the labour markets, starting in the nineteenth century, and in which the modern home was constructed around the increasing divorce between the world of work and the world of intimate social relations. Work became the domain of the adult male, while children and women were progressively confined to the household, and, in the case of children, to the school.

Adolescence varies in length, both historically and from one social group to another. Essentially, it can be seen as the period between the full dependence on the family of childhood, and the full independence which involves leaving home and setting up one's own family - that is, the passage between the family of origin and the family of orientation.

It is in this sense that adolescence can be said to be a period of irresponsibility. The young free themselves of parental control, but do not immediately take on the adult roles that would tie them to the social system. Because of this, they are often perceived by adults as being both enviable and dangerous. As Friedenberg put it in 1959:

Young people today find themselves very often used as something between a charade and a Thematic Apperception Test. Adults read their own homes and fears into the actions of adolescents, and project on them their own conflicts, values and anxieties.

He claimed that the teenager was stereotyped as a kind of 'negro'. We must remember this when we read the literature on adolescence : all too often, the young are simply a screen upon which the adult world projects its fears and its fantasies, as well as its hopes for redemption. This often leads those who pretended to expertise on adolescents to depict them as stranger than they actually are. The typical picture of the adolescent was that of a moody, individualistic and anguished rebel, speaking an impenetrable language, and socializing only with others of his own kind. In the 1960s, there was much talk of the emergence of a distinct 'youth culture', the members of which turned their backs definitively upon the ways of the old world.

This feeling still appears to be very strong - in 1980, Nicholson, in an inquiry into attitudes towards youth in the town of Colchester, found that two thirds of the adults interviewed believed that the younger generation had a very different approach to life to their own. Coffield (1986), in a study of attitudes in northeast England, found that adults were quite hostile towards young people - far more hostile than the young were towards adults!

But most surveys that have looked into the attitudes of the young themselves have found that they are, in fact, remarkably conformist. Nor are they particularly subject to deep attacks of metaphysical angst. In their political opinions, in their religious affiliations, and in their attitudes towards such institutions as the schools or the police, they are very similar to their parents. Moreover, as I have already suggested, they are not hostile to adults; they admire and appreciate their parents, even if they do have arguments with them from time to time. Indeed, when they do behave in a rebellious manner, it may be because they have discovered that adults expect them to do so, and they do not wish to disappoint - Nicholson found that:

Many adolescents spontaneously say that they are very aware that adults expect them to be difficult, and some even admit that they occasionally make a conscious effort to fall in with these expectations, behaving badly not because they want to but simply because they feel it is expected of them...in short, one important reason why some adolescents have problems is simply that their parents and teachers expect them to have problems.' (Nicholson, 1980)

Again, much has been made by psychologists of the so-called identity crisis. This may be because psychiatrists and psychologists come into professional contact mainly with young people who do have problems, and it is certain that a minority of them do - but it is important to stress that it is only a minority. Most young people go through adolescence without the trials and calamities that the literature would have us expect. There appears to be little conflict between the family and the peer group - where the members of the peer group have opinions that differ from those of the family, most young people retain the family's opinions - but in any case, for the most part, the peer groups are made up of young people from similar families, having similar opinions.

There is, of course, the question of what are often referred to as 'youth movements'. This is something of a misnomer, for the concept of a movement implies a level of organisation and unity of purpose that few such groupings have; becoming a punk or a Zulu is very different from becoming a boy scout or a member of the Army Cadet Corps.

For most young people, identification with one or other of these movements is largely playful - it is something that they do at weekends. Whilst some individuals may invest heavily in membership of a group of some kind, and may spend much time and effort in cultivating the right image, these are a minority. Nor is the hairstyle, the clothing, or whatever other signs are considered appropriate to be read as symbols of rebellion:

> I became a mod because my Mum wanted me to, really. She'd seen mods in the street and thought they looked smart. And she said, 'Why don't you turn into a mod?' So I said 'Yeah, if you'll buy me them.' I'm glad I'm a mod. (14 year-old girl, quoted in Nicholson's Colchester study)

If the young do not reject the family, do they reject the school? Although their feelings about school are obviously more luke-warm than they are about their parents, nevertheless, they are overwhelmingly favourable. In France, the overwhelming majority of young people continually tell researchers that they are happy at school, that they find their teachers are interesting and competent, and that school is important; this, despite the fact that adults are continually talking of a crisis in the educational system!

This sturdiness of the adolescent is admirable, considering the demands made on her by the adult world. This becomes particularly clear when we compare modern industrial societies with older social formations.

In pre-modern social systems, the number of possible roles is limited, and the young are usually conscripted into them without the idea of there being a choice. Life markers are clearly laid out, and neither the individual nor his entourage have any doubt as to his social identity. For most people, destiny is largely determined at birth.

With modernity, there is a radical change in the social role structure. In the first place, the number of roles increases in an explosive fashion, and in the second place, the placement of individuals within specific roles is taken out of the hands of the immediate primary groups, such as the family and the immediate community, and is increasingly bureaucratised - power passes from the network of face-to-face relationships to the more complex and socially distant institutions of the school and the multi-national firm.

Modernist ideology makes the individual personally responsible for his life-decisions, and yet the decision-making centres of those structures within which the decisions are taken appear to be further and further removed from his immediate sphere of influence. Even within the last fifty years, certain social groups have found themselves divested of placement powers that they once took for granted.

Within the relatively stabilized working class communities of the post-war years, skilled and semi-skilled fathers could expect to place their sons in their own places of work, or through the network of relationships of family and friendship, either as workers or as apprentices.

Rapid changes in the job market have deprived the old communities of their economic bases - the old trades and jobs have disappeared, and fathers have found themselves faced with the prospect of unemployment or early retirement - their energies have been taken up with protecting their own positions rather than with looking to the future of their children. The traditional working habits and work relationships of the respectable working classes have been undermined, leaving them far less competent to ensure that their children learn a trade and enter the world of work at the appropriate time.

The increasing belief that the schools are failing in their mission to train people for the world of work is, at least in part, fuelled by the fear that families themselves are no longer able to play their role.

Identity and Placement

Adolescence is acknowledged by many psychologists as being a time when identity emerges. The child sees herself as embedded in the family, and has little conception of a future beyond the primary group. The adolescent becomes meaningfully aware of the fact that one day she will leave her family of origin and forge a life for herself apart from her parents and siblings.

The physiological processes of puberty, which announce the adolescent's capacity to reproduce, and thus become a mother or a father in their turn, is reinforced by the increased interest taken by both the family and the school in the question of the young person's future career. It needs to be recognized that these different pressures are both welcomed and feared by the adolescent, who both looks forward to increased autonomy and feels apprehension.

In traditional societies, the same need for choice occurs, but is more thoroughly embedded in intimate social practices. The number of roles is relatively limited, and only a small number of individuals will need to be prepared for the few highly specialized positions that exist. Where choices are necessary, they are subject to closely prescribed rituals; thus, for example, among the plains Indians of North America, a young man's life choices are determined by a dream ceremony that takes place during the period of initiation. The young man consumes a powerful drug, and then goes to sleep. While asleep, he has a dream, during which he meets an animal; depending on the kind of animal he meets, and on the style of the encounter, he knows that he has been called upon to fill a given role.. Evidently, there is a great deal of work that has gone on, both before the dream, in pointing the young man in the right direction, and subsequently in interpreting the dream, so that the choice is not simply that of the individual.

In our societies, the choice of future is by no means solely up to the individual either. Social structure, as mediated through the family and through the school, contributes largely to shaping the future of the young; this can leave the young person with a feeling of powerlessness or incipient failure. On the other hand, it can lead to a kind of scholastic fetishism, in which the adolescent substitutes good school marks for any attempt to work out his own future.

Nor is this particularly surprising. Post-modernist societies are characterized by a highly differentiated and rapidly changing role system. This makes the establishment of close links with the workplace difficult; in the past, sons were often placed by their

fathers, through their own contacts, or through the network of uncles and friends. This functioned both for the middle-classes and for the proletariat - thus a dock-worker would simply take his son along to the right public house at the right time, and set him on his way, just as the solicitor would groom his son to take over the family firm. These informal means of placement have largely been replaced by the school, and today initial placement is determined by success within the school system.

Families, having had to relinquish a major function to the school - at least, in part - now strive to maintain some form of control over what occurs to their children, particularly at critical moments, when major life choices are to be taken - in the French system, the class conferences at the end of troisième and at the end of séconde are such critical moments. [5]

The parents themselves have different demands to make of the schools, depending on their position within the social hierarchy, on the judgements that they make of their children's capacities, and on their beliefs about the situation in the job market at the time that the child will be entering it. They also have differing amounts of leverage upon the system; depending upon their status and their own educational background, and also upon the depth of knowledge that they have of the system, and their clarity of perception about the job market. All of this means that they will tend to adopt different strategies and different attitudes towards the teachers and the administrators of the system, and towards their own children.

As the family loses much of its power over placement, it loses part of its power over the young themselves. When parents controlled the labour market, they also controlled their offspring, just as they did when they controlled the marriage market

Modern youth is faced with a set of choices that are unusual in the history of humanity, and it is through the working out of these choices that the modern concept of identity is realized. The question of who one is, is intimately linked to the kind of job and to the life-partners that you choose. It is obvious that it is during adolescence that these questions are posed in their most radical form; the answers that the young person gives to them are clearly understood as furnishing the basis for his or her subsequent destiny.

The identity of the self is determined outside of the family and to a large extent beyond its power. The adolescent's real world begins to centre on wider institutions, and in particular on the school. It is within the school that most young people form the friendships that will take them through their teenage years, just as it is in the university, or in the first few years of work that the young adult forms the peer group that will see them through the largest part of their adult years. It is highly likely that it is through the peer group that the adolescent or young adult will meet the person that they are to marry, and who will be father or mother to their own children.

The idea of adolescence is constructed around these two poles - on the one hand, the search for a stable and meaningful professional identity, translated into the immediate manifestation of school-work, marks, and the judgements of the teaching team, and on the other hand, the search for meaningful relationships, and in particular a meaningful sexuality, which is worked through with the peer group.

[5] The terms *troisième* and *séconde* refer to important stages in secondary education. 'Ancien régime' refers to the political and social system of France prior to the French Revolution of 1789.

The self, then, is measured against two sets of criteria: on the one hand, there are the criteria that are provided by the school, and on the other there are the criteria offered by the peer group. Lack of success in one field by, to some extent, be compensated for by success in the other- the friendless child may do well at school, and the school drop-out may place great importance in his or her relationships. But there is no guarantee that there will be a trade-off - the school failure may also find himself isolated from the peer group. Indeed, many studies have found that the popular teenager is also a successful student.

Failures and triumphs which, to the adult may seem relatively trivial, are of overweening importance for the teenager. A low mark in a test is not simply an indication of one's capacity, relative to some externally defined criteria; it is also a label that the young person wears, and which signals to others his or her worthiness to be considered as a friend. The young person needs to protect him or herself from the possibility of failure, not simply to keep on good terms with the teachers, or to pacify an anxious father, but also to maintain face with the peer group. Any failure has to be identified as determined by external forces, rather than reflecting the person's internal worth.

At the same time, most psychologists would agree that learning can only take place to any meaningful extent when the conditions are such as to help the learner to be receptive - this is what Krashen is referring to when he speaks of the affective filter. The school needs to provide an environment in which the learner feels a sense of security, and in which he or she can make practice runs without failure being of any long-term importance.

The school finds itself with something of a dilemma; - on the one hand, it is the task of the school to educate all children - on the other hand, it is the task of the school to differentiate between the different children in such a way that some receive what is socially regarded as a better education than others.

It can be seen that there may be a certain conflict between these two functions, and that this conflict will be felt by the adolescent. In a later lesson, we will look at some of the ways that young people try to solve the problem.

If you wish to comment or ask a question, please write to tmason@timothyjpmason.com

Note that footnotes were not included in the original article. This article may be found on: http://www.timothyjpmason.com/WebPages/LangTeach/Licence/CM/OldLectures/L18_Adolescence.htm. It is licensed by Creative Commons and may be used for educational purposes. The website at http://www.timothyjpmason.com/index.html includes articles, lectures and links to other professional sites. This article is for faculty use in thinking about how child development and adolescent development, in particular, reflect social, cultural, economic and political developments in Western society. Student teachers can benefit from critique of many of these ideas and opinions. Discussion of their applicability and suitability to the local context will be important as they engage in discussions throughout Unit IV. With the increased availability of technology, even in the most remote areas, young people are being influenced by a kind of world culture that is both exciting and troubling.

Unit 4
Faculty Resource

Key Points in Adolescent Development

I. Physical development

What is it?

During the teen years, adolescents experience changes in their physical development at a rate of speed unparalleled since infancy. Physical development includes the following.

Rapid gains in height and weight. This spurt typically occurs two years earlier for girls than for boys. Weight gain results from increased muscle development in boys and body fat in girls.

Development of secondary sex characteristics. During puberty, changing hormonal levels play a role in activating the development of secondary sex characteristics. These include: (1) growth of pubic hair; (2) menarche (first menstrual period for girls) or penis growth (for boys); (3) voice changes (for boys); (4) growth of underarm hair; (5) facial hair growth (for boys); and (6) the increased production of oil, increased sweat gland activity, and the beginning of acne.

Continued brain development. Recent research suggests that teens' brains are not completely developed until late in adolescence. Specifically, studies suggest that the connections between neurons affecting emotional, physical, and mental abilities are incomplete. (Strauch, 2003) This could explain why some teens seem to be inconsistent in controlling their emotions, impulses, and judgments.

How do these changes affect teens?

- Teens frequently sleep longer.
- Teens may be more clumsy because of growth spurts.
- Teenage girls may become overly sensitive about their weight.
- Teens may be concerned because they are not physically developing at the same rate as their peers.
- Teens may feel awkward about demonstrating affection to the opposite sex parent.
- Teens may ask more direct questions about sex.

What can you do?

Knowledge about what changes and behaviours during adolescence are normal can go a long way in helping both teens and adults manage the transition successfully.

There are also some specific things adults can do to be supportive:

- Don't criticize or compare the teens to others.
- Encourage teens to get enough sleep.
- Encourage and model healthy eating habits.
- Encourage and model physical activity.
- Provide honest answers to teens about sex.
- Be understanding of their need for physical space.
- Be patient with excessive grooming habits.

II. Cognitive development

What is it?
Growth in thinking can be divided into several areas.

Developing advanced reasoning skills. Advanced reasoning skills include the ability to think about multiple options and possibilities. It includes a more logical thought process and the ability to think about things hypothetically. It involves asking and answering the question, 'what if … ?'

Developing abstract thinking skills. Abstract thinking means thinking about things that cannot be seen, heard, or touched. Examples include things like faith, trust, beliefs, and spirituality.

Developing the ability to think about thinking in a process known as metacognition. Metacognition allows individuals to think about how they feel and what they are thinking. It involves being able to think about how one is perceived by others. It can also be used to develop strategies, also known as mnemonic devices, for improving learning. Remembering the notes on the lines of a music staff (e, g, b, d, and f) through the phrase 'every good boy does fine' is an example of such a mnemonic device.

How do these changes affect teens?

- Teens demonstrate a heightened level of self-consciousness.
- Teens tend to believe that no one else has ever experienced similar feelings and emotions.
- Teens tend to exhibit the 'it can't happen to me' syndrome, also known as a 'personal fable'.
- Teens tend to become very cause-oriented.
- Teens tend to exhibit a 'justice' orientation.

What can you do?

- Don't take it personally when teens discount your experience.
- Get teens involved in discussing their behavioural rules and consequences.
- Provide opportunities for teens to participate in controlled risky behaviour.
- Provide opportunities for teens to get involved in community service.
- Talk to teens about their views and be open to discussing your own.
- Try to build a genuine relationship with teens.

III. Psychosocial development

What is it?

There are five recognized psychosocial issues that teens deal with during their adolescent years. These include the following:

Establishing an identity. This has been called one of the most important tasks of adolescents. The question of 'who am I?' is not one that teens think about at a conscious level. Instead, over the course of the adolescent years, teens begin to integrate the opinions of influential others (e.g. parents, other caring adults, and friends) into their own likes and dislikes. The eventual outcome is people who have a clear sense of their values and beliefs, occupational goals, and relationship expectations. People with secure identities know where they fit (or where they don't want to fit) in their world.

Establishing autonomy. Some people assume that autonomy refers to becoming completely independent from others. They equate it with teen rebellion. Rather than severing relationships, however, establishing autonomy during the teen years really means becoming an independent and self-governing person within relationships. Autonomous teens have gained the ability to make and follow through with their own decisions and live by their own set of principles of right and wrong, and they have become less emotionally dependent on parents. Autonomy is a necessary achievement if the teen is to become self-sufficient in society.

Establishing intimacy. Many people, including teens, equate intimacy with sex. In fact, intimacy and sex are not the same. Intimacy is usually first learned within the context of same-sex friendships, then utilized in romantic relationships. Intimacy refers to close relationships in which people are open, honest, caring, and trusting. Friendships provide the first setting in which young people can practice their social skills with those who are their equals. It is with friends that teens learn how to begin, maintain, and terminate relationships; practice social skills; and become intimate.

Becoming comfortable with one's sexuality. The teen years mark the first time that young people are both physically mature enough to reproduce and cognitively advanced enough to think about it. Given this, the teen years are the prime time for the development of sexuality. How teens are educated about and exposed to sexuality will largely determine whether or not they develop a healthy sexual identity.

Achievement. Because of cognitive advances, the teen years are a time when young people can begin to see the relationship between their current abilities and plans and their future vocational aspirations. They need to figure out what their achievement preferences are— what they are currently good at and areas in which they are willing to strive for success.

How do these changes affect teens?

- Teens begin to spend more time with their friends than their families.
- Teens may have more questions about sexuality.
- Teens may begin to keep a journal.
- When they are in their rooms, teens may begin to lock their bedroom doors.
- Teens may become involved in multiple hobbies or clubs.
- Teens may become elusive about where they are going or with whom.
- Teens may become more argumentative.
- Teens may not want to be seen with parents in public.
- Teens may begin to interact with parents as people.

What can you do?

- Encourage involvement in multiple groups or activities both within school and after school.
- Praise teens for their efforts as well as their abilities.
- Help teens explore career goals and options.
- Give teens an opportunity to establish their behavioural guidelines and consequences. Establish rituals to mark significant passages.
- Be aware of who your teens' friends are and what they are doing.
- Continue to provide a structured environment.

Summary of text from an article by Angela Huebner, Extension Specialist, Virginia State University, Virginia Cooperative Extension, Virginia Tech, and Virginia State University.
- ➢ http://pubs.ext.vt.edu/350/350-850/350-850.html

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Centers for Disease Control. '*Youth Risk Behavior Survey*', 2005.

X. Ge, et al., '*Pubertal Transition, Stressful Life Events, and the Emergence of Gender Differences in Adolescent Depressive Symptoms*', Developmental Psychology, 37 (2001), 404–17.

L. Steinberg, *Adolescence*, 8th ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 2007).

B. Strauch, *The Primal Teen* (New York: Doubleday, 2003).

Additional Resources

The following article gives a description of research on teen perceptions of social acceptance.

'Teens' Perception that They Are Liked Found to Be at Least as Important as Actually Being Liked'.
➢ http://esciencenews.com/articles/2008/05/15/teens.perception.they.are.liked.found.be.least.important.actually.being.liked

Unit 4, week 8, session 23: Introduction and overview of physical development
Student Teacher Reading

Adolescents and Youth in Pakistan 2001–2002: A Nationally Representative Survey

From the Executive Summary

Pakistan currently has the largest cohort of young people in its history (25 million aged 15–24), and future cohorts are projected to be even larger. As in most countries, there is the awareness that the health and well-being of youth is of great importance for the social, political, and economic development and stability of the country.

The Population Council undertook a national survey of young people in Pakistan from October 2001 to March 2002. This was the largest survey to focus on adolescent Pakistanis. The survey sought information from young people (aged 15–24), responsible adults (parents, where possible) in the household where youth who were surveyed lived, and key members of communities in each of the 254 communities where the survey took place. In the end, a total of 6,585 households and 8,074 young people were interviewed.

Social context of young people's lives

Young males and young females in Pakistan spend their time very differently, particularly those who are not in school. Males are more likely to work outside the household in paid work or outside chores, while females are more likely to work inside the home on domestic chores. Males are much freer than females to leave the home unaccompanied. While neither males nor females have much say in the marriage decision, there are sharp gender divisions in the proportions having some say over education and work decisions. Young people's attitudes about gender roles remain traditional, with well-defined lines between the worlds of males and females.

Education

Fewer than half of all females aged 15–24 have ever enrolled in school. Furthermore, those that do attend are more likely to drop out at an earlier class than their male counterparts. Low enrollment is higher for poor females. School enrollment is increasing for females, but the gains are small and the gender gap remains huge. Enrollment levels for males are over 80 per cent, but there has been very little improvement in recent years. Almost all males and females look for more education than did their parents. They feel that they should be educated either to secondary or university level.

Work

The transition to work plays out very differently for young men and women. A minority of both males and females appear to begin their work life as child labourers. Child labour involves at least a third of all girls and half of all boys in the poorest families. Most young men become part of the paid workforce. Less than 40 per cent of young women have entered the workforce by the age of 24. More young women work after the age of 15 than before.

Puberty, marriage, and childbearing

Although the onset of puberty occurs earlier for girls than boys, girls are less likely to be informed about the event in advance and are less likely to be among peers in school when it occurs. Of particular interest is the gap between the onset of puberty and the time of marriage for females, which is growing due to the increased age of marriage. There is little for girls to do to develop themselves between the onset of puberty and marriage.

Age at marriage has increased for both males and females over the past 50 years. Females marry at a much younger age than their male counterparts. Rural females and males marry earlier.

Community context and opportunity structure

Lack of facilities exposes young people in rural areas to more health risks and means they are less likely to have quality schooling. Most communities appear to have some schooling facilities available. The number of schools at each level accessible to females still falls far short of the number of schools accessible to males. This gender gap in the delivery of schooling is greater in rural areas.

Conclusion

The report findings confirm the large differences in the current situation of adolescents and youth, males versus females, from different strata of residence, and economic status. There is also a huge gap between what youth want in education and work and the opportunities that they can avail.

Modified from The Population Council, '*Executive Summary: Adolescents and Youth in Pakistan 2001–2002: A Nationally Representative Survey*' (Islamabad: The Population Council, Pakistan Office).

➢ http://www.popcouncil.org/pdfs/ayp0102.pdf

Unit 4
Faculty Resource

Research on Puberty Differences

(F)

Comparisons between identical twins (have the same genes) and individuals who don't have the same genes show similar patterns in the onset and development of puberty, indicating that the timing and progression of a person's pubertal maturation are inherited. (Marshall, 1978)

Girls in dance companies or in other physically demanding programmes often mature later than their peers. (Frisch, 1983)

Girls who are taller or heavier than their peers mature earlier. (St. George et al., 1994)

Puberty may occur earlier among adolescents who have grown up in family environments with much conflict or with less interaction between family members. (Ellis, 1991)

Girls who grow up in homes where the father is absent—because of divorce or death, for example—mature at an earlier age than girls whose fathers are present. (Surbey, 1990)

Because worldwide nutritional conditions have improved over the past 150 years … this has lowered the average age of puberty over this time. (Eveleth and Tanner, 1990)

Adolescents who physically developed faster than their peers were less likely to name adults as people who were important to them, indicating puberty may cause adolescents to shift their energies and attention to peers as they mature. (Garbarino et al., 1978)

Girls who mature early relative to their peers and who are unprepared for its effects report more negative reactions to the event. (Koff and Rierdan, 1996)

Variation in onset of puberty among Pakistani boys and their development during puberty 'may be ascribed to differences in ethnicity and/or environmental factors such as nutrition'. (Karim and Afzal, 2009)

Unit 4, week 8, session 23: Introduction and overview of physical development
Student Teacher Activity

Beliefs About Adolescence

There are many common beliefs about adolescents. Read each one and ask yourself the following questions:

- Do you agree or disagree? Why?
- What evidence do you have to support your view?
- What does your view suggest for the teacher's role?

Belief 1

Once children reach adolescence, adults have little influence over how they will turn out. Adolescence is a time of emotional turmoil. All adolescents go through it as a part of normal development.

Belief 2

Adolescent brains are still developing. They need experiences that allow them to develop both logical (right brain) and artistic (left brain) thinking. Schools spend too much time teaching adolescents to perform logical thinking at the expense of artistic thinking.

Belief 3

Adults are smarter than adolescents, adolescents are smarter than primary school children, and primary school children are smarter than preschoolers.

Belief 4

Adolescents trust their peers more than their parents or caregivers. Adolescents generally think their parents are too critical and unsupportive.

Belief 5

Adolescence is a period that is not recognized in many cultures. Once childhood is over, people are ready to take on adult responsibilities.

Unit 4, week 8, session 24: Introduction and overview of physical development
Student Teacher Activity

What Studies of Adolescents Tell Us About Common Beliefs

After you have thought about your own view of the four beliefs, look at what research tells us.

Belief 1

Adolescence is a period of rapid growth. Conflicts increase with parents and teachers as adolescents struggle to form their identities. Yet only in about one in five families does this lead to extreme conflict (Montemayor, 1982).

Implication: Never underestimate the emotional needs of youth. They continue to need love and support from parents and teachers. They need for adults to appreciate them and to count on them.

Belief 2

The right and left sides of the brain specialize in different areas of thinking. But both sides work together, and efforts to train only one side of the brain are ineffective (Pressley and McCormick, 1995).

Implication: All children, including youth, thrive on different kinds of experiences. Schools should offer a menu that includes logical thinking as well as non-logical and artistic forms of thinking. Almost all activities involve both sides of the brain.

Belief 3

Experience contributes to how much people know and what they can do. When people of different age groups are trying to learn the same thing, the child may have greater ability to learn and remember new information. Sometimes children or youth do know more than adults (Chi, 1978). Errors in thinking may lead children and youth to discover new information and ideas.

Implication: Teachers will not always know more than their students. They need to learn how to be an adult guide who supports learning. They must be able to direct students to learn more and help them to investigate wrong answers or errors in thinking. Sometimes mistakes serve a purpose in long-term development.

Belief 4

Studies in Pakistan show adolescent girls perceive parents to be more supportive and trusting than boys do, indicating different socialization processes (S. M. Stewart, et al, '*Perceptions of Parents and Adolescent Outcomes in Pakistan*', British Journal of Developmental Psychology, 18 [2000]).

Implication: Teachers need to be aware of how their students are socialized by home and community. They should not assume that children from every home and community will come to school with the same attitudes and experiences.

Belief 5

Studies going on for several decades support the notion that adolescence is a Western construct. 'The stage of youth has been a social construction, since the tasks and choices that youth face are shaped by social and economic institutions' (W. N. Grubb, and M. Lazerson, 1982).

Implication: Teachers need to be aware of how our views of youth are shaped by social forces. What they expect from adolescents may shape and limit their interactions. Exposure to Western media may alter the way youth and adults think about this period in life.

Unit 4, week 8, session 24: Social and emotional development I—Erikson and development of self–identity
Student Teacher Reading

Identity Formation in Adolescent Life

The main goal of identity formation for the adolescent is to develop a clear sense of self. This is done by 'trying on' different roles in various settings, such as home, school, and other social settings. Young people explore their own values, ethics, spirituality, racial and ethnic identity, sexuality, and gender. While teens are learning what makes them unique, they also have an increased need to fit in. Therefore, identity formation can be especially challenging for teens who feel different from others because of their cultural, ethnic, gender, or sexual identity.

Ethnic and cultural identity

Being a person of colour, an immigrant, or even moving to a different part of the country or going to a different school means navigating cultures and your sense of who you are in relationship to others. This process of adjusting to a new culture is called acculturation. It includes adjusting your behaviour to meet the expectations of your new environment.

Fitting in

Teens are likely to want to fit in with their new environment. This does not mean that they reject their home culture and values. Teens (and adults) do not necessarily have to choose between two sets of values and identities. Many learn how to get along in more than one world.

Stress during the teen years

In identity formation, teens decide if they will choose values from family, authority figures, or peer groups. Teens learn to express themselves in their own unique way. Sometimes it involves making choices that disappoint the expectations of family or friends.

This process can be stressful because it means experiencing rejection and acceptance. Peer pressure is a constant pull between being accepted by friends and being your own person. Meeting the expectations of parents, teachers, faith leaders, and peers is challenging.

In some cases, the stress of social problems and value conflicts can be severe enough to result in ongoing anxiety, depression, poor school performance, and even thoughts of suicide. This can happen when a young person does not feel safe and supported in expressing who they really are; for example, experiencing severe bullying, rejection from parents, or racism; or living in poverty, neglect, or a violent environment.

Factors that support a teen's identity formation and lower teen stress

- Secure parental attachment
- High self-esteem
- Positive influence of other adults
- Acceptance in a peer group

This information was provided by PBS, 'This Emotional Life'.
➢ http://www.pbs.org/thisemotionallife/topic/adolescence/helping-your-teen

Unit 4, week 8, session 24: Social and emotional development I—Erikson and development of self–identity
Student Teacher Reading

Supporting Emotional Literacy

Children go to school to learn basic literacy skills in reading, writing, and arithmetic, among other things. But children are also learning how to "read" what is going on around them. They study the teacher and try to figure out how to stay on the teacher's good side. They study other children to figure out how to make and keep friends. These actions, too, are a form of literacy. A person who can interpret body language has a kind of literacy. Or somebody who understands the traditions and symbols of a culture has another kind of literacy.

Many people think that girls are naturally better at "reading" other people than boys are. Girls can describe how they feel in great detail. They can describe how they think other people feel, too. People who can identify their own feelings and the feelings of others can be thought of as *emotionally literate*. Many people think that boys aren't as emotionally literate as girls. That is, boys do not seem to be so skilled at describing their feelings or "reading" how other people feel.

Understanding and expressing feelings is learned, just as learning to read is something we learn. If girls are better at dealing with feelings, it is probably because many families teach girls how to be emotionally literate. Many boys do not get the kind of encouragement for understanding their own feelings and those of others that girls tend to get. Many cultures seem to emphasize the role of boys in hiding their softer or more tender feelings (such as sadness). They encourage boys to be "tough" and in act out rather than talking about their hard feelings (such as anger).

Teachers are often guilty of treating boys differently than they treat girls, too. They may expect boys to disrupt class or show hostile behaviour. When boys act out, some people, including teachers use the expression, "Boys will be boys," as if fighting or display of aggression is part of male genetic make-up. They don't stop to think that they are not helping their boys to learn how to express their feelings in positive ways. We learn a bit at a time. In the end expressing feelings helps to understand a larger world outside of oneself. But many adolescent boys just can't do this. It is less of a problem for adolescent girls, but girls, too, often need support in understanding their feelings. Sometimes girls need help in expressing their feelings, too. It may be less of a problem for adolescent girls, but teachers need to watch for both boys and girls who need help understanding their feelings.

Teachers can help children and young people deal with their feelings in several ways.

Notice and name feelings

Teachers can ask children or young people to name their feelings. 'What is it that you are feeling?' It helps to know that feelings are not good or bad. We can't help how we feel. Feelings are connected to what is happening to us or what we remember. It is important to notice how we feel.

Understand what triggers emotions

Teachers can help children and young people to understand the kind of things that cause emotions. For example, they encourage understanding by asking, 'Why might they be feeling that way?' 'What kind of things make us happy? Sad? Angry? Afraid?' If we understand the kinds of things that cause emotions, it helps us to notice and name feelings we have and to read the way other people feel. Sometimes, questions can help. 'What do you think is going on?" 'Can you say it in words?' 'What has been happening to trigger these feelings?' 'Can you make a picture of how it feels?'

Learn to read others

Teachers can also encourage children and young people to watch other people and try to read how they feel. What does the sound of their voice tell us? What hints do their facial expression or body language give us about how they feel?

Make choices about actions

Teachers can help children to make choices about how they will act on their feelings. While we can't help how we feel, we can help what we do with our feelings. 'Stop, notice, choose, then act' is a way of remembering that we do not have to be swept away by powerful feelings.

When we can read our own feelings and the way other people feel, we are more prepared to live peacefully with others. When we can't express our emotions in a positive way, we can hurt ourselves and others.

Additional resources

Faculty note: see an excerpt from the book *Raising Cain*, by Dan Kindlon and Michael Thompson, at:
➢ http://www.bookbrowse.com/excerpts/index.cfm/book_number/188/page_number/1/raising-cain

The authors talk about emotional literacy, with special attention to boys. Kindlon and Thompson argue that the pressure a society can place on boys to deny their emotions is hurtful and destructive.

Unit 4, week 9, session 25: Social and emotional development II—The adolescent peer group
Student Teacher Reading

The Adolescent Peer Group: A Problem or Necessity?

People have different ideas about how important peer groups can be. By putting children into graded classrooms and separating them into age groups, schools may have developed a separate youth culture. Some people talk about this as the 'social construction of adolescence'. They say that when they are separated from mixed-age groups, youth will develop attitudes and values that are different from those of adults. They argue that this has not been a healthy separation.

Others argue that adolescence is a modern necessity. Adults alone can no longer prepare young people for the future. Peer groups play an important role in the social development of adolescents. Having an adolescence that is separate from childhood and adulthood allows a more natural and gradual entry into adult responsibilities.

James Coleman studied adolescent peer groups in the early 1960s. He found that students who got good grades in school were less accepted by their peers. Those who rejected what adults taught them were more admired by peers. This is exactly what many parents fear: that their adolescents will become so separated from adult society that they won't worry about things like getting good grades. Instead, they will be more interested in what their friends think. People who see adolescent peer groups as a problem think that social problems such as teenage suicide, crime, and drug and alcohol use are the result of isolation from adults.

> The self, then, is measured against two sets of criteria: on the one hand, there are the criteria that are provided by the school, and on the other there are the criteria offered by the peer group. Lack of success in one field will be, to some extent, compensated for by success in the other: the friendless child may do well at school, and the school drop-out may place great importance in his or her relationships. But there is no guarantee that there will be a trade-off: the school failure may also find himself isolated from the peer group. Indeed, many studies have found that the popular teenager is also a successful student.
>
> Failures and triumphs that to the adult may seem relatively trivial are of overweening importance for the teenager. A low mark in a test is not simply an indication of one's capacity, relative to some externally defined criteria; it is also a label that the young person wears and which signals to others his or her worthiness to be considered as a friend. The young person needs to protect him or herself from the possibility of failure, not simply to keep on good terms with the teachers or to pacify an anxious father but also to maintain face with the peer group. Any failure has to be identified as determined by external forces, rather than reflecting the person's internal worth.
>
> (Timothy Manson)

The anthropologist Margaret Mead argued that the way adolescents are best prepared for adulthood depends on how fast their society is changing. People who believe that adolescent peer groups can be positive point to how teens adapt to new technologies more rapidly than most adults. They suggest that young people help each other develop skills to deal with changing society.

Perhaps both groups—those who see adolescent peer groups as positive and those who see them as negative—have something important for teachers to think about. Young people in every culture need friendships with people of all ages. They need the wise counsel of adults and meaningful responsibility. But they also need age-group friends who will help them 'try on' being adults.

It is important to note that the views described here are Western. In a sense, getting to be an adolescent is a luxury. In many countries, there are regions where adolescence does not exist. When a child passes into the teen years, he or she has entered the adult world. There is no opportunity to 'try on' being an adult because adult responsibility is already expected! Teachers who work with families in such regions may find that girls' education is a particular challenge. Getting adolescent girls to school will the first of many problems.

The extract for this article may be found at:
➤ http://www.timothyjpmason.com/WebPages/LangTeach/Licence/CM/OldLectures/L18_Adolescence.htm

**Unit 4, week 9, session 26: Social and emotional development III—
Motivation and self-regulation**
Student Teacher Activity

Adolescent Motivation: Student Scenarios

The kite project

Ms Tiwana teaches a geometry class, and every year she has her students experiment
with a variety of shapes and sizes of kites. Then she has them design a kite based on
what they have learned. Afterward, she talks to each student individually about their
experiment. Here is what she learned.

Kamilah was very interested in the project and successful. She said, 'I wasn't complete-
ly successful, because I had a few problems. But I realized that most scientists, when
they try experiments, they're not always right. If I can correct myself on errors, then
I don't really mind them that much, because everyone learns from their mistakes. I
know I do. I think mistakes are actually good. When I tested my kite, the shape flew
really well, and I was going to stick with that shape. I had no doubts because I knew
that I could really do it. I knew I could put this together because I had confidence in
myself. And it worked'.

Lubna wasn't very successful. She said, 'I didn't like this project all that much. I knew
from the start what shape I wanted. Once I had the materials, it was easy to make the
kite. But it wouldn't fly. So I tried correcting the shape, but I found it discouraging.
If I can't get it right the first time, I find that it is usually no good wasting time to try
something else. I don't want to risk making the problem worse. I like to do well, but I
don't like taking risks. I guess if it doesn't affect my grade, then maybe I will take risks.
But I don't like making mistakes'.

Nazeer did not do the assignment. In class he seemed busy, but when Ms Tiwana
observed his work, she saw that he was just drawing. When she tried to involve him,
he acted like he was going to work, but he quit as soon as she stepped away. He said
loud enough for other students to hear, 'I'm not interested in kites. I didn't do the
work. You can fail me if you like. I don't care'.

Reflection questions

- What can you tell about each student from what they say to the teacher?
- How can you support Kamilah while at the same time encouraging Lubna?
- How would you encourage them over the long term?

Additional resources

T. M. McDevitt and J. E. Ormrod, *Child Development and Education* (Upper Saddle River,
NJ: Merrill Prentice Hall, 2002).

Unit 4, week 9, session 27: Cognitive and linguistic development I—Piaget
Student Teacher Reading

Cognitive Development of Adolescents

Adolescents gain in intellectual capacity and power. They increase in their ability to understand relationships between things. They can solve problems that are more complex and difficult. They are able to deal with ideas that are more abstract. As they move through adolescence, they gain wider knowledge, deeper understanding, better judgment, and develop common sense. With support from the adults who care for them, they also develop better understanding of themselves and others.

As time passes, changes occur in the way adolescents think and form concepts. They have greater ability to:

- Generalize
- Learn from symbols rather than concrete things
- Manage the concept of time
- Deal with ideas and situations that do not affect them
- Think logically
- Communicate effectively and carry on a discussion

Developmental theories do not focus on adolescent development in the same way. For example, according to Piaget, cognitive development moves through a fixed sequence of different stages. Adolescent thinking is quite different from children's thinking. There are four stages; the last one, called the formal operational stage, begins in adolescence and continues through adulthood. For Piaget, formal operational thought is noted for its use of logic, or ability to reason. Adolescents begin to be comfortable applying this kind of logic to hypothetical events, abstract concepts, and alternatives to reality.

In contrast to Piaget, who believed that cognitive growth comes about naturally, Vygotsky focused on the importance of society and culture for promoting cognitive growth. In particular, he believed that adults promote children's cognitive development by teaching them challenging activities, helping them perform those activities, and talking over their experiences. Language is very important. For Vygotsky:

- Complex mental processes begin as social activities. As children develop, particularly as they speak and develop their language abilities, these complex processes become internalized.
- Adults help children and adolescents make sense of how their culture understands and responds to the world.
- Children and adolescents can perform more challenging tasks when they're assisted by more advanced individuals, and challenging tasks promote maximum cognitive growth.
- The more that language is developed, the more one is able to think about things in more complex ways.

Unit 4, week 9, session 27: Cognitive and linguistic development I—Piaget
Faculty Resource

Gender Differences in Adolescent Development

(F)

> An object is hanging by a string (a pendulum), and it swings back and forth at a constant rate. Some pendulums swing back and forth very quickly, whereas others swing more slowly. There are one or more of four variables that might affect the rate at which the pendulum swings back and forth: the weight of the object, how hard the object is pushed, the height from where the object is released, and the length of the string. Design an experiment that would help you figure out which of these four variables affects how fast the pendulum swings back and forth.

This experiment is based on the classic test of formal operations by Inhelder and Piaget. It was a way to determine whether formal thinking was in place. While there have been challenges based on Vygotsky's idea that social and cultural contexts affect children's cognition, it is still considered an interesting test. It is also a way to think about whether boys or girls have more aptitude for particular kinds of thinking.

For years, scientists claimed that differences in mental abilities of boys and girls began to show up during adolescence. While IQ test scores might be similar, it was thought that girls were more skilled at verbal and boys more skilled in mathematical and spatial thinking. Researchers suggested that these differences might be due to changes in puberty.

Vygotsky's idea about social and cultural contexts provides an explanation. Sex differences in mental abilities are caused by social differences. Girls and boys are rewarded differently for showing certain abilities or interests. Even in school, girls are often steered away from science and mathematics. Recent research shows that around the world, girls and boys are beginning to perform equally well on both verbal and math tests. Changes in sex roles and more educational opportunities for both sexes are being reflected on achievement tests.

Unit 4, week 10, session 28: Cognitive and linguistic development II—Vygotsky
Student Teacher Reading

Language Development in Adolescents

An adolescent's language development is related to cognitive growth. As she learns to think abstractly, she will also be better able to develop complex syntactic creations to explain the new concepts she learns. With social development, she will learn how to read others and see the subtle differences in how different groups communicate with each other. She'll be able to switch between groups; for example, family, peers, and community organizations.

There was a time when researchers thought that rapid expansion of the brain was complete by the time a child reached about four years old. New research suggests that another rapid period of development occurs in the pre-teen and early teen years.

Language growth

In the teen years, language development shifts. Teens use more complex syntax. They can adapt their spoken and written communication to the audience. Teens can be challenged to grow in written and spoken language. Teachers can ask them to stretch beyond giving back basic information or facts by interpreting or adding detail.

Adolescents should demonstrate improvement in abstract thinking skills. Abstract thinking allows them to make word associations and to understand syntax, or rules of the language. Sometimes, teen peer groups seem to have their own language, and people complain that it is hard to understand them. Most teens adapt their language to the group they are with.

Sometimes adults confuse problems teens have in language with behavioural disorders. For example, they may act out in class to deflect attention from their problems, or they may withdraw or refuse to answer. Incorrect grammar, poor vocabulary, and the like are more obvious signs of language difficulties. Language problems may relate to receptive language (correctly understanding language input) or expressive language (correct expression of ideas).

Implications

When schools rely on lectures and books, teens who have language difficulties may fall behind. They may struggle to understand a lecture or reading material. They may also have difficulty organizing information or following instructions. Teachers may interpret this as being lazy or challenging their authority. If the teen is unable to read communication of peers, they may have problems in social relations, too. Teens with language challenges may need some help to develop alternate strategies for learning new information and improving their language skills.

Social media

Parents who worry about teens spending too much time on the Internet or sending text messages may do so with good reason. Research by Lancaster University in the UK shows that these media have led teenagers to pare down their daily vocabulary to just 800 words, although they know an average of 40,000 words. The implications of this 'dumbing down' of language have yet to be understood.

Additional resources

For an interesting article on brain development in adolescents, see

➢ http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/pages/frontline/shows/teenbrain/work/adolescent.html

Unit 4, week 10, session 29: Cognitive and individual differences
Student Teacher Reading

Measuring Intelligence

(S)

The psychologist Jean Piaget went to work helping to standardize IQ tests back when they were a new thing. Since then, schools have come to rely on these tests. They use IQ tests as a way of comparing students. They use similar standardized tests to track student progress. While standardized tests, including IQ tests, can be helpful, they have limitations. The most important limitation is the fact that they only measure a limited range of human know-how and understanding.

Theorists and researchers propose there are other kinds of intelligence than what IQ tests measure. For example, Sternberg and Gardner both propose more than one type of intelligence. Sternberg suggests that there are three types of intelligences. One is related to memory and information processing, a second is related to creativity, and a third has to do with practical thinking. Gardner talks about seven or eight different kinds of intelligence: linguistic, logical-mathematical, musical, bodily-kinesthetic, spatial, naturalist, and inter - and intrapersonal.

Though schools rely on standardized tests of achievement, including IQ tests, research challenges the wisdom of doing so. Test scores may not give a true picture of a person's knowledge and skill. For example, Guberman (1996) found that young merchants on the streets of Brazil did not do well on mathematics tests. But these same young merchants engaged in complex mathematical problem-solving every day when dealing with customers.

Many critics have pointed out that test items and examples reflect values of dominant culture groups. They exclude the real life experiences of other cultures. For example, a teacher tells about an African-American boy who had been reared in a complex urban area in the US. On a test, he was asked to circle the picture of who he would go to for help if he were afraid. The pictures were of a woman washing dishes, a farmer holding a sharp fork for tossing hay, a policeman, and a circus clown. After carefully studying the pictures, the boy circled the farmer. He had grown up in a city where the police were not seen as friendly. He thought that the man with the weapon would be more helpful. 'I think he was making a very sensible choice. There was every reason for him to not trust the police in his neighbourhood', she said. 'But sadly, it was the wrong answer'.

Reflection questions

- In what ways are standardized tests appropriate for measuring people's intelligence?
- What kind of standardized tests have you had to take in your school experience so far?
- How do you think these kinds of tests could be improved?
- Suggest some alternative ways to assess adolescents' abilities.

UNIT 5

Unit 5, week 11, session 31: Differences in student learning and performance strengths
Student Teacher Reading

What a Child Can Do: Special Needs Issues

When a family discovers that a child has special needs, they are often discouraged. They may feel guilty, for fear it is their fault. Or they may not feel equipped to provide the support their child will need. But many families learn that children with special limitations often have wonderful, even amazing gifts!

Special needs may include any of the following or combination of the following:

Medical issues. A child with serious conditions such as asthma, heart defects, or a missing limb will require special intervention. They may need a great deal of medical attention, hospital care, and special equipment. Families may deal with constant worry, uncertainty, and both routine and unexpected crises.

Behavioural issues. Some children have behavioural problems that cannot be corrected with ordinary discipline. Parents and teachers may need to learn special strategies for dealing with them at home and school. They will need to work together to be creative and flexible.

Developmental issues. These children are not simply lagging behind, they also show extreme differences in development. For example, children with Down's syndrome or Asperger's syndrome or autism may not benefit from mainstream schooling. These children may need special services outside the school.

Learning issues. While most children will have learning issues from time to time, children who have consistent challenges from conditions such as dyslexia or Central Auditory Processing Disorder will struggle with schoolwork even though they may be intellectually capable. Parents and teachers will need to provide special learning strategies. Without appropriate support, children with learning issues often begin to exhibit behavioural issues.

Mental health issues. Children with mental health issues often surprise parents who are not aware that their child is experiencing difficulty. Such children may have anxiety or depression. They may have attachment issues. These often show up in mood swings or refusal to obey. Children with mental health issues need professional support.

Summary

Every child is different, including children with special needs. Teachers and parents can be most helpful when they think of them as different, not deviant. Every child has strengths. Every child needs love, respect, and appreciation. And children need to be included in the family and in their school family. While some children may not be able to benefit from formal schooling, most children can benefit from formal schooling with support. Children who are not designated as special needs need the opportunity to be with and learn from children of difference.

Unit 5, week 11, session 31: Differences in student learning and performance strengths
Faculty Resource

Inclusive Education in Pakistan?

Inclusive education is the process of enabling all students, including previously excluded groups, to learn and participate effectively within mainstream school systems. It is based on the idea that all people have a right to a good education and that life in the world outside of school includes all kinds of people. Children with many different needs and abilities will grow up to live and work in society, including special children who have a role to play in society, too.

Because Pakistani policymakers have not reached an agreement about inclusive education, Pakistan's national policy does not advocate for it. Supporters say that inclusive education is the way to create a more open and accepting society and provide educational services to children who reside far from the special-needs schools. Supporters have also suggested that inclusive education may be less costly than special-needs schools because housing is provided at such facilities.

Some provincial governments have also set up special education schools. Pakistan has only a few inclusive schools. Most of them are located in large cities and are operated by the private sector. As a result, most inclusive or special-needs schools and services are not accessible to children with disabilities who live in remote or rural areas.

Some people do not believe in inclusive education. They say that people who want inclusive education are from international organizations and know little about the realities in Pakistan. Government schools are short of materials. Most teachers do not know how to handle the requirements of children with special needs because they have not been trained to do so. Teachers do not usually use active learning, nor do they stress creative or critical-thinking abilities. Such classrooms are not a good environment for children with special needs.

However, inclusion of children with disabilities in community schools is possible, when teachers have training, support, and resources. The first step for a teacher, school, or education system is to change attitudes. Teachers' attitudes are critical. They must be sensitive to the needs and abilities of children with special needs. With sensitivity, more welcoming environments can be created.

The presence of students with disabilities challenges teachers to consider whether their classroom environment, curriculum, and teaching meet the needs of children with disabilities. Once teachers begin to think about how they are teaching for children with special needs, they begin to think about children other needs within their classroom (i.e. gender, caste, tribe, poverty, etc.). They begin to see that all students have different needs and need more active learning strategies. When children are in a welcoming, child-centred classroom, children with disabilities are more accepted by their peers. These are positive indicators of success and good practices for all teachers to engage all learners.

Resource is based on a report on inclusive education in Pakistan available at:

➤ http://www.air.org/files/Inclusive_Education_in_Pakistan_-_Lessons_Learned_from_Engage.pdf

Additional resources

See S. Caceres, et al., '*Inclusive Education in Pakistan: Experiences and Lessons Learned From the ENGAGE Projec*t' (2010).

Unit 5, week 11, session 31: Differences in student learning and performance strengths
Faculty Resource

(F)

Social Tasks Involved in Peer Relationships

Joining a group or activity
Coping with success
Dealing with conflict
Defending self
Coping with failure
Staying involved
Making a friend
Sharing and cooperating
Sticking up for a friend
Coping with rejection
Responding to requests
Making requests
Helping others
Maintaining a conversation
Coping with teasing
Being supportive of others

Adapted and modified for Pakistani context from G.A. Williams and S. R. Asher, National Network for Child Care.
➢ http://www.nncc.org/Guidance/dc32_wo.friends3.html

Reprinted with permission from the National Network for Child Care. G.A. Williams and S. R. Asher, 'Children without Friends, Part 3: Learning about a Child's Strengths and Weaknesses'. '*Day Care Center Connections*', 3 (1993), 3–4. Urbana-Champaign, IL: University of Illinois Cooperative Extension Service.

For educational use only.

Unit 5, week 11, sessions 31 and 35: Differences in student learning and performance strengths

Student Teacher Reading

Understanding the Nature of Learning Disorders in Pakistani Classrooms

Walking briskly through the school corridor during break time, the teacher decides to take a short cut through a less frequented room when she unexpectedly comes upon a student sitting there quietly. This is Faiq. Mohammad Faiq is 14 years old. He studies in class six in a local English medium school. He is a keen student and puts in a lot of effort in his work. He is mostly smiling and cheerful and interacts well with his classmates. Due to his mild articulation problems, he faces some difficulty answering oral questions during class, sometimes resulting in his becoming an object of derision by his classmates. He has difficulty in reading and comprehension at grade level. Although hard-working, his pace of both oral and written work is very slow. He has a short attention span and has trouble sequencing words, time, and order of sentences, events and alphabets.

Faiq has some significant areas of strength. Some, like his positive approach, have already been mentioned. In addition, he has dexterous hands and an imaginative mind, helping him to come up with beautiful creations. He particularly excels during nature walks, where he is able to bring to his classmates' attention some facets of already familiar objects, which were hitherto hidden from them. His academic difficulties are a source of great concern for his parents and teachers. He is frequently reprimanded for his failures, which result in loss of confidence and good humour on Faiq's part. It is on such occasions that Faiq is found sitting in unfrequented corners at school and home. Faiq has a learning disability (LD), and the degree of his problems is moderate.

The above description is very familiar to some teachers. Students like Faiq are found in mainstream classrooms all over the country, but teachers have very little knowledge about their problems and how to address them. Children with learning disabilities are variously described as slow learners, problem students, class clowns, backbenchers, etc. In order to understand the problems faced by these children, it is important to gain more knowledge about learning disabilities.

Reflecting on the definition further, it is clear that this is not a single disorder, but rather a group with a wide range of possible difficulties in learning. It is a broad term that covers a pool of possible causes, presentations, symptoms, treatments, manage-ments, outcomes, and effects. The effects of a learning disability on an individual's life can be devastating and all-encompassing.

Learning difficulties: Common features and practices

Some of the more common features and life-influencing effects are described below.

IQ achievement discrepancy

A discrepancy between the IQ of a child and their achievement is present in children with LD. Two years' difference between them is taken to be significant and constitutes one of the criteria for LD. However, the issues are far more complex, and focusing on it too much has the danger of ignoring other important considerations.

Hyperactivity and disorders of attention

Hyperactivity manifests itself as inability to sit still in the class. Unfortunately, this is an ability most sought in students by most teachers. 'Sit still and pay attention' is the mantra for them. Without realizing the implications, teachers discuss these children in staffrooms, with the result that the child soon receives a label and all teachers deal with the child as 'hyper', a word seldom understood—hence, misused. Children with LD face various problems; for example, they cannot sit in one place for long periods, mainly because they have a limited attention span and not for lack of trying. People with LD may also have difficulty following instructions and staying on task, completing work, controlling impulses, and keeping their hands to themselves. All this contributes toward their troubles in keeping work materials organized and finishing assignments on time. Short attention span and distractibility are the other compounding problems.

Impulsivity

Children with LD are inclined to act on impulse rather than thought. They seem unable to curb their immediate reactions or think before they act. As a result, they may blurt out answers to questions or inappropriate comments, or run into the street without looking. Their impulsivity may make it hard for them to wait for things they want or to take their turn in games. They may grab a toy from another child or hit when they are upset.

Recognizing, processing, and interpreting information through sensory channels

The process of recognizing, processing, and interpreting information through sensory channels—visual and auditory—may present problems for children with LD. This proves to be especially limiting since the majority of information in the classroom is presented through these two sensory channels. The problems in learning that arise due to these two features are many and all-encompassing.

Visual discrimination is the ability to differentiate objects based on their individual characteristics. Visual discrimination is vital in the recognition of common objects and symbols because these are the attributes that children use to identify different objects, including colour, form, shape, pattern, size, and position. In Pakistani classrooms, visual problems are generally associated with not being able to read the blackboard or text; the teacher's solution is to make the child sit in the first row, assuming all will be well and the child's grades will improve once they can see. However, this is not the case, as problems in visual discrimination can lead to difficulties in accurately iden-tifying symbols—reading and gaining information from pictures, charts, or graphs. Educationally, this can interfere with the child's ability to consistently recognize let-ters, numbers, symbols, words, or pictures and lead to confusion of similarly shaped

letters, such as b/d and p/q. This can obviously frustrate the teacher and parents, as what is learned on one day may not be there the next day.

Fine and gross motor integration and general coordination defects

The effects of the above problems are manifested in academic as well as social areas of the child's life. In the academic area, writing skills and eye-hand coordination are affected, coupled with problems in fine and gross motor integration and general coordination defects. In the early years classroom, one of the requirements is neat handwriting with correct script. This expectation is seldom achieved by all children. Some children who are unable to grasp the pencil or chalk with a firm grip constantly drop or lose their pencils. This results in many embarrassing moments and situations for the child. The teacher's frustration leads to beatings on the knuckles, with the reprimand that the child be more careful next time.

Language

Language is considered to be a system of communicating with other people using sounds, symbols, and words to express a meaning, idea, or thought. It is a system for encoding and decoding information. In linguistics the term is extended to refer to the human cognitive facility of creating and using language. Children with LD may present problems in all areas of acquisition and use of language in expressive as well as receptive areas.

Problems in phonology are also manifested as problems in mechanics of language. Production of sounds and how different individual sounds make up the words are areas of difficulty. Coupled with mild coordination problems, slurring of speech is the result.

Disorders of memory and thinking

Thinking or cognition involves the ability to solve problems and to conceptualize, among other things. Metacognition is an extremely important aspect of thinking. Simply stated, metacognition is thinking about thinking. This involves awareness of skills, strategies, and resources needed to perform a task effectively, and the ability to use self-regulatory mechanisms to ensure successful planning, evaluating, and check-ing of outcomes of any proposed task. Children with LD exhibit problems in both areas of cognition and metacognition.

Social cognition

Concerns about children's general well-being includes not only academic prepared-ness and performance, but also their social relationships. Children with learning disabilities have been shown to have difficulties with social relationships and social interaction, to have a low academic self-concept, and to have a variety of emotional difficulties. Children with LD are not only often less popular than other children, but their communicative environment with typical non-LD peers is also generally more hostile. The low social competence of children with LD results in their unpopularity in their social circle.

Strategies for helping children with LD should have a simultaneous focus on the family. Family dynamics constitute an essential backdrop against which to view educational issues. The role of routine parent-child interactions in the child's development of strategic behaviours such as planning, remembering, and categorizing and in the development of coping behaviours such as delay of gratification and attributions for success and failure is very important.

Locus of Control

Children with an internal locus of control believe that their own actions determine the rewards that they obtain, while those with an external locus of control believe that their own behaviour doesn't matter much and that rewards in life are generally outside of their control. They sense that fate, in the form of chance events outside their control, or powerful people, has a dominating influence over their lives. Children with LD often have external locus of control. This also has the effect of absolving them of any responsibility of consequences of their actions. Research has further indicated an association between students who are at high risk for failure and who exhibit an external locus of control.

Myths

As the issues around learning disabilities are so complex and little understood, many myths about learning disabilities have appeared.

Hyperactivity is quite common in children with learning disabilities. It is assumed that children's most important problem is muscle activity, and that if you as a teacher are able to control the hyperactivity, you will be able to control the results of hyperactivity, such as problems in learning. This is a myth. While hyperactivity needs to be controlled for children, it is inattention actually that affects learning much more, and therefore it is that which needs to be addressed. This has implications for teachers, as they need to devise strategies to garner the student's attention. Many strategies can work.

Another popular belief among teachers and parents is that academic problems are the most important, and that if these are sorted out, then the biggest worries are over. What is most often overlooked is the social and emotional problems that accompany LD. Peer problems lead to maladjustments. These problems have the potential to leave the child friendless and lonely and to later lead to antisocial behaviour.

Another common misperception among parents and teachers is that children with learning disability outgrow their difficulties in adult life. Although many people with LD manage to have successful and fulfilling lives, their struggles with many aspects of learning continues.

The nature and features of LD are complex and little understood at this time in mainstream schools in Pakistan. The children with LD often lead a life full of difficulties. However, most possess a positive disposition that can help them overcome some of these difficulties. A great responsibility rests on teachers, parents, and the community to help these children in their endeavours. Making proper provisions to address the needs of these children in mainstream classrooms will make them more inclusive and student friendly.

Adapted from K. Waqar and N. Vazir, *'Understanding the Nature of Learning Disorders in Pakistani Classrooms'*, Nurture: Pakistan's Pioneer Publication on Early Childhood Development, 8.

➢ http://www.ecdpak.com/nurture/Nurture-8/understanding_the_nature_of_learning_disorders_in_pakistani_classrooms.html

Reflection questions

- What is one new thing you learned about disability from this article?
- How does working with students with disabilities change the demands on teachers?

Unit 5, week 11, session 32: Child development review I
Student Teacher Reading

Looking at Social Issues Holistically: The Rejected Child

There are many different reasons why children of all ages are disliked by their peers. When trying to find ways to help these children, it is easy to fall into the trap of thinking about what they do that bothers you and others. For example, 'Shakeel starts fights all the time' or 'Shahida whines whenever she is disappointed'. This focuses only on reducing these behaviour problems. It does not deal with underlying issues. So the 'problem' may come up again and again. Of more consequence is the fact that it may keep the teacher from seeing important clues about development and special needs that a child may have.

Most rejected children also lack important skills. These may be skills they have not learned: they may not cooperate or be responsive to others, or they may not know how to respond in certain social situations. Teaching a child the missing skills is often more effective in improving peer relationships than working only on reducing negative behaviour.

At other times, children are disliked because they are perceived as being different. Sometimes differences are not easy to see. For example, a child with a hearing or vision loss may not be easy to detect because the child has learned to hide the difference. Yet other children seem to know something is different and dislike the child. The teacher may perceive this child as slow or lazy or as someone who does poor work.

How can you find out which skills a child needs to learn? How can you find out if a child has a particular learning need that may require a different kind of classroom environment than you have set up? How can you find out if the child may be in need of special services? One way is to carefully observe the child when he or she is with other children. While observing, ask yourself these questions:

- What skills does the child already have? (For example, is the child kind and helpful to others?)
- What skills does the child lack? (For example, does the child not know how to deal with frustration or disappointment?)
- What strategies does the child seem to be using to get on with other children?

Your observations can be organized under the six core questions. These are the questions children consciously or unconsciously ask themselves when deciding whether to be friends with someone.

- Is this child fun to be with?
- Is this child trustworthy?
- Do we influence each other in ways I like?
- Does this child help me achieve my goals?
- Does this child make me feel good about myself?
- Is this child similar to me?

As you make your observations, pay close attention to the kinds of social situations you are observing. What is going on? Is the child's social task to join a group, maintain a conversation, compete in a game, or deal with a dispute? As you observe a child, think about which situations go well for the child, and which are especially difficult.

Let's illustrate this approach by considering Shakeel, an eight-year-old boy who was disliked by many of his peers. The staff in his program decided to observe him for a week and then meet to discuss their observations and to develop a plan for helping him. The observations were made by all the staff who had frequent contact with Shakeel. They jotted down brief notes whenever they saw Shakeel with others and wrote longer descriptions later in the day after the children had left.

One brief note about Shakeel was 'cricket'. The longer description was 'Shakeel waited his turn well. But once playing, he seemed to think only of winning. Also, he didn't do well at the game. He hit hard but wildly at the ball. When he lost, he stormed off, complaining about the other player and insulting him. The other boys were all saying they'd never let him on their team again because he won't pay any attention to what they try to tell him'.

Another brief note was 'teasing: hat'. This was expanded to 'Nazeer took Shakeel's hat and said "Try and get it!" Shakeel screamed and jumped for the hat. Nazeer threw the hat to another kid. Shakeel ran screaming after it, and soon four kids were tossing Shakeel's hat around. Shakeel insulted them and punched Nazeer. A big fight resulted'.

A third note was 'injury'. The longer note read 'Mahmut and Shakeel were kicking the football around the schoolyard. Mahmut landed funny and hurt his right ankle. Shakeel ran over, gave Mahmut a hand, and helped him sit. Shakeel was sympathetic and got help'.

Another note made during group work read 'wanting the best seat'. The observation read 'Children were put in groups. Shakeel kept changing his seat while the children were working. They were good about ignoring him. When he did find a seat that he liked, he sat sideways in his chair and leaned into the group instead of sitting up and working like everybody else'.

At the end of the week, the staff used the six core questions to summarize their observations. Here are their notes for the first core question.

Is this child fun to be with?

Sense of humour. Shakeel makes good jokes but he often seems to miss the point of others' jokes.

Resourceful/skilful. Shakeel often has good ideas for things to do. Also, his skills in some areas are fine (e.g. cooking and crafts), but his sports skills are very weak.

Participatory/readily involved. Shakeel joins in willingly. He stays involved during non-competitive activities, but he seems to annoy people by insisting on sitting or standing where he wants, even if someone else is already there. When losing a competitive game, he often leaves.

Cooperative. Shakeel cooperates well in non-competitive activities. In competitive games, he argues a lot and insults others when he's losing. This sometimes leads to fights. During games, Shakeel is a poor team member, he doesn't seem to listen to group instructions, and only cares about his own performance.

Staff noted that Shakeel had considerable trouble coping with teasing. They were surprised to find out that he was skilled at most of the other tasks as long as he was involved in cooperative activities, though he often had to have things explained more than once. In competitive games, however, Shakeel had particular trouble with maintaining participation, managing conflict, and coping with failure.

Overall, it seems that Shakeel had more strengths than the staff had previously recognized. His main problems, besides handling teasing, centred on competitive activities and a tendency to put his own comfort first. His basic games and sports skills (e.g. ball handling, strategy, and rule knowledge) were poor, which meant he usually lost. He was also a poor team member. In sports, Shakeel paid attention only to winning. When he started to do poorly, Shakeel argued, became insulting, started fights, and often quit. Not surprisingly, other children were wary of Shakeel and were reluctant to play with him, even though he was a good companion in non-competitive activities.

Thinking about Shakeel

We do not have all the information we need to make a fair judgment about Shakeel's needs. But there are some clues about things that the staff or Shakeel's teacher should be thinking about.

- What are some questions that this description raises for you?

- What clues support your question?

- What do you know about development (pre-primary through adolescent) that can inform your thinking?

Adapted and modified for Pakistani context from G.A. Williams and S. R. Asher, National Network for Child Care.

➢ http://www.nncc.org/Guidance/dc32_wo.friends3.html

Unit 5, week 11, sessions 32 and 33: Child development review
Student Teacher Reading

Classrooms for all Learners

When faced with a diverse and inclusive classroom, the task of making sure that everybody learns to the best of their ability falls on the teacher. No matter how hard-working the teacher is, without implementation of the appropriate strategies, they are bound to fail. In this article, Nida Alvi has outlined useful suggestions for teachers on how to make the classroom a suitable place for children who need additional support and has detailed the ways the curriculum can be modified to suit the needs of all children.

Many of us have experienced the 'one size fits all' approach toward teaching, whereby you either learn through the method chosen by the teacher or you don't learn anything at all.

However, within the rapidly shifting environment our children are growing up in, the dynamics of their classrooms are also evolving. While changes are occurring in many areas, diversity has garnered particular attention from parents, teachers, and school administrators. Adults responsible for nurturing children into lifelong learners are increasingly interested in *how* they learn and why different teaching methods resonate with different children.

As awareness of diversity increases, the growing interest is in children with disabilities and how they can be supported within mainstream classrooms. It is critical to remember that children with disabilities are ultimately children. Therefore, it is likely that supports put into place for them will prove to be of universal benefit for all children in the classroom. In some instances, of course, certain more individualized measures will be necessary, and again, those are the right of every child, not just those with a diagnosed disability.

Setting up the classroom

Before we consider specific adaptations, it is important to examine the larger class-room and ensure that the physical and temporal environment is conducive to learning. For starters, look around the physical space of your classroom and ask yourself if you have managed temperature, lightning, seating arrangements, noise levels, safety issues, and traffic patterns to the best of your ability, keeping your children's needs in mind. Then, run though the identified temporal areas below and ask yourself the following questions (adapted from 'Designing the Learning Environment' in *Blended Practices for Teaching Young Children in Inclusive Settings*):

Is my class schedule designed to meet the needs of all children?

- Is there a balance in the type and structure of activities?

- Does it attend to length of activities?

- Is it implemented consistently?

- Does it minimize and plan for transitions?

- Does it use routines and transitions as opportunities for teaching?

- Have the children been taught the schedule and its expectations?

- Are visual prompts being used to communicate the schedule and related aspects, for example, transitions, routines, choices?

Are transitions supported within the classroom?

- Is consistency maintained within routines?

- Are transitions minimized, especially whole group transitions?

- Are transitions structured?

- Has 'waiting with nothing to do' time been minimized?

- Are children prepared beforehand for transitions?

- Have children been taught the expectations for transitions?

- Are individualized prompts used to help children who need support with transitions?

What is the role of rules?

- Are children expected to follow lots of rules or a few simple rules?

- Are children involved in developing rules?

- Have the rules been posted visually for children to see?

- Have children been systematically taught the rules?

- Are children acknowledged and encouraged when they follow rules?

The above areas, of course, do not constitute all aspects of physical and temporal learning environments, but for now have been highlighted for their particular relevance in supporting children with disabilities.

Planning the curriculum

When considering how best to accommodate children with disabilities, the immediate focus is on assessment and instruction. Therein also lays our deepest concerns as teachers. But again, it is prudent to examine whether the broader umbrella within which children's instructional goals are being set is favourable. Examine your class curriculum to determine whether it is truly 'universal'; that is, designed to meet the needs of all the children in your classroom. Ask yourself three questions:

- Have children been given multiple means of communication?
- Have children been given different means to actively participate in learning experiences?
- Have children been given various means of showing what they have learned?

Children need opportunities to communicate, participate, and demonstrate learning in more than one way, for example, through gestures, spoken words, pictures, bodily movement, written work, and ultimately through their play. Providing children with diverse opportunities and addressing these three areas within your curricular framework to the best of your ability will set all the learners in your classroom up for success—establishing a sound foundation within which more individualized supports can be provided as and when needed.

Organizing instruction

Of course, as mentioned earlier, there will be instances when individual students will require more specific modifications to the curriculum. Like all classroom planning, these should also be made in light of the child's developmental level, functional need, and preferences. Also, while children do require predictability in their classroom environment, predictability should not turn into the same thing over and over again; that is, instruction about a concept should not be repeated using the same examples day after day, but rather it should be reinforced through multiple examples across multiple situations illustrating that same concept and how it connects to previous learning.

Furthermore, each and every lesson plan does not have to be changed. Modifications in instruction should only be made as needed. Some other recommendations for planning instruction include clearly articulating what the purpose of the activity is for all children, including specific behaviours being targeted for individual children. In addition, efforts should be made to embed all instructional targets as naturally as possible into regular classroom experiences, rather than pulling individual children out to receive separate instruction. Moreover, it is essential to involve key individuals (e.g. parents and other caretakers) in children's lives when planning instruction.

Designing individual supports

Identifying adaptations for children needing individual support can become an overwhelming and frequently disabling endeavour. As a result, children often end up with inadequate and/or largely inconsequential supports. So let's try and organize our thoughts. Broadly speaking, there are two categories of adaptations. One includes ongoing supports that can be introduced to allow children to participate in routines, events, and activities. The second focuses more on individualized teacher behaviours that enable children to access instruction more effectively.

For ideas on what kinds of ongoing curricular modifications can be made within the classroom, have a look at the table below (adapted from 'Building Blocks for Teaching Preschools with Special Needs').

As for the second category of adaptations, which incorporates more specific teaching behaviours, these can take the shape of prompts (or supports) and can emerge in a variety of forms and levels. These various types of prompts are:

- Gesture prompts
- Verbal prompts (indirect, direct, rules, options)
- Pictorial prompts (pictures, objects, words)
- Models (verbal or motor)
- Partial physical prompts
- Full physical prompts (hand over hand)

As is already evident, not all of these prompts lend themselves to all kinds of learning activities. Each type of prompt has its advantages and disadvantages. Through observation and other forms of assessment, teachers should determine what level of instructional support a child needs to accomplish the learning task at hand and how important it is that the task be accomplished in a certain way. Based on observations of the child, the teacher should offer only as intrusive a degree of support as is needed.

For instance, if a child can put on her shoes to go outside using a sequence of pictures to guide her, then the teacher does not need to physically support her in putting her shoes on. Gradually, if the pictures are coupled with verbal directions, the child may be able to move away from pictures to needing just verbal support to put her shoes on, followed by just gestures, and finally complete independence from needing any kinds of prompts. A goal to make the child as independent as possible should lie at the heart of our instructional planning.

It is natural to feel intimidated by the challenge of accommodating diverse learning needs within the classroom, including those of children with disabilities. But it is only when we acknowledge these diversities that we will be able to understand and motivate our children to take ownership of their learning. Children with disabilities and their learning needs should not be perceived or planned in isolation from the needs of the larger classroom. All children require individualized attention, and teachers should be prepared to support their curiosities in ways that are both novel and unique to each child.

Types of curricular modifications

Modification type	Definition	Strategies
Environmental support	Altering the physical, social, and temporal environment to promote participation, engagement, and learning.	Change the physical environment Change the social environment Change the temporal environment
Materials adaptation	Modifying materials so that the child can participate as independently as possible.	Have materials or equipment in the optimal position (e.g. height) Stabilize materials Modify the response Make the materials larger or brighter
Simplification of the activity	Simplifying a complicated task by breaking it into smaller parts or reducing the number of steps.	Break it down Change or reduce the number of steps Finish with success
Use of child preferences	Identifying and integrating a child's preferences if the child is not taking advantage of available opportunities.	Hold a favourite toy Use a favourite activity Use a favourite person
Special equipment	Using special or adaptive devices that allow a child to participate or increase a child's level of participation.	Use special equipment to increase access Use special equipment to increase participation
Adult support	Intervening to support the child's participation and learning.	Model Join the child's play Use encouragement
Peer support	Utilizing peers to help children learn important objectives.	Model Have helpers Use encouragement
Invisible support	Purposefully arranging naturally occurring events within one activity.	Sequence turns Sequence activities within a curriculum area

Adapted from N. Alavi, *'Classrooms for All Learners'*, Nurture: Pakistan's Pioneer Publication on Early Childhood Development, 8.

➢ http://www.ecdpak.com/nurture/Nurture-8/classrooms_for_all_learners.html

Reflection questions

- Which classroom strategies discussed in the article would you be comfortable applying in a classroom?

- What challenges would you anticipate in working to accommodate diverse learning needs?

Unit 5, sessions 32 and 33: Alternative sessions
Faculty Resource

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Developing Multiple Intelligences in Children

Every classroom is composed of a diverse group of learners, each with different needs, interests, abilities, and learning styles. It becomes a teacher's challenge to create a classroom that addresses the needs of each child, providing extra support for struggling students and advanced activities for students that excel. When the education of children is approached by using the experiences and strengths they bring to the learning situation, success can be achieved. Academic difficulties begin when students do not have the schema with which to connect the information given with their own experiences and strengths.

Research shows that a uniform approach to education—children sitting at desk, silently and independently completing worksheets all day, blindly following a standard curriculum—is simply ineffective. A one-curriculum-fits-all approach assumes all learners are the same. This is just not the case.

To accommodate the vast diversity in learning styles, curricula and classrooms need to be designed to approach learning in a multisensory and multidisciplinary way. This means learning occurs through a variety of approaches, weaving together, merging, and integrating multiple subjects, creating an interdisciplinary curriculum while utilizing all sensory pathways: seeing, hearing, smelling, tasting, and feeling. Engaging children in a variety of experiences, which benefits all students, increases the likelihood of learning and retaining information.

Multiple intelligences

Gardner's multiple intelligences theory is a very useful model for developing a systematic approach to nurturing and teaching children and honouring their individual needs and strengths within a classroom setting. The theory of multiple intelligences includes the notion that each person is smart in all eight types of intelligence to varying degrees.

Because research now shows that we can become more intelligent in more ways, both students and teachers can become more adept in all eight intelligences. This is possible by providing a planned cycle of experiences and opportunities that foster every type of intelligence and by making these opportunities available to every child in our classrooms.

The following is a brief description of each type of intelligence proposed by Gardner and how teachers can foster each type of intelligence in the classroom.

Linguistic

Learners of this classification think in words and use language to express meanings. They like to tell jokes, read and write stories, and play word games.

Teachers can create reading and writing projects, help students prepare speeches for sharing time, and make word games and word searches.

Logical-mathematical

Learners approach problems logically and understand numbers and abstract patterns. They like to work with numbers, ask questions, and know how things work.

Teachers can construct Venn diagrams, record and organize information on graphs, draw maps, and make timelines.

Musical

Learners are aware of patterns in rhythm and music. They like to listen and play music, sing, hum, and move to music.

Teachers can rewrite song lyrics to teach a concept. Teachers can encourage students to make songs about what they are learning. Teachers can have students learn dances and music from different countries.

Bodily-kinesthetic

Learners use their body to communicate and solve problems.

Teachers can provide tactile and movement activities, offer role-playing activities, and allow students to move while working rather than just sitting at a desk. For example, when teaching the alphabet, have the children work together to make the letters with their bodies.

Spatial

Learners create mental images and think three-dimensionally. They like to draw, paint, and work puzzles.

Teachers can provide opportunities for children to show understanding through drawing or painting. For example, after children read a book, they can create their own shadow box of their favourite scene in the story to demonstrate their understanding of what they read.

Naturalist

Learners are sensitive to the natural world and can see patterns and connections with the plant and animal kingdoms. They like to spend time outdoors, observe nature, and listen to nature sounds.

Teachers can use outdoors as a classroom, taking frequent nature walks to stimulate curiosity. Teachers can also conduct hands-on science experiments and have plants inside the classroom for students to observe.

Interpersonal

Learners are sensitive to the feelings and moods of others. They enjoy sharing, working as a team member, and working in large groups.

Teachers can encourage cooperative learning, assign group projects, and give students the opportunity for peer teaching.

Intrapersonal

Learners are sensitive to their own moods and feelings and they know their own strengths and weaknesses. They like to learn through observing and listening. Teachers can allow students to work at their own pace, involve students in journal writing and other forms of reflection.

It is important to keep in mind that we are a blend of all the eight types.

What has occurred over the years through traditional 'sit in the desk with worksheets' education is that many children have not been able to reach their full potential in school because their learning style or type of intelligence has not been tapped to nurture their learning. Not recognizing and adapting to the diverse needs of all students' learning leads to results in which only certain students thrive while others struggle to simply get by, never fully understanding or achieving their full learning potential.

As educators, it is helpful if we view each child as learning differently from another. Referring to children with differences in learning as learning disabled is inaccurate because these children have the ability to learn and thrive, and it is only a matter of defining their learning style and modifying the classroom to meet their needs. This way we become more accepting of the qualities that make each learner unique. The theory of multiple intelligences as the cornerstone of classroom teaching and pedagogy honours the differences in each unique learner and creates a classroom environment where all children's abilities to succeed are realized.

Conclusion

Howard Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences honours and promotes the development of all eight avenues of intelligence in young children. This approach provides a framework to identify how children learn, build on their strongest assets, help them become more intelligent by exposing them to a variety of ways of learning, better individualize for their interests and needs, and use teaching strategies that make learning more efficient, successful, and enjoyable for all children. We can foster meaningful learning experiences by using multiple teaching tools and strategies and by building positive, supportive relationships with children. Through environments that offer a variety of stimulating, hands-on materials that children individually select and by creating learning centres that provide natural opportunities to move, be active, and fully engaged in either solo or small-group experiences, we better serve and meet the needs of more children.

Adapted from Ellen Mays, '*Developing Multiple Intelligences in Children*', Nurture: Pakistan's Pioneer Publication on Early Childhood Development, 8.
➢ http://www.ecdpak.com/nurture/Nurture-8/developing_multiple_intelligences_in_children.html

Unit 5, week 12, session 34: Recognizing disability and learning disorders I—Emotional and behavioural

Student Teacher Reading

Models of Disability

Modern thinking about students with special needs are the medical model and the social model. While both models provide important perspectives, they are not in agreement about how to support people of difference.

In the medical model, disabled people are seen as having a problem that needs treatment. People with disability must learn how to adapt and cope with circumstances as they find them. This means that sometimes disabled people are thought about in terms of their illness or medical condition rather than as a whole person with strengths as well as limitations. A medical diagnosis sets out treatment and limitations of the disabled person. Focus is on cure or care, when cure is not possible. Unfortunately, this perspective has often been an excuse for seeing the disabled person as a problem or somehow less than a person.

The social model has been developed by disabled people and their families. Disability is seen as a societal issue. Focus should be on understanding different abilities and reducing barriers that exist within society and the way society is organized. These barriers define people with different abilities in such a way that they are seen as deficit rather than different. They are excluded from involvement and participation in society.

The social model focuses on removal of barriers that limit opportunity. These may be economic, social, or in the environment. For example, a person who cannot see may be capable of getting around, but traffic lights and regulations may make it impossible. Providing signals for people who cannot see traffic lights is an example of removing barriers.

The social model of disability has influenced the way disability is thought about. An example may be found in the World Health Organization definition of disability prior to 2001 and the new framework for disability issued in 2001.

In recent years, critics of the social model have argued that there is room for both medical as well as social approaches to disability. Hopefully, the best medical and social support can be provided for people of different abilities!

Unit 5, week 12, session 34: Recognizing disability and learning disorders I—Emotional and behavioural
Student Teacher Reading

Autism

Autism is an organic condition. It affects early development. Autistic children have many challenges in social relationships and communication. They appear to prefer isolation, though recent research on autism suggests that this is not the case. Their difficulty in communication makes them appear to reject interaction with others. There appears to be degrees of autism or what is referred to as an autism spectrum. Asperger's syndrome, for example, refers to high functioning children with a milder form of autism.

There is no one way that autistic children demonstrate social and communication challenges. It is difficult to identify autism in children younger than two. One sign is that the child seems to have difficulty in processing emotions, understanding non-verbal communication, and communicating. Parent reporting and observation are the two most important tools in identifying autism.

How parents should deal with autism is influenced by their perspective on the medical and social models of disability. Many parents rely on intensive programs such as applied behaviour analysis that uses behaviourist techniques to assess and change behaviour. Other parents reject this model and use a broader range of strategies for coping, including use of sign language, and accept autism as a variation in human behaviour rather than a condition to be treated.

Visual cues and structure have also been helpful for young children. Mainstreaming children in regular school is controversial. Some people argue that early intervention for children in inclusive school settings has been shown to help improve specific social skills. Older children have benefitted from computer-assisted communication.

Although autistic children seem to be socially withdrawn, some have remarkable talents. ARM, or the Autism Rights Movement, is a social movement that advocates for people who have autism and their caregivers to accept autism as a variation in human functioning. They urge society to be more accepting of behaviours associated with autism as ways of communicating rather than conditions to be cured. The movement is controversial. Some critics argue that it is unrealistic and denies people appropriate treatment. Others argue that it offers dignity and flexibility. Teachers need to be aware that there are many legitimate approaches to dealing with children who have autism and Asperger's syndrome.

Many parent and teacher organizations have websites that are designed to provide support for adults dealing with autistic children. An example of a website that provides free, printable materials is http://freeprintablefun.org/2007/08/free-printable-learning-activities-for.html. It also has printable Montessori materials and links to other resources. The website http://www.proteacher.net has an online discussion board for teachers who are working with children who have autism or Asperger's syndrome.

Reflection questions

- What are some of the major issues that children with autism have?
- What classroom strategies for working with autistic children would be useful in your classroom?

Additional resources

For a more in-depth discussion, see Mayada Elsabbagh and M. E. Clarke (eds.), 'Autism: Synthesis'. *Encyclopedia on Early Childhood Development (2006)*, i–iii.

➢ http://www.child-encyclopedia.com/pages/PDF/autism.pdf

Unit 5, week 12, session 34: Recognizing disability and learning disorders I—Emotional and behavioural
Student Teacher Reading

ADHD and Classroom Management

Like other children with or without disabilities, children with ADHD learn best when their teachers understand their individual needs and individualize their educational programme to meet these needs.

The following are suggestions for teachers who suspect they may have ADHD students in their classrooms:

1) Make sure that the child's hearing and vision have recently been checked and other medical problems have been ruled out.

2) Make sure you have the support of the school and the parents.

3) Don't be afraid to ask for help. You, as a teacher, cannot be expected to be an expert on ADHD. You should feel comfortable in asking for help when you feel you need it.

Assess the child's individual needs

Assess the educational needs of a child with ADHD considering both academic and behavioural needs. Children with ADHD often have difficulty learning and achieving academically in school. Effective teachers constantly monitor the child's performance and modify academic directions accordingly. Teachers need to compile a list of characteristics or behaviours that the child can be legitimately praised for.

Classroom accommodations

Children with ADHD need a structured environment. They benefit greatly from having a table or list to refer back to when they get lost during activities. They need reminders. They need previews. They need repetition, direction, and limits.

Here is a list of helpful suggestions.

- **Seat the child near the teacher**. Assign a child a seat near your desk or in the front of the room. This seat arrangement provides opportunities for you to monitor and reinforce the child's on-task behaviour.

- **Seat the child near a student role model**. This seating arrangement provides opportunities for children to work cooperatively and learn from their peers in the class.

- **Limit group assignments**. Try not to give them a lot of group tasks. These children are more distracted and distract others in group settings. When a child is involved in group work, expectations for behaviour and the child's contribution to the group work need to be carefully defined and frequently monitored.

Set expectations

Consider these strategies for the child to benefit from the class assignments.

- Do a recap of the previous lessons.
- Set learning expectations.
- Set behavioural expectations during tasks.
- State needed materials.
- Prepare the child before moving on to the next activity.

Students with ADHD often have difficulty refocusing their attention as they end one task and move on to the next. When the teacher concludes a lesson, she should prepare children for moving on to the next task.

- **Inform in advance.** At the beginning of each lesson, inform the children how much time they have to complete it. Indicate to the children when 5 or 10 minutes are remaining.
- **Check assignments**. Check the completed assignments. Review with some students what they have learned during the lessons to identify how ready the class was for the lesson and for planning the next lesson.
- **Preview the next lesson**: Instruct students how to begin preparing for the next lesson. For example, inform children that they need to put away their text books and come to the front of the room for a large-group spelling lesson.

Reinforcement and reward

For some children with ADHD, behavioural agreement, tangible rewards, or token economy systems are helpful in teaching them how to manage their own behaviour. Because students' individual needs are different, it is important for teachers to evaluate whether these practices are appropriate for their classrooms.

- **Behavioural contract**. Work together with the child to cooperatively identify appropriate objectives, such as completing homework assignments on time and obeying safety rules on the school playground. Take the time to ensure that the child agrees that their goals are important to master.
- **Tangible rewards**. Use tangible rewards to reinforce appropriate behaviour. These rewards can include stickers such as 'happy faces' or sports team emblems, or privileges, such as extra time on the computer or lunch with the teacher. In some cases, you may be able to enlist the support of parents in rewarding the children at home.
- **Token economy**. A child can earn points for each homework assignment completed on time. Token economy systems motivate children to achieve a goal.
- **Verbal reinforcement**. Children benefit from frequent reinforcement of appropriate behaviour and correction of inappropriate behaviour. Verbal reinforcement takes on the form of praise and reprimands.
  - **Verbal praise**. Simple phrases such as 'good job' encourage a child to act appropriately. Praise children frequently, and look for behaviour to praise before a child is off task.
  - **Verbal reprimand**. The most effective reprimands are brief and are directed at the child's behaviour—not at the child.

- **Selective ignoring of inappropriate behaviour**: In some instances, it is helpful to ignore the child's inappropriate behaviour, particularly if a child is misbehaving to get your attention.

Environmental prompts

Children with ADHD often are impulsive and hyperactive. Effective teachers also use behavioural prompts with their students with ADHD, as well as with other students in the class. These prompts help remind students about your expectations for their learning and behaviour in the classroom. Effective teachers also use different environmental prompts to make accommodations within the physical environment of the classroom.

- **Hand gestures**. Use hand signals to communicate. For example, ask the child to their hand every time you ask a question. A closed fist can signal that the child knows the answer; an open palm can signal that they does not know the answer. The teacher would call the child to answer only when he or she makes   a fist.

- **Classroom lights**. Turning the classroom lights on and off prompts children that the noise level in the room is too high and they should be quiet. This practice can also be used to signal that it is time to begin preparing for the next lesson.

Follow-up directions

Effective teachers make accommodations in the learning environment by guiding children with ADHD with follow-up directions.

- **Follow-up oral directions**. After giving directions to the class, give additional oral directions to a child with ADHD. For example, ask the child if they understood the directions, and then repeat the directions together.

- **Follow-up written direction**. Provide follow-up directions in writing. For example, write page numbers on the blackboard. Remind the child to look at the blackboard if they forget the assignment.

- **Repeat directions.** Write down directions and phrase them out, too.

- **Make frequent eye contact**. Make eye contact often. A glance can get the child back on the given task or can just provide silent reassurance.

Instructional gadgets

Use special instructional tools to modify the classroom learning environment.

- **Highlighting key words**. Highlight key words in the instructions on worksheets to help the child with ADHD focus on the directions. You can prepare the worksheet before the lesson begins or underline key words as you and the child read the directions together.

- **Using pointers**. Teach the child to use a pointer to help visually track written words on a page. Provide the child with a bookmark to help them follow along when students are taking turns reading aloud.

Building self-esteem and social interaction

As children with ADHD often remain friendless in school, they need to have some form of emotional support, which could take the form of a mentor. A mentor is someone who is on the child's side, listens to them, advocates for them where necessary, and assesses and addresses their needs, both socially and academically.

- A mentor could be the resource teacher, counsellor, or other teacher with an interest in and knowledge of the condition—a person with whom a child with ADHD has a comfortable relationship.

- A mentor can help find solutions and strategies for children.

- For building self-esteem, find and develop areas of competence in children with ADHD. Try to establish their interests and likes according to their competencies. Once these have been identified, bring these into play.

Parental involvement in child's journey is crucial

- Maintain contact with the child's parents and a physician if a child is on medication.

- Parents need to be apprised of their child's areas of improvement as well as problem areas, especially if progress is not obvious.

- Daily or weekly brief progress notes are helpful to parents who are trying to monitor their child's school performance.

Adapted from S. Nadeem, A. Sharif, and Z. Bachani, '*ADHD Children and Classroom Management*', Nurture: Pakistan's Pioneer Publication on Early Childhood Development, 8.
➢ http://www.ecdpak.com/nurture/Nurture-8/adhc_children_n_classroom_management_page_2.html

Reflection questions

- Which strategies discussed in the article have you seen used in classroom practice?

- Which strategies would you feel comfortable using in your future classroom if you were working with children with ADHD?

Unit 5, week 12, session 35: Recognizing disability and learning disorders II—Language, physical, and sensory
Faculty Resource

General Categories of Learning Disability

There is no clear and widely accepted definition of 'learning disabilities'. Because of the multidisciplinary nature of the field, there is ongoing debate on the issue of definition, and there are currently at least 12 definitions that appear in the professional literature. These disparate definitions do agree on certain factors:

1) The learning disabled have difficulties with academic achievement and progress. Discrepancies exist between a person's potential for learning and what he or she actually learns.
2) The learning disabled show an uneven pattern of development (language development, physical development, academic development, and/or perceptual development).
3) Learning problems are not due to environmental disadvantage.
4) Learning problems are not due to mental retardation or emotional disturbance.

From 'About Learning Disabilities', Child Development Institute.
➢ http://www.childdevelopmentinfo.com/learning/learning_disabilities.shtml

Although there are technical names for different categories of learning disability, these eight broad and general descriptions may be helpful to teachers. They do not use technical language.

Hearing impaired
Total deafness, or a hearing loss so severe that a student is impaired in processing information through hearing, with or without amplification.

Acquired brain impairment
An acquired brain impairment caused by external or internal trauma, resulting in total or partial functional limitations that adversely affects or limits a student's educational performance by impairing cognition, information processing, reasoning, abstract thinking, judgment and/or problem-solving; language and/or speech; memory and/or attention; sensory, perceptual and/or motor abilities; psychosocial behaviour; or physical functions.

Developmentally delayed learner
Learning deficits resulting from below-average intellectual functioning that adversely affects educational performance, existing concurrently with measurable potential for achievement in educational and/or employment settings.

Learning disability

Learning disability is defined as a persistent condition of presumed neurological impairment that continues despite instruction in standard classroom situations. To be categorized as learning disabled, a student must exhibit:

- Average to above-average intellectual ability
- Severe processing deficit(s)
- Severe aptitude-achievement discrepancy(ies)
- Measured achievement in an instructional setting

Mobility impaired

Mobility problems can be associated with several different bodily systems: skeletal, musculature, neurological, or combinations of systems. Mobility impairments also include problems associated with motor control, such as hand dexterity and strength, spasticity of head and limbs, and loss of appendages.

Visually impaired

Including but not limited to:

- **blindness**. Visual acuity of 20/200 or less in the better eye after correction; visual loss so severe that it no longer serves as a major channel for information processing.
- **partial sightedness**. Visual acuity of 20/70 or less in the better eye after correction, with vision that is still capable of serving as a major channel for information processing.

Psychological disorder

Persistent psychological or psychiatric disorder, emotional or mental illness that adversely affects educational performance.

Other disability

This category includes all other verifiable disabilities and health-related limitations that adversely affect education performance but do not fall into any of the other disability categories. These conditions may be chronic or acute and may result in limited strength, vitality, or alertness.

In most countries with national programs for children with special needs, schools that want funds to support children with disabilities must identify children following special guidelines. The specific learning disability is identified, usually through a team of professionals, and the school psychologist and classroom teacher are part of the team.

In this example, a team may determine that a child has a specific learning disability if:

1) The child does not achieve [in keeping with] his or her age and ability levels in one or more of the areas listed [below] if provided with learning experiences appropriate for the child's age and ability levels; and

2) The team finds that a child has a severe discrepancy between achievement and intellectual ability in one or more of the following areas:

- Oral expression
- Listening comprehension
- Written expression
- Basic reading skill
- Reading comprehension
- Mathematics calculation
- Mathematics reasoning

The team may not identify a child as having a specific learning disability if the severe discrepancy between ability and achievement is primarily the result of one of the following:

- A visual, hearing, or motor impairment
- Mental retardation
- Emotional disturbance
- Environmental, cultural, or economic disadvantage

Unit 5, week 12, session 36: Cognitive differences—Delays and giftedness
Faculty Resource

Meeting the Needs of Students with Cognitive Delay

(F)

Characteristics

- Weak problem-solving ability related to academics
- Depending on degree of delay students experience mild to severe problems with learning, communication, social, academic, independent living, leisure and work skills
- Problems in adaptive behaviour (the ability to meet/adapt to the demands of one's environments)
- Pass through same phases of cognitive development but at a slower rate
- Attain lower levels of achievement
- Short attention span
- Difficulty with abstract concepts
- Acquisition, transfer and generalization of skills and knowledge is difficult
- Can have low self-esteem due to repeated failure both socially and academically
- Achievement deficits in reading, comprehension, mathematical reasoning and problem solving
- Often behave inappropriately due to difficulty reading social situations
- Speech and language difficulties
- Tendency to experience difficulty in physical/motor areas ranging from mild to severe depending on degree of delay

General strategies

Have a positive attitude! Know the student can learn, but at a slower rate.

Encourage student assistants, peers, parents and other staff to allow the student to do as much as possible, as independently as possible. Doing too much, too often for a student can create a "passive" individual who becomes highly dependent upon others to meet his/her needs.

Provide structure, routine and repetition to help the student become comfortable with his/her environment.

Help a student to master concepts/skills through drill and repetition. Provide encouragement when student tries to back away from challenges and invites others to do his/her work.

For a student with extensive cognitive delay, use the **task analysis method** (breaking down a complex concept/skill into its component parts arranged in a logical teaching sequence).

Task Analysis STEPS

1) State skill/concept to be learned (e.g. tell time to 1/2 hour).

2) List the prerequisite skills and all the steps to the skill/task.

3) Order steps in hierarchical order or logical teaching sequence.

4) Find a *baseline*: the level where student is functioning prior to instruction or one step below where a student is experiencing consistent success.

5) Begin teaching; teach steps to student with significant delay in classroom and natural settings as well.

6) Teach each step in a variety of ways until over learning occurs, e.g. student practices to the point where he/she can experience success on a number of occasions, over a period of time.

7) When skills are learned in one situation, provide specific transfer instruction for skills to be applied in other situations.

From the Nova Scotia Community Organization Network (NSNET), which links citizens with disabilities and/or health challenges of all ages in Nova Scotia to resources and services that promote active, inclusive, healthy independent living. The website furnishes many examples that may be useful to teachers.

➢ http://www.nsnet.org/start/cognitive.pdf

Unit 5, week 12, session 36: Cognitive differences—Delays and giftedness
Student Teacher Reading

What Do Gifted Children Need?

Not all gifted children are alike. A child may be gifted in mathematics but not such a good reader. Or a child may be exceptionally capable in music but a very poor athlete. Some children have an extraordinary vocabulary. Others are exceptional in drawing or sketching. Some may be almost a year ahead of their classmates in at least one subject area. There is no one single form of giftedness. There are some considerations to have in mind, however.

Some children have exceptional talent; for example, the five-year-old who is playing the piano like a much older child. A six-year-old may be doing advanced math. Children who have an exceptional talent are able to perform at a level that is usually not achieved until much later.

Gifted children are usually high achievers. They will usually score high on achievement tests, even though they may not be doing well in school. Whether or not they do well in school, they have the potential to do so. Sometimes children are learning and achieving outside of school because there is no place for them to contribute at school. Their motivation is intrinsic—the desire to learn and discover is from within. Often such children are perfectionists.

Children do not need special programs to support their giftedness. What they do need is an environment that encourages them to explore.

Sometimes gifted children are mistaken for children with behavioural problems. They are characterized by heightened sensitivity. Sometimes a child will be emotionally sensitive and cry over something that seems trivial. Or they may be bothered by things such as tags on clothing. These characteristics are often accompanied by negative behaviour if the child is not provided with an appropriate environment, including an understanding teacher.

Difficult behaviours may be a sign of special abilities that require special support. Classroom environments that encourage exploration are the first step. Children need to be able to do projects. They need books, art materials (including materials collected from the environment and ordinary materials such as packing material). While having children go to more advanced grades for a particular subject may be necessary in some cases, most gifted children will thrive in the care of a teacher who provides instruction for children with many different gifts and abilities.

Many teachers do not know how to adapt their classrooms for gifted children. While they may provide independent projects or additional work, they are less likely to know how to actually shape the curriculum. Small things, such as allowing a child gifted in mathematics to skip over material that she has already mastered, or providing another, more advanced textbook may be enough. Having the opportunity to explore interests and do independent work may also be enough to keep gifted children productive.

Some schools encourage teachers to have an enrichment block every week. An enrichment block is a period of time set aside for all children to do their own investigation of a favourite topic or interest. The teacher may find the prospect of guiding more than 30 children in independent investigations to be daunting! Some teachers bring in support from community members or parents who volunteer to advise students once a week or once a month. Others set up a peer-advisement program, in which children can help each other or children from older grades can serve as mentors.

The most important thing for teachers who have gifted students to remember is: provide an environment that is rich in materials and that allows freedom to use them.

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Student Teacher Reading

Characteristics of Gifted Children

The National Society for the Gifted and Talented (US) website has characteristics and signs of gifted children.

The website lists six areas (creative thinking, leadership, general intellectual ability, specific academic ability, psychomotor, and visual and performing arts) where giftedness is often found. It is noted that no child is likely to be gifted in all six areas, but some will be gifted in more than one area. Each area is listed along with a checklist to give the teacher an idea of what to look for. A summary is provided below for your convenience. The checklist follows in the format of a student handout.

Creative thinking. Includes abilities such as independent thinking, original thinking in both oral and written expression, and the like.

General intellectual ability. Includes a broad range of abilities, from the ability to process information in complex ways to using a large vocabulary.

Specific academic ability. The ability to memorize, advanced comprehension skills, and the like are more focused in one specific academic or interest area.

Leadership. The ability to take responsibility and organize as well as the ability to connect actions and decisions to consequences in the future.

Psychomotor. Includes a range of abilities, such as precision in movement and high energy.

Visual and performing arts. Includes creative expression and sense of spatial relationships among other items.

Exceptional talent
Exceptional talent is the ability to perform a skill at a level usually not reached until later years, sometimes as late as adulthood. A three-year-old may be reading like a child in grade 2 or a nine-year-old may be playing the guitar like an 18-year-old who has studied for years. If the exceptional talent is in a non-academic area such as music or art, the children may not be identified as gifted by the school because most testing for gifted programs is based on academic ability or achievement.

High achievement
Gifted children are usually, but not always, high achievers. Even when they don't achieve good grades, they tend to score high on achievement tests, most often in the 95–99 percentile range. They love to learn, and their love of learning, good memories, and ability to learn quickly and easily enable them to succeed. However, if a gifted child has lost the motivation to learn, he or she may not do well in school, although achievement test scores will usually remain high.

Potential to achieve or excel

Whether or not a gifted child excels in school, he or she has the potential to do so. Many gifted children are intrinsically motivated, which means the motivation comes from within. They become motivated by interest and challenge. When these children are interested and appropriately challenged, they can and will achieve. However, even though a gifted child may not be achieving in school, he or she may still be learning and achieving on their own at home.

Heightened sensitivity

Although heightened sensitivity is rarely, if ever, used to identify gifted children in school, it is so common among gifted children that it is one of the characteristics that sets them apart from other children. They may be emotionally sensitive, crying over what others considered trivial. They may be physically sensitive, bothered by tags on shirts or seams on socks.

Additional resources

See http://www.nsgt.org/articles/index.asp for a more detailed discussion. The above description and the checklist on the handout are courtesy of the National Society for the Gifted and Talented.

If Student Teachers have Internet access, you might organize a lesson around use of this website. It includes a wealth of information and resources.

Unit 5, week 12, session 36: Cognitive differences—Delays and giftedness
Student Teacher Resource

Characteristics of Gifted and Talented Children: Checklist

Below is a checklist of some of the things to look for to identify gifted students.

Creative thinking

- Independent thinker
- Exhibits original thinking in oral and written expression
- Comes up with several solutions to a given problem
- Possesses a sense of humour
- Creates and invents
- Challenged by creative tasks
- Improvises often
- Does not mind being different from the crowd

General intellectual ability

- Formulates abstractions
- Processes information in complex ways
- Observant
- Excited about new ideas
- Enjoys hypothesizing
- Learns rapidly
- Uses a large vocabulary
- Inquisitive
- Self-starter

Specific academic ability

- Good memorization ability
- Advanced comprehension
- Acquires basic skill knowledge quickly
- Widely read in special interest area
- High academic success in special interest area
- Pursues special interest with enthusiasm and vigour

Leadership

- Assumes responsibility
- High expectations for self and others
- Fluent, concise self-expression
- Foresees consequences and implications of decisions
- Good judgement in decision making
- Likes structure
- Well-liked by peers
- Self-confident
- Organized

Psychomotor

- Challenged by difficult athletic activities
- Exhibits precision in movement
- Enjoys participation in various athletic opportunities
- Excels in motor skills
- Well-coordinated
- Good manipulative skills
- High energy level

Visual and performing arts

- Outstanding in sense of spatial relationships
- Unusual ability in expressing self, feeling, moods, etc., through dance, drama, music, etc.
- Good motor coordination
- Exhibits creative expression
- Desire for producing 'own product' (not content with mere copying)
- Observant

From the National Society for the Gifted and Talented. Used with permission.
➢ http://www.nsgt.org/articles/index.asp

Unit 5, week 13, session 37: Addressing special needs in the classroom—Differentiated instruction
Student Teacher Reading

Differentiated Instruction in the Inclusive Classroom

To differentiate instruction is to recognize students' varying background knowledge, readiness, language, preferences in learning and interests, and to react responsively. Differentiated instruction is a process to teaching and learning for students of differing abilities in the same class. The intent of differentiating instruction is to maximize each student's growth and individual success by meeting each student where he or she is and assisting in the learning process.

National Center on Accessible Instructional Materials

➢ http://aim.cast.org/learn/historyarchive/backgroundpapers/differentiated_instruction_udl

Differentiated learning has become a catch phrase in education. It is not a new concept. But it is one that many teachers had forgotten until recently. It became important again when the idea of inclusion in education was introduced. An inclusive classroom requires differentiation. The meaning of the word *differentiation* is development from the one to the many or from the simple to the complex. As it is used in education, differentiation means that teachers have to be able to work with every student with skills and abilities that range from limited to complex.

In a differentiated classroom, the teacher has to think about and provide children with opportunities to learn in the ways they learn best. In truth, the differentiated classroom is another name for a classroom designed for the whole child to engage in active learning. It means that there are plenty of materials and opportunities for children to use them in unique ways. Each child has an opportunity to learn new concepts, process information, deepen understanding, and make sense of ideas and experiences.

Children do not all learn in the same way. So the teacher will need to scaffold learning using materials and drawing on the expertise of all children in the classroom. One way to do this is to provide opportunities for children to work independently using materials in different areas of the room. For example, a science area filled with materials such as scales, magnifying glasses, bottles, jars or beakers; collections of things from nature such as rocks, leaves, nuts, and books; articles from magazines and books that range from simple to complex; materials for recording information or making charts, such as different kinds of paper and coloured pencils. Another way is that the teacher makes sure that when she is working with the whole class, there is something in what she is saying for every child to understand. For example, if the teacher is talking about parts of plants in science, she might have real plants, models of plants, coloured pictures of plants, outline drawings of plants, and the names of plants and their parts written on paper or labels. She might even have the botanical names

written out for children who are interested. In teaching the lesson, she would use these materials as part of her discussion. Those children who are on a very concrete level would have the benefit of very concrete objects and drawings, while those who are more advanced might find botanical names of interest. Later, children might work in small groups or independently to engage in their own exploration through setting up experiments that might range from very simple to much more complex.

That sounds like a big job! But it is made much easier if the classroom environment is right. The key to differentiated instruction is setting up a good learning environment and being a good manager of the environment.

An inclusive classroom is one in which all students feel safe, supported, and included. Not all educators agree about placing gifted students or students with special learning needs completely in the regular classroom. Parents don't all agree, either. In the end, special-needs students are often placed in the regular classroom as much as possible. It is not always possible, or in the best interest of the child, to place a child in a mainstream classroom for the whole day. In some cases, it isn't possible or reasonable to place a child in a mainstream classroom at all.

Successful environments for differentiation and inclusion

Here are some things to think about in deciding if you have set up a classroom that supports individuals and groups of varying needs and abilities.

- There is plenty of opportunity for students to be active—not passive—learners.
- Children are encouraged to make choices as often as possible. Children are encouraged to take risks. The teacher has an experimental attitude and accepts mistakes as a way to learn.
- Parent involvement is welcome. Parent or grandparent volunteers often spend part or all day in the classroom on a regular basis.
- Students have freedom to learn at their own pace. The teacher has alternative assessment strategies that help him to discover the unique needs of students with special needs and support their learning.
- Every child has the opportunity to experience success.

The teacher's role

Knowing every student is critical to providing appropriate teaching and learning opportunities. Many teachers like to place themselves at the door to the classroom when students enter and greet each child by name. But knowing the child goes beyond this. It means knowing what they like and dislike, what makes them laugh, what they are good at, and what they are afraid of. It means creating a welcoming environment that has something just for them. It means providing students with times to work alone, in a group, and with the whole class; times to share, times to experiment, times to have success. And it means time to learn from failure without being made to feel like a failure. To do this, the teacher has to learn to be a keen observer. But specific strategies, such as having short conferences with each child once a week to talk about their work, can help, too.

The teacher is not there to hand a package of knowledge to students. The teacher is there to make it possible for everybody to learn. Encouraging, questioning, prompting, and probing are good ways to do this. Questions such as 'What makes you think

so?' or 'Say more about that', help students to clarify their thinking. Comments such as 'Try another way' encourage students. The teacher provides three to four activities based on the students and their learning styles and needs and allows them some choice in selecting their activity. For example, in helping children to learn a new vocabulary word for reading, science, or social studies, the teacher might suggest that students 1) 'write' the word using clay or play-dough 'ropes' that they roll out, 2) write the word and draw an illustration that shows its meaning, or 3) write the word, its definition, and a sentence using it in a personal dictionary that they are keeping of new words. Each of these allows practice with the word in a different way.

Assessment

Observation is key. Knowing the child is essential. The teacher who knows the child will know what to look for when observing. Some teachers find it helpful to set a few learning goals they want to assess during the week and identify students to observe each day. Short conferences and interviews are also helpful. These may be combined with other assessments to provide a clear picture of learning.

Seeing it in action

A class that focuses on active learning, as a differentiated classroom must, will not be quiet. At least, it will not be quiet all of the time. It may look unstructured or even chaotic to the observer at first. Students may not be sitting in their desks but at places all around the room. Some will be working alone, some with others. There may be bursts of laughter. People may move from place to place. The teacher will not be at a desk but move about the room. He will know when some students need to be refocused on a task, when others need to make a more realistic choice, and the like.

As one begins to look closely at what is going on in an active classroom, one notices that there is a high degree of structure. Students know how to make choices. They know what acceptable noise levels are and even feel free to remind the class if the noise level gets too high. They know how to get and use materials. They know who to ask for help if the teacher is deeply engaged in helping another student. There are times, usually before and after work periods, in which the teacher will talk with the whole class about choices, use of time, and what expectations are for completion of tasks.

Centres for learning will be very similar for different age groups. Older children and adolescents may have more written materials, but they, too need manipulative materials. For example, in a classroom for older children, we might see the following after the teacher has either taught a lesson or had students read something on the geography of Pakistan: students working individually, in pairs or small groups, to 1) write a fictional article on exploring Pakistan in prehistoric times, with detail based on scientific evidence, 2) use building blocks or salt dough to make a map of Pakistan that shows geographic features and make labels for the different regions and geographic features, 3) classify rocks taken from different regions of Pakistan, using books and reference materials, 4) create a melody in which different notes represent different features of Pakistan's geography, 5) do research on archaeology in Pakistan and how it tells scientists about Pakistan's geography through the centuries, 6) create a mural that shows the different geographic features of Pakistan, 7) match pictures and outline drawings of geographical features of Pakistan, or 8) create a crossword puzzle using vocabulary from the lesson.

Younger children might have a similar lesson, followed by similar choices. The difference will be in the way material is presented and expectations for the finished products. For example, the teacher might find out and list all the places in Pakistan that children in the classes have visited, and ask 'Is that in the mountains?', 'Is that by a river?', and the like, listing children's recollections and, in some cases, guesses on chart paper or a chalkboard. Then he might show the children pictures from different regions and talk about what the land is like. Following this presentation, the children would be invited to engage in similar activities: 1) write a story about travel in Pakistan based on their own memory, the lesson, and using pictures that the teacher showed or other materials, 2) make a map as suggested above (some children might want to make labels, too), 3) classify rocks, 4) create a melody, 5) create a mural, or 6) match pictures and outline drawings.

Children will have opportunities to explain their work or their work-in-progress to peers. There will be questions and answers that provide the teacher with another window on to what is being learned. Children will display finished products, some-times for a wider audience in the classroom. For example, in the illustration about Pakistan geography, children might decide to develop a 'Museum of Pakistan History and Geography' and display their projects for a unit of study. They might invite other classes to come and have a look. Children could develop an exhibit guide, serve as tour guides, and even offer a short program to visitors.

One feature of the classroom in action will be peer support. Every child has strengths and needs. This includes special-needs students. Sometimes they will be the ones who are helping their peers! Teachers will look for times when they can make use of peer support from special-needs students. When children are working together, the chances are there will be little or any of the teasing or ridicule that parents and teachers fear when special-needs children are mainstreamed.

Successful learning opportunities for students of different cognitive needs and abilities require many opportunities to make choices. They require good classroom manage-ment. It takes time to build a learning environment to support active learning by students of varying strengths and needs. But it can start with one period of the day and limited choices until children know how to use the environment. Older students who have never experienced anything but teacher-directed instruction may not think that the learning in an inclusive, activities-based classroom is 'real' learning. In fact, other teachers and parents who do not understand the kind of deep and meaningful learning that can occur through active-learning environments and opportunities may need to discover this, too. The teacher will have to introduce new ways carefully. But when the focus is on what children are learning, fears that other teachers and parents have can be reduced. In any activities-based classroom, the teacher will want to meet with the whole class together to set out expectations and report on work. Additional meetings can be called at any time when expectations need to be reviewed.

Additional resources

The online articles 'The Inclusional Classroom: Promoting Learning' and 'Special Education and Inclusion' may be found at

➢ specialed.about.com/od/integration/a/inclusional.htm and
➢ http://specialed.about.com/od/teacherstrategies/a/incl.htm

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Case Studies of Working Models of Inclusive Education in Pakistan

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The study brings together a series of good practice models for inclusive education. It attempts to increase the knowledge base and enhance capacity to improve existing programmes. It would be premature to label the inclusive schools selected for this study as good practice models. These schools were selected because of their pioneering attempts to take up the challenge of educating children with disabilities and accommodating them in ordinary schools. They have created opportunities for including children with disabilities in mainstream schools by creating a welcoming environment for all children. However, the good practice models presented here need to be strengthened and made more child- and disability-friendly.

International School of Studies, Karachi

The International School of Studies is an inclusive school that operates from a rented building in Hill Park, Karachi. The initiative for providing inclusive education came when a few parents with children who were declared unfit for mainstream schools approached the administration of the school.

Established in 1995, the school is open to children of lower, middle, and high socio-economic classes. Currently, most students are from middle-class families living around the school. Minorities such as Hindus, Parsi, and Christians have equal opportunities for admission. These students constitute 1 per cent of the total student population of 1,000. There are 70 per cent boys and 30 per cent girls. About 6.25 per cent are children with disabilities. The fee structure for children with special needs is flexible. It is based on the parents' means. The school charges Rs. 400–1500 per month for regular students. The average fee is Rs. 1,000. The school has no other means of fund-raising. As a consequence of financial limitations, the school does not offer an outreach programme.

Accessibility for special needs

Students come from a radius of 10 kilometres and use a school bus for Rs. 500 per month. Students with disabilities are allowed to use their personal transport. In the school, toilets, washbasins, and drinking water are accessible to all children. However, the school does not have disability-friendly ramps. Currently, there are no children with severe mental retardation or severe visual impairment studying in the school as teachers lack the required skills to work with these children. In future, the school plans to provide the appropriate facilities and work with teachers to improve their skills in handling children with other disabilities.

Environment

The school is housed in a newly constructed, multi-storey building with a neat and clean environment. Parents of children with special needs and the community have a positive attitude toward inclusion. Teachers are sensitive and have a welcoming

attitude toward children with special needs. They frequently adjust their teaching strategies, presentation of content, and assessment procedures according to the requirements of children with special needs. For example, diagnostic probes and teaching are used to supplement instruction, and the presentation and response modes of assessment tools are modified according to the needs of children. Children with disabilities are seated near the teacher so that they can be helped at any time. Children are seated in semicircles, allowing flexibility for moving and facing each other and the teacher. There is easy mobility in the classroom.

The environment is gender sensitive, and respect for female teachers and girl students, particularly those with disabilities, is valued as the norm. Girls have separate toilets, dressing room, and female teacher assistants. All children are friendly, irrespective of their disability, gender, and socio-economic status.

Learners

The school provides inclusive education services to all children, including 6 with hearing impairment, 10 with mild mental retardation, 8 with physical impairment, 3 with visual impairment (low vision), 15 with learning disabilities, and 20 with multiple disabilities. The ratio of children with disabilities to normal children is 1 to 16, and the ratio of girls with disability to boys with disability is 1 to 4. Some children with disabilities excel in a particular academic area and are an example to other children. The school provides referral services (available outside the school) for children who require speech therapy and physiotherapy. The school also provides medical and counselling services to children with special needs. Parent–teacher meetings are held quarterly.

Teachers

There are 72 teachers in the school; 90 per cent are female. The teacher-to-student ratio is 1 to 14. Most teachers do not have a special education background; one teacher has received short-term training in special education in the United States. Some teachers have been trained privately through workshops arranged by READ and Comic Centres. Teachers have a reasonable understanding of disability and its implication for the education of children. They believe that inclusive education is beneficial for disabled children and that children enjoy the process of learning through innovative techniques. No particular disability creates any major problem.

Teachers are supported professionally by resource teachers within the school (on a contract basis). They are able to solve day-to-day problems in working with children with disabilities. This help is generally confined to curricular and instructional learn-ing activities, and assessment strategies. Teachers seek help from professionals both in the class and out of class. The school ensures that such help is easily and quickly available. Teachers respect the rights of all children. Although teachers have no formal training in teaching children with special needs, most have the aptitude to manage children with diverse needs. They have developed their skills through short workshops and on-the-job training.

Curriculum and learning materials

This school runs from Class 1 to A levels, and follows the curriculum prepared by the Oxford University and Sindh Textbook Board. The curriculum for children with special needs is modified according to the needs of an individual and the type of

disability. The classroom teacher, under the guidance of a mentor who is professionally qualified, makes the modifications. These modifications generally relate to the selection and presentation of the content for teaching and the assessment of the student. Books issued by the Sindh Textbook Board are modified for children with special needs. There is no specific curriculum for these children. The pace of teaching is slower in the inclusive classroom, as substantial time and effort are put in for children with special needs. Some parents of children without disabilities complained about the slow pace of instruction, but they were informed that the school's policy on inclusive education could not be compromised. Staff members consider these to be initial problems of inclusive education, and that they are rectified over time. Parents soon realise that all children benefit from the modified learning strategies.

Enlarged text and objects with high-contrast colours are used for teaching and concept formation by children with low vision. There are workbooks, drawing books and pencils, reading books with coloured pictures, and large-font printed material.

Teaching–learning process

The use of varied and flexible teaching approaches allows all children, including those with disabilities, to learn at their own pace. Teachers plan active forms of learning, simulation exercises, role-play, and use workbooks, drawing, and other forms of classwork to provide opportunities for children to learn at their own pace. The school curriculum also includes sports (such as karate), music, and drama. The method of assessment is based on an individualized education plan.

Children with hearing difficulties are taught the total communication method (lip reading and sign language). Children with mild mental retardation attend remedial classes to improve the pace of study. The children with other disabilities are also referred to special classes when there is a need. Remedial services such as occupational therapy, counselling, crisis management, and mobility are provided by the school, whereas physiotherapy, hearing assessment and devices, speech therapy, and corrective devices for visual impairment are mostly arranged externally at Ma Aysha Memorial Center (a special school). Parents pay for the cost of such services, but they are not obligatory for those who cannot afford them.

Learning outcomes

The level of performance of children with disabilities is satisfactory. The achievement differential between disabled and other children is marginal, except for the mentally retarded. Most special-needs children overcome their disability through extra effort. The level of interaction and participation of all children in sports and social programmes organised in the school is high. As the inclusive practice grows, it is expected that children will start interacting more with each other academically, too.

Supervision

Supervision for teachers is supportive and flexible. The administration acknowledges the challenges faced by teachers and recognizes their inputs. The academic achievement of children is not the only indicator for measuring a teacher's accountability.

Problems and constraints

- The school is housed in a rented building and cannot make the required permanent physical modifications to improve accessibility and provide laboratory facilities.

- There are limited funds available for expansion and improvement of existing facilities, and for assistive devices such as hearing aids, magnifying glasses, etc.

- There is a lack of trained teachers with a special education background.

- The salaries of teachers are low, and often their stay in the job is comparatively short.

- Therefore, the school is reluctant to invest in professional development for teachers.

- The government has no specific plan to support inclusive schools.

- Parents face difficulty in sparing time for providing the required support to their children.

Collegiate School System, Lahore

The Collegiate School System was established in its own building in Shadman Colony, Lahore, in 1986. It is a co-educational school offering education from Montessori to matriculation level. Girls and boys share the same classroom and learn together. The school's clientele is from the middle and lower-middle classes. Admission is open to children of all religions. The school utilizes its own resources; no grants or donations are received. The fee varies according to the means of families; some students pay no fee. Some scholarships are offered. The school was initially set up for children without disability, but when two children with physical disability applied for admission, the school administration found it unethical to refuse them. The school administrator is a lawyer by profession dealing with human rights cases; he is sensitive to the issues related to educating children with special needs. The community and parents of all children, including those with special needs, welcome the inclusive educational practices of the school.

Accessibility for special needs

Children with special needs commute to school from up to 10 kilometres using their own transport. It is the parents' responsibility to take children to and from school. Modifications such as ramps, steps, toilets, etc. have not been made to the school's physical environment. Students and staff help children with special needs move around and use essential services. The school plans to provide some of these facilities in the future. Children with special needs are admitted after selected cognitive tasks.

Environment

Children with special needs interact happily with their peers. They are provided with a safe school environment. There is respect for race, gender, ethnicity, language, social background, and varied ability levels. All children are seated in the same classroom in a row-by-row arrangement. Children with disabilities and others can easily move in the classroom.

Learners

A total of 450 children study in this school, and about half are girls. Most children are Muslim; a few come from Christian (5) and Parsi (1) families. There are 16 children with special needs (3.5 per cent of the total); 1 is hearing impaired, 14 are mentally retarded, and 1 is physically disabled. Six are girls. Each class has two to three children

with special needs. Overall attendance by these children is more than 75 per cent. There is a resource room for mentally retarded children, where these students spend some time with a psychologist who helps them in their learning.

Teachers

There are 6 male and 30 female teachers. Teachers interact with each other in the staff-room and staff meetings, and at out-of-school activities. Currently, there is no teacher trained in special education/inclusive education. In the past, however, some teachers with a master's degree in special education have worked in the school. Most teachers have attended workshops on behaviour modification applied to children with special needs offered by a special school in the city. The school has a full-time psychologist. All teachers have a friendly attitude toward special-needs children and work with children to solve their problems. Parent–teacher meetings are held every two months in which parents of special-needs children are also invited to discuss their problems. The focus of these meetings is on the problems of the students, and counselling and guidance for parents on common points. No parent has ever objected to the inclusion of special-needs children.

Curriculum and learning material

The school structures its own curriculum. It selects textbooks from those that are commercially available, keeping in view parents' desires and market demand. The school curriculum is adapted according to the special educational needs of children with disabilities. The school does not provide any language training or audio-visual aids for these children.

Teaching–learning process

The teacher is assumed to perform predetermined functions assigned by the school administration. She or he is free to adapt the curriculum for disabled children but cannot deviate from the curriculum determined by the school administration for non-disabled children. The nature of learning is passive as teachers use one-way communication: teachers lecture and students listen. There is emphasis on learning by rote. The method of assessment is based on an individualized education plan prepared for each student with special needs, setting out short- and long-term objectives.

Learning outcomes

The level of performance of children with disabilities varies. No child with special needs has been able to matriculate from this school. Some students have left to join special education institutions. Children with special needs also participate in school functions such as drama, festivals, fun fairs, debates, prize distribution, etc.

Problems and constraints

Lack of funding is a major problem; the school cannot pay high salaries and cannot provide audio-visual aids to special-needs children. Special education professionals do not stay permanently. Some parents of special-needs children are unable to provide adequate time for school-initiated activities.

Parvarish School, Lahore

The Parvarish School operates in its own building in an affluent area in Gulberg, Lahore. This school provides services to children with and without disabilities at primary level (pre-nursery to class 5). Established in 2000, the school is open to children from the middle and upper classes; most are middle class. The school is open for children of all religions, but currently all students are Muslim. There are 50 per cent boys and 50 per cent girls. About 14 per cent are children with special needs. Community support for children with special needs is limited but positive. The fee structure for children with special needs is flexible and based on parents' means. The school charges Rs. 1,500–1,650 from regular students. Some students are offered a 50 per cent concession. There are no other means of fund-raising. The school administration has tried to generate funds through donations.

Accessibility for special needs

Students commute to school from up to 10 kilometres away using their own transport. There are no ramps in the building. Students are admitted to the school on the basis of the type and severity of their disability. Amin Maktab (a special school) and the Special Education Centre of the College of Home Economics refer children with mild disabilities for admission to this school. Students are placed in grades according to their performance.

Environment

The school is housed in a multi-storied building with a neat and clean environment. The environment is also gender sensitive.

Learners

The school provides inclusive education services to children with mental retardation, learning disabilities, and hearing impairment. Of the 70 students, 10 children have a disability. The attitude of other students toward children with special needs is caring and friendly. The school arranges speech therapy for children on additional payment. The attendance of students' with special needs is 100 per cent.

Teachers

There are 10 full-time and three part-time teachers. All full-time staff members are female. The teacher-to-student ratio is 1 to 5. All teachers interact with each other in the staff room and staff meetings, and at out-of-school activities. Teachers do not have special/inclusive education backgrounds. Some have attended workshops offered by Amin Maktab, a special school. Teachers are mostly trained in-house. All teachers have attained a bachelor's degree; some have a master's degree. The teachers' attitude towards special needs children is friendly, welcoming, and supportive. Teachers are also sensitive about the rights of all children. Parent–teacher meetings are held monthly. The head teacher is a qualified woman who provides professional support to teachers whenever needed.

Parents

Teachers discuss students' problems and their progress with parents in meetings of the Parent Teacher Association. No opinion has been voiced by parents on the issue of including special-needs children in the school. Parents have accepted it as a natural process.

Curriculum and learning material

The school follows the curriculum prepared by Oxford University and some locally prepared workbooks. The curriculum and instructional materials for children with special needs are modified according to the needs of an individual child and the type of disability.

Teaching–learning process

An active learning process is followed in the school. Assessment is criterion-based, using students' strengths and shortcomings to establish desirable achievement. Students are able to progress to a realistic goal. Assessment is based on the progress of each child in each subject. Special-needs children are offered an extra four hours a week as additional support for their learning.

Learning outcomes

The performance of children with disabilities varies from case to case. There is limited interaction between children with special needs and others in the playground. The participation of children with special needs in the school's social programmes is high.

Supervision

Supervision is flexible, and the attitude toward children with special needs is caring. According to the owner of the school, staff members behave with each other like a family. Teachers are supervised and evaluated through active and frequent interactions with supervisory staff. Coordinators and section heads monitor assigned duties and progress.

Problems and constraints

The only major problem is a lack of funds to pay appropriate salaries to staff. The school is trying to raise funds through alternative sources so that concessions can be provided to students. There is a lack of assistive devices and other developmentally appropriate teaching and learning materials.

Hassan Academy, Rawalpindi/Islamabad

Hassan Academy was established in 1993 in a rented building situated in Meharabad, Rawalpindi, by a medical specialist who was also trained in special education. The school runs an inclusive education programme for nursery to class 6. It also provides residential accommodation for both disabled and non-disabled children.

Accessibility

Some disabled children are provided with transport while others use their own transport to commute to school. Students not only come from Rawalpindi/Islamabad but also from other cities and countries (Murree, Peshawar, Karachi, Abu Dhabi, Saudi Arabia, etc.). The fee structure is flexible and based on parents' means; the hostel fee is Rs. 4,000 per child. Well-off parents are encouraged to support needy students financially through the school. As a result, students coming from low-income groups succeed in gaining admission.

Environment

The school environment is friendly and supportive to students. This has developed their confidence.

Learners

There are 70 children with disabilities (6 are slow learners and 64 have hearing impairment) studying with 60 children without disability. The age of these children is from 3 to 13 years. Admission to the school is not based on the socio-economic status of the parents. About 35 students are accommodated in the hostel.

Teachers

There are 13 teachers; 3 are male. The educational level of these teachers varies from school completion to post-graduate. All teachers have had the opportunity to attend short courses from the National Institute of Special Education in sign language, speech therapy, etc. Teachers are paid from Rs. 2,000 to Rs. 5,000 plus a transportation allowance. Teachers' meetings and parent–teacher meetings are scheduled monthly. Parents of children with and without disability are invited separately to these meetings, as the school feels that the problems of the two groups are different. On social gatherings, all parents are invited jointly. All parents are well disposed to inclusive education. Teachers' attitudes are friendly, welcoming, and supportive. Children with hearing impairments are provided with medical facilities, speech therapy, and hearing assessment services. The involvement of parents is minimal.

Curriculum and learning material

The curriculum is the same for all children with slight modifications for disabled children. For boarders, there are evening classes where children with hearing impairment are taught the Punjab Textbook Board curriculum (in Urdu) and others follow the Oxford curriculum. The Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education holds special examinations for children with hearing impairment based on the curriculum prepared by the Punjab Textbook Board. No such facility is available in the Oxford curriculum in Pakistan. Hifz-e-Quran is a compulsory component of the curriculum.

Teaching–learning process

Students are active participants in their classes; there are discussions, teacher-initiated discourses, and other instructional activities. Assessment is made monthly on the basis of written tests. The school also maintains individual records. The attendance of special-needs children is between 50 per cent and 75 per cent.

Learning outcomes

The science teacher reported that children with hearing difficulties do not have problems in understanding science concepts; their performance is on a level with their peers.

Problems and constraints

The problems felt by the administration are related to lack of funds, a rented building, transportation, and lack of professional training of teachers. The school is still unprepared to provide education for children with every type of disability. Teachers have received only short training inputs as the school is reluctant to provide long-term professional training, as the turnover rate of teachers is high. The school cannot attract children with disabilities from distant areas of the city, as it does not have a school bus.

From UNICEF, '*Pakistan: Examples of Inclusive Education*' (Kathmandu: UNICEF, 2003).
➢ http://www.unicef.org/rosa/InclusivePak.pdf

UNIT 6

Unit 6, week 14, session 40: The role of the nuclear and extended family
Student Teacher Reading

Parenting Styles

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Every child is equally important to their parents. Several choices are made by parents to give their children what they deserve the most. The most important choice is parenting style. A lot of parents are still unfamiliar with this term. They treat their children in the same way they were treated when they were children. Many new parents recall how their mom and dad parented them and make parenting decisions based on their experiences. In addition, they also reach out to gain support and advice from friends and family.

Parenting styles come in three main categories. These styles are authoritarian, permissive, and democratic. Parents can be a mixture of these styles or fall into one or more categories.

The authoritarian parents always try to be in control of their children. They set rules and expect them to be followed. They usually do not like their children to ask questions about why they are told to do something. Authoritarian parents, in general, are not very warm and affectionate to their children. Despite loving their children very much, they are very critical of their children's shortcomings. Children of these parents have a difficult time thinking for themselves as they are always told what to do.

Permissive parents are described as those who have few rules or boundaries for their children. They are very warm and loving to their children despite their children's faults or achievements. However, permissive parents do sometimes get overwhelmed with the negative behaviour of their children.

The democratic parenting style is one in which parents engage their children in discussions and rules setting. They allow their children to see what the consequences of their actions will be and help them to avoid pitfalls of those actions.

It is your choice as a parent to choose which style you want to have.

From Meeral Athar Butt, *Pakistan Today*, 30 July 2011.
➤ http://www.pakistantoday.com.pk/2011/03/parenting-styles

Reflection questions

- Do any of the three types of parenting described in the article match practices you have experienced when growing up?
- How might you use this information in your teaching?

Unit 6, week 14, session 42: Role of culture and society—Gender balance
Student Teacher Reading

Text Set: Gender Issues in Education

The following set of readings offer opinions about gender balance and education. The first is about diversity in the classroom. The second is taken from a conference on gender balance. It talks about the challenge and gives a brief description of a study of curriculum and textbooks undertaken in Pakistan. They were looked at for gender balance.

Still another moves us to begin thinking about the role of the media. It is from the abstract of a thesis on how women are represented in advertisements in contemporary Pakistani magazines. The final article asks if there is gender balance in your classroom and challenges you to think about diversity.

The articles represent different ideas about the same issue. You may not agree with all of them, but their purpose is to get you to thinking about the issue.

Articles in the text set

1) 'Gender and Teaching'
2) 'Gender in Education Policy Support Project, from the Executive Summary'
3) 'Representation of Women in the Advertisements of Contemporary Pakistani Magazines'
4) 'Is There Gender Equity in Your Classroom?' with online reading at
   ➤ http://www.cedu.niu.edu/~shumow/itt/Gender%20Equity.pdf

As you read from the text set, ask yourself:

- How do I feel about the issue being discussed?
- What are the stereotypes and misconceptions I bring to thinking about gender balance?
- Does the article reflect needs and issues related to all or a part of Pakistani society?
- Which article or articles appeal to me most? Why?

Unit 6, week 14, session 42: Role of culture and society—Gender balance
Student Teacher Reading

I. Gender and Teaching

Teachers and schools may unintentionally reinforce gender stereotypes. We may:

- call on boys to answer questions more often than we call on girls

- assign housekeeping tasks to girls and tool-using tasks to boys

- reward boys for right answers and withhold praise from girls

- criticize girls for wrong answers

- give more responsibilities to boys than girls (such as being the head of the class or head of a group).

Moreover, many teachers may be completely unaware that they treat girls and boys differently. As teachers, we have a clear responsibility to create opportunities for all children, boys and girls, to learn to the best of their abilities. Remember that it is not necessary to oppose ideas that are important to a local culture or community. However, it is necessary to understand how such ideas influence our teaching practices and the opportunities for learning that all children should have.

Managing diversity in the classroom

There are many ways to make the curriculum accessible and relevant for all children in terms of what you teach (content), how you teach, and how children learn best (process), and the environment in which the children are living and learning. When planning lessons it is necessary to think of these three areas: content, process (such as teaching methods), and environment.

We looked at threats to children's learning and at bullying in particular. We must remember that:

- Threats from and fear of others (teachers, parents, and other children) can prevent children from learning.

- Differences, such as ethnicity, religion, and social class, can be used by bullies to justify their bullying.

- Observation is a key skill for any teacher, and we need to observe children during play and in the classroom to identify poor social relationships between children that could threaten their learning.

- Once teachers have assessed the situation, they need to be proactive in preventing opportunities for bullying rather than reacting to a situation after it has already occurred.

Prejudice and discrimination are also a barrier to children's learning. They can be reflected unintentionally in our curriculum and learning materials. This is the case especially for girls as well as children with diverse backgrounds and abilities.

Text modified from 'Embracing Diversity: Toolkit for Creating Inclusive, Learning-Friendly Environments', UNESCO.

➢ http://www.unescobkk.org/education/inclusive-education/resources/ilfe-toolkit/

Unit 6, week 14, session 42: Role of culture and society—Gender balance
Student Teacher Reading

II. Gender in Education Policy Support Programme: From the Executive Summary

Background

Gender-mainstreaming is the internationally agreed strategy, adopted at the 1995 International Conference on Women in Beijing, for governments and development agencies to promote gender equality. In the education arena, the participating govern-ments and agencies at the international forum in Dakar in 2000 adopted a Framework for Action, which included among its six goals:

> Elimination of gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality.
>
> (UNESCO, 2002:13)

According to the Population Census of Pakistan for 2006–2007, the literacy ratio indicates that there was still a gender gap of 25 per cent between females and males. Studies stated that a number of barriers still exist for female enrolment in education; poverty, distance from schools, shortage of girl's schools, and lack of facilities (i.e. gender-disaggregated latrines and boundary walls) prove to be some of the barriers toward female enrolment in education. To overcome the barriers that contribute toward the large gender gap, a complete and sustainable strategy is required.

Research on gender balance in curriculum and textbooks

In January 2000, representatives from countries in the Asia and Pacific region met for the Asia-Pacific Conference on EFA 2000 Assessment in Bangkok, Thailand, in preparation for the second World Education Forum that was held in Dakar, Senegal in April 2000. In assessing achievements in basic education in the decade since the World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien, Thailand (March 1990), it was apparent that, while important strides had been made in increasing children's enrol-ment in school, gender gaps in enrolment, retention and learning outcomes persisted. Countries from the region agreed that,

'It is essential to eliminate systemic gender disparities, where they persist, amongst girls and boys, throughout the education system—in enrolment, achievement and completion; in teacher training and career development; in curriculum and learning practices and learning processes. This requires better appreciation of the role of education as an instrument of women's equality and empowerment'.

Realizing the need for a thorough gender analysis of the curriculum and, textbooks, a study led by Dr Munawar Mirza, then Vice Chancellor University of Education, Lahore, was undertaken in 2004 to identify gender disparities (Mirza, 2005). Through this study, efforts were made to locate the sources of gender disparity by analyzing the process of textbook development. One hundred ninety-four textbooks from the four provinces for six selected subjects—English, Urdu, science, mathematics, social studies, and Islamiat for grades 1–10 were analyzed. A content analysis of these books were made to determine the different gender portrayals. The study found that despite new curriculum, textbooks represent women in stereotypical ways.

The study included a workshop in which participants discussed the issue of gender mainstreaming in the context of women in development. Most of the participants were happy with the roles and responsibilities performed by different individuals (male and female) in social institutions. Many had preconceived ideas of equating 'gender mainstreaming with women's development, leading to the destruction of social norms and value system'.

'Gender Analysis of School Curriculum and Textbooks', UNESCO, Islamabad, 2004, at
➢ http://unesco.org.pk/education/documents/publications/Gender%20 Analysis%20of%20School%20Curriculum%20and%20Text%20Books.pdf

Unit 6, week 14, session 42: Role of culture and society—Gender balance
Faculty Resource

III. Representation of Women in the Advertisements of Contemporary Pakistani Magazines

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This study investigates the representation of women in the advertisements of contemporary Pakistani magazines. Gender equality in a society demands that women should be perceived as equal citizens of the state. It demands effective legislation on the part of the government for which Pakistani women's rights activists have been striving for some decades. However, their struggles have failed to achieve the desired results because of the deeply embedded social prejudices against women's empowerment and gender equality. It is an established fact that nowadays all forms of media, including advertisements, are a powerful tool for influencing public opinion, which can be used for positive change in the society or abused to maintain the status quo of injustice and inequality. Advertisements are a form of persuasive discourse that has a great impact on the social perceptions of the masses. This study looked at the manner in which women are portrayed in these magazines; that is, whether their representation is the kind which coheres with the objectives of Pakistani women's struggle for gender equality. It is informed by a feminist perspective that places the issue within the context of the Pakistani culture.

Typical samples from different contemporary magazines were selected and subjected to a detailed analysis. Advertisement samples were analysed in detail to understand what messages about women and femininity are conveyed through them. A few samples of television commercials are a supplement to the analysis of magazine advertisements. A comparative analysis of the contemporary magazine advertisements with those of the 1980s explores whether the representation of women had been significantly different a quarter of a century back. The researcher feels that there was a very strong justification for having undertaken this particular research. There have been many studies regarding women's rights in Pakistan, and a few about the portrayal of women in the media. This study investigates how women are represented in Pakistani advertisements.

The results of this study show that the advertisements contain layers of meanings that actually promote the ideologies of the patriarchal society by depicting women in stereotyped roles. By perpetuating the status quo of unequal gender relations in Pakistani society, the portrayal of women in these advertisements detracts from the objectives of gender equality. The study proposes recommendations about changes in this regard so that the advertisements may have a representation of women which is more progressive, more progressive, and conducive toward the objectives of justice and balance of power between the genders.

Modified from A. Barbar, '*Representation of Women in the Advertisements of Contemporary Pakistan Magazines*', GCU Library, 2005–07.
➢ http://www.gcu.edu.pk/library/Thesis/Eng/Ayesha344ENG07.pdf

Unit 6, week 14, session 42: Role of culture and society—Gender balance
Faculty Resource

IV.   Is There Gender Equity in Your Classroom?

F

➢ http://www.cedu.niu.edu/~shumow/itt/Gender%20Equity.pdf

The article 'Gender Equity: Is There Gender Equity in Your Classroom?' by Rebecca Stefanelli of Northern Illinois University, at the above website, is from a student paper on gender equity. It is very reader friendly and will be a good resource for your students if they have web access. You may wish to have a look. It might be used as part of the text set on gender or it may be something you want to add to the discussion.

Article review by Dr Carole Minor

Key points made in the article: many differences between boys and girls are culturally derived. Because of myths about differences, boys and girls are actually getting a different education. A section on 'Causes of Gender Inequity' discusses stereotypes and their causes.

A section entitled 'How to Promote Gender Equity in Your Classroom' offers practical suggestions that range from observing how often teachers call on girls versus boys to suggestions about response time to questioning.

Reflection questions

- While some of the suggestions in the readings apply to classes with boys and girls, what ideas could you take and apply to a classroom with just boys or only girls?

- These suggestions were written for teachers in the United States. What suggestions would you change or add for classes in Pakistan?

Unit 6, week 14, session 43: Role of culture and society—Influence of media
Student Teacher Readings

Text Set: Media Issues in Education

The following set of readings is a collection of newspaper articles from online editions of several Pakistani newspapers. Together they offer opinions about the effects of media on youth. They represent ideas of professional journalists, a university student, and parent. The final article is from a project that is attempting to use media to change opinion about a social issue.

Articles in the text set

1) 'Media Influence on Society'
2) 'Role of the Media'
3) 'Television's Effects on Children'
4) 'Parenting the Digital Generation'

As you read from the text set, ask yourself:

- How does the writer support his or her opinion?
- What examples are most effective?
- Does the article reflect the needs and issues related to all or a part of Pakistani society?
- Which article or articles appeal to you most? Why?

Unit 6, week 14, session 43: Role of culture and society—Influence of media
Student Teacher Reading

I. Media Influence on Society

Except in the most remote parts of the country, it would be hard to find anyone who would argue that media are not playing a role in shaping society. But what is that role? Is it positive or negative? What we wear, what we do, what we eat, medicines we look for in the store—these are a few of the things that are influenced by television in particular. Companies spend millions of dollars targeting commercials to various television audiences, convinced that their message will have an impact. There are even deeper and more troubling possibilities, however. What effect are media having on the core beliefs and values of the Pakistani people?

Many countries attempt to control the media that children are exposed to, because it is believed that they are easily influenced by what they see, especially what they see on television. They are influenced by the programmes they see and values that are promoted in those programmes. But they are also influenced by the commercials that support programming. Children sing television commercial tunes and demand products that they see advertised.

Youth culture is being influenced by new forms of media, too. Text messaging is said to be limiting the vocabulary of young people. Social media offer young people opportunities to present themselves in many ways (real and fictional) and to contact and make friends from near and far. Film, DVDs and computers bring ideas, values, fashions, and sports from all corners of the globe. Many of the things that young people see and discuss are of questionable value.

What real influence do various forms of media have? This is a question for debate. One thing is clear: there are very different opinions on the subject. They are opinions worth talking about. Perhaps it is up to us to decide the influence we want media to have.

Additional resources

An interesting discussion of this topic, 'Media Influence on Society', by Hafiza Sadaf Mahmood, can be found at:

➢ http://pakistanobserver.blogspot.com/2010/08/media-influence-on-society.html

Unit 6, week 14, session 43: Role of culture and society—Influence of media
Student Teacher Reading

II. Role of the Media

> On the surface, the TV channels appear as service providers of necessary information and harmless entertainment. But the actual incentive behind the continuous blaring of sensational information in every household is mainly corporate, commercial greed with little regard to media ethics. There seems to be no concern about playing a positive role in the development of the people by trying to bridge the gaps which have been left due to bad governance and lack of vision by the leaders of a predominantly illiterate country.
>
> (Nilofar Ahmed, *Dawn*, 8 April 2011)

In the paragraph above, taken from a newspaper editorial, the writer asks us to think about what ethical guidelines frame the programs we see on television. To what extent does television show a real disconnect between social and economic classes within the country? When does it take the opportunity to build strong and positive social values? How does it support the dignity of women and minorities? The writer goes on to argue that media could make a contribution to changing our country for the better.

If you were to be in charge of television programming, what guidelines would you recommend? What role should television have in developing literacy, addressing environmental issues, and helping people in urban and rural areas to understand each other? Ahmed wonders if television might not have a positive role in nation-building.

How would you decide what news to cover? Does media sensationalize events? For example, what happened in news coverage of the flooding in 2010? Once the rain quit falling, did the media drop the story and move on to other things? What role might the media play in helping people rebuild their lives after a national tragedy such as this? Ahmed suggests that there should be media follow-up to stories in order to keep the public informed.

Rather than sitting back and complaining about the media's negative influences, teachers may have an important role to play in educating children to influence media! Being informed about the questions about media influence is a first step in preparing to help children become intelligent media consumers.

The Ahmed editorial 'Role of the Media' may be found at the website 'Pakistan Media Watch'.
➢ http://pakistanmediawatch.com/2011/04/09/role-of-the-media/

Unit 6, week 14, session 43: Role of culture and society—Influence of media
Student Teacher Reading

III. Television's Effects on Children

Television is considered as one of the miracles of modern technology. Watching TV can have both good and bad effects, especially on children. It can be entertaining and educational, and can open up a new world for all, particularly children, giving them a chance to travel the globe, learn about different cultures, and gain exposure to ideas they may never encounter in their own community.

The first two years of life of children are considered a critical time for brain development. During this, the television and other electronic apparatus, like computers, can affect a child's way of exploring, playing, interacting, and building relationships with parents and others. Therefore, the television may have both positive and negative effects on children. It is very important that parents take great care when their kids watch TV. For example, children who consistently spend more than four hours a day watching television are more likely to be overweight, which is one of the ill effects of TV.

Then children, who see a lot of violent cartoons or movies, are likely to show aggressive behaviour, which completely shatters their personality by the time they grow up. In addition, another psychological effect is that they may start thinking that the world is a scary place and that something bad will happen to them.

Besides this, continuously watching television can also lead to some health related problems. Children who spend more time watching TV may develop several vision problems, such as weak eyesight and squints (cross-eye). Moreover, children affected by this may become dull and weak due to headaches.

So a range of attitudes and beliefs are evident in public discourse about the effects of media exposure. Parents are especially concerned about how media exposure and content can influence the healthy development of their children.

The media, undoubtedly, have an effect on our lives. The debate that rages is whether or not the media have a negative effect on us as human beings. How much does the media affect our actions, thoughts, decisions, and, in general, our lives?

We live in a society, which praises individuality and freedom, and therefore to most people it is a scary thought that an outside source such as the media has such a large effect on our lives. Hence, it is no surprise that most people do not believe that the media have a strong effect on them. But when it comes to children, the debate becomes more personal. It is common knowledge that children are very impressionable and that the people they meet, their parents, and teachers can have a huge impact on the lives of children. I, myself, can attribute much of my current interests and behaviour to the effect my parents had on me when I was a child.

Needless to say that the rise in incidents of violence involving teens has raised many concerns about the kind of influence they are under and where they originate. Media depictions of violence have come under more scrutiny, as kids spend more and more time in front of viewing screens, from video games and TV shows to movies and Internet multimedia.

Today, many children, especially in the West, have their own TV sets in their bed-rooms. Parents can definitely make a difference by starting early to limit their child's time spent in front of the TV and video games. Get them more involved in sports and school activities, such as clubs and school-authorised organisations. Both parents and teachers must encourage children to read good books, rather than wasting a lot of time watching television.

As a precaution, children should not have televisions in their bedrooms and should only use the computer in common rooms (sitting or drawing rooms) at home. More importantly, parents should talk to their children about life, their problems, their friends, and especially what they see or like to see on television, mainly to reduce its negative impact.

From an article 'Television's Effects on Children' by Anum Ijaz in The Nation, June 12, 2011.
➢ http://www.nation.com.pk/pakistan-news-newspaper-daily-english-online/columns/12-Jun-2011/Television-effects-on-children

The writer is a student at the University of Central Punjab, Lahore.

Unit 6, week 14, session 43: Role of culture and society—Influence of media
Student Teacher Reading

IV. Parenting the Digital Generation

It is normal nowadays to see very young children in Pakistan confidently operating technology, possessing cell phones, and using social media. A seventh grader can multitask; constantly uses SMS to communicate, spends a lot of time online, stays connected with people through social media, surfs the net, and checks out brainpop. com to get homework help while simultaneously listening to their iPod.

Many young people now have blogs by the age of 13 or 14. So, even if their essays or stories do not receive a good grade in class or their ideas and thoughts are not entertained at home, they still have the opportunity to voice themselves, publish their work, and attract wider audiences.

I often find myself arguing with my own teenager, and she replies back: 'But mama, what is wrong? I bring straight As in all my terminal and final exams'.

Hmmm … does not leave much to argue for.

But still, I often tend to think, 'I never worked this way. How can this work for her?' I find myself thinking of the time, not that far back in childhood, when the evening began with Sohail Rana's 'Sang Sang Chaltey Rehna' on PTV, followed by all of us siblings sitting around our dining table with Abbi, my father, who would supervise our homework and test preparations. The sound of Raza Ali Abdi of BBC London would be the signal to pack up. Abbi would listen to the news, and after that we would go back to watching 'Nilam Ghar', 'Kasoti', or 'Fifty Fifty' all together, without fighting for the remote control or distracted by phone calls or messages from friends, and not restless to update our status on Facebook, or changing channels (there was only PTV!).

Why can't my kids have the same schedule?

After all, I was successful! Despite how successful we were, the reality is a lot of our childhood practices seem badly failed in the 21st century. These developments, including gadgets, the importance of communications, the difference between who is connected and who is not, alongside who is literate and who is not, have become important factors. They are here to stay. They will multiply with time and continue to impact our lives and the new generations', and the decisions that impact them.

Working in the education and development sector, I talk to these tech-savvy, multi-tasking youths regularly. Despite being successful, they are often criticised by their families or teachers for their lifestyles, and study and socialising habits. One disgruntled youth complained that his dad refused to let him work as an Internet content writer and wanted him to only concentrate on his studies. The young people of today learn and operate in a very different manner than their counterparts of the past.

I often find myself counselling them, working hard to remove feelings of disapproval, and explaining that dedicated teachers don't mean ill. They are the biggest and the most genuine well-wishers of these young people.

We all have this innate, endless desire to see replicas of us in our children! One mother who is educated and also a teacher shares her confusion. Her daughter is connected with people around the world, and she thinks it is unsafe and a waste of time. After talking to this girl, it appears she is an active blogger, and she shares valuable social and political perspectives with a global audience. She also facilitates online projects for young people globally. There is nothing wrong here! Just that mom could not connect to the fact that there are different learning needs now in a closely connected world. Mom grew up and went to school in an era with no technology but now is raising children who are digital natives—a generation that opened its eyes with a range of digital tools and applications.

Let us seriously think about these primary or middle school kids who will be going into jobs around the year 2026 and probably retiring in 2075. They will eventually grow up and be a part of that big, constantly changing world that is completely unpredictable. The world has gone through a dramatic change in the past five decades. There are many reasons for this—technology, globalisation, media, overpopulation, war, terrorism, the economy—the list goes on.

Pakistan, with a dominating population of people between the ages of 14 to 35, is facing the challenge of supporting our youth to be active and informed members of the 21st century. Parents and teachers, responsible for teaching and grooming them, are the greatest influence on young people.

There is an urgent need to understand and reach out to these young people and prepare them for their future and not for our past.

We can only do so by making a conscious effort to trust them, include them in decision-making processes, and above all, teach them to make good choices. These young people need creative learning spaces and opportunities so they learn to solve problems unknown. Their future requires them to be connected to the world, have the ability to continually change themselves, and be flexible enough to be lifelong learners.

From Farah S Kamal, 'Parenting the Digital Generation', *The Express Tribune,* 22 July 2011.
➢ http://blogs.tribune.com.pk/story/7140/parenting-the-digital-generation

Unit 6, week 15, session 44: Role of school, peers, and teachers
Student Teacher Reading

The Classroom Environment as 'Another Teacher'

S

Creating an environment that encourages child initiation, participation, and appropriate social interaction should be the goal of every early childhood educator. The physical classroom environment plays a great part in either creating or preventing situations that cause challenging behaviour. Creating engaging, productive, nurturing, inspiring, child-centred, successful classrooms begins with the room's physical layout—the arrangement of desks and working space, the attractiveness and appeal of bulletin boards, the storage and easy access of materials and supplies, and the flow and organization of workshops and learning centres.

In some approaches to education, classrooms feature displays of children's work, collections of found objects from the home or nature, and clearly designated spaces for large- and small-group activities. Some educators stress the need for a classroom environment that informs and engages the child. They consider the physical environment to be 'another teacher'. And in the sense that it can motivate children, enhance learning, and reduce behaviour problems, environment really is an extra teacher.

Designating space for learning centres and activity areas

Child-centred environments are planned around certain physical features. In the early childhood classroom, creating effective space for learning centres is essential. While young children need sufficient space, large open spaces are not conducive to organized classrooms. Smaller, well-defined areas help children focus on specific activities and help them understand behaviours that are expected in those areas. Many teachers prefer to create different areas or learning centres within the classroom. The versatility of learning centres allows children to interact with centre material at their own developmental level. For example, a classroom might feature a quiet reading corner, a music area where students can play soft music while completing work, a discussion/conversation centre, a large table for cooperative projects, spaces for wet or messy projects, multimedia spaces, and individual work areas. Several learning centres that are commonly found in early childhood classrooms are art, block, dramatic, sand and water, listening, math, music, science, library, and reading and writing centres.

Consideration of certain variables within the arrangement of the classroom can contribute to the prevention of challenging behaviours. Look at your interest areas and consider these questions:

- Do the areas or centres have visual boundaries (shelves, tables, carpets, or even lines on the floor)?

  Centres should be clearly defined. Shelves, tables, carpets, or even lines on the floors can be used to define areas.

- Do the areas have names that are understandable to children?

  Centres should have clearly labelled names along with a picture of the activity in order to meet the learning needs of early emergent readers.

- Is there adequate space for multiple children to play in the same area?

  Centres should be able to accommodate more than one child in order to encourage and promote constructive play among each other.

- Are the various centres organized according to noise and activity level?

  Nosier centres, such as dramatic and block areas, should be grouped away from quieter centres, such as reading and writing.

- Are the areas able to accommodate many types of play?
  o Dramatic/role play
  o Solitary play
  o Parallel play
  o Constructive play
  o Exploratory play and cooperative play

- Are the areas or centres adjusted throughout the year based on child observations?

- Are there clear rules and expectations posted on how children should enter and leave each centre?

  Rules for getting in and out of centres (taking turns and the number of people allowed in the centre) should be clearly posted and discussed.

Displaying children's work

Encouraging students to make the classroom space their own fosters a sense of ownership over their learning space. Welcome their contributions to its decoration and urge them to take responsibility for its keeping it clean. Interesting and attractive visual aids, such as bulletin boards and posters, are key components of an effective classroom. Wall decorations should be colourful, appealing, and relevant to current classwork and thematic units. They should be changed and refreshed frequently in order to foster student's motivation for learning.

- Be sure to think about the diversity of your students when dressing the walls.

- Set aside a section of the bulletin board to be your designated 'Student Work Museum' and post children's drawings, written work, and other projects there.

- Make sure that each student's work is displayed often. It is also beneficial to display nameplates next to each child's work.

- Post daily schedules in a place where students can read them easily. This accessibility of the classroom schedule can help students grow comfortable with class and school routines. For younger students, make a daily schedule that includes pictures or icons.

Choice of materials

Observation is the key to choosing materials that reflect the interests of the children in a preschool classroom. By observing the types and content of children's play, teachers can choose items that support a variety of developmental levels. As children engage in play, they do so based on their level of thinking/reasoning, language, and social skills. Therefore it is important to provide materials that support children on their individual developmental level. How do we do that? By providing materials that can be used in a variety of ways, often called *open-ended*! Many of these types of items are collected and real-life materials, such as boxes, egg cartons, paper tubes, cellphones (non-functioning), telephone books, kitchen utensils, and pieces of fabric. Other typical items such as string, glue, tape, play-dough, carpet scraps, blocks, and paper are also materials that should be available to children every day. As children construct knowledge based on their experiences, their thinking, language, and social skills grow. By choosing the appropriate materials, teachers can support this growth and help children feel successful regardless of their level of development.

Text modified from Ellen Mays, '*The Classroom Environment as "Another Teacher"*,' Nurture: Pakistan's Pioneer Publication on Early Childhood Development.
➢ http://www.ecdpak.com/nurture/nurture-7/the_classroom_environment_as_another_teacher_page_1.html

Reflection questions

- Which ideas from the reading can you use in your future classroom?
- Which ideas from the reading do not seem realistic in your future classroom or the classroom you are observing for your fieldwork?
- What other ideas for found materials could you bring into the classroom?

Unit 6, week 15, session 45: Teacher's influence on child development
Student Teacher Reading

Role of the Primary School Teacher

The role of a primary school teacher is to provide guidance in the educational development of young children. But the role goes far beyond this brief statement. The primary school years, typically from 5 to 11 years old, is crucial in child development. A child's basic personality and approach to life is being solidified during these years. A young adult is in the making. So being a primary school teacher is about more than teaching things. In the best circumstances, the primary school teacher serves as a parent figure for the young child away from school, as a role model, and adult friend. Most of us remember primary school teachers who were kind and people we admired. Unfortunately, some of us remember teachers who were quite the opposite.

The damage that a poor teacher, or a teacher who does not love the job, can do stays with students all their lives. Fortunately, most elementary teachers choose to teach because they love children, are deeply interested in the general subjects taught in primary school, and/or want to do good in the world. These are teachers who make the primary school years memorable in many positive ways.

Being a primary school teacher requires being a generalist. The primary school teacher will likely teach all the school subjects. Some schools encourage an integrated curriculum in which subjects are all taught around themes. Other schools encourage separate subjects.

Reflection questions

This is one way that the role of the primary school teacher has been defined.

What is your perspective of the role of the primary school teacher?

- When you were a student.
- Now that you have begun observing or working in primary school classrooms as an adult.
- In what ways do your perspectives as child and adult differ?

Unit 6, week 15, session 45: Teacher's influence on child development
Student Teacher Reading

The Influence of Teachers

The following comment was written by an undergraduate student. She was reflecting on the influence of teachers, based on her child development course and observations in the classroom.

> I think that one of the most important strategies for teachers to remember is to promote industry in their students. Erik Erikson hoped 'that teachers could provide an atmosphere in which children become passionate about learning' (Santrock, 2011). Teachers should approach children from their level and point of view, encouraging them to learn information and accomplish tasks on their own. Most young students love learning, maybe because their minds are constantly growing.
>
> Therefore, according to Erikson, teachers need to:
> 1) Challenge students, but not overwhelm them
> 2) Be firm in requiring students to be productive, but not be overly critical
> 3) Be tolerant of honest mistakes and make sure that every student has opportunities for many successes.

One of the things many undergraduate teachers take away from studying Erikson is that children never outgrow their need for quiet spaces where they can be alone, opportunities to play with small toys or things, and times to interact with others. Classrooms that are influenced by Erikson's theory include different spaces for each of these activities, even if they are not elaborate.

The student also thought about how much Piaget's theory influenced her, as well. Teachers who remember that children's thinking is not the same as adult thinking may be more able to respect what children have to offer. They will provide materials that allow children to experiment and explore. Materials that are teacher-made can be just as effective as commercial materials.

Teachers are in a position of power and authority. They influence children. When their influence is informed by child development, it is likely to be positive as well as powerful.

Reflection questions

• Given what you know about child development, which other theorists would you suggest that the student include in her discussion about the role of the teacher in child development?

• What examples do you have from your own classroom observations that support the crucial role of teachers in child development?

Additional resources

The entire discussion, by Christina Joseph, may be found at:

➢ https://carmenwiki.osu.edu/display/hdfs361sp20119489?Elementary+school+teacher

Unit 6, week 15, session 45: Teacher's influence on child development
Student Teacher Reading

Peer Influence

Peers play important roles in children's lives at much earlier points in development than we might have thought. Experiences in the first two or three years of life have implications for children's acceptance by their classmates in preschool and the later school years. Children who are competent with peers at an early age and those who show prosocial behaviour are particularly likely to be accepted by their peers. Aggressive children are often rejected by their peers, although aggression does not always preclude peer acceptance. It is clear that peer relations pose special challenges to children with disorders and others who lack the emotional, cognitive, and behavioural skills that underlie harmonious interaction. The risk for children with early behavioural and emotional problems is exacerbated by the peer rejection they experience. Conversely, early friendships and positive relations with peer groups appear to protect children against later psychological problems.

From D. F. Hay, *'Early Peer Relations and Their Impact on Social Development' in Encyclopedia on Early Childhood Development* ©2005 Centre of Excellence for Early Childhood.
➢ www.child-encyclopedia.com/documents/HayANGxp-Peers.pdf

Reflection questions

- Who were your friends as a child? An adolescent?
- What are some of the positive ways that your friends and peers influenced you?

Unit 6, week 16, session 46: Schools, families, and communities as partners in child development
Student Teacher Reading

Involving Parents

It is important to realize that learning does not end at school and that lessons learned at home are the foundation of a child's learning. Exploring how parents can contribute to a child's learning process and understanding the importance of involving parents and other family members in the child's school is important for a child's development.

Research has shown that students benefit from parental participation (or that of aunts, uncles, grandparents, and cousins) in many ways, such as better behaviour and concentration during the early years (possibly leading to higher grades), better attendance, and continuation of education at the advanced level. Looking closely at the research, there are strong indications that the most effective forms of parental involvement are those that engage parents in working directly with their children on learning activities at home. Furthermore, families can support their young children by having a regular daily routine, thereby providing them discipline, which would ideally include involving the children in household chores and responsibilities, getting them into bed on time, and helping the children get ready in the morning. Showing children that a family values learning, self-discipline, and hard work is important. Guiding television viewing, reading aloud, taking trips together, having books around the house, and doing creative activities will stimulate the child's mind.

Parents must realize that school is not a ready-made package in their children's lives and that value-centred learning is an important ingredient provided at home. Similarly, schools should value the importance of the family's involvement and devise strategies to make the learning environment more wholesome. Furthermore, parents should show curiosity about what the child does at school. Parents' enthusiasm and interest in meeting with a child's teacher makes the child realize the value or importance of school.

Nurturing the child's learning needs

The curiosity of a child is central to the learning process and it needs to be nurtured. The role of the family is very important in this regard, and families should try to enhance their children's curiosity. For example, when animals are discussed in school, parents can point out animals seen every day, such as stray cats and dogs or birds, to connect knowledge with reality. Alternatively, field trips can be organized by the school, and parents can be asked to accompany the students and staff. Moreover, when talking about fruit, children can be taken to a fruit shop by the parent, and when fruits such as oranges are eaten, the parent or family member can practically demonstrate how to peel the fruit, showing the children the seeds and unique texture. Parents can also be called in to school and asked to take part in making fruit salads, cutting vegetables, and preparing sandwiches. The interest of a child needs to be incorporated into learning and translating education into knowledge, hence integrating learning and real experiences.

Reviewing the child's performance at school

Parents can be made aware of the child's work on a regular basis, and this can be ensured by adopting various practices at school. Sending work home with the child on a weekly basis is effective as it keeps the parents informed about the work done in school along with the child's progress. Furthermore, a warm environment should be created at school, whereby parents feel comfortable with the teacher and are at ease when enquiring about their child's progress. The process works both ways, and the school and parents need to give time and importance to the child's learning.

Developing the child's language skills

In terms of language articulation and development, family members should make it a point to regularly read to their children. If parents, aunts, or uncles are unable to engage the children with storytelling, they can then be invited to be a part of story time at school to learn how to keep the child interested and involved in the story. Parents should also be encouraged to talk to their children, hence developing their confidence in using language and helping them to express themselves while also building social skills. Singing different poems and local songs with your child is fun and very interactive, as well.

Introducing learning at home

Parental assistance with homework should also be considered an important mode of engagement. It is important for families to guide the children while also motivating them to study. Planning the day together and working out a schedule are ways to discipline your child, while engaging the child willingly rather than creating a climate of oppression or coercion. The school can develop parent and family involvement programmes that include conducting learning activities with children at home. Project-based learning is an interactive and fun approach to learning, especially when the child and parents are working together. Assignments that require students to incorporate and represent knowledge imparted from their parents are also good ways of engagement.

Participation in school events

Attendance at school functions and events is also one of the ways of ensuring parental participation. However, parents can also be involved at the classroom level by sharing their skills and knowledge with the children. In the Releasing Confidence and Creativity (RCC) programme, parents are invited into the schools where handicrafts such as making clay toys and stitching *ralli* are taught to students, thereby utilizing the role of parents as a valuable resource, and also connecting the school with the natural environment of the child by valuing local culture, traditions, and knowledge. Parents and relatives have also been involved in storytelling, especially folk stories, once again indicating respect and value for the knowledge of a parent and the larger community. When successfully applied, the sharing of stories can influence the development of moral and ethical values, thereby building character in a child. Hence, mothers are called in to conduct and facilitate fun-filled activities. Alternatively, family members can take on the role of facilitators and observers, giving valuable feedback to teachers and helping students with classroom activities.

The lack of planning and mutual understanding between teachers and family members is a possible barrier to effective family involvement. As part of the planning process, teachers and school administrators need to assess their own readiness for involving parents and determining how they wish to engage them. When involving families as learning partners, schools need to have adequate information about the skills and specialization of specific parents to identify probable learning partners. However, parents and relatives should be able to choose and be comfortable with the activities, and the school should accommodate different schedules, preferences, and capabilities. School staff should communicate to parents that their involvement and support makes a great deal of difference in their children's school performance, and that they need not be highly educated or have lots of free time for their involvement to be beneficial. However, it should be taken into consideration that family participation should not get in the way of the general functioning of the school, such as the administrative, practical, and academic aspects of school life. The school will also at times need to fulfil the role of mediator in negotiating and reaching a consensus between the goals of the school and parents. There may be various difficulties in engaging families. School staff wishing to carry out effective activities that involve families will need to be flexible, friendly, and well-organized in their approach in engaging parents' participation.

Text modified from Aga Khan Education Services, Pakistan, '*Involving Parents*', Nurture: Pakistan's Pioneer Publication on Early Childhood Development.
➢ http://www.ecdpak.com/nurture/old/Involving-parents.asp

Reflection questions

- What are the benefits of involving families in children's education?
- How can parents and relatives become involved?
- How can schools and teachers involve the students' family members?

Unit 6, Additional Topics: Schools, families, and communities as partners in child development

Student Teacher Reading

Discipline is Better than Punishment: So What's the Difference?

When guiding children toward positive behaviour and learning, parents wish to promote a healthy attitude that encourages children to think before they act as well as to learn self-control. Disciplining allows a child to understand what he or she did wrong, gives them ownership of the problem, provides solutions to address it, and leaves the child's dignity intact. Punishment, on the other hand, is not the ideal solution for controlling unacceptable behaviour, because it is only a temporary solution and fails to achieve the long-term goal of inculcating self-control in children. Most importantly, any strong penalization can hurt a child's self-esteem.

Discipline is not only believed but has also proven to bring about a positive change in individuals. However, there is need for greater understanding of the concepts of discipline and punishment.

Discipline is a positive force that operates in an atmosphere of love, mutual respect, and individual responsibility

Disciplining is usually considered positive in our culture and can be used in many ways to address different situations. For example, teachers in school are expected to maintain discipline in the classrooms, as that is also a major expectation of parents in sending their children to school. *Self-discipline* refers to the ability to focus all the one's energy, attention, and abilities toward achieving one's desired goals. Children may at times require adult assistance in organizing time and materials and developing certain skills and techniques for accomplishing personal goals. Disciplining in this way gives a feeling of self-achievement and satisfaction to the child.

Punishment refers to administering a negative stimulus (such as spanking a child) in order to contain undesired behaviour. Many parents believe that punishing kids never lets them forget their mistakes, and they often try to curb undesired behaviours in children by administering punishment. In many cases this holds true, and children do tend to remember the behaviours for which they have been punished. However, such severe measures have proven to be psychologically bad for children's growth and development and can lead to extreme reactions such as a very low self-esteem, lack of confidence, or rebellious attitudes. Extreme reactions can lead to children being resentful about their own selves, against controlling adults, or against other people in general. Moreover, punishment creates regret in children. They hate the experience of the incident for which they were punished and start hating the authority of their parents, teachers, or peers. In many cases, a child who has been punished too much grows up with a high dependency on other individuals with no faith in his or her own abilities.

Discipline is not based on any kind of force or coercion, but it can be positive or negative. However, negative discipline is not the same as punishment, as its goal is the same as positive discipline—both deal with training the child. For example, a child crosses the road by himself, and the father asks him to cross the road with an adult the next time. If the child repeats the same act, the father yells at him. This is an example of negative discipline, in which the child is being taught about road safety so that he is safe from accidents. This type of disciplining clearly differs from punishment, because through punishing children learn conformity by force and not by their free choice. It is important for parents and caregivers to understand that even if children do agree to comply with their wishes as a result of harsh treatment, the effect is not going to be long-lasting.

Moreover, parents usually find punishment and negative discipline to be quick and easy, but they cannot be as effective as positive discipline. Teaching and training, by providing logic and benefit for a particular behaviour, has more lasting results and can only be achieved through positive discipline.

When responding to undesirable behaviours, it is advised that parents deliberate beforehand about what to say to the child in order to achieve effective results. Disciplining in anger is not effective, as the child in this situation only focuses upon the strong emotion of the parent. For very young children, distraction is the best way of making them move away from an unacceptable behaviour. Reasoning can come into the picture when they are slightly older; that is, about six years old. Also, when the child is not misbehaving, positive attention plays the role of a strong reinforcer. Those who are ignored by their parents often turn to misconduct to seek attention of their busy parents.

Text modified from Danish Jalbani, '*Discipline Is Better Than Punishment*', Nurture: Pakistan's Pioneer Publication on Early Childhood Development.
➢ http://www.ecdpak.com/nurture/discipline_is_better.html

Reflection questions

- How do you understand the difference between discipline and punishment?
- Can you think of a good example?

Unit 6, Additional Topics: Schools, families, and communities as partners in child development
Student Teacher Reading

Ensuring Desired Behaviour in Young Children

Scientific research proves that a child's brain grows at its fastest in the first five years of life. It is during these early years that a child's behavioural development is at the most critical stage. Developmental challenges identified and treated during this important time have the best hope of not being carried throughout a child's life. Research also shows that although behavioural problems may be evident in early childhood, they can go untreated for years, leading to potentially greater crises later that may even require intensive and expensive treatments. Lack of early identification and intervention can lead to failure in school, drug dependency, criminal behaviour, and suicide. But if addressed early, children have a greater chance to lead happy and healthy lives.

Emotional and behavioural health problems are a significant barrier to not just academic success but also the child's role as a healthy member of society. Children and adolescents with emotional and/or behavioural disorders tend to score below average on achievement tests, are more likely to fail one or more courses at school, and have high absenteeism rates. Many children are not getting the treatment they need because of several significant barriers. First, there is the acceptance factor; most families display an often-indifferent attitude toward recognizing and acknowledging the fact that their child has some kind of a behavioural problem. Second, access to screenings and assessments of young children's social and emotional needs is limited because primary care providers, child care centres, and many of the other places parents take their young children are not equipped with the facilities to identify such needs. Third, the cost can be prohibitive for many families. Finally, there is a shortage of mental health consultants for young children.

Common behavioural problems in children

Children often behave inappropriately in a number of ways. Common behavioural problems include biting, screaming, whining, kicking, hitting, throwing objects, cutting themselves, head banging, tantrums, crying, unusual risk-taking, swearing, stealing, lying, eating disorders, sleeplessness, and so on. Taken in isolation, many of these symptoms seem like a typical part of growing up. But together they may represent an early indication of more severe developmental problems as children get older. In addition, when the behaviours are exhibited in a centre or school-based setting, they may lead to disruption, social remoteness, and long-term inability to learn.

As parents you must help your children solve their behavioural problems by assisting them in working through emotions. Whether it is yelling for hours, throwing favourite toys, or even becoming abusive to siblings, children's behavioural problems can cause endless unhappiness within a family. Most behavioural problems, sometimes called *acting out* or *acting up*, are the result of disappointment, frustration, or anger in a child who does not understand how to deal with their emotions productively. Children with social and emotional issues also are more likely to be victims of, witnesses to, or initiators of more acts of violence than children without mental illness.

As parents, caregivers, and teachers you must help your children solve their behavioural problems by assisting them in working through emotions, resetting the behavioural patterns they have developed and dealing with the change.

Identifying behavioural problems in children

If you suspect that your child's behaviour has become a problem, identifying the behaviours that are causing trouble is the first step toward solution. It can be done by:

- keeping a behaviour list of what you consider inappropriate behaviour
- tracking the situations in which behavioural problems are displayed
- observing the causes and results of the behaviour in question
- analysing the behavioural patterns, such as:
  - When do the behaviours tend to occur (time or day)?
  - What is the frequency of recurrence?
  - What are some of the common and atypical actions that signify such demeanours?
  - Who is around when the behaviours occur?
  - What are the causes of the behaviours?
  - What are the results of the behaviours?

Preventing behavioural problems in the classroom

These children are in particular need of a classroom that is structured and not chaotic. They need to feel secure within the parameters of their classroom, knowing precisely what is expected of them academically and behaviourally. Behavioural problems often occur when students are undirected. Planning well and communicating instructions promptly and clearly are generally good deterrents to behaviour problems. Also, the teacher's or facilitator's disposition toward making children comfortable is an impetus for precluding and managing such issues.

The responsibility of addressing children's behavioural problems within classrooms lies with the teachers. Planning well and communicating instructions to children promptly and clearly are techniques teachers can use to deter behaviour problems.

The following behaviour-management practices and techniques can be used by teachers to prevent behavioural problems in classrooms.

A pleasant welcome to students

Teachers should greet students at the door as they arrive in class. Offer directions as needed before they enter the room. A smile and 'hello' is a nice way to start a day. Handing the students a brief assignment to work on as they enter the room is also a deterrent to behaviour problems. A well-prepared and alert teacher during transitional times will be able to manage the behavioural problems effectively. Also, paying individual attention to these children during group activities or play time and making an extra effort to keep them happily engaged helps.

Prepare, practice, model, and review behavioural expectations and rules

The teacher needs to do everything as a whole group for the first two weeks or so of the school year while setting standards and teaching all expectations and rules. The teacher needs to model and teach every behaviour over and over, such as how and where to line up, how to stand in line, how to move in groups, how to get the teacher's attention, how to sit on the floor or at a table, what to do in new situations, etc. It needs to be practiced so that students understand the teacher's expectations. The teacher needs to share a few clear and comprehensive rules with the students. It would be a good idea if the rules are discussed, decided on, and written in the classroom to give more ownership to the students. Examples of rules are:

- Come prepared to work
- Follow directions and stay on task
- Keep hands, feet, and objects to yourselves
- Be kind and courteous to others
- Follow directions
- Pay attention
- Work silently during quiet time
- Do your best work

Teacher should explain rules with examples demonstrating them in action and let students practice them

The teacher should explain the rationale of their rules to the children. Any time spent on teaching the rules and modelling all behavioural expectations is time worth spending. Rules, either written or graphically presented, need to be pasted on at least one visible spot. The teacher should explain rules with examples demonstrating them in action and let students practice them. These rules need to be frequently reviewed and practiced throughout the school year; they need to be communicated with parents as well.

Structured classroom and well-planned routine

Organizing a well-structured classroom and well-planned daily routine is another way of avoiding behavioural problems in the classroom. Well-developed lesson plans with prepared and accessible teaching and learning resources for all levels of students in the classroom will make the teaching interesting and task focused, a result of which will be less chance of distractions and behavioural problems. Children need the predictability of knowing what group they are in, where it works, what it does, and so on. It is therefore imperative to establish a predictable sequence of routine and schedule.

Noise level

The noise level in the classroom needs to be moderate, neither excessive nor chaotic. Classroom activities are fun and exciting; however, the climate in the classroom needs to be calm, with moderate noise level. The best strategy to control students' noise level is to introduce different sound levels for different times. Students can use 'indoor voices' during the free-choice time, whereas for work time, when students are doing focused tasks, they need to be taught and practice speaking in soft voices so as not to disturb other students' concentration.

Behaviour-enhancement and behaviour-reduction techniques

The teacher should explain and replicate the acceptable behaviour in the classroom and school by using a behaviour-enhancement technique rather than behaviour-reduction technique. The behaviour-enhancement technique attempts to strengthen, maintain, and increase the frequency of appropriate behaviours, whereas behaviour-reduction technique uses punishments to eliminate the frequency of inappropriate behaviour.

In the behaviour-enhancement technique, the teacher recognizes a student doing what they have been asked to do, then praises the child in specific instances. For example, 'I like the way Zahra remembers to raise her hand and waits to be called on. Thank you, Zahra'. Or, 'Saqib, I appreciate how quietly you are lined up'. In contrast, the behaviour-reduction technique is considered an ineffective intervention, as it results in short-term suppression of undesirable behaviour but not complete elimination because it fails to provide any instruction to children about alternate behaviour patterns. Punishments for mistakes may make things worse by inducing fear and anxiety.

Positive reinforcement and classroom incentives

There is no substitute for positive reinforcement in the classroom. It is the best behavioural-management strategy and the one that builds self-esteem and respect. Legitimate praise and acknowledgement must be used, and students must be rewarded with privileges such as classroom jobs and responsibilities. It's generally a good idea not to use major incentives and rewards unless they are needed in the classroom. Start with easy and small rewards and incentives. Many students are motivated to work for tangible rewards such as food, stickers, etc.

Other suggested incentives include:

- Choosing a game to play with a friend
- Earning free time
- Earning breakfast or lunch with the teacher
- Reading or looking at special interest magazines
- Listening to music with a tape recorder and earphones
- Working with clay, special pens and paper, whiteboards
- Leading a game, perhaps as captain of a team

Classroom incentives are great motivators. For example, a teacher can place marbles in a jar when students are found to behave appropriately. When the jar is filled, the class earns a special treat or field trip of some kind.

Assertive discipline

The teacher should clearly communicate the consequences for following and not following the rules. They should use warnings when students do not follow the rules. Different strategies can be applied to manage behaviour in the classroom, such as the following.

Colour-coded cards

This is a graphic system of monitoring behaviour. All students start the day with one colour card (e.g. a pink card) in their envelope. When there is an infraction of rules— after warning—the colour changes to yellow, resulting in a consequence such as a five-minutes time out. With the next infraction, the card changes (e.g. to blue), resulting in a stronger consequence. After another infraction, the red card appears, resulting in a more severe consequence. With this system, students start each day with a clean slate. For greater effectiveness, teachers can allow the class to devise the consequences associated with each change of colour.

Number cards

Behavioural monitoring of students in which children go home each day with a number card, such as:

> 5: Very well-behaved. Great day!
> 4: Good day
> 3: So so day
> 2: We had some trouble today
> 1: We had a very difficult day

Response points

Teachers can use a system of response points with students. For example, the teacher can award points to four colours, such as yellow = 1, red = 2, green = 5, and blue = 10. The students will receive some points for good behaviour. On the other hand, students will get negative points for misbehaviour, such as homework not done, off-task behaviour, etc. Every week students' total points are calculated, and they are rewarded against the total points. Rewards can include, for example, allowing a child to select and read a favourite book from the class library, pasting child's work on the class display board, and appreciating a child's work by calling a child on the stage during assembly.

Heading off trouble with diversionary tactics

Teachers can use a key management technique of redirecting a child and heading them off before the need for correction. A perceptive, aware teacher who is watching their students for signs of 'losing it' can effectively redirects the students.

Signals and cues

Teachers can use different signals and cues to get their students' attention and focus their concentration. For example, students can be taught to quickly hug themselves and look up when the teacher rings a bell. Another signal can be to 'stop, look, and listen'. At this cue, the children stop, put their hands behind their backs, and look up at the teacher. The nonverbal signals the teacher can use include 'stop sign', by raising hands; pointing to ears, which means 'listen'; pointing to and tapping the chin, which means 'look at me'; and so on. Teachers can physically cue their students by touching a hand, shoulder, or arm.

> The critical starting point for an Early Childhood Development teacher is the awareness of children's behavioural and self-esteem issues and then adopting strategies that make them feel good about themselves

Conclusion

In the classroom, every behavioural expectation and social skill needs to be taught. The teacher needs to explain and model each desired behaviour and practice until all the students know precisely what is expected of them. The classroom environment should be nurturing with hugs, smiles, appreciation, and affection. The provision of music and movement, hands-on activities with many choices, close parental contact and their involvement in school initiatives will definitely help in managing behavioural problems. But the critical starting point for the teacher is the awareness of children's behavioural and self-esteem issues and then adopting strategies that make them feel good about themselves.

Text modified from Mansoora Tufeyl, '*Ensuring Desired Behaviour in Young Children*', Nurture: Pakistan's Pioneer Publication on Early Childhood Development.
➤ http://www.ecdpak.com/nurture/nurture-6/ensuring_desired_behaviour.html

Reflection questions

- Which techniques or strategies from this article would you want to use or try in the classroom? Why?
- Which strategies do you think would be most effective or ineffective? Why?

Additional topics: Teacher's influence on student motivation
Student Teacher Reading

Motivating Children to Learn

Young children learn from everything they do. They are naturally curious; they want to explore and discover. If their explorations bring pleasure or success, they want to learn more. During the early years, children form attitudes about learning that last a lifetime. Children who receive the right sort of support and encouragement during these years will be creative and adventurous learners throughout their lives. Children who do not receive this sort of support and interaction are likely to have a much different attitude about learning later in life.

Characteristics of motivation in young children

Children do many things simply because they want to do them. Selecting a toy or a shirt to wear is the result of intrinsic motivation. The child makes their own choice and achieves satisfaction from both the act of choosing and from the opportunity to wear the shirt. Because the activity generates motivation, it is mostly self-sustaining for as long as the child wants to continue the activity. Children also engage in some activities because adults tell them to or in an effort to please another party. These activities are extrinsically motivated. When a child is extrinsically motivated, the reward comes from outside the child—it has to be provided by someone else and continually given for the child to remain motivated enough to continue the activity. It is more difficult for a child to sustain an extrinsically motivated activity because of this reliance upon some outside force.

Because intrinsically motivated activity is more rewarding, children learn more from this sort of activity, and they retain that learning better. Intrinsically motivated children are more involved in their own learning and development. In other words, children are more likely to learn and retain information when they are intrinsically motivated—when they believe that they are pleasing themselves. Parents can build on this sense of confidence by guiding their child's play and activities while still giving the child a range of options. This unstructured play is an essential element of the child's motivation, learning, and development.

A number of behavioural characteristics are indicators of high motivation. Here are some of the important factors and ways to help your child develop these characteristics.

Dependency on adults

The amount of dependence on adults is another indicator of motivation. Children with strong intrinsic motivation do not need an adult constantly watching them and helping with activities. Children who have a lower level of motivation or are extrinsically motivated need constant attention from adults and cannot function independently. Because independence is an important aspect of quality learning, this dependence on adults will greatly limit children's ability to succeed in school. Parents can increase the likelihood of their child building independent motivation by providing toys and activities that connect to the child's natural creativity and curiosity.

Emotion

Another indicator of motivational level is emotion. Children who are clearly motivated will have a positive display of emotion. They are satisfied with their work and show more enjoyment in the activity.

Children without appropriate motivation will appear quiet, sullen, and bored. They will not take any apparent pleasure in their activity and will often complain. As a parent, you are probably the best judge of your child's moods. That cranky, whiny voice is usually a good indicator that a child doesn't feel very good about themself and needs a new adventure of some sort.

Persistence

Persistence is the ability to stay with a task for a reasonably long period of time. While very young children cannot concentrate on one activity for an hour, there are still measurable differences in the length of time that young children will engage in an activity. A highly motivated child will stay involved for a long period of time, whereas an unmotivated child will give up very easily when not instantly successful. Children learn persistence when they are successful at a challenging task. The art of building persistence is in offering a task that is just challenging enough, but not overwhelming.

Choice of challenge

Choice of challenge is another characteristic of motivation. Children who experience success in meeting one challenge will become motivated and welcome another. These motivated learners will choose an activity that is slightly difficult for them but provides an appropriate challenge. Unmotivated children (those who have not experienced early success) will pick something that is very easy and ensures an instant success. The challenge for parents is helping their child find an appropriate challenge while still allowing the choice to be the child's.

Developing motivation

Infants are born with a tremendous amount of intrinsic motivation. This motivation is aimed toward having some visible effect on the environment. When infants can actually see the results of their actions as a reward, they are motivated to continue those actions. These attempts toward control are limited within the young child and include crying, vocalizations, facial expressions, and small body movements.

As infants grow and continue to mature (9 to 24 months), more voluntary, purposeful movements are possible. This gives them more control of their environment. This wider range of control allows children to feel that they are successful. Success leads to higher self-esteem and feelings of self-worth, which lead to strengthened motivation. This success is not based upon adult standards but totally upon the child's ability to accomplish the goals that they have set out.

By two years of age, children are developing the ability to execute a sequence of events to achieve a goal. They also have an appreciation for standards and begin to evaluate their efforts. By three years of age, children become interested in doing things well, as opposed to just doing them. They have an idea of various levels of competency in performance and judge their success by their own internal standards. Therefore, they have much less need for adult feedback about the quality of their efforts.

Preschoolers (age three to five years) become more involved with verbal problem-solving skills. They direct their own learning through speech and use vocal communication to direct their own behaviour to solve problems. Young children are often heard talking among themselves through a series of actions that lead to the solution of a problem. As children get older, this talking out loud becomes an internal monologue. This newly developed ability to problem-solve is the basis for motivation at this stage. Having the self-confidence to know that one can solve a problem motivates the learner to accept other new and challenging situations, which in turn leads to greater learning.

The world through a child's eyes is an awesome place. Allow children to explore and discover their world. Around every corner is an experience just waiting to surprise and excite young growing minds; all they need is a small amount of direction and a large amount of freedom. It is not necessary to praise and reward children for their own actions as they attempt to control their environment. The feelings of accomplishment they gain from the results of those actions will be reward enough. Remember, the habits and attitudes toward learning that are formed in these early years set the mood for all future learning.

Text modified from Maryam Hassan, '*Motivating Children to Learn*', Nurture: Pakistan's Pioneer Publication on Early Childhood Development.
➢ http://www.ecdpak.com/nurture/old/motivating-children.asp

Reflection

- How would you motivate children differently at different ages?
- Which strategies do you think are helpful for getting children interested in learning?

Appendix

Appendix 1: Methods and Strategies Used in the Course

The following is a list of some of the strategies used in this course to encourage active learning.

Active Lecturing

An active lecture is not too different from any good lecture, but it attempts to directly involve listeners. There is no one best way to give an active lecture, but it includes giving information in small chunks (about 10 minutes), then having people do something with it for one to three minutes. Here are some examples of activities. You might use the same one after each chunk of information-giving or you might vary the activity:

- Write a one minute reaction to what you have just heard,
- Talk to the person next to you about what you heard and what they heard.
- Do you agree? Do you have questions?
- List as many key points as you can remember.

Compare notes taken during the one-minute chunk. Help each other fill in gaps or determine if crucial information is missing. (Some people do not allow note taking during the lecture, but this is up to the Instructor.)

Another way to do an active lecture is to give out three colours of cards or slips of paper. When people are listening to your comments, have them hold up a colour for:

I understand.

I don't understand.

I disagree.

Then either stop and allow questions or adjust what you are saying so there are more "understand" colors showing. This is particularly effective with large groups of 50 or more people.

Ambassadors

This is a useful way to get groups or individuals to exchange information. Two or more members move from one group to another to share/compare discussion, etc. Or you may wish to have half the group exchange with another group. This is especially useful if you do not have ample time for a full class discussion.

Brainstorming

Brainstorming is a technique for generating creative ideas on a topic. It may be an individual activity or organized as a group activity. Give people a limited amount of time (e.g. one minute) to say or write down as many ideas as they can on a topic. No matter how unrelated an idea seems, write it down. (Or the teacher might ask the whole class to brainstorm and write down all ideas on the class board.) After the brief period of brainstorming, ideas may then be analyzed or organized. It is often used as a problem solving technique. Ideas are then analyzed in light of how useful they might be in solving the problem.

Gallery Walk

A gallery walk is a strategy that borrows it name from a visit to the art gallery. Students walk through an exhibit of posters, artefacts, or display of items they have completed. They may or may not be directed to take notes. The idea is to thoughtfully look at what is displayed.

Graffiti Wall

A graffiti "wall" may be displayed in the classroom for use all term. Students may write down thoughts, feelings or expressions before or following each session and sign their name. Anonymous comments are not suitable. Ideas generated in class may be posted on the "wall." Use paper from a large roll of craft or newsprint paper or join several cardboard boxes together to make a wall that can be stored between sessions. Students can take turns getting and putting away the wall each session.

Group Work: Some Tips for Forming Instructional Groups

There is no one best way to form groups. The best way for you is the way that suits your purpose. Use a more complicated strategy if students need a break or need to be energized. Use a simple technique if time is short.

Ask people to count from 1 to 5 (depending on the number of people you want in a group). Appoint all the #1s to go to one table (or area of the room), all the #2s, and so forth.

Before class, determine how many people you want in a group or how many groups you need. Used different coloured stickers, stars or dots. Put one on each student as they enter class. Then when it is time to group, ask them to find people with the same sticker and sit together.

Put different coloured bits of paper in a cup or jar on each table. Have people take one and find people in the room with the same colour to form a group.

Have students get together with everybody born in the same month as they were. Make adjustments to the groups as needed.

Mini-Lecture

A mini-lecture contains all the components of a good lecture. It is sharply focused. It begins with an introduction that provides an overview of what you will talk about. It makes one or more sharply focused points with an illustration of each. It summaries the main point or points and concludes.

Minute Paper

Ask people to write for one minute on a particular topic (it might be their reflections or you might assign a specific subject). They are to focus on getting down their ideas, rather than grammar and spelling. A minute paper differs from brainstorming because there is more focus.

Pair-Share

Use this technique when you want two people to work together to share ideas or accomplish a task. Simply ask people to work with someone next to them. Or you can have them find a partner using some other criteria. It is very useful when you want

people to quickly exchange ideas without disrupting the flow of the class. (Sharing in triads and foursomes are also small group techniques.)

Poster Session

A poster session is useful when you want students to organize their thinking on a topic and present it to others in a quick, but focused way. Have individuals or small groups work to create a poster to explain or describe something. For example, if they have been doing an inquiry on a particular topic, they would want to include their focus, methods and outcomes along with colourful illustrations or photographs. The poster can be self-explanatory or students can use it to explain their work. As an in-class tool, Poster Session is often combined with Gallery Walk so students visit a number of posters in a short period of time.

Reader's Theatre

Readers theatre is a group dramatic reading from a text. The focus is on oral expression of the part being read, rather than on acting and costumes. Reader's Theatre is a way to bring a text to life. Readers take turns reading all or parts of a passage. It is a good idea to go over passages to be read aloud with students so they are familiar with any difficult words. Sometimes it is used to get student interest in a text. They hear passages read first, then read the longer text.

KWL

K-W-L is a strategy that provides a structure for recalling what students know about a topic, noting what students want to know, and finally listing what has already been learned and is yet to be learned.

The K-W-L strategy allows students to take inventory of what they already know and what they want to know. Students can categorize information about the topic that they expect to use as they progress through a lesson or unit.

Roundtable Technique

The class is divided into small groups (4 to 6) with one person appointed as the recorder. A question is posed with many answers and students are given time to think about answers. After the "think time," members of the team share responses with one another round robin/ round table style. The recorder writes down the answers of the group members. The person next to the recorder starts and each person in the group(in order) gives an answer until time is called out.

Text against Text

Text Against Text is a way of helping students learn to analyse and compare written documents. The idea is to look at two documents and search for overlap, confirmation or disagreement. It is a way of looking at different perspectives. Sometimes it is useful to give students readings prior to class and ask them to compare the readings, following a set of study questions. For example:

- Look at each author separately. What do you think the author's main point is?
- How does the author support his/her argument?
- Look at the authors together. In what ways do the authors agree?
- What are their points of disagreement?
- What is your opinion on the issue?

Text Against Text may be used to compare a new reading or set of information with a reading or information students have already read and discussed in another unit or earlier in the unit.

In classrooms where the whole class uses a single textbook Instructors often find they are teaching against what is in the textbook. Sometimes it is hard for students to accept that a textbook can and should be questioned. Putting together a Text Against Text activity using the textbook and an article or a set of articles to read instead of the text can help them understand that there are legitimate differences of opinion on a subject.

Another way to use the activity is to put a set of materials at each table or with each group of students. Some college/university faculty like to put together text sets that include both scholarly and non-scholarly works and have students to think about differences. For example, you might provide all students, regardless of their reading level or learning style, with a "way in" to thinking about a topic by using some materials that are easy to read. Even competent adult learners seek out "easy books" or materials to learn about a new or complex topic. Providing a picture, newspaper article and children's book in a text set might give everyone a means of connecting to or understanding some aspect of the larger subject.

Articles need not contradict each other. They may be about the same topic, but offer students different ways of seeing a subject.

Using Quizzes or Pop Tests

Short Quiz (15 min.)
Prepare and give a short quiz over the different aspects of child development covered in the unit.

Have students take the quiz, then circle items they are unsure of.

Triads Share (10 min.)
Have students meet in groups of three to go over items they are uncertain about.

Review (30 min.)
Go over the quiz with students, having them look at their own work and make corrections.

Notice points they had difficulty remembering and take time to review them. You may ask students to assist with this, talking about how they were able to remember.

This is a time to correct any misconceptions.

Have students save their quiz for future study.

Appendix 2: Glossary of Terms

Adolescence: The period during which a person develops from an individual into an adult.

Affiliation: State or process of being connected to other people.

Aggressive behaviour: Behaviour where only the immediate needs of the self are considered at the expense or harm of others.

Apprenticeship: A long-term type of scaffolding in which adults form a relationship with a younger person to teach a complex task.

Assessment: The term *assessment* refers to any process of obtaining information used to make educational decisions about students; give feedback to the student about his or her progress, strengths, and weaknesses; judge teaching effectiveness and curriculum adequacy; and inform policy.

Attachment: The strong bond a child forms with his or her primary caregiver.

Attention deficit disorder (ADD)/ Attention deficit/ hyperactive disorder (ADHD): Medical terms for what is generally seen as hyperactivity and trouble concentrating. Students with ADD or ADHD may demonstrate high levels of activity, impulsive behaviours, and trouble giving full attention to a task. ADD/ADHD is a very common disorder in children.

Auditory learning: Learning style that uses listening skills such as lectures, discussions, and conversation.

Authoritarian child rearing: Authoritarian caregivers are high in control but low in responsiveness. The caregiver has lots of rules and high expectations for children. Often children fail to reach the caregiver's expectations, causing them to feel undervalued and less confident. These children tend to be anxious, withdrawn, and dependent and react angrily when frustrated.

Authoritative child rearing: Authoritative caregivers are both controlling and responsive. They provide children with a reasonable set of rules and are characterized by a rational, democratic style that promotes independent, socially active, and responsible children.

Autism: A brain development disorder characterized by impaired social interaction and communication, and by restricted and repetitive behaviour. Signs typically begin before a child is three years old.

Autonomy: A virtue in Erikson's second stage of development, where children begin to gain a sense of personal control.

Bandura, Alfred: Bandura is a psychologist specializing in social cognitive theory and known for his social learning theory. Bandura thought that observational learning and modelling is the basis for a wide variety of children's behaviour, such as aggression, helping, sharing, or gender responses. Children acquire skills in the absence of direct rewards and punishment by watching and listening to others around them.

Behaviourism: The school of psychology founded by John Watson based on the belief that behaviours can be measured, trained, and changed.

Bullying: School bullying is the use of force or coercion by children to harm other children in any part of the school building, and involves taunting, teasing, humiliation, exclusion, and physical abuse.

Caregiver: Individual who provides care and supervision of a child.

Classification: The ability to name and identify sets of objects according to certain characteristic such as appearance or size.

Cognitive: A term that describes the process used for remembering, reasoning, understanding, and making decisions.

Concrete operation: Piaget's third stage of cognitive development, taking place when children are aged 7 to 11. This reflects the ability to consider the viewpoints of others and understand relational concepts. However, the child cannot solve problems of an abstract nature.

Competency: Erikson's virtue, developed during a child's primary years, that results in a better sense of diligence, perseverance, and self-discipline.

Conservation: (Erikson term) Understanding that quantity, length, or number of items is unrelated to the arrangement or appearance of the object or items.

Constructionism: (Piaget term) For children to develop their cognitive abilities, they should be active investigators, finding answers and solutions through mental and physical actions instead of mere replication.

Culture: The set of shared attitudes, values, goals, and practices that characterizes an institution, organization, or group.

Curriculum: A plan of instruction that details what students are to know, how they are to learn it, what the teacher's role is, and the context in which learning and teaching will take place.

Decentring: The ability to recognize multiple aspects of a problem to solve it.

Developmental delays: An indication that a child has not attained the expected level of development based on the child's age.

Dexterity: Being able to physically move with ease, particularly with one's hands.

Differentiated instruction: A set of practices that teachers adopt to address different learning levels, diverse backgrounds, and the varied academic strengths that individual students bring to the classroom.

Disability: A developmental delay or a physical or mental condition that is very likely to result in a child having a developmental delay.

Discipline: Adults' attempts to develop child behaviour to obey rules or a code of behaviour in both the short and long term.

Diversity: The state of being diverse, having variety. Individual differences of people, including but not limited to differences in intelligence, learning styles, academic ability, social ability, culture, ethnicity, socio-economic status, gender, religion, sexual orientation, and value systems.

Divided attention: Ability to focus on more than one thing at a time.

Egocentric: Total self-centeredness; being unable to view things from others' perspectives.

Erikson, Erik: A neo-Freudian child development psychologist best known for his theories on the stages of human development, from infancy to old age. See 'Psychosocial theory'.

Extrinsic motivation: Comes from factors outside an individual, such as wanting to please a family member or teacher or do well on a test or in a competition, rather than from the task itself. This kind of motivation can help students, but it may also make them dependent on external factors and rewards or incentives to make them want to learn.

Fine motor skills: Fine motor skills can be defined as small muscle movements, such as those that occur in the finger, in coordination with the eyes. Teaching fine motor skills is similar to teaching other skills because the Instructor must be patent and understanding. Fine motor skills do not develop overnight but with time and practice.

Formal operational stage: Piaget's fourth stage of development, taking place when children are aged 11 to 15, characterised by the ability to use logic, or to reason about cause and effect.

Gardner, Howard: A developmental psychologist who is best known for his theory of multiple intelligences.

Gender identity/ gender roles: Gender identity is the internal sense of being male or female. Gender role is the accepted behaviours, thoughts, and emotions of a specific gender based upon the views of a particular society or culture. In all societies, children learn expectations of being a girl or a boy in the community. These gender roles that society determines will affect how children form relationships, their access to education, and their physical and psychological health.

Hereditary: Hereditary traits are those that are passed from parent to child.

Hormones: Substances in the body that cause changes in adolescents during puberty.

Hygiene: Practices and conditions that maintain and encourage good health, such as bathing, brushing teeth, and washing hands.

Identity diffusion: When adolescents have mixed feelings about the ways they will fit into society (the professions they will choose, whether to go to university, etc.).

Inclusive education model:	Teaching model that aims to include students of different abilities in the same classroom. Often, students with disabilities are also included, which leads to a large range of abilities in the classroom. The teacher works to shape the classroom into a cohesive, integrated social whole, but one in which the different needs of students are addressed.
Industry:	(Erikson term) When primary-age children learn to master the formal skills of life, they battle a psychosocial crisis to defeat feelings of inferiority.
Initiative:	(Erikson term) During preschool years, children broaden their skills and want to make decisions and have experiences autonomously.
Inferiority:	The feeling that one is worse than other people.
Information-processing theory:	The study of the specific ways in which people think about the information they receive.
Intrinsic motivation:	Comes from inside the student, such as finding something fun or interesting or experiencing previous success. Intrinsic motivation is often preferred over extrinsic motivation because it means students really want to learn without someone pushing them.
Learning styles:	Students' approaches to learning, problem-solving, and processing information.
Long-term memory:	The type of memory that allows people to remember past events easily after long periods of time.
Metacognition:	Awareness and understanding of one's own thought processes. A child's ability to consciously and intentionally control their own behaviour.
Motivation:	According to Bandura's social learning theory, motivation, or the desire that drives one to accomplish goals, is required for people to learn and model behaviour.
Multiple intelligences:	Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences proposes different ways that individuals approach and learn information.

Nature vs. nurture: The debate on the factors that determine a person's behaviour. Nature refers to genetic influences on growth and functioning, such as natural talents related to athleticism, appearance, and psychological traits that affect temperament, aggression, and intelligence. Nurture is the influence of social factors on a child's environment, such as family, peers, schools, neighbourhoods, culture, media, and the society in which people live.

Negative identity: When adolescents choose an identity that is the opposite of what their family or society wants for them.

Open classrooms: A student-centred classroom format popularized in the United States during the 1970s. In an open classroom, a large group of multi-grade students come together in a single, large space, with several teachers providing oversight. It is often strongly supported for young children because it allows for work in small groups while teachers serve as both facilitators and instructors.

Operations: (Piaget term) Larger mental processes by which children organize what they learn from experience and construct a view of how the world operates.

Pedagogy: The art or science of being a teacher of children. Generally refers to strategies or style of instruction.

Permissive child rearing: Permissive caregivers are responsive but lack in control. Caregivers give their children a lot of freedom and few rules. Their children can be dependent, demanding, impulsive, and sometimes difficult to manage.

Piaget, Jean: The best-known cognitive development theorist. His research is known around the world and is very broad, touching on emotional development, peer relationships, moral reasoning, and cognitive development.

Prosocial behaviour: An action taken to benefit another person.

Prejudice: Prejudgments or assumptions made about someone or a type of person without having adequate knowledge to be able to do so, typically related to race / ethnicity, social class, gender, and religion.

Psychosocial theory: Erik Erikson's theory that states that humans and in particular children experience a series of life stages that correspond to a crisis. The way an individual resolves (or fails to resolve) the crisis affects their overall social, psychological, and cognitive development. Each crisis involves a goal, or 'virtue', that acts as the intended goal of that stage.

Puberty: The collection of changes that adolescents go through as they develop into an adult.

Punishment: An action imposed on a person for breaking a rule or misbehaviour.

Reinforcement: Rewards or punishment directed at a particular behaviour, which can be used to shape future behaviour.

Reversibility: The ability to recognize that numbers or objects can be changed and then return to their original state.

Role confusion: See 'identity diffusion'.

Selective attention: Ability to focus on one specific thing at a time and block out all other things.

Seriation: The ability to organize objects in a certain order according to characteristics such as size, shape, colour, etc.

Scaffolding: When adults provide clues and suggestions for children and adolescents when they teach them a new task.

Self-fulfilling prophecy: The idea that teacher expectations for students' academic performance may become realities, causing some children to do better and others do worse than otherwise.

Self-esteem: The positive or negative feelings one has about oneself.

Socio-economic status: An economic and sociological combined total measure of a person's or family's work experience and economic/social position based on income, education, and occupation. Inequalities in wealth and economic level can affect child development. Different economic levels have occupations of different prestige, different levels of power and influence, different amounts of resources, and different educational opportunities. Poor families and children are more likely to feel powerless, vulnerable to disaster, and have a limited range of alternatives.

Special education: Special instruction provided for students with educational or physical disabilities, tailored to each student's needs and learning style.

Special needs: A term used in clinical diagnostic and functional development to describe individuals who require assistance for disabilities that may be medical, mental, or psychological.

Tactile learning: Learning style that utilizes movement and touch, such as explorative activities and hands-on experiments.

Tracking model: Teaching model in which students are grouped by ability, and often by ability within different subjects. Each group then follows a different track, or path, depending on their level.

Transivity: The ability to recognize and infer logical relationships among elements in a serial order (e.g. if A is bigger than B and B is bigger than C, then A is bigger than C).

Uninvolved child rearing: Uninvolved caregivers are low in both response and control. This indifferent, rejecting behaviour is harmful to most aspects of psychological development.

Visual learning: Learning style that utilizes visual examples and explanations such as teacher modelling, diagrams, charts, and illustrations.

Vygotsky, Lev: Cognitive psychologist who pioneered the social development theory, which stresses the fundamental role of social interaction in cognitive development. See also 'zone of proximal development'.

Working memory: The type of memory that allows people to remember things for a short period of time, such as a phone number, which they will soon forget.

Zone of proximal development: Vygotsky developed this idea to address a child's development in relation to certain concepts or abilities, specifically those a child had begun to develop but had not mastered. He refers here to an understanding or skill that was a 'bud' or 'flower' rather than a fully developed 'fruit', in his metaphor. It is this stage of development that the teacher should seek to nurture and develop, helping a child to realize understandings and abilities.