Teaching Material of M. Ed. in Special Needs Education

Socialization and Communication Skills
(1st Sem.)

Office of the Dean
Faculty of Education
Tribhuvan University
Kathmandu
2015~2020

CHANGWON NATIONAL UNIVERSITY

Leading University Project for International Cooperation

Ministry of Education

NRF National Research Foundation of Korea

Socialization and Communication Skills

(SN Ed.516)

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2072

Contents

Specific Objectives of the course

After the completion of the course, the students will be able to:

- Define the meaning of socialization
- Explain the importance of socialization
- Identify interpersonal relationships between teacher and students
- Describe different development contexts: individual, family, cultural and social contexts
- Explain the concept and role of sex and gender in normative development
- Explain the meaning and concept of communication in language and speech development
- Delineate the differences between verbal and non-verbal communication
- Explain the importance and functions of non-verbal communication
- Classify the non-verbal communication skills
- Describe language and speech development in children
- Explain collaboration in terms of co-teaching, cooperative teaching and arranging the use of paraprofessionals
- Describe the role of family in communication and socialization of children with special needs
- Identify the impact of disability on the siblings and parents
- Identify the ways of using home-school and parental support in socialization and communication of children with special needs
- Identify the ways to provide instructional support to facilitate communication
- Describe the procedures of differentiating instructions for students with special needs
- Illustrate the comprehensive model of differentiating instruction in the classroom
- Identify the ways of managing classroom for using differentiated instruction

Part I: Socialization Skills

Unit I: Concept and Meaning of Socialization of Children with Special Needs

Introduction

Human beings are social animals because they live in a group of individuals, where they interact with each other. Sometime they share their feelings and cooperate to each other but sometime they may have misunderstandings and squabble. In these processes children and adults learn the reality of life and tackle the problems. Thus, the process by which children and adult learn from others is called socialization. All people begin learning from others, during the early days of life and most of them continue their all social learning throughout their life unless some mental or physical disability slows or stops the learning process.

Children with special needs are not exception in their social learning however due to different types of disabilities and the degree of disabilities may affect on their socialization skills and also the pace of learning. Socialization is important to all the human beings but it is more crucial to children with special needs because they need accommodate them with their environment. In the process of socialization the family members, teachers and professional are the key instruments in helping them.

Socialization may be defined from different points of views in terms of sociologists, social-psychologists, educationists and political scientists. It refers to the lifelong process of inhibiting and disseminating norms, customs, and ideologies, providing an individual with the skills and habits essential for participating within her/his own society.

In this unit, we will discuss the concept and meaning of socialization, its importance and the ways building relationships between teacher and students including children with special needs.

1.1 Meaning and definition of socialization

The word 'socialization' originated in 1841 in reference to personal association. In 1884, it emerged as a noun of action to form socializes referring to socialism. That is, to socialize means simply to associate or mingle with people. The process by which individuals learn the cultures of their society is known as socialization. The well-known sociologists define socialization as:

- According to Lundberg, socialization consists of the "complex processes of interaction through which the individual learns the habits, skills, beliefs and standard of judgement that are necessary for his/her effective participation in social groups and communities".
- Peter Worsley explains socialization as the process of "transmission of culture, the process whereby individuals learn the rules and practices of social groups".
- H.M. Johnson defines socialization as "learning that enables the learner to perform social roles". He further says that it is a "process by which individuals acquire the already existing culture of groups they come into".

- "The lifelong process by which as individual becomes the proper member of society and develops human characteristics" (DMacionis).
- "It is a learning process in which groups interact and learn social norms" (Horton and Hunt).
- "It is a process through which social beings develops relationships and socialization with each other" (Maciver).
- "A process of learning to live and work together" (Bogardus).
- "Within its peer group, the young child, by interacting with others and playing childhood games, learns to confirm to the accepted way of the social groups and to appreciate the fact that social life is based on rules" (Haralambos & Heald, 2005).

Analyzing the definitions given by various sociologists, psychologists and educators, we can interpret socialization as a complex process in which every individual learns essential beliefs, norms, behaviors, skills and standards of judgement to participate actively in his/her society. Many social scientists stress that socialization represents the whole learning throughout the life and is the core influence on the behavior, beliefs and action of all the human beings.

There are some theories which spell out about socialization, are developed by some sociologists, such as:

a) *Klaus Hurrelmann* points out that from the late 1980s, the sociological and psychological theories have been connected with the term 'socialization'. In his book *'Social Structure and Personality'* (Hurrelmann, 1989/2009), he developed the *'Model of Productive Processing of Reality (PPR)'*. According to him socialization refers to individual's personality development. It is the result of the productive processing of internal and external realities where bodily and mental qualities and traits constitute person's inner reality and the circumstances of the social and physical environment embody the external reality. Reality processing is productive because human beings actively grapple with their lives and attempt to cope with the attendant developmental tasks. He further emphasizes that the success of socialization process depends on the availability of personal and social resources by which individuals secure their identity.

b) *Stages of Moral Development theory* was *developed by Lawrence Kohlberg* (1981). His theory argues the reasoning in the three stages of young childhood, such as: 1) Pre-conventional stage, where children experience the world in terms of pain and pleasure. 2) The Conventional stage (appears in teen years), where teenagers learn to define right or wrong according to the desires of their parents and begin conform to cultural norms resulting in a decrease of selfishness. 3) Post-conventional stage, where people move beyond society's norms and consider abstract ethical principles.

c) *Carol Gilligan* (1982/1990) compared the moral development of girls and boys in her *theory of gender and moral development*. She claimed that boys have a justice

perspective meaning that they rely on formal rules to define right and wrong whereas girls have a care and responsibility perspective in which personal relationships are considered when judging a situation. She claimed that because of socialization process in the society the girl's self-esteem diminishes as they grow older and they have to struggle to regain their personal strength when moving through adolescence. Consequently, we can see that in most of the societies females are behind males in the formal roles.

d) *Erik H. Erikson* (1902-1994) explained in his theory of personality about the challenges of human beings throughout the life course. Such as:

1. The babies learn trust and mistrust in their infancy.
2. In toddlerhood (at the age of 2 years) children learn to struggle with the challenge of autonomy and doubts.
3. In pre-school age, children struggle to understand the difference between initiative and guilt.
4. In pre-adolescence, children learn about industriousness and inferiority.
5. In adolescence, teenagers experience the challenge of gaining identity versus confusion.
6. In young adulthood, the young people gain insight to life when dealing with the challenge of intimacy and isolation.
7. In middle adulthood, people experience the challenge of trying to make a difference (versus self absorption)
8. In old age, people are still learning about the challenge of integrity and despair.

However, any barriers in the growth and development of child may affect in his/her emotional, intellectual and psychological conditions. As a result, socialization of the child may be affected. Furthermore:

- How social experience develops an individual's self-concept is explained by *George Herbert Mead* (1863-1931) in his theory of social behaviorism. His central focus is the self. It is composed of self-awareness and self-image. He claimed that the self is not there at birth rather it is developed with social experience and thus, the self is learned from others. Since social experience is the exchange of symbols, people tend to find meaning in every action. Seeking meaning leads us to imagine the intention of others. Understanding intention requires imagining the situation from the other's point of view. Consequently, others are a mirror in which we can see ourselves.
- *Charles Horton Cooley* (1902-1983) developed the term looking glass self, that is, self-image based on how we think others see us. With limited social experience, infants can only develop a sense of identity through imitation. Gradually children learn to take the roles of several others and the final stage is the generalized other, which refers to widespread cultural norms and values we use as a reference for evaluating others.
- *The theory of group-socialization was developed by Judith R. Harris* (1938b), where she states that a child's adult personality is determined by childhood and adolescent peer groups outside of the home environment and that 'parental behaviors have no effect on the psychological characteristics their children will have as adults'. She proposes this theory based on behavioral genetics, sociological views of group processes, context-specific learning, and evolutionary theory. She also states that developing long-term personality characteristics away from the home environment would be evolutionarily

beneficial because future success is more likely to depend on interactions with peers than interactions with parents and siblings. Also, because of already existing genetic similarities with parents, developing personalities outside of childhood home environments would further diversify individuals, increasing their evolutionary success.

- The theory of language socialization is developed by linguistic anthropologists Elinor Ochs and Bambi Schieffelin. They discovered that the processes of enculturation and socialization occur together in the amounts to an integrated process. Members of all societies socialize children both to and through the use of language; acquiring competence in a language and culture provides the norms of the use of language.

In short, socialization is all about being tuned with the expectations of society from us on the basis of our age, gender, and social background. Additionally, socialization is also the social learning process in all its complication. The specific knowledge, skills and dispositions required to make a child, 'a more or less able member of the society' may be defined somewhat differently by different analysts. Socialization affects the overall cultural practices of a society, and also shapes the perception that we develop of ourselves. Finally, socialization is the process in which a 'biological child' gains a specific 'cultural identity' and learns to respond to such an identity.

Several definitions of socialization exist. Group scholars Sheldon Stryker and Ann Statham (1985) suggested socialization occurs when newcomers become part of the group's patterns of activities. Social psychologists have defined socialization as occurring when group members create shared meaning about who will do what and how the group will operate (Mead, 1958) or when individuals learn enough to contribute skillfully and competently to the group (Dion, 1985). Each of these definitions emphasizes the role of the individual.

Taking a different perspective, social psychologists Richard Moreland and John Levine (1982) defined socialization as a reciprocal process of group members and the group as a whole coming together to meet each other's needs and accomplish goals. This type of definition suggests individuals actively participate in the socialization process rather than simply adjust and adapt to an existing group culture. Additionally, each group's culture changes when a member joins the group because she might influence the existing members to adopt new ways of communicating and functioning as a group. Thus, consider socialization as a process affecting both individual members and the group as a whole.

Stages of socialization

There are five different stages of socialization identified by Richard Moreland and John Levine (1982) based on the assumption that individuals and groups change their evaluations and commitments to each other over time. They are:

Stage 1*: Investigation* – This stage is marked by a cautious search for information. The individual compares groups in order to determine which one will fulfill their needs (*reconnaissance*), while the group estimates the value of the potential member (*recruitment*). The end of this stage is marked by entry to the group, whereby the group asks the individual to join and they accept the offer.

Stage 2: *Socialization* –At this stage, the individual accepts the group's norms, values, and perspectives (*assimilation*), and the group adapts to fit the new member's needs (*accommodation*). The acceptance transition point is then reached and the individual becomes a full member. However, this transition can be delayed if the individual or the group reacts negatively. For example, the individual may react cautiously or misinterpret other members' reactions if they believe that they will be treated differently as a new comer.

Stage 3: *Maintenance* – During this stage, the individual and the group negotiate what contribution is expected of members (role negotiation). While many members remain in this stage until the end of their membership, some individuals are not satisfied with their role in the group or fail to meet the group's expectations (*divergence*).

Stage 4: *Re-socialization* – If the divergence point is reached, the former full member takes on the role of a marginal member and must be re-socialized. There are two possible outcomes of re-socialization: differences are resolved and the individual becomes a full member again (*convergence*), or the group expels the individual or the individual decides to leave (*exit*).

Stage 5: *Remembrance* – In this stage, former members reminisce about their memories of the group, and make sense of their recent departure. If the group reaches a consensus on their reasons for departure, conclusions about the overall experience of the group become part of the group's *tradition*. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Socialization
We can classify socialization on the basis of its role in molding the individual's behavior and action.

Types of socialization
1. *Natural socialization* occurs when children explore, play and discover the social world around them. Natural socialization can be easily seen when looking at the young of almost any of living species.
2. *Planned socialization* occurs when other people take actions designed to teach or train others – from infancy. Planned socialization is mostly a human phenomenon; and all through history, people have been making plans for teaching or training others. Both natural and planned socialization can have good and bad features: it is wise to learn the best features of both natural and planned socialization and weave them into our lives.
3. *Positive socialization* – Good features may be characterized as positive socialization, based on pleasurable and exciting experiences. For instance, our social learning processes with positive motivation, loving care, and rewarding opportunities are positive socialization.
4. *Negative socialization* occurs when others use punishment, harsh criticisms or anger to try to 'teach a lesson'; and often the learners do not like both negative socialization and the people who impose it on the learners.

5. *Primary socialization* occurs when a child learns the attitudes, values, and actions appropriate to individuals as members of a particular culture.
6. *Secondary socialization* refers to the process of learning outside the home. It refers to the process of learning appropriate behavior as a member of a smaller group within the larger society. For example, children must act according to new rules of the school. Similarly, entering a new profession or relocating to a new environment or society.
7. *Anticipatory socialization* refers to the process in which a person 'rehearses' for future position, occupations and social relationships.
8. *Re-socialization* refers to the process of accepting new opens as part of a transition in one's life. This occurs throughout the human life cycle.
9. *Political socialization* is the "study of the developmental processes by which people of all ages and adolescents acquire political cognition, attitudes, and behaviors". It refers to a learning process by which norms and behavior acceptable to a well running political system are transmitted from one generation to another.
10. *Reciprocal socialization* is a socialization process that is bidirectional; children socialize parents just as parents socialize children.
11. *Group socialization* is the theory that an individual's peer groups influences his/her personality and behavior in adulthood. Adolescents spend more time with peers than with parents.
12. *Organizational socialization* is the process whereby an employee learns the knowledge and skills essential to assume his/her organizational role.
13. *Racial socialization* has been defined as "the developmental processes by which children acquire the behaviors, perceptions, values, and attitudes on an ethnic group and come to see themselves and others as member of the group".
14. *Gender socialization* – Henslin (1999) contends that "an important part of socialization is the learning of culturally defined gender roles (p.76)." It also refers to learning of behavior and attitudes considered appropriate for a given sex in a society. Boys learn to be boys and girls learn to be girls. This "learning" happens by way of many different agents of socialization. The family is certainly important in reinforcing gender roles but so are one's friends, school, work and mass media.

There are different institutions in a society where individuals learn socialization from early years of age and throughout their life span; however, their learning pace may differ from each other with diverse reasons.

Social Institutions
The basic agencies of socialization in contemporary societies are the family, peer group and the school. Institutions are identified with a social purpose and performance, transcending individual human lives and intentions and with the making and enforcing of rules governing cooperative human behavior. Types of institution include:
- *The family* – It is the centre of the child's life, as infants are totally dependent on others. Children learn continuously from the environment that adults create. Children also

become aware of class at a very early age and assign different values to each class accordingly.

- *Religion* – Agents of socialization differ in effects across religious traditions. Parental religious participation is the most influential part of religious socialization—more so than religious peers or religious beliefs.
- *Peer group* – A peer group is a social group whose members have interests, social positions and age in common. This is where children can escape supervision and learn to form relationships on their own. The influence of the peer group typically peaks during adolescence however peer groups generally only affect short term interests unlike the family which has long term influence.
- *Economic system* – Socialization within an economic system is the process of learning the consequences of economic decisions. Socialization impacts decisions regarding "acceptable alternatives for consumption," "social values of consumption alternatives," the "establishment of dominant values," and "the nature of involvement in consumption".
- *Legal system* – Children are pressured from both parents and peers to conform and obey certain laws or norms of the group/community. Parents' attitudes toward legal systems influence children's views as to what is legally acceptable.
- *Penal system* – The penal systems act as an agent of socialization upon prisoners and the guards. Prison is a separate environment from that of normal society; prisoners and guards form their own communities and create their own social norms. Guards serve as "social control agents" who discipline and provide security.
- *Language* – People learn to socialize differently depending on the specific language and culture in which they live. This is where immigrant children learn to behave in accordance with the languages used in their lives: separate languages at home and in peer groups (mainly in educational settings). Depending on the language and situation at any given time, people will socialize differently.
- *Mass media* – The mass media are the means for delivering impersonal communications directed to a vast audience. The term *media* comes from Latin meaning, "middle," suggesting that the media's function is to connect people. Since mass media has enormous effects on our attitudes and behavior, notably in regards to aggression, it is an important contributor to the socialization process. …the media can teach norms and values by way of symbolic reward and punishment for different kinds of behavior as represented in the media. An alternative view is that it is a learning process whereby we all learn how to behave in certain situations and the expectations which go with a given role or status in society (McQuail, 2005:494).

1.2 Importance of Socialization

In the beginning of life a newborn is an organism to which socialization makes responsive to the society. Thus, socialization is an important process in child development and individuals become functioning members of a particular group and take on the values, behaviors, and beliefs of the group's other members. Even though the process starts very soon after birth and continues into

adulthood. The age of early childhood is a crucial period of socialization because how children are disciplined, how they respond to this discipline, and how they develop independent behavior are all connected to the process in which it occurs. Thus, socialization stands for the development of the human brain, body, attitude, behavior and so forth. In other words, socialization:

- *Inculcates basic discipline* – Teaching impulse control and developing a conscience, preparing people to perform certain social roles, and cultivating shared sources of meaning and value.
- *Helps to control human behavior* – To participate in a social group by teaching people its norms and expectations.
- *Helps to maintain and preserve* social values and norms
- *Acculturation* – Explains the process of cultural change and psychological change that results following meeting between cultures. The effects of acculturation can be seen at multiple levels in both interacting cultures. Acculturation is coined by J.W. Powell to "the psychological changes induced by cross-cultural imitation".
- *Enculturation* is the process by which people learn the requirements of their surrounding culture and acquire values and behaviors appropriate or necessary in that culture. As part of this process, the influences that limit, direct, or shape the individual (whether deliberately or not) include parents, other adults, and peers. If successful, enculturation results in competence in the language, values, and rituals of the culture. Enculturation is related to socialization. In some academic fields, socialization refers to the deliberate shaping of the individual. In others, the word may cover both deliberate and informal enculturation. The individual can become an accepted member and fulfill the needed functions and roles of the group. Most importantly the individual knows and establishes a context of boundaries and accepted behavior that dictates what is acceptable and not acceptable within the framework of that society.
- *Social Assimilation* – Culture is defined as transmitted and created content and patterns of values, ideas and other symbolic meaningful systems as factors in the shaping of human behavior and the artifacts produced through behavior. The social system, on the other hand, is the specifically relational system of interactions among individuals and collectivities (Parsons, 1958). Assimilation may involve either a quick or gradual change depending on circumstances of the group. People of different backgrounds and beliefs undergo assimilation when, through living together, they come to see themselves as part of a larger community or when a small group is observed into and made part of, a bigger group. Assimilation can also refer to the absorption of new ideas into existing knowledge.
- Internationalization – The process of increasing involvement of enterprises in international markets. It is the process of planning and implementing products and services so that they can easily be adapted to specific local language and cultures, a process called localization.

Analyzing the above points, socializing is more important for children with special needs so the parents or caregivers and teachers need to do their best in socializing them so that they can accommodate the context and use socializing skills.

1.3 Building Relationships
A teacher holds main role to setting the tone and planning relationships among and between the students and the teacher. Because relationships are the fundamental bedrock of classroom/institution life with far-reaching consequences, a closer look at the principles and nuances involved in building good relationships is worth our time and attention.

1.3.1 **Respect** – Respect begins with an unwavering commitment to all students and springs from a teacher's deliberate choice to breed an environment of acceptance and shepherd students to breathe its contagious atmosphere like a serene, fresh breeze.

- *Respect for Student Contributions:* Interaction among students and between teachers and students is a central feature of classroom life worthy and careful regard and insight. Students, who feel valued as individuals are liberated to offer their budding talents and untested contributions in class, secure that these matter to the teacher, and if received with respect, will similarly matter to the whole class. This way of doing classroom business takes teacher commitment, but the satisfying memories remain long for students. Teachers who desire to impact the outside the world do so not by pressing a prescribed agenda but by their consistent influence and openness to the diverse students who journey through their classrooms year after year and venture out to make the world a better place.

- *Grown-up Treatment:* Teachers who validate student contributions elevate students to a respected level. The students feel easy and find their secure position in doing different activities in the class.

- *Respectful Listening*: Teachers, need to listen the words students say but also be equally attuned to what students don't say but convey more significantly through their facial expression and body language. Treating students with consideration, listening to them, reading their non-verbal cues, and relating to them with adult-like respect does not demean a teacher or result in a loss of real or perceived authority. Rather, by demonstrating respect for students, teachers demonstrate the essential nature of self-respect and personal dignity.

- *Respecting the Disrespectful:* A commitment to respect students and do no emotional harm requires patience and fortitude, especially in trying circumstances. Respect is a choice, an action. The commitment to respect students, even difficult ones, comes first, followed by the choice of interact with students in respectful ways. Then and only then can heart follow in awakening feelings of positive regard. Glasser (1998) counsels teachers to be compassionate and courteous, avoiding put-downs and sarcasm no matter what students do.

- *Teacher Talk:* A commitment to talk and act respectfully is like a well-placed rebound. Talk respect, and respect will circle back to the speaker. More important, students do not translate coerced respect into respectful attitudes, attitudes that are an essential part of their education in human relations.

1.3.2 **Encouragement** – Encouraging words offered purposefully or in passing, verbally or in writing, imprint student lives more than we know, both now and in their future. Teachers have a part in shaping students' general *self-concept* as well as their *self-efficacy* for specific academic tasks, and insightful teachers stay alert for ways to genuinely encourage students' self-efficacy in areas where they believe students can excel.

1.3.3 **The Gift of time** – Mentoring, tutoring, and differentiation take time, but they build relationships and save time in long run. A good teacher is a teacher all the time, not just in front of students.

All students lean but not always at the same pace. Inventive teachers, extent their limited instructional time by differentiating approaches to content and activities. Differentiating involves organizing instruction in unique and varied ways to meet the needs of diverse students (Tomlinson, 2001 in Balli, 2010). Most teachers would like to tutor those students who need extra help; they recognize that such individual time builds strong relationships, but they have limited time for adequately addressing student needs alone. Children crave quality time and attention too. Teachers are not rich. The one gift teachers can give is their time, and it has no price tag.

1.3.4 Teacher-student relationships – Educators remain guarded and cautious about the extent to which teachers and students can or should be friends. Ideally, teachers and students coexist within a trust-based relationships, one in which teachers nurture students but steadfastly foster their independence (Plaut, 1993 in Balli, 2010).

- *Balance and Boundaries:* Wise teachers understand this, and they distinguish the appropriate line while fostering warm and friendly relationships with all students. Teacher-student relationships are unique, complex, and delicate. A genuine teacher-student friendship develops slowly within the context of carefully established boundaries and mutual respect. In this context, a teacher friend is fundamentally different from the familiar, causal term friend.
- *Valuing Students:* In one essential facet of classroom life, a teacher friend relates to students in a way that convinces each student of his or her inestimable value, like a priceless gift, packaged with matchless talents needed by the whole class – so much so, that the class would not be the same without a particular student's presence.
- *Names and Faces:* One important way to feed friendly relationships is to refer to students by name. Quite naturally, students feel special when teachers not only know them as current students but also remember them long after they move the new classrooms. Valuing all students equally and referring to them by name convinces students that every class member is a teacher favorite.

- *Honest Give-and-Take*: All people, children or adults, need someone to talk with honestly and openly, someone approachable, someone who will listen. Honesty is a prerequisite for mentoring friendships. Ayers (2001) points out that an honest relationship between teachers and their students entails the kind of solidarity in which compassion and criticism, acceptance and advice, and celebration and guidance are equally the substance and bedrock of give-and-take in conversing and listening.
- *A Mentoring Friend*: Students learn all the time from watching, listening, and experiencing life with a teacher-mentor who struggle and sets an example that students can consider and emulate as they tangle with their own setbacks on the road to mature adult life. A teacher friend is neither a peer nor a parent; instead, a real teacher friend is the best of both without being intrusive inappropriate, or overbearing. A real teacher friend can relate to a student's journey having traveled the journey before, and with energy, forethought, and compassion, a real teacher friend guides the journey as a mentor with the care and wisdom of one who has been there. A teacher friend creates a climate in which all students can learn and grow as individuals.

Building relationship between/among students and teacher is essential for maintaining the environment conducive for each of the student equally regardless of their individual differences or their abilities and disabilities. A teacher can play a vital role in the socialization of students in their all respects.

Let Us Sum Up

Socialization is a continuous and lifelong process till to the end of life. An individual learns language, culture, values, norms, attitudes and behavior. Primary socialization that takes place during infancy, usually within the family, is the most important aspect of the socialization. Children learn the language and many of the behavior patterns of their society by responding to the approval and disapproval of their parents and copying their examples. Social learning may be both, fun or painful. Socialization may be categorized as: natural/planned; primary/secondary; anticipatory/re-socialization; organizational/group; gender, racial, positive/negative and so on. There are different types and theories of socialization. Socialization is important in individual as well as collective development for the social being. Building relationship is a must in teaching-learning activities among students, between teacher and student for the well-being of human being. Like other children, children with disabilities also need to be socialized. However; they may face difficulties in socialization. Thus, they need more attention, care and also specific skills to interact with family members, peers and community people.

Unit-end Activities

- Objective Questions: Group "A"

Tick (√) the best answer.
   1. According to the model of Productive Processing of Reality (PPR), socialization refers to.........
       a. Family relationship
       b. Peer processing

    c. Collaborative development
    d. Personality development

2. In the stages of moral development theory, the post-conventional stage refers to......
    a. Follow concrete social norms
    b. Consider abstract ethical principles
    c. Consider tangible cultural principles
    d. Follow familial norms

3. In stages of socialization, investigation stage involves............
    a. Follow group norms
    b. Meet the group expectations
    c. Search for information
    d. Re-socialize

4. Socialization is..............
    a. Intermingle with the natural environment
    b. A process of gaining own benefits
    c. A process of changing one's lifestyle
    d. Learning to live and work together

5. In the economic system, socialization is.....
    a. Social positions
    b. Dependence on others
    c. Social values of consumption alternatives
    d. Religious beliefs

- Short answer questions: Group: B

1. What is socialization?
2. Enumerate social institutions from where children become socialized.
3. Why is socialization important for an individual?
4. What do you mean by building relationship?
5. Differentiate between enculturation and acculturation with examples.

- Long-answer questions: Group: C

1. Why is building relationship among/between teacher and students essential? Justify your answer with suitable examples.
2. Write short notes on:
    - Encouragement
    - Gift of time

Points for Discussion

- Definition of socialization regarding children with special needs
- Importance of socialization for children with special needs
- Types of socialization
- Building relationships between/among children with special needs and other peers and teachers

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Suggested Readings:

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Unit II: Normative Development

Introduction

All the living organisms have age specific growth and development which is called normative development as social scientists and psychologists have been arguing. Wenar and Kerig (2006) stated that there are five contexts of development in time dimension in the developmental framework, they are: the biological, individual, family, social, and cultural. The *biological* context entails different organic influences which are relevant understanding deviant development such as genetics, brain chemistry, brain structure, neurological and neuropsychological functioning. Furthermore, it delves other inborn characteristics engaged in the development of individual differences like temperament.

The *individual* context refers to the psychological variable within a person like personality characteristics, cognition, emotions, and internalized expectations about relationships. The *family* provides an important context for child development. The parent-child relationship is the greatest among family influences. *Social* context widens incrementally over the course of development. *Cultural* context includes social class, ethnicity and beliefs. Cultural attitudes, and values, social class, and ethnicity are all variables that affect the child by shaping his/her physical and psychological environment. Developmental framework entails the interaction of variables both at a given point in time and over time. The figure 2.1 shows the framework of development with its influencing variables in the normative development of a person.

FIGURE: 2.1

A DEVELOPMENT FRAMEWORK
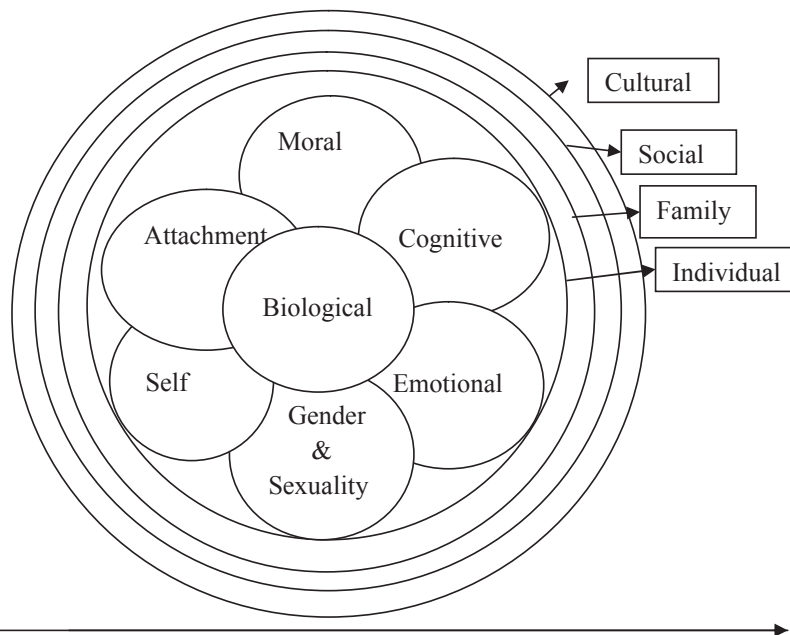
Age

Note: All contexts and variables interact at each point in time as well as over time
(Source: Wenar & Kerig, 2006)

Normative means correct/proper/normal way of doing something. However, people need to know well enough before judging any person's normal behaviour. In the course of life a child learns different skills and progress age-appropriate behavior from the infancy to adulthood. Sometimes, a problem behavior is normal in the course of life and the absence of misbehavior might constitute a reason for worry. For instance, the 2-year old who is not distressed by separation from the mother, the 3-year old who never says no, the adolescent who never experiments with new roles – children such as these might warrant a second shock. Developmental psychopathology is an approach to understanding how psychopathology emerges over the life span. In this unit we will discuss on the different contexts of normative development as well as analyzed deviation from it.

2.1 Development in the Individual Context

There is a group of individual processes binding the child to the human environment. It is essential for the child to understand the physical and social environment as well as himself/herself, a variable that is call cognitive development. Gender differences interact with all of the other processes, as sex-role socialization affects interpersonal relations and self-perceptions to a significant degree. Individual context incorporates basically the following processes: cognition, emotion, attachment, the self, moral development, and gender and sexuality.

2.1.1 Cognitive Development

Piaget (1967) has suggested a sequential series and fixed stages that children progress through in the process of cognitive development. For instance, during the first two years of life the child is in the *sensorimotor stage,* in which s/he learns to understand the sensation and motor action. A significant development in this period is that of object performance. Gradually, do infants come to realize that objects exist regardless of their own or perceptions – objects exist "out there" as part of the environment, while actions exist "in here" as part of the self. This represents a giant step toward separating "me", from "not me" (Wenar & Kerig, 2006).

Approximately 2 to 7 years of age is called the *preoperational stage* which marks the appearance of symbolic functions. In this stage, the most obvious manifestation of symbolization is language, which develops rapidly. In this stage, children also are known for magical thinking which is termed as *omnipotent thinking* because their understanding of causality is limited and they tend to view themselves as the agents causing the events around them.

The *concrete-operational stage* extends from approximately 7 to 11 years of age. In this stage, children are capable of understanding the world in terms of reason rather than in terms of naïve perception. They grasp the notion that objects conserve or maintain their identity despite changes

in appearance. Although realistic, the child's thinking is still tied to concrete reality and bound to the here and now.

The *formal-operational stage* begins around 12th year and lasts into adulthood. In this period the youth is able to generalize ideas and construct abstractions. The ability to draw conclusions from hypotheses rather than relying totally on actual observation is called *hypothetical-deductive thinking*. Adolescents can go wherever their thoughts lead them. They discuss, they write, they reflect. They create a philosophy of life and explain the universe. They are also capable of being truly self-critical for the first time because they can reflect on and scrutinize their own ideas.

Cognitive Processes and Developmental psychopathology: Assimilation-Accommodation Imbalance – According to Piaget, development is fueled by the child's attempts to adapt the environment. Adaptation occurs through two psychological processes: assimilation and accommodation. Assimilation refers to the incorporation of new information into an existing schema and accommodation refers to the alteration of a schema to take into account new information. Normative development is characterized by a balance, or equilibration, of assimilation and accommodation, problems may arise when accommodation and assimilation are used to the exclusion on one another. For example, exclusive use of assimilation might interfere with new learning which leads the child to make erroneous assumptions and to distort information so that it fits with preexisting notions. At the extreme, the child who is overly reliant on assimilation may be lost in fantasy, trying to bend the world to his or her own wishes. On the other hand, exclusive use of accommodation would result in the child's constantly changing his/her schema to fit with new stimuli. In the extreme, the overly accommodating child may lack a cohesive sense of self (Cowan 1978, cited in Wenar & Kerig, 2006).

Magical Thinking – While in normal development magical ideas and omnipotence begin to give way to logic during middle childhood, remnants of preoperational thinking may be seen in children whose development is delayed or children who are undergoing regression due to traumatic stress. Omnipotent thinking is problematic particularly for those traumatized children who misattribute to themselves causality – and blame – for their abuse.

Egocentrism – Piaget defines egocentrism as conceiving the physical and social world exclusively from one's own point of view. Consequently, characteristics of the self are used to define or interpret characteristics of the objective environment: the 'me' is confused with the not-me. Egocentric thinking appears at all stages of cognitive development. The infant believes the very existence of objects depends on his/her actions. For preschoolers, egocentrism has an important social consequence in that it prevents them from understanding that each person has his/her own point of view. The ability to view the same situation from multiple vantage points represents a giant step forward in cooperative social interactions.

Social perspective taking has its own progressive stages; for example, 3 to 6 years olds seldom acknowledge that another person can interpret the same situation differently from the way they interpret it, whereas 7 to 12 years olds can view their own ideas, feelings, and behaviors from another person's point of view and realize that other people can do the same in regard to them. Egocentrism makes its last childhood stand in early adolescence. Piaget assumed that times of cognitive transition are times when primitive models of thought are apt to reappear. The egocentrism may be expressed as self-consciousness and belief in the adolescence.

Cognitive Delays and School Failure – Children with severe cognitive delays may not even progress to concrete operations. Similarly, children with learning disabilities have different learning styles that interfere, their use of full potential and achieve in school. The child's general level of cognitive functioning has important implications for his/her functioning throughout development.

Cognitive Distortion – Aggressive children are predisposed to attribute malicious intent to the behavior of others even when such behavior is benign or accidental. This distorted appraisal is termed a hostile attribution bias.

2.1.2 Emotional Development
The development of emotions has important implications for our understanding of both psychopathology and normalcy. Although emotions have important adaptive functions, they also might have maladaptive consequences when emotions are not integrated with other systems of development.

Emotion Expression – Emotion expression is one from a number of the processes of emotional development. Emotion expression continues throughout the life. At the very beginning of life, the newborn is capable of displaying a wide variety of emotions such as interest, smiling, disgust, and pain. In the first year of life, children are able to express more complex emotions such as contempt, shame, shyness, and guilt. The emergence of emotion expression is highly influenced by caregivers. Infants directly imitate their caregiver's affect and caregivers, in turn, selectively reinforce the infant's facial expressions.

In the second year of life of a child, emotional expression becomes increasingly stable and integrated with cognitive development. In the third year as self-awareness and representational thought emerge, we begin to see the emergence of self-conscious emotions, such as shame, guilt, embarrassment, and pride (Harter, 1999). Preschoolers evaluate their performance and react emotionally to success and failure, appearing to experience pleasure or dissatisfaction not just with the task, but with themselves (Stipek, 1995).

Children in their middle childhood, show an increasing capacity to determine the *social appropriateness* of emotional expression and to hide their emotional reactions when situation is not favorable for them. While adolescents' emotions were more extreme, they were also more

fleeting, suggesting that teenage moodiness is real. On the other hand, their cognitive development provides adolescents with awareness of the social impact of their emotional displays as well as increasing skill at managing them, allowing youths to suppress affects when they might harm relationships or to communicate feelings when they might enhance connections with others (Saarni, 1999 cited in Wanar & Kerig, 2006).

Emotion Recognition – The emotion recognition is about the activities by which children identify the emotions of others and act accordingly. In this process children examine the faces of their caregivers in order to obtain clues about the meaning of events going on around them. In interpreting their own internal experiences, young children mostly see the emotional expressions of others around them. Thus, emotion recognition is very important in the development of healthy social relations and is a prerequisite for the acquisition of empathy and pro-social behavior.

Emotion Understanding – In emotional development children need to be able to identify, understand, and reason about emotions in one-self and others. Thus, emotion understanding is innermost to development in the individual context associated the self-concept and also has an importance in interpersonal and moral development as well as empathy and social competence.

Emotion Regulation – According to Thompson (1994) emotion regulation also is the ability to monitor, evaluate, and modify one's emotional reactions in order to accomplish a goal. Thus, the ability to identify, to understand and when appropriate to moderate one's feelings is called emotion regulation. For example, emotion regulation might involve inhibiting or subduing emotional reactions such as children might breathe deeply or count 1-10 in order to calm themselves in the face of distressing feelings. But emotion regulation also may intensify emotional arousal in order to meet a goal. Children might drive their anger in order to gather the courage to stand up to a fearsome bully; or children might enhance positive emotions by recalling or reenacting a pleasant experience. In essence, emotion regulation allows the child – to be "boss of my own self". Parents contribute to children's emotion regulation skills by responding sensitively to children's distress and keeping affect at tolerable levels so that it is manageable (Kopp, 2002).

Emotion Processes and Developmental Psychopathology – The inability through under-regulation or over-regulation to express one's feelings can be problematic as the inability to control them. Emotion regulation is central to coping with anxiety as well as a key to moderating anger so that it does not give rise to aggression. Similarly, child's ability to control extreme states of positive and negative emotional arousal allows peer relations to go smooth. The preeminent risk mechanism in emotional development is poor emotion regulation (Bradley, 2000; Cicchetti, Ackerman, & Izard, 1995; Cicchetti & Izard, 1995). Children with special needs may show

2.1.3 Moral Development

Children learn good behavior through self-generated moral standards and ideas in the course of their development however some children learn a few by fear of punishment.

Development of moral reasoning – Kohlberg (1976) constructed a theory of development of moral reasoning on the basis of Piaget's (1932) earlier work on children's thinking about moral issues. According to him, children develop their moral judgement through a series of stages such as:

1. Children assess activities whether those activities lead to pleasure or punishment during their early preschool years in the **pre-conventional stage**.
2. Furthermore, the children in middle childhood, they follow the **conventional standards of behavior** for maintaining the conformity of others or conform to some moral authority like religion or social order in the conventional stage.
3. The adolescents judge behavior as the morality which coined with democratically accepted law, of universal principles of ethics and justice, and of individual conscience which hold themselves personally accountable for moral decisions in their **post-conventional stage.**

Internalization – The main aim of socialization is that children to be directed to grasp parental values so that they will be motivated to behave in pro-social ways. In moral development process, internalization leads directly to the development of conscience which is very important developmental process in moral behavior. Additionally, through the process of internalization, morality comes to be something that is intrinsic to the self. According to Kochanska (2002), the internalization teaches us a great deal about the process b which behavioral regulation is transferred from the parents to the child over the course of development. The first stage in the process of internalization is **committed compliance** – that is, rather than complying solely on the basis of the immediate consequences of behavior, the child appears to share the parent's values and to be as committed as parent to the goal of good behavior. Second, internalization is related to a **quality of mutual responsiveness** between parent and child (Kochanka & Murray, 2000). When the relationship is marked by parent sensitivity and responsiveness – qualities that are also related to a secure attachment – the child is motivated to please the parent as well as to adopt the parent's goals and values. Therefore, love plays a role in morality.

Emotional Dimensions of Morality – After three years of age children show their self-conscious emotions through shame and guilt. Guilt is inner oriented, focusing on failure to meet one's own internalized standards and involving a negative evaluation of the behavior (e.g., "I did a bad thing") (Tangney & Fischer, 1995) whereas empathy involves caring about others' welfare and being motivated to help them and mere empathic distress (Endresen & Olweus, 2001).

Moral Processes and Developmental Psychopathology – There are deviant deficits which may affect on moral processes consequently become developmental psychopathology. They are:

- *Relational Deficits* – Children have little motivation to comply with their expectation or to internalize their parents' values if their caregivers are harsh and unresponsive. If children experience shaming form of discipline, they lack empathy and the appropriate guilt as a result they cannot be motivated to pro-social behavior.
- *Cognitive Deficits* – Cognitive deficit refers to the incapability of reasoning about problems. Children who are not able to reason about moral problems are likely to respond merely on the basis of immediate rewards and punishments. Social cognitive variables are important to understanding how moral judgement results in pro-social or anti-social behavior. Children who engage in distorted cognitions about others may perceive their own aggression not as bad behavior but as justifiable self-defense – even as an act of heroism (Caprara, Barbaranelli & Pastorelli, 2001 cited in Wenar & Kerig, 2006).
- *Cultural Expectations* – Cultural expectations also play important role. Societal forces also arise in the form of sex-role stereotyped expectations for the display of such qualities as kindness, caring, and empathy in males and females.

2.2 Sex and Gender Context

Biological sex is our bodily composition such as female, male, or intersex, which includes our inner and outer sex organs, chromosomes and hormones. However, a society or culture delineates gender roles as masculine or feminine. Thus, though a person's sex as *male* or *female* is a biological fact which is the same in any culture, the gender role as a man or a woman in society can be varying in different cultures.

2.2.1 Concept of sex and gender – Gender identity is the awareness of child of his or her maleness and femaleness. Society prescribes which behaviors and feelings are appropriate for boys and girls, and children must learn such appropriate gender role behavior. **Gender** refers to the socio-cultural definition of man and woman; the way societies distinguish men and women and assign the social roles to them (Bhasin, 2000, p. 1). Gender is a matter of culture. Sexuality involves sexual feelings and behavior, while sexual orientation refers to the choice of partner, whether same or other sex. **Sex** refers to biological differences; chromosomes, hormonal profiles, internal and external sex organs. In sociological terms 'gender role' refers to the characteristics and behaviors that different cultures attribute to the sexes.

2.2.2 Role of sex and gender – Generally, most societies in the world prescribe behaviors and feelings appropriate and inappropriate to men and women. Conventionally, societies believe that boys should be dominant, aggressive, unsentimental, stoic in the face of pain, and pragmatic while girls should be nurturing, sociable, non-aggressive, and emotionally expressive. Small children aged 2-3 prefer stereotyped toys and would rather play with same-sex peers. In middle childhood boys increasingly prefer gender-typed behavior and attitudes, while girls shift to more masculine activities and traits. Social learning theorists point to the many ways culturally prescribed gender-typed behavior is reinforced. For example, boys are reinforced for investigating the community and being independent, while girls are supervised more and rewarded for being compliant.

Gender and Sexual Processes Involved in Developmental Psychopathology – Mature sexuality involves interpersonal sensitivity and self-understanding as well as physical intimacy. Children who engage in sexual behavior intelligently – those whose cognitive, emotional, and interpersonal development does not keep pace with their physical development or life experience – are at risk for maladjustment. Similarly, gay, lesbian, bisexual, and transgendered youths who are developing in a culture that is judgmental or hostile to their orientation may face additional stresses that affect the process of identity formation as well as family and peer relations. Feelings of isolation and lack of acceptance may increase the risk of mal-adaptation in sexual-minority youths.

2.3 Development in the Family Context
In the development process, the family context is vital. All members of a family are in the process of development throughout the life span, as is the family as a system (McGoldrick & Carter, 2003). The parents are continuously engaged in making child-parent relationship strong and are engaged launching children into the world from the start of family development. Appreciation of family development processes suggests an important insight; the parenting strategies that are most adaptive at one time in developments (e.g., the close supervision of 2-year-old) are not ideal at another stage (e.g., consider the average adolescent's reaction to such monitoring). Thus, parenting strategies must be flexible as well as developmentally sensitive.

2.3.1 Parenting Style – The parenting style which is developed by Baumrind (1991a, 1991b) is the most influential one. She views two independent dimensions of parenting as essential: *warmth/support* and *control/structure*. By assessing parents on these two dimensions, she derives four parenting styles.

- The *authoritarian parent* is high on structure but low on warmth. Consequently, this parent is demanding, controlling, and unreasoning. If parents discipline is in a punitive and rejecting manner, their children tend to become aggressive, uncooperative, fearful of punishment and low on initiative, self-esteem, and competence with peers.
- The *permissive/tolerant parent* is high on warmth with no accompanying structure. This parent is undemanding, accepting, and child centred and makes few attempts to control. As a result, the child may be dependent, irresponsible, aggressive, spoiled.
- *Authoritative parents* are high on both warmth and structure. They set standards of mature behavior and expect the child to comply. Moreover, they are also highly involved, consistent, loving, communicative, willing to listen to the child, and respectful of child's point of view. Their children tend to be self-reliant, self-controlled, secure, popular, and inquisitive.
- The *neglectful parent* rates low on both warmth and structure. Consequently, this parent is described as indifferent, uninvolved, or self-centred. Negligent, unconcerned parenting is the breeding ground for anti-social behavior. Self-centredness on the parents' part is associated child impulsivity, moodiness, truancy, lack of long-term goals, and early drinking and smoking.

2.3.2 Parental Sensitivity – Responsive parents continuously provide structure and guidance to their children when needed and step back and allow child to do themselves when they have mastered the task and interested to do. Following from the work of Vygotsky (1978), this process is known as scaffolding (Wood, 1980). Parental support should be available but nonintrusive, allowing the child to grow strong and resourceful under its protection. Scaffolding takes place in the cognitive realm as well as the realms of social and emotional development (Denham, Mason, & Couchoud, 1995).

2.3.3 Parent-Child Bondage and Boundary Dissolution – According to Minuchin's (1974) family system theory, clear boundaries in the family are crucial to healthy psychological development. There are three forms of boundary problems that may arise in dyadic parent-child relationships

Enmeshment – Children with enmeshed parent-child relationships have difficulty individuating in adolescence.

Intrusiveness – A psychologically controlling parent strives to manipulate the child's thoughts and feelings in such a way that the child's inner life will conform to the parent's wishes. The parent may use subtle techniques such as indirect hints, guilt induction, and withdrawal of love to coerce the child into complying. Longitudinal data show that infants of intrusive mothers later demonstrate problems in academic, social, behavioral, and emotional development (Egeland, Pianta, & O'Brien, 1993), including anxiety and depression (Barber, 2002).

Role-Reversal also termed parentification refers to a relationship in which a parent relies on the child for emotional support and care rather than providing it (Jurkovic, 1997).

Seductiveness also termed spousification (Sroufe & Ward, 1980) occurs when a parent turns to a child for an adult-like intimate partnership (Jacobvitz, Riggs, & Johnson, 1999).

Divorce and Inter-parental Conflict – Research confirms that children are negatively affected by family dissolution. Children of divorce score lower than children of married parents on measures of psychological adjustment, self-esteem, and academic achievement and demonstrate more conduct problems and difficulties in interpersonal relationships (Amato & Keith, 1991). However, other investigators have noted that there is great diversity in children's reactions to parental divorce.

Divorce also is accompanied by a number of life stresses: children may have to move, change schools, separate from friends, lose contacts with grandparents, and suffer many other disruptions. When parents' emotional difficulties spill over into the parent-child relationship, there are negative consequences for children's development. Single parent families and grandparent headed (when a parent dies) are, on average, economically more stressed and the children are vulnerable to a number of negative behavioral and emotional outcomes (Hetherington & Stanley-Hagen, 2002; Mistry, Vandwater, Huston, & McLoyd, 2002).

2.3.4 Effect of Maltreatment and Family Violence – The 'average expectable environment' for infants includes protection and nurturance from adult caregivers, while older children require a supportive family as well as opportunities to relate to peers and master the environment (Scarr, 1992). Families can meet those needs of children in a variety of ways without impeding their development, as long as the home environment falls within the range of expectable conditions. In contrast, home environments that are violent, abusive, or neglectful fall outside this range and send the child on a pathological developmental course. Maltreatment is implicated in the development of many of the psychopathologies and also can take many forms.

2.4 Development in the Cultural Context
Throughout the life span of the child's development, all the cultural factors are important in increasing the risk or protection.

2.4.1 Poverty and Social Class – Children growing up in poor families are at increased risk for a range of behavioral, emotional, health, and economic problems (Bornstein & Bradley, 2004; Bradley & Corwyn, 2002).

FIGURE: 2.2
POVERTY AND SOCIAL CLASS
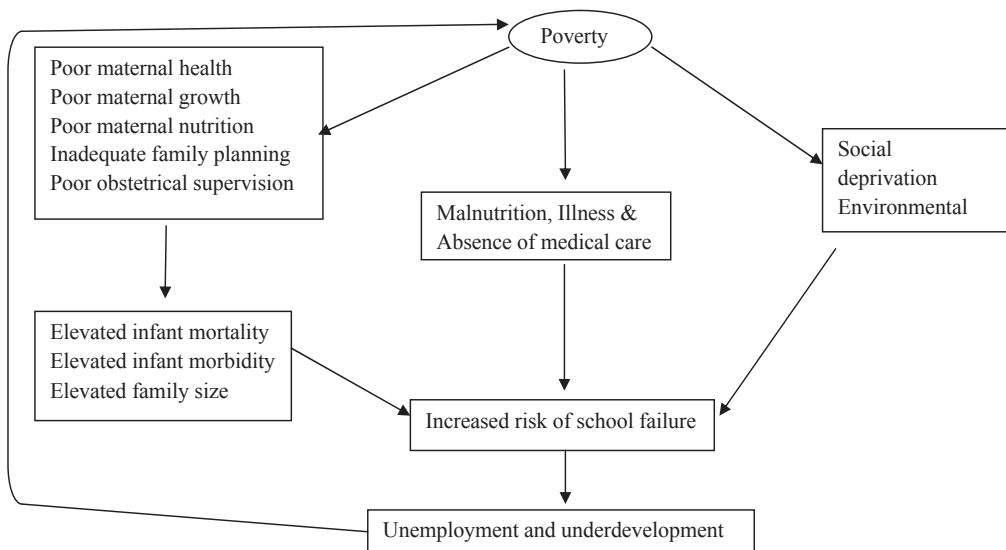
Source: Birch and Gussow, 1970 cited in Wegar & Kerig, 2006.

Poverty may affect on child's development through a number of means. Children from poor families have less access to cultural amenities and cognitively stimulating activities than do children from more privileged backgrounds (Bradley, Corwyn, Burchinal, McAdoo, & Coll, 2001).

2.4.2 Ethnic Diversity – Ethnicity is used to refer to 'the acceptance of the group mores and practices of one's culture and associated sense of belonging' (APA 2003, p. 380). There are two dimensions that should be considered while discussing ethnicity. First, within ethnic groups there are important differences related to *social class*. Members of minority groups are disproportionately likely to live in poverty which increases the risk for a variety of negative outcomes, including school dropouts, substance use and delinquency (Parke, 2004). However, there also exist middle- and upper-class minority families to whom there stressors do not apply. Second, there are significant differences in the *level of acculturation*, or adoption of the values of the majority culture. Acculturation is related to language use, customs, and ties to the community outside the ethnic enclave.

2.4.3 Cross-Cultural Norms and Expectations – Cross-cultural research also teaches us that whether a child's behavior is considered normal or disordered depends on adult expectations about appropriate behavior, which vary across societies (Weisz, Weiss, Suwanlert, & Chaiyesit, 2003; Harkness & Super, 2000). For example, an oft-cited cultural distinction is the one between an emphasis on individualism, the promotion of self-expression, independence, and individual achievement in children, and communalism, the valuing of social relations, interdependence, and the placement of one's own interests second to those of the larger group (Kitayama, 2000). A crucial factor is the fit between child's characteristics and those, the culture values. As Harkeness and Super (2000) point out, culture provides an important context for child development, influencing the physical and interpersonal settings, the styles of childrearing, the psychology of parenting, and the social relations that the child will need to adapt to over the course of childhood.

2.5 Development in the Social Context
In the development process social context is vital because it affects child's overall development.

2.5.1 Peer Relations
Peer relations are a potent predictor of subsequent psychopathology (Cicchetti & Bukowski, 1995). There is a common interest of sociability among the peers which is a way of acquiring norms and values controlling the behavior of the individual.

Infancy to Preschool – A number of changes take place in the pre-school period. For example, positive exchanges like attention and approval increase however sharing and sympathy do not. The common bases of social attractions are: cooperativeness, respect for property, constructiveness, and adaptability. According to Musum-Miller (1993), the preschooler who is

highly aggressive, quarrelsome, or dictatorial; who refuses to play with others; or who is dependent on adults for attention and affection rates low on attractiveness and sociability Friendships now have that combination of sharing and quarreling that will characterize them throughout childhood.

Middle Childhood – In this stage, sociability is spending more to among peers. Socio-metric assessment may show the sociability status of any individual in the peer group, i.e., the way they are perceived by peers. Four types of children emerge from socio-metric studies: accepted, rejected, neglected and controversial. The child who is *accepted* by other children is resourceful, intelligent, emotionally stable, dependable, cooperative, and sensitive to the feelings of others. *Rejected* children are aggressive, distractible, and socially clumsy in addition to being unhappy and alienated. Moreover, they are at risk for being school dropouts and for having serious psychological difficulties in adolescence and adulthood. *Neglected* children, who are neither liked nor disliked by peers, tend to be worried and lacking in social skills. Finally, *controversial* children are perceived both positively and negatively by others. These children are often troublemakers or class clowns, yet they possess interpersonal skills and charisma that attract or impress other children.

Empathy, the affective component of sociability, involves both an awareness of the feelings of others and a vicarious affective response to those feelings. Sullivan (1953) claims that the shift from "me" to "we" is aided by the mutuality and equality of peer relations. Children learn accommodation in the context of sharing and they begin to learn how to get along with others. At home the child has to be love-worthy because affection and obedience lie at the heart of the parent-child relationship. With peers the child must be respect-worthy, which is a matter of proven competence. They are valued in terms of their actual contributions to the activities that peers themselves value. The friendship group advances the sense of belonging. It offers training in interdependent behavior, encourages venturing out further that the individual could go alone, and through its cohesiveness buttresses the individual member's self-control.

Adolescence – In this stage, group involvement reaches a high point. The adolescent group is an autonomous social organization with purposes, values, standards of behaviors, and means of enforcing them. Adolescent groups vary in structure and nature. There is small, close-knit clique, whose members are bound together by a high degree of personal compatibility and admiration. Adolescence is a high-water mark for group prejudice, when caste and class lines are sharply drawn and inclusions and exclusions are absolute.

2.5.2 Extra-familial Adults – As children move through the school years into adolescence, adults outside the family increasingly play a role in shaping their behavior and attitudes, about themselves. Among potential mentors and sources of support outside the family, are: teachers, coaches, tutors, school counselors, camp leaders, God-parents, neighbors, and other adult friends

of the family. The quality of children's relationships with teachers contributes in important ways to children's sense of well-being. For example, teachers who blatantly treat differently the students they perceive as high and low achievers inculcate in children lowered school performance, the so-called Pygmalion effect (Weinstein, 2002). Peers also are sensitive to differential teacher treatment and are likely to reject the child they perceive as ill favored (Donahue, Perry, & Weinstein, 2003). On the other hand, Teachers who relate to children with warmth, structure, and personal interest increase children's well-being and sense of security as well as children's capacity to cope with stress (Brody, Dorsey, Forehand, & Armistead, 2002; Little & Kobar, 2003).

FIGURE 2.3
DEVEPOLMENT IN THE SOCIAL CONTEXT
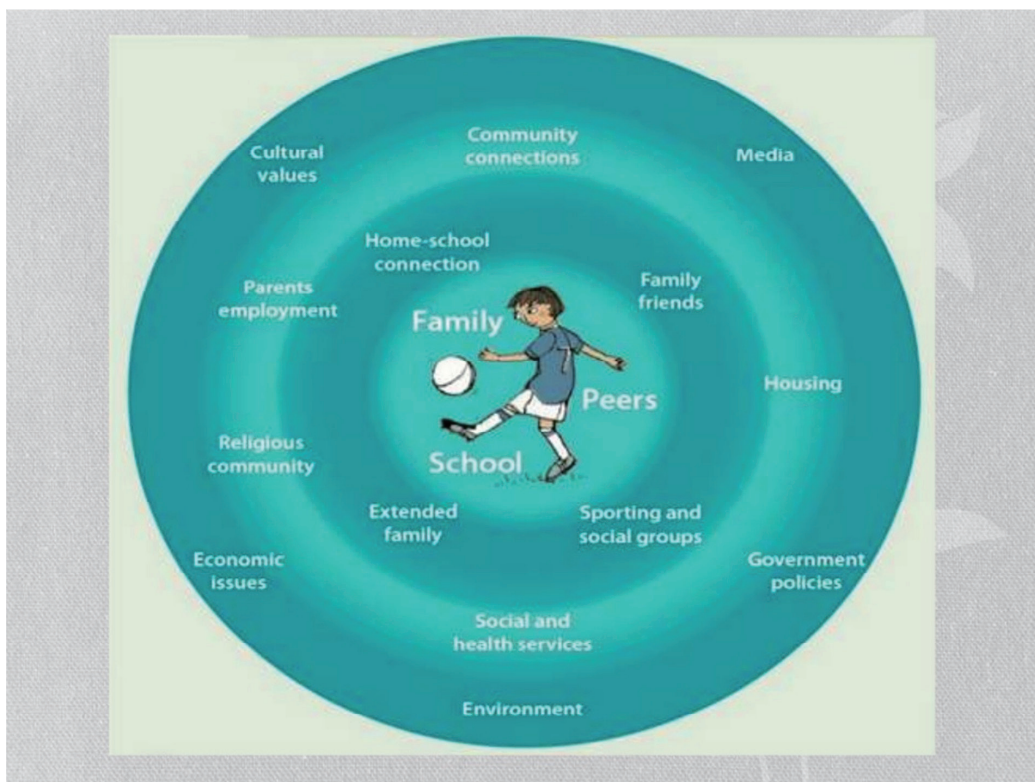
Additionally, the picture above shows the glimpses of a wide coverage of variety of institutions and persons with whom the child interacts socializes and develops oneself. Thus, as age grows child learns and develops pro-social behavior however children with needs have varied characteristics and developmental delays they may not show age-appropriate social development.

For example, some special needs complicate the development of emotion regulation and social skills. Delays in other areas of development influence social-emotional development such as cognitive delays, motor delays, sensory processing delays, and communication.

Let Us Sum Up

Development occurs across all psychological and biological processes. In this unit, we have discussed a few key developmental lines that are so crucial to a child's well-being that, should anything go radically wrong with any one of them, we should seriously consider the probability that a child will become disturbed. The quality of the parenting that child receives, the structure of the family system, and the extent to which the parent-child relationship is warm and kind versus harsh and rejecting will affect susceptibility to negative developmental outcomes, thus the family context must be considered. There is a group of individual processes binding the child to the human environment.

As development advances, children and youths expand their social horizons to form increasingly meaningful and significant social relations with peers, and adults outside the family. From the earliest years, when young children are buffeted by the effects of emotional storms over which they can exert little control and responsive environments will assist the child to develop the capacity to regulate emotions and engage in increasing degrees of self-control. Morality and self-control also involve the development of defense mechanisms, which help to manage anxiety and serve as one of the principal deterrents to performing socially disapproved actions. Gender differences interact with all other processes. Children develop in a larger cultural context that must be considered. The next unit deals with the development of communication, language and speech, which are vital in the socialization of any human beings.

Unit-end Activities
- Objective Questions:　　　　　Group: A
1. Normative behaviour means................
    a. Disappearance of age-appropriate behaviour
    b. Absence of normal behaviour
    c. Correct way of doing something
    d. Development of individual differences
2. Developmental psychopathology refers.......
    a. Normal behaviour gone away
    b. Normal behaviour improved
    c. Developed appropriate behaviour
    d. Developed normal behaviour
3. The sensorimotor stage of cognitive development, according to Piaget is assumed as....
    a. Appearance of symbolic functions
    b. Vehicle to understand sensation and motor action
    c. Omnipotent thinking
    d. Concrete thinking
4. The formal-operational stage means..........

    a. 12 to adulthood
    b. 7 to 11 years of age
    c. 2 to 7 years of age
    d. Infancy
5. Egocentrism means understanding the social and physical world exclusively from........
    a. Institutional effort
    b. Collaborative effort
    c. Peer's point of view
    d. One's own point of view

- Short-answer questions   Group: B
1. What do you mean by normative development?
2. How do peer relations affect the social development of a child?
3. Discuss the environmental relationships between poverty and education.
4. Differentiate between the terms: emotion expression, emotion recognition and emotion understanding with suitable examples.
5. Discuss the role of peer relations for the development of an individual in the social context.

- Long-answer questions   Group "C"
1. How does family context affect the development of an individual? Discuss with examples.
2. Define sex and gender context with suitable examples.

Points for Discussion
- Cognitive development stages outlined by Piaget
- Moral development
- Assimilation, accommodation & equilibrium
- Emotion: Expression, understanding, recognition, and regulation
- Gender: identity and roles
- Parenting style and parental sensitivity
- Peer relation: infancy, middle childhood and adolescence
- Ethnic diversity and cross-cultural norms and expectations
- Normative development and children with special needs

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Part II: Communication Skills
Unit III: Development of Communication, Language and Speech

Introduction

How shall I talk of the sea to the frog, if he has never left his pond? How shall I talk of the frost to the bird of the summerland if he has never left the land of his birth? And how shall I talk of life with the sage if he is a prisoner of his doctrine?

- *Chung Tzu*

The process of exchanging information and ideas is referred as communication. The above quote says that communication is about the familiarizing one with other where understanding is necessary. It is an active process where encoding, transmitting, and decoding involved for intended messages. Among many means of communication, speech and language are very important for interacting with each other. Though speech is the oral means of language however it is not only medium for expressing language because there are other ways also used for communication such as gestures, manual signing, pictures, and written symbols and so on. Moreover, speech is the fastest and most efficient method of communication. In all societies, a language is a formalized code/symbol used by a group of people to communicate with one another. All languages consist of a set of abstract symbols – sound, letters, numbers, elements of sign language – and a system of rules for combining those symbols into larger units. Languages are not static; they grow and develop as tools for communication as the cultures and communities of which they are part change. Nearly, 7, 000 living languages are spoken in the world (Lewis, 2009).

Nepal is a country with great diversity in terms of geography and its people. Our country has 26.5 million populations, which comprise 126 castes/ethnicities, who speak 123 different languages (CBS, 2011). In this unit, we shall discuss all about communication, its importance, principles, types and also the development of language and speech. With the help of language and speech we can understand others and put our views to others.

3.1 Conceptualizing Communication

Communication is an interactive exchange of information, ideas, feelings, needs and desires. Basically, in every communication interaction three elements are important, they are: (a) a message, (b) a sender, who expresses the message, and (c) a receiver, who responds to the message. The probability of message distortion is high, given the number of ways that a message can be formed and the connotations and perceptions of each participant. Each communication partner must be alert to the needs of the other so that messages are conveyed effectively and intended meanings perceived. As Smith noted, "Whenever people interact they communicate. To live in societies and to maintain their culture they have to communicate" (Smith, 1966).

3.1.1 Defining Communication

Human communications is the process through which individuals – in relationships, groups, organizations, and societies – respond to and create messages to adapt to the environment and

one another (Ruben & Stewart, 1998). Through communication, culture is learned, acted out, transmitted, and preserved. Though mode of communication varies with the context, person and culture it has appeared to be present at birth and continues throughout the life span.

Other aspects of communication, shown in figure 3.1 below, may enhance or even cover both. These aspects are paralinguistic, nonlinguistic, and meta-linguistic. *Paralinguistic* mechanisms can change the form and meaning of a sentence by acting across individual sounds or words of a sentence. These mechanisms signal attitude or emotion and include accent, stress, rate of delivery, and pause or hesitation. Accent patterns include changes in pitch, such as a rising pitch at the end of a sentence used to signal a question. Stress is employed for emphasis. Rate varies with the speaker's state of excitement, familiarity with the content and perceived comprehension of the listener. Pauses may be used to emphasize a portion of the message or to replace it.

Nonlinguistic cues include gestures, body posture, facial expression, eye contact, head and body movement, and physical distance. Each of these aspects of nonlinguistic behavior can influence communication. For example, *gestures* tend to enhance speech and language and to set the rhythm for communication. *Body posture* and *facial expression* can convey the speaker's attitude toward a message, partner, or situation. Likewise, *eye contact* and *physical distance* can communicate the degree of involvement of two participants in the message or in the communicative interaction. A *wink* may convey more than a whole sentence. However, persons with visual impairments cannot experience these non-linguistic cues and their understandings may be restricted.

Meta-linguistic cues signal the status of communication based on our intuitions about the acceptability of utterances. In other words, meta-linguistic skills enable us to talk about language, analyze it, think about it, separate it from the context, and judge it. Communication partner's monitor both their own and their partner's communication. The focus is on what is transmitted, but also how this is accomplished.

FIGURE 3.1:
COMMUNICATION
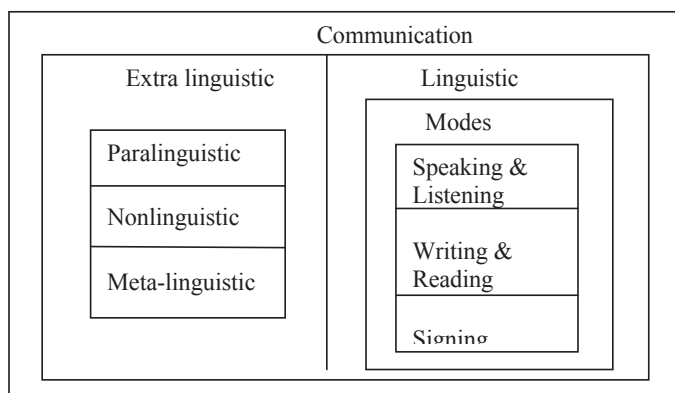
The process of communication is illustrated in figure 3.2 below. The message to be transmitting emerges as a concept in the mind of the speaker. Thus, this concept has been influenced by preceding events and is the result of the speaker's *cognitive* and *social knowledge.* Messages never occur out of context. The concept is encoded via language into a form to be transmitted. Rules that govern all aspects of the particular language used are employed to ensure that the message is appropriate, conveys the speaker's meaning and intention, is grammatically well formed, and contains correct sound sequences and combinations. Much of the activity occurs in the left side of the brain, using information from many other cortical areas.

FIGURE 3.2*: PROCESS OF COMMUNICATION*
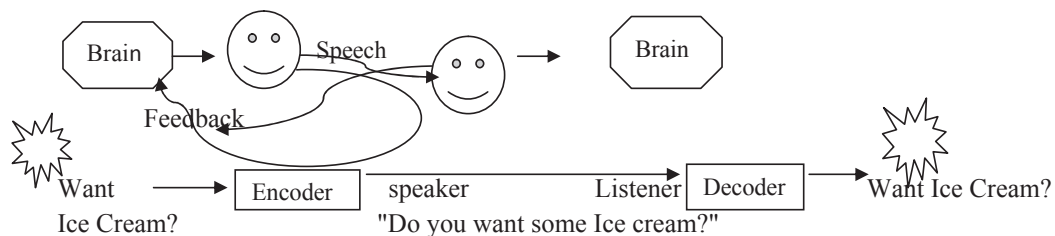
Once the message is encoded, the speaker performs the physical act of speaking, monitoring his production via auditory and proprioceptive self-feedback – how the message sounds and feels – and visual and auditory feedback from the listener. The listener receives the message both auditory and visually and *decodes* it. Linguistic information is processed in the left hemisphere of the brain in most individuals. Paralinguistic and nonlinguistic information – often the bulk of the message – is processed in the right hemisphere in most. Using the message as a base, the listener draws on her linguistic, cognitive, and social knowledge to decode or interpret it. The listener may request either additional information or classification to aid the decoding. This feedback helps the speaker sharpen the message.

Once the listener has decoded the message into the speaker's intended concept, and assuming the speaker has signaled that he is relinquishing his turn, the roles switch. The listener becomes the new speaker and will respond with an utterance that is related to that of the previous speaker. However, all the mechanism of auditory communication cannot be experienced by the persons with hearing impairments so they are also restricted to interact on the basis of listening.

Moreover, communication is more than just talking. The competence of communication is coined with an ability to use speech and language to uncover how the world works. thus, communication disorders include both speech and language disorders. The American Speech-Language-Hearing Association (ASHA) (1993) defines a communication disorder as "impairment" in the ability to receive, send, processes, and comprehend concepts or verbal, non-

verbal and graphic symbols systems. A communication disorder may be evident in the processes of hearing, language, and /or speech (p.40)".

3.1.2 Importance of Communication

Communication is the ability to share the ideas and feelings, which is the basis of all human contact. Wherever you live in any area of the world, you all involve the same activity when you communicate. The results and the methods might be different, but the process is the same. Over 6 billion people that live on this planet communicate so that they can share their realities with other human beings. New and advanced communication systems continue to encourage and facilitate cultural interactions. Communication satellites, sophisticated television transmission equipment, and fiber optic or wireless connection systems permit people throughout the world to share information and ideas instantaneously. Communication is a powerful way of regulating and controlling our world (Trenholm & Jensen, 1992 cited in Samovar & Porter, 2001).

3.1.3 Some Principles of Communication

We share our understanding and views with others through communication. There are some basic principles of communication. They are:

- ***Communication is a dynamic process***, it is not static, it is an *ongoing activity*. It is like a motion picture, not a single snapshot. While communicating, a word or action does not remain stagnant, immediately changed by another word or action. It is not surprising that more than twenty-five years ago the Greek philosopher Heraclitus expressed that there is nothing permanent except change. Communication is *transitory*. As T. S. Eliot defined the transitory aspect of communication arguing, "In life of one person, never the same time returns". In communication process there are different elements which interact with each other. For example, we send words, create actions, watch the response of those around us and listen to our partners all at the same time.
- ***Communication is symbolic*** – Humans' symbol-making ability allow for everyday interaction. We use symbol like sound, a mark on paper, a statue, Braille, a movement, a painting and many more to represent something else. Through millions of years of physical evolution, and thousands of years of cultural evolution you are able to generate, receive, store, and manipulate symbols. Symbol also enables culture to be passed from generation to generation.
- ***Communication is systemic*** – Communication does not occur in a vacuum, but it is part of a larger system. The elements of such system are interconnected, and they are:
  - *Setting*: Communication always occurs in context, and the nature of communication depends in large measure on this context (Littlejohn, 1989 cited in Samovar & Porter, 2001).
  - *Location*: People do not act the same way in every environment. For example, the location of the interaction may be in an auditorium, restaurant, or office, which provides guidelines for our behavior.

- *Occasion*: The occasion of a communication encounter also controls the behavior of the participants. An auditorium can be the occasion for a graduation ceremony, pep rally, convocation, play, dance, or memorial service. Each of those occasions calls for a distinctly different type of behavior.
- *Time*: The influence of time on communication is so subtle that its impact is often overlooked.
- *Number of people*: The number of people with whom you communicate also affects the flow of communication.
- *Cultural setting*: The largest system affecting communication is our culture, which is the context within which all our interactions take place (Wood, 1994 cited in Samovar & Porter, 2001). The rules, values, norms, traditions, taboos, and customs of a culture all affect the other areas of the communication system.

- ***Communication involves making inferences***, we cannot access the thoughts and feelings of other human beings. We can only infer what they are experiencing because there is no direct mind-to-mind contact between people. We make these inferences from a single word, from silence, from long speeches, from simple head nods, and from glances in our direction or away from us.
- ***Communication is self-reflective***, because of self-reflectiveness we are able to think about our encounters and our existence, our communication and human behavior (Ruben, 1988 cited in Samovar & Porter, 2001). According to Emerson, wherever we go, whatever we do, self is the sole subject we study and learn.
- ***Communication has a consequence***, all of us receive and respond to messages, yet the nature of our responses is rooted in our culture.
- ***Communication is complex***, because human communication is a subtle and ingenious set of processes. It is always thick with a thousand ingredients such as signals, codes, meanings and no matter how simple the message or transaction. Communication becomes more complex when cultural dimensions are added.
  - *People are alike*: People are identical in numerous physiological and chemical ways. People also seek emotional pleasure and dislike injury to their feelings.
  - *People are different*: There never were two cases exactly parallel. Cultural, as well as individual, differences keep people apart.

3.2 Non-verbal Communication

In human intercourse the tragedy begins not when there is misunderstanding about words but when silence is not understood. – Henry David Thoreau.

The expressiveness of human beings has a variety of means which may show different meanings in different ways and contexts. Without uttering a word we may communicate.

3.2.1 Definition

Goffman (1957) states, "The expressiveness of the individual (and therefore his capacity to give impression) appears to involve two radically different kinds of sign activity: the ***expression*** that

he gives and the ***impression*** that he gives off. Thefirst involves verbal symbols or their substitutes which he uses admittedly and solely to convey the information that he and the other are known to attach to these symbols. This is communication in the traditional and narrow sense. The second involves a wide range of action that others can treat as indicative of the actor (communicator), the expectation being that the action was performed for reasons other than the information conveyed in this way.

Our behavior and elements of speech also signal meaning. Non-verbal communication includes pitch, speed, tone, and volume of voice, gestures and facial expressions, body posture, stance, and proximity to the listener, eye movement and contact, and dress and appearance. Research suggests that only 5 % effects is produced by the spoken word, 45 % by the tone, inflexion, and other elements of voice, and 50 % by body language, movements, eye contact, etc. (http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/non-verbal-communication.html#ixzz3eYouAyEZ).

Non-verbal communication is the process of communication through sending and receiving wordless (mostly visual) cues between people. It is sometimes mistakenly referred to as body language (kinesics), but non-verbal communication encompasses much more, such as use of voice (paralanguage), touch (hap-tics), distance (proxemics), and physical environments/appearance. our speech contains non-verbal elements known as paralanguage, including voice quality, rate, pitch, volume, and speaking style, as well as prosodic features such as rhythm, intonation, and stress. Likewise, written texts have non-verbal elements such as handwriting style, spatial arrangement of words, or the physical layout of a page. However, much of the study of non-verbal communication has focused on interaction between individuals, where it can be classified into three principal areas: environmental conditions where communication takes place, physical characteristics of the communicators, and behaviors of communicators during interaction.

3.2.2 Classification of Non-verbal Communication Skills
Most classifications divide non-verbal message into two comprehensive categories:
- Primarily produced by the body (appearance, movement, facial expressions, eye contact, touch, smell, and paralanguage); and
- The individual combines with the setting (space, time, and silence).

Body Behavior –
Appearance is important because whatever the standards individuals apply and the judgements they make are basically focused to cultural interpretations.
Attire /Clothing, is also reflection of a culture's value orientation.

Body Movement – Kinesics cues are those visible body shifts and movements that can send message about (1) your attitude toward the other person, (2) your emotional state, and (3) your

desire to control your environment (monitoring someone to come closer means you want to talk to him or her). *Posture and sitting* habits offer insight into culture's deep structure. The power of *gestures* as a form of communication is reflected in the fact that the co-culture of the deaf in the United States has a rich and extensive vocabulary composed of gestures. The importance of *facial expressions* in communication is well established; however, intercultural implications of these expressions are difficult to assess. The number of message we can send with our eyes almost limitless. The impact of *eye contact and gaze* on human interaction is seen in the fact that people use less eye contact when they are depressed, suffer from low self-esteem, and are uncomfortable in a particular situation. *Touch*, like your words and movements, are messages about what you are thinking and feeling. The sense of smell can also be a conduit for meaning. A number of elements affect the meaning we give to *a smell*: (1) the strength of the smell in relation to competing fragrances and odors (French perfume versus an inexpensive aftershave lotion), (2) smell's distance from the other person, (3) the perceived relationship between parties involved, and (4) the context of the encounter. Culture influences our reaction to each of these four variables.

Paralanguage:
Paralanguage is referred as the linguistic element of speech that is, how something is said and not the actual meaning of the spoken word. Most classifications divide/paralanguage into three kinds of vocalizations: (1) *vocal characterizers* (laughing, crying, yelling, moaning, whining, belching, yawning); (2) *vocal qualifiers*: (volume, pitch, rhythm, tempo, resonance, tone); (3) vocal segregates ("un-huh", huh,"shh," "uh," "ooh," "mmmh," "hum"). For example, paralanguage cues assist us in drawing conclusions about an individual's emotional state, socioeconomic status, high, ethnicity, weight, age, intelligence, race, regional background, and educational level. *Laughing* and *giggling* also send different messages, depending on the culture. Although smiling and laughing are signs of joy in all cultures, the Japanese often laugh to hide displeasure, anger, sorrow, and embarrassments. *Accents* and *dialects* are additional components of paralanguage that often influence the communication process.

3.2.3 The Messages of Action, Space, Time and Silence
We use space and distance to convey messages. The study of this message system, called proximics, is concerned with such things as our (1) personal space, (2) seating, and (3) furniture arrangement all three have an influence on intercultural communication. Furniture arrangement within the home communicates something about the culture.

Time: Time cannot be seen however we respond to it as if it had command over our life. A culture's use of time can provide valuable clues to how members of that culture value and respond to time.

Silence: An African proverb states, "Silence is also speech". We contend that silence sends us non-verbal cues concerning the communication situations in which we participate. Silence cues

affect interpersonal communication by providing an interval in an ongoing interaction during which the participants have time to think, check, or press emotion, encode a lengthy response, or inaugurate another line of thought. Silence also helps to provide feedback, informing both sender and receiver about the clarity of an idea or its significance in the overall interpersonal exchange. Silence cues may be interpreted as evidence of agreement, lack of interest, injured feelings, or contempt.

3.2.4 The Importance of Non-verbal Communication
Nonverbal communication can be used both vocally and with the correct body signal and which provides a first impression in general situations.

Judging internal States – Nonverbal communication is a powerful tool for expressing our emotional and relational feelings to others. Our emotions are reflected in our posture, face, and eyes. It may be fear, joy, anger, or sadness – so we can express them without even uttering a word.

First Impression – Nonverbal communication is important in human interaction because it is usually responsible for first impressions.

Subconscious Actions – Non-verbal communication has value in human interaction because many of your nonverbal actions are not easily controlled consciously. It is difficult to control a blushing speech when you are nervous. These behaviors, and countless others, are usually automatic and unconscious.

Cultural-Bound – while much of your nonverbal communication is "part of universally recognized and understood code," a great deal of your nonverbal behavior is rooted in your culture.

3.2.5 Functions of Nonverbal Communication
Nonverbal communication is multidimensional which involves a variety of messages that can be sent simultaneously. We can see the multidimensional aspect of nonverbal communication mostly used with verbal messages. The interfacing of the verbal with the nonverbal carries over to the many uses and functions of nonverbal behavior. Some examples are: (1) repeating, (2) complementing, (3) substituting, (4) regulating, and (5) contradicting.
Repeating – People use nonverbal message to repeat a point they are trying to make.
Complementing – Complementing generally adds more information to messages. For example, sometime in showing the happiness to someone's performance, if you pat the person on the shoulder at the same time, this message takes on extra meaning. Physical contact places another layer of meaning on what is being said.

Substituting – Instead of speaking sometimes we substitute nonverbal action while doing something. For example, when we meet a friend, we smile and open arms to greet her which is a substitute for all words it would take to convey the same feeling.

Regulating – Mostly, we regulate and manage our communication by using some of nonverbal behavior. For example, we nod our head in agreement to indicate to our communication partner that I'm agreed.

Contradicting – Sometimes our nonverbal actions give signals opposite from the literal meanings contained our verbal messages. For example, you tell someone you are relaxed and at ease, yet your voice quavers and your hands shake.

3.3 Language Development

The socially shared code of symbols and rules allows language users to exchange information. Language enable communication to work by allowing composing and sending of messages (encoding) from one person to another, who receives them and understands them (decoding). Each user encodes and decodes according to his concept of a given object, event, and relationship. Thus, coding is a factor of a speaker's and listener's shared meanings, the linguistic skills of each, and the context. Individual symbols communicate little. Most of the information is combined in symbol combinations. A finite set of symbols and a finite set of rules governing symbol use are used to create and interpret a seemingly infinite number of sentences. Native speakers do not learn all possible word combinations. Rather, they learn the linguistic rules that enable each language user to understand and to create an infinite variety of sentences.

Language is much more complex than speech. Language puts meaning and is used to express and receive meaning. Although most languages have speech as a component, not all do. Sign language is an example of a language system that fulfills all the requirements of language, yet does not use speech as the medium to transmit and receive messages. Encoding and decoding skills develop over time and are dependent on interact neurological systems and experiences. The major components of language are: (1) Phonology, (2) Morphology, (3) Syntax, (4) Semantics, and (5) Pragmatics. Each of these develops as a child matures and allows humans of all cultures to express complicated concepts in a form that can be understood by other speakers and listeners of the same language.

The *phonology* is the sound system of language. The phonological rules of each language determine which combinations of sounds are permissible in that language to form meaningful words. *Morphology* deals with rules for transforming words and changing their basic meanings. For example, adding /s/ changes one horse to many horses, and adding/ed/changes today's work to yesterday work. *Syntax* is the rule system governing the order and combination of words to form phrases and sentences. *Semantics* is the meaning of language. "I am hungry" is a sentence that is semantically appropriate to speakers of English. It has meaning. The final component is *pragmatics*, which involves the social aspects of language. It takes into account a knowledge and understanding of rules of turn taking, starting, and encoding conversations, choosing and

maintaining appropriate topics, being sensitive to miscommunications and being aware of what experiences are shared by listeners and which need supplemental information for understanding messages (American Speech-language-Hearing Association, 1982). Languages have the following:

- Form (phonology, morphology, syntax)
- Content (semantics)
- Function (pragmatics) (American Speech-Language-Hearing Association, 1993a).

TABLE 3.1

LANGUAGE OF A TYPICALLY DEVELOPING CHILD

Age	Attainment	Example
13 months	First words	Here, mama, bye-bye, kitty
17 months	50-word vocabulary	
18 months	First two-word combination	More juice, here ball, more TV, more kitty
22 months	Later two-word combination	Andy shoe, mommy ring, cup floor, keys chair
24 months	Mean sentence length of 2.00 words, first appearance of – ing	Andy sleeping
30 months	Mean sentence length 3.10 words, first appearance of is	My car's gone
37 months	Mean sentence length 4.10 words, first appearance of indirect request	Can I have some cookies?
40 months	Mean sentence length of 4.50 words	

Source: from "Language Disorders in Preschool Children," by L. Leonard, 1994, in G. Shames, E. Wing, and W. Secord (eds.), Human Communication Disorders (4th Ed., p.179), Boston, MA; Allyn & Bacon.

By age of 6 most typically developing children have mastered that complexity of their native language well enough to use language to learn about concepts that have not been or cannot be directly experienced.

Owens (2005) summarized language development into five age-related phases from birth to age 12. He suggested that the young child (ages 1to 6 months) is an ***examiner*** who observes the environment with relatively little interaction. The child becomes ***experimenter*** (at ages 7 to 12 months) when he or she begins to interact with others while beginning to cognitively understand the basics of language. Next comes the ***explorer*** stage (ages 12 to 24 months), wherein the child begins purposeful interaction with the environment and is learning language at least a fast pace. By ages 3 to 5 years, the child has become the ***exhibitor***, talking about experiences and feelings in a logical way that can be understood by strangers. From ages 6 to 12 years, the child is now an ***expert***, with a huge vocabulary and the ability to manipulate language to express many complicated and abstract ideas. In general children with visual impairment, need to learn Braille for reading and writing while children with hearing impairments need to learn sign language so

that they would be able to understand the environment around them and interact with others. However, some children may have different disabilities which may restrict their language development.

3.4 Speech Development

Speech is a verbal means of communicating or conveying meaning. The result of specific motor behaviors, speech requires precise neuromuscular coordination. Speech consists of speech-sound combinations, voice quality, intonation, and rate. Each of these components is used to modify the speech message. In face-to-face conversation, much of the message is also carried by non-speech means, such as facial expressions and gestures.

As he matures, the child gain increasing control of the speech mechanism, and is able to produce or articulate sounds more efficiently. Although he gains much motor control within the first year, the child does not achieve adult-like stability until mid childhood. These and other developmental changes are presented in the table 3.2.

TABLE 3.2
SPEECH DVELOPMENT

Age	Stage	Speech	Other Development
0-1	Newborn	Reflexive behavior suck-swallow pattern non-differentiated crying vegetative sounds with phonation, but incomplete resonance	6-8 lbs 17-21 in. can't raise head when on stomach, visual & auditory preferences, best vision at $7\frac{1}{2}$ in.
2-3 months	Cooing	Definite stop & start to oral movement Velar to uvular closure or near closure Back consonants & back & middle vowels with incomplete resonance.	Hold head up briefly while on stomach or sitting supported Repeats own actions Visually searches Begins exploratory play Excited by people Social smile
4-6 months	Babbling	Great independent control of tongue Prolonged strings of sounds More lip or labial sounds Experiments with sounds	12-16 lbs, 23-24 in. Turns head to localize sound Mouths objects Sits supported for half hour Selective attention to faces Anticipates actions Excites with games.
7-10 months	Reduplicati-on babbling	Repetitive syllable production Increased lip control Labial & alveolar plosives/p, b, t, d/, nasals, /j/, but not fully formed	Self-feeding Progresses from creeping through Crawling to standing Explores objects through manipulation Imitates others physically Gestures

11-14 months	Phonetically consistent forms and first words	Elevates tongue tip Variegated babbling Intonational patterns Phonetically consistent forms – sound-meaning relationships Predominance of /m, w, b, p/ First words primarily CV, VC, CVCV reduplicated, & CVCV	26-30 LBS, 28-30 in. Stand alone Feeds self with spoon First steps Uses trial-&-error problem solving Deferred imitation
2 years		Has acquired /p, h, w, m, b, k, g	31-35 lbs, 32-34 in. Walks without watching feet Limited role-playing Parallel play
3 years		Has acquired /d, f, j, t, n, s/, all vowels	Short incomplete sentences 200-300-word vocabulary Explores by dismantling Rides tricycle Representational drawing Make-believe play Shares toys briefly Subject & verb sentences 900-to-1,000-word vocabulary
4 years		Has acquired /v, f, ʃ, tʃ, z/	Walks stairs with alternating steps Categories Counts to 5 Role plays Cooperative plays Tells stories, asks many questions 1,500-to1,600-word vocabulary
5 years		Has acquired /r, l, □, ŋ, □, □/	41-45 lbs, 40-42 in. Prints simple words Time concepts of recent past & future Simple game playing 2,100-to-2,200-word vocabulary Syntactic acquisition about 90% complete
6-8 years		Has acquired /□/, consonant blends	Rides bicycle Reads Enjoys action games Competitiveness Enjoys an audience 2,600-word expressive vocabulary

Source: From 'Human Communication: An Introduction' (8th Ed.) by Anderson & Shames (2011). Pearson.

Though a child with his/her normal development learns age-appropriate speech, the children with some impairments with speech or speech disorder need extra speech therapy.

Disorders of Speech and Language

From the above discussions we knew about communication, speech and language which are basic needs of human beings. Communication allows people to connect with others; make decisions that affect their lives, express feelings and feel part of the community they live in. When the disturbance occurs in speech, language or in both that can lead to disorders. Disturbance in the neurological system, underdevelopment of cognitive skills, or lack of appropriate language experiences can lead to speech disorders and language disorders, or both. The communication disorders include both speech disorders and language disorders.

A speech disorder is characterized by any impairment of vocal production (voice), speech sound production (articulation), fluency (shuttering and related disorders), or any combination of these impairments (American Speech-Language-Hearing Association, 1993a).

A language disorder is anomalous/inconsistent development in understanding or using spoken, written, or other symbolic systems. The disorder may involve the rate of acquisition of language; the form of language) phonology, morphology, or syntax); the content of language (the semantics); the function of language (pragmatics); or any combination of form, content, and function (American Speech-Language-Hearing Association, 1993a;Hunt & Marshall, 2006; Polloway et al., 2004 cited in Werts, Culatta & Tompkins, 2007).

Therapeutic interventions, facilitating devices and service provision settings may minimize or eliminate speech disorders and language disorders and communication disorders. Whatever the reasons behind the speech or language problems, a child with deficits in one or more of these communication areas may feel frustrated, confused, and even angry at not understanding or not being understood by other people. A child who has a speech or language delay is like any other child who needs to use extra effort to achieve speech or language.

Let Us Sum-Up

The terms 'communication', 'language', and 'speech' describe different, but related aspects of human behavior. The potential speech-language pathologist needs to be aware of the differences among these terms and of their interrelatedness. We make important judgements and decisions about others based on their nonverbal behavior. Nonverbal communication is culture-bound. Our body is a major source of nonverbal messages. These messages are communicated by means of general appearance and attire, body movements (kinesics), facial expressions, eye contact, ouch smell, and paralanguage. Use of silence varies from culture to culture. Several processes in different aspects of language may be functioning simultaneously. Ability to comprehend speech in an unfamiliar dialect requires great facility and develops throughout childhood (Nathan, Well, & Donlan, 1998). Not all children develop communication, language, and speech in the manner described because children with communication disorder need special skills to adapt in the society and enhance better understanding. The next unit will entail about the professional collaboration and home-school collaboration.

Unit-end Activities

- Objective questions   Group: A

1. During infancy to pre-school period, friendships now have that the combination of......
   a. Sharing and quarrelling
   b. Cooperative and sensitive
   c. Sharing and sensitive
   d. Cooperative and autonomous
2. Communication process does not involve................
   a. Encoding
   b. Transmitting
   c. Decoding intended messages
   d. Muteness
3. The fastest and most efficient mode of communication is.............
   a. Speech
   b. Gesture
   c. Picture
   d. Written symbols
4. Non-linguistic clues include............
   a. Words of a sentence
   b. Intonation
   c. Physical distance
   d. Rate of delivery
5. Meta-linguistic cues signal............
   a. Intonation patterns
   b. Monitor the talk
   c. Facial expression
   d. Pause or hesitation

- Short-answer questions   Group: B

1. What are the differences between communication, language, and speech?
2. In what situations might you need to interpret the nonverbal behavior of someone from another culture?
3. What problems could arise from not understanding the differences in nonverbal behavior?
4. State some of the major difficulties that individuals may encounter in speech, language, and communication throughout the life span.
5. Differentiate between communication, language and speech. Which one is more important among these? Justify your answer with examples.

- Long-answer questions   Group: C

1. Why is non-verbal communication important? Explain functions and classifications of non-verbal communication.
2. What is the difference between language and speech? To what extent are they important in socialization and communication processes? Justify your answer with suitable examples.

Points for Discussion

- Differentiate communication, language and speech, and their importance
- Nonverbal communication: Importance, functions
- Scenario of communication skills in Nepal
- Communication skills among children
- Speech and language disorders

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## Unit IV: Professional Collaboration and Home-School Collaboration

Introduction

Collaboration is a working practice whereby individuals work together for a common purpose to achieve a defined common business benefit. It exists in two forms: a) Synchronous, where everyone interacts in real time, as in on-line meeting, through instant messaging, and b) Asynchronous, where the interaction can be time- shifted, as when uploading documents or annotations to shared workspaces, or making contribution

Collaboration at the conceptual level, involves:

- Awareness – we become part of a working entity with a shared purpose
- Motivation – we drive to gain consensus in problem solving or development
- Self-synchronous – we decide as individuals when things need to happen
- Participation – we participate in collaboration and we expect others participate
- provocation – we negotiate and we collaborate together and find a middle point
- Reciprocity – we share and we expect sharing in return through reciprocity
- Reflection – we think and we consider alternative
- Engagement – we proactively engage rather than wait and see (See more at: http://www.aiim.org/What-is-Collaboration#sthash.VIjbOEpC.dpuf). The figure below reflects the life-cycle of collaboration, which persons collaborate.

FIGURE 4.1:
COLLABORATION LIFE-CYCLE
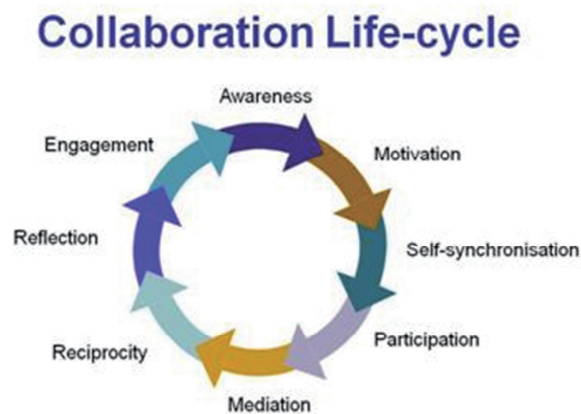
Collaboration relies on openness and knowledge sharing but also some level of focus and accountability on the part of the dealing organization. Governance should be established addressing the creation and closing of team workspaces with assignment of responsibility for capturing the emergent results of the collaborative effort.

In every walk of life we need collaboration with people in our society/community because we, are social beings and need each other's help in many aspects of life. The collaboration may be among community people, taskforce, heterogeneous or homogeneous group professionals and so on. Professional collaboration in the school/educational institution is a style of professional interaction between and among professionals, parents and families, and, when appropriate, students themselves to share information, to engage in collective decision making, and to develop effective interventions for a commonly agreed upon goal that is in the best interests of the student.

There may be both *intra-professional* and *interpersonal collaboration* in catering children with special needs. Intra-professional collaboration is among colleagues who share a common professional education, values, socialization, identity, and experience whereas inter-professional collaboration between professionals, who may not share a common professional education, values, socialization, identity, and experience.

The term home-school partnership/collaboration reflects the multidimensional nature of home-school interactions, and indicates a shared responsibility that both home and school have in children's education (Patrikakou, Weissberg, Redding & Walberg, 2005, p.3). Parents, teachers and students play a critical role in establishing as well as in maintaining the home-school collaboration. Contribution of each stakeholder is very important for the desired outcome of school family partnership. Parent's role is very important in decision making at school level; in collaborating with community for additional support and resources; and establishing new learning opportunities for children. Student's role is also important in school family partnerships. Senior students can help in parent teacher meetings and intervention planning between home and school (Patrikakou et al. 2005). Moreover, teachers can maintain a regular contact with parents.

In this unit, we will discuss professional collaboration and home-school, including the familial collaboration. Collaboration between these aspects is vital in catering children to promote their social and academic achievements.

4.1 Professional Collaboration
Collaboration can be described as two or more individuals working together for a common purpose (Taylor et al., 2009). It occurs in many different places, including work settings, sports activities, domestic activities, and so on. Collaboration is used in many different ways; some example include "grade-level meetings, departmental meetings, field-trip organization, school-site councils, consultation between colleagues or specialists, and curriculum planning" (Murawski & Hughes, 2009, p. 269). In recent years, inclusive education has become a buzz word in global scenario. Thus, children with special needs are included in general classrooms. The parents and educators need to collaborate for the maximizing learning achievements of the child.

In an inclusive classroom, collaboration occurs when general teacher works in partnership with special education teachers "to design environments that ensure the academic and social success for all students" (Meadan & Monda-Amaya, 2008, p. 165). This collaboration occurs both formally, when teams are formed around a particular child, and informally, when two or more

teachers get together and discuss how to meet a child's specific needs (Friend & Cook, 2010). Formal collaboration is "a system of planned cooperative activities where general educators and special educators share roles and responsibilities for students" (Wiggins & Damore, 2006, p. 49). Effective collaboration enables teachers to expand interventions after dealing with target behaviors into areas such as classroom climate and environment (Meadan & Monda-Amaya, 2008). Communication skills are extremely critical for collaboration-consultation to be successful. As with any process, the more individuals involved in a child's educational programme, the more effective communication must be. Communication allows the sharing of information about a student, expertise, perceptions, concerns, ideas, and questions (Halvorsen & Neary, 2001). Without good communication, educators will not be able to work together as a team to develop and deliver appropriate educational programmes a second critical requirement for collaboration-consultation is time. Teachers must have time to discuss and plan interventions regardless of the collaboration approach used. Making planning time available for school staff requires support of school administrators.

4.1.1 Co-teaching

Co-teaching is an instrumental model in which a special education teacher and a general classroom teacher share instructional efforts and responsibilities for students with disabilities included in a general education classroom (Sileo & van Garderen, 2010 cited in Smith, et al. 2012). One of the positive outcomes of this model is that students do not have to leave the classroom to receive assistance in the resource room; rather, they have the support of two different teachers in the general classroom (Murawski & Hughes, 2009).

The planning component is critical for successfully implementing this model. If co-teachers do not have time to plan their instruction, the process will likely break down without achieving its optimal level of success (Sileo & van Garderen, 2010). Another critical issue regarding co-teaching is voluntary involvement. Setting up co-teaching arrangements without regard to input from the teachers themselves will not set the stage for success for teachers or, eventually, for students. Teachers should be given some choice and flexibility. For example, allowing general and special education teachers to select partners with whom to collaborate has worked well. Enabling the teachers to select their co-teaching partner can help with compatibility; one of the obvious difficulties in implementing the co-teaching model is ensuring the compatibility of the individuals working together.

Co-teaching is a logical outgrowth of collaborative efforts between teachers. It includes consultative arrangements, additional help given by special education teachers to children with and without disabilities, and the sharing of teaching assistants and especially to accompany students who are disabled in the general education classroom. This model combines the content expertise of the classroom teacher with the pedagogical skills of the special education teacher. In addition to volunteering for co-teaching assignments, having planning time, and administrative support, and being compatible with each other, there are other characteristics,

often found among successful co-teachers. Some of these include professional enthusiasm and competence, good communication and problem-solving skills, mutual respect, flexibility, and good organizational skills (Walther-Thomas et al., 2000).

Stivers (2008) suggested several different activities that could strengthen the relationship between co-teachers and thus prevent some of burn –outs. Examples of these suggestions include:
1. Set aside large blocks of time for planning
2. Try different co-teaching models
3. Re-examine the physical layout of the classroom
4. Attend professional development workshops together and
5. Address conflicts in ways that are comfortable to both parties.

Some co-teaching approaches (e.g., complementary and team teaching) require greater commitment to, comfort with, and skill in collaborative planning and role release (i.e., transferring one's specialized instructional responsibilities over to someone else). It is recommended that collaborative teams select among the co-teaching approaches, as needed, based up the curriculum demands of a unit or lesson and student learning characteristics, needs, and interests.

TABLE 4.1
CHARACTERISTICS OF DIFFERENT CO-TEACHING STRUCTURES

Types of co-teaching structure	Characteristics
One teach/one observe	One teacher teaches the entire group, other teacher observes. Good for data collection, monitor and support student behaviors.
Team teaching	Teachers share equally in planning and delivering instruction. Both teachers usually teach large group of students together. Students can break into small groups for cooperative teaching.
Alternative teaching	One teacher teaches a small group; other teaches a large group. Excellent for providing individual feedback and instruction.
Parallel teaching	Teachers plan together and teach simultaneously to two groups. Class is typically divided into two equal or nearly equal groups. Provides opportunities to work with smaller numbers.
Station teaching	Teachers divide responsibility for instructional content. Students divided into groups that work on different activities.
One teach/one drift	Similar to one teach/one observe. While one teacher teaches the other moves throughout the classroom. Provides opportunity for checking work and giving extra support.

Source: From J.M. Sileo & D. van Garderen (2010). "Creating optimal opportunity to learn Mathematics". Teaching Exceptional Children, 42, 14-21.

4.1.2 *Co-operative Teaching Arrangements*

Co-teaching usually occurs at set times, such as during second period everyday or on certain days of each week. When, students with disabilities are included in general education classrooms, the special education teacher who becomes a co-teacher, is usually present (Friend & Bursuck, 2008). Co-teachers perform many tasks jointly, including planning and teaching, developing instructional accommodations, monitoring and evaluating students, and communicating student progress (Walther-Thomas el al., 2000).

Teacher Assistance Teams – Another collaborative model to provide support to students in general education classroom is the use of teacher assistance teams. Teacher assistant teams can be defined as "school-based problem-solving teams designed to enable all teachers to meet the needs of their students demonstrating difficulties (Walther-Thomas el al., 2000, p.140). These teams comprised of teachers and other support personnel, provide a form where problems are raised and discussed, and solutions are developed. The use of teacher assistance teams enables educators to bring a diverse set of skills and experience to bear on specific problems. One example for teacher assistance teams to provide suggestions for differentiating instruction.

Peers Support System – One way to help address the growing staff problem is through *peer support system* (Kroeger & Kouche, 2006). In this model, students with disabilities in general education classrooms receive social or instructional support from their non-disabled peers (Dobbs & Block, 2004). While not the same as professional collaboration peer support systems do result in collaborative efforts on behalf of students with disabilities. Peer support systems are some of the best means to provide assistance to this group of students in general education classrooms because students rely on the natural support of other students (Copeland et al., 2004). Peer support systems can be used for instructional support as well as social support. In the area of instruction, peer supports can be provided in any academic area.

A side benefit from peer support for instruction is the improvement in the social involvement of students with disabilities (Nelson, Caldarella, Young & Webb, 2008) and also it benefits both the parties - students with disabilities as well as those without (Carr, 2008). Peer support for instruction can be provided in several different ways, such as peer tutoring, peer assessment, peer modeling, and cooperative learning (Ryan, Reid, & Epstein, 2004). Table 4.2 summarizes various peer support models.

TABLE 4.2
DIFFERENT TYPES OF PEER SUPPORT

Cooperative Learning occurs when students are involved in teaching and learning together as a

team. There are numerous cooperative learning models, including teams where students rotate among groups and provide similar instruction to each group and team members provide instruction to other team members about a particular topic.

Cross-Age Tutoring occurs when students who are usually older provide academic support to younger students who are experiencing learning difficulties.

Peer Tutoring is either one student assisting another student or an entire class of students pair up and provide tutoring to each other. In the tutoring situations, students provide academic, instructional support to each other, either taking turns in providing support or one student serving as the primary support member of the team, peer-assisted learning strategy (PALS) is a type of peer tutoring wherein student frequently trade teams and all students have the opportunity to serve as the tutor and tutee.

Peer Assessment, peers are involved in evaluating academic work of peers. This model has been extensively. A simple version is to have students' trade paper and grade each other on assignments.

Peer Modeling – students are instructed to exhibit specific behaviors and then model those behaviors in front of their peers. Teachers make a point to discuss the students' appropriate behavior.

Peer Reinforcement, students usually those without disabilities provide reinforcement to their peers with disabilities for appropriate behaviors.

Source from J.B. Ryan, R. Reid, & M.H. Epstein (2004). " Peer Mediated Intervention Studies on Academic Achievement for Students with EBD" Remedial and Special Education, 25, 329-335.

4.1.3 Using Paraprofessionals

Paraprofessionals in school system – A person specially trained in a particular field or occupation to assist a professional such as a physician. In educational institutions, there are two broad categories of paraprofessional support: educational and operational (generalist and specialist)

- *Educational paraprofessionals* work under the guidance and supervision of teachers (as delegated by the principal) to support teaching and learning in the classroom

- *Operational paraprofessionals* work under the guidance and supervision of a school executive (delegated by the principal), to fulfill non-classroom based roles in school allowing more time for teachers to focus on teaching and learning activities

To direct instructional roles, there are many other roles that paraprofessionals can play, including:
- Performing clerical tasks
- Supervising in groups settings, and
- Working with students in areas of social skills.

In addition, to collaborative teaching models and peer support systems, the use of paraprofessionals to provide direct support to students with learning problems is occurring more commonly. In fact, it is "one of the primary mechanisms by which students with disabilities are being supported in general education classes" (Cavkaytar & Pollard, 2009, p.382). Paraprofessionals have been referred to as "souse-chefs" meaning they work closely with the teacher (chef) to provide instructional support and sometimes direct instruction to students with learning difficulties (Causton-Theoharis, Giangreco, Doyle, & Vadasy, 2007). The most recent the USA, IDEA amendments specifically noted that "paraprofessionals who are adequately trained and supervised may assist in the delivery of special education and related services"([Part B, Sec. 612 (a) (15)]). Therefore, IDEA provides regulatory support for using paraprofessionals in a direct support role for students with disabilities (Carroll, 2001) and indicates that paraprofessionals should have adequate training. Carroll (2001) suggests that this training should include professional interaction, communication, and conflict-management skills.

4.2 Collaboration with Families

Decisions about children with disabilities are so important that parents must be involved. They are the most vital members of the educational team that develops and implements programmes for students with disabilities (Cavkaytar & Pollard, 2009). Such involvement has been shown to have benefits in many areas, including student achievement, improved attendance, better attitudes, and improved grades and test scores, and increased motivation (Kellough & Kellough, 2008). The *Family* of today more simply can be described as a group of individuals who live together and care for one another's needs.

4.2.1 Cultural Considerations: Families and children with Disabilities – Families today represent numerous races, cultures, socio-economic levels, and religions. In order to be culturally responsive, teachers need to self-reflect and ask themselves questions concerning their beliefs and feelings about cultures. The family structure and dynamics changes dramatically. Children change the lives of mother and father and siblings, and each child alters the dynamics of the family unit, including finances, the amount and quality of time parents can devote to individual children, the relationship between the husband and wife, and the family's future goals. When a child with disability becomes a member of the family, or later onset of the disability, the changes are only exacerbated and often result in the entire family needing to make adjustments. Indeed, families with children with disabilities have unique experiences and challenges (Worcester, Nesman, Mendez, & Keller, 2008). Professionals need to remember that parents are actually the "senior partners" in the collaborative relationship with the school (Cavkaytar & Pollard, 2009). Parents like to feel that professionals really care about their children. School personnel must empower families to assume this senior role.

The way families deal with stress and other emotions resulting from having a child with a disability is impacted by different personality traits of parents. For example, Vermaes (2008)

found that emotional stability and extraversion were associated with less stress for mothers, while agreeableness in fathers also resulted in less stress. Other external factors that have been shown to impact the way families react to children with disabilities include the family's income level, pre-existing problems within the family, spiritually, and how much support parents seek (Brobst et al., 2009).

School personnel need to support family members' acceptance of children with disabilities. This effort begins with assisting parents in understanding the needs of their child the same time; the educator should listen to the parents, to better understand the child from their perspectives.

4.2.2 Impact on Siblings
Like adults, siblings are important in developing and implementing appropriate education programme. The presence of a child with disability definitely alters the typical sibling role. Siblings often have to deal with increased parental expectations, less parent involvement in their own lives, and added responsibilities. Also as parents and siblings age, often siblings are expected to become primary caregiver (Quintero & McIntyre, 2010). Although not all siblings experience adjustment problems, some doubtlessly have significant difficulties responding to the disability.

Meyer (2001) summarized the literature and noted these areas of concern expressed by siblings:
- A lifelong and ever-changing need for information about the disability or illness
- Feelings of isolation when siblings are excluded from information available to other family members, ignored by service providers, or denied access to peers who share their often ambivalent feelings about their siblings
- Feelings of guilt about having caused the illness or disability, or being spared have the condition
- Feelings of hatred when the child with special needs becomes the focus of the family's attention or when the child with special needs in indulged, over-protected, or permitted to engage in behaviors that are unacceptable if done by other family members
- A perceived pressure to achieve in academics, sports, or behavior
- Increased care-giving demands, especially for older sisters
- Concerns about their role in their sibling's future Meyer, 2001, p. 30).

Siblings of children with disabilities need support from family members as well as from other adults. Teachers and other adults should be aware of the stress and additional impact a sibling with disability can have on his/her brothers and sisters (Smith et al., 2006). Some considerations adults should make when dealing with children who have siblings with disabilities include:
- Express love for the sibling
- Provide siblings with information concerning the disability
- Keep the sibling informed concerning changes and stress on the family
- Include the sibling in family and school meetings

- Work for equity within the family's duties and responsibilities
- Prevent siblings from becoming second parents in the areas of care and discipline
- Be aware that the needs of all children will change through the family life cycle (Smith et al., 2006, p.61).

4.2.3 Parental Support

Many educators believe that parents of children with disabilities benefit tremendously by attending parent support groups. One reason is that parents too frequently attribute normal and predictable misbehavior to a child's disability rather than to the age and stage of a child. Seeing that all parents face similar challenges with their children can be both comforting and empowering to parents (West, 2002). Some helpful hints parents learn through these support groups include the following (West, 2002):

- Never compare children.
- Notice the improvement and accommodations of each child in the family, and always reinforce the positive.
- Hold family meetings that allow children a weekly opportunity to voice their concerns, accept chores, and plan enjoyable family nights and outings.
- Learn to help children become responsible by the use of logical and natural consequences rather than using punishment or becoming permissive.
- Spend special time alone with each child in the family. Be sure that no child feels lost or left out because others require more attention.
- Plan family events that allow children to enjoy being together.
- Reduce criticism and increase encouragement.
- Be sensitive to the possibility that children functioning at a higher academic level in the family may be finding their place through perfectionism and a need to excel at all cost.
- Invest time in your marriage. A strong marriage is important to your children's sense of well-being.
- All families experience stress. The more stress is encountered, the more time they need together to share their feelings, plan ahead, solve problems naturally, and plan time to enrich relationships.

4.3 Home-School Collaboration

Parents and educations should be partners in order to meet the needs of children with disabilities. In the USA, the IDEA as Public Law 94-142 in 1975 has opened the door for parental involvement as partnership with school for their children's needs and it has also put a large responsibility on parents. Likewise, the partnership between home and school is very important is most children's affair in other countries too.

4.3.1 Communicating with Parents

Good communication between the school and parents is critical if a true collaborative relationship is developed. Professionals, therefore, should make a conscious effort to begin the

year with a discussion of roles and responsibilities in terms of communication (Stivers et al., 2008). True family involvement in the education of a child cannot occur without good communication. Brendes (2005) makes the following recommendations to enhance communication between school and parents:

- Give parents your undivided attention, and be an active listener.
- Stand or sit alongside parents when communicating.
- Take notes openly while conversing with parents.
- When first meeting parents, engage them in conversation and pay close attention to what they choose to discuss.
- View parents who are challenging as an opportunity for you to grow.
- When working with angry parents maintain a respectful demeanor and take notes rather than defend your actions at the time of the accusation.
- Low parents to regard you as one of the experts in their child's education.
- Share the relevance of the curriculum to the student's goals.
- Share specific behavioral expectations early and regularly.
- Explain that you will try to resolve any conflict their child may have at school before you engage the parents.
- Model respect for the student by frequently acknowledging his or her efforts and achievements.
- Share some of the student's positive events that happen at school, such as successful service on a committee.
- Set up regular and frequent positive communication avenues such as weekly news-letter that is sent home each Thursday.
- Be specific about when you will return phone calls, e-mails, and notes.
- Communicate often.
- Let parents know you appreciate their support and follow-through at home.
- Encourage parents to make provisions for their children who do not need to be at a meeting.
- Try to have both parents present when "major" topics are discussed.
- Start every meeting with a welcome, introduction, and review; clarification of the purpose of the current meeting and the ending time; and a recap of the meeting before everyone leaves.
- Never assume parents know how to help with homework (Brandes, 2005, pp. 52-54).

In order for communication to be effective, it must be regular and useful. One good way to communicate with parents is the home-to-school notebook. The home-to-school notebook is simply a notebook that the child takes daily from school to home and back to school, containing notes from the teacher and parents about the child's activities. This particular communication device serves three functions:

1. The notebook can encourage problem-solving;
2. The notebook helps parents and school personnel analyze information; and

3. The notebook provides documentation of the programme implementation (Hall, Wolf, & Bolling, 2003).

We can communicate effectively through any of the means, which can be informal, including telephone calls, written notes, e-mails, or newsletters. Regardless of the method used to communicate with parents, school personnel should be aware of how they convey messages.

4.3.2 Providing Reinforcement and Encouragement

One way that parents can assist students is to provide them with positive reinforcement and encouragement. Parents spend more time with their children than school personnel do and are involved in all aspects of the child's life, so they can provide reinforcement in areas where a child most desires rewards, such as time with friends, money toys or trips. For many students, simply allowing to having a friend over or staying up late at night on a weekend may prove reinforcing.

4.3.3 Providing Instructional Support

Parents and other family members may become directly involved with instructional programmes at home, which can be critical to student success. Unfortunately, many family members provide less direct instruction as the child gets older, assuming that student is capable of doing the work alone. Too often, the reverse is true – students may need more assistance at home as they progress through the grades. While older children sometimes assist their parents' attempts to help, parents nevertheless should endeavor to remain involved at an appropriate level. Parents are generally with the child more than are school personnel, so it is logical to involve them in selected instructional activities. Advocates for expanding the role of parents in educating their children adhere to the following assumptions:

- Parents are the first and most important teachers of their children
- The home is the child's first schoolhouse
- Children will learn more during the early years than at any other time in life
- All parents want to be good parents and care about their child's development Ehlers & Ruffin, 1990, p.1).

Let Us Sum Up

Establishing good working relationship with parents and families enhances the school experience of their children. Thus, an important objective for the schools should be to achieve and maintain such relationships. Most professionals acknowledge the importance of the involvement of families in the schooling of their children and this importance can be especially critical for students with disabilities. However, programmes that promote home-school collaboration must aim for more than students' classroom success. Teachers and family members all should gain from cooperative relationships that flow in both directions and are concerned with success in both home and school settings. Bothe general and special education teachers need to help family members understand the importance of their involvement, give them suggestions for how get involved, and empower them with the skills and confidence they will need. Students with disabilities, and those at risk for developing problems, require assistance from all parties in order

to maximize success. Family members are critical components of the educational team. In the next unit we will discuss managing and differentiating classroom instruction. Classroom management and differentiated instruction are significant in accommodating children with special needs.

Unit-end Activities

- Objective questions   Group: A
1. Which one is not involved in collaboration life-cycle?
     a. Awareness
     b. Provocation
     c. Motivation
     d. Self-synchronous
2. A critical issue of co-teaching is..........
     a. Support of two teachers
     b. Consultative arrangement between teachers
     c. Voluntary involvement of teachers
     d. To accompany students with disability in the general classroom
3. In station-teaching of the co-teaching teachers.....................
     a. Divide responsibility for instructional content
     b. Students can break into small groups
     c. One teacher teaches a small group
     d. Teach simultaneously to two groups
4. The model, Peer support system is helpful for students with disabilities.......
     a. Become more dependent on their non-disabled peers
     b. Receive social support from their non-disabled peers
     c. Be self-reliant by the non-disabled peers
     d. Become mediocre in the classroom
5. In school system, Operational paraprofessionals do……..
     a. Supervising in groups settings
     b. Assist the teacher in the classroom
     c. Substitute the teacher in need
     d. Assist in resource classes

- Short-answer questions   Group: B
1. What is collaboration? Discuss the conceptual level involved in collaboration.
2. Explain collaboration life-cycle with diagram.
3. What do you mean by professional collaboration in educational institutions?
4. Explain any two characteristics of co-teaching with suitable examples.
5. Explain any two types of peer support with suitable examples.

- Long-answer questions   Group: C
1. What do you mean by home-school collaboration? Why is collaboration with families of students with disabilities and school important? Discuss the home-based interventions.

2. What is co-teaching? Explain any two characteristics of co-teaching which is helpful in accommodating children with disabilities in general classroom.

Points for Discussion
- Co-teaching and cooperative teaching arrangements
- Professional collaboration
- Using Paraprofessionals
- Families and children with disabilities
- Home-school collaboration
- Providing reinforcement
- Parental support

Reference

Tom, E. S. Smith, Edward, A. Polloway, James, R. Patton, & Carol, A. Dowdy. (2012). Teaching Students with Special Needs in Inclusive Settings. (6th ed.). Delhi: Pearson.

Unit V: Managing and Differentiating Classroom Instruction

"What counts in life is not the mere fact that we have lived. It is what difference we have made to the lives of others….."
- *Nelson Mandela.*

Introduction

In recent years we can see many children with disabilities attend classes with non-disabled peers so it is necessary that classrooms must accommodate those children considering their specific needs. The above quote also indicates the consideration of other's needs not thinking own-self. Thus, in inclusive classrooms, managing and differentiating classroom instruction is vital for diverse needs of different students. In recent years, teacher's ability to address the needs of students in her/his classroom is very important.

Many schools are implementing a response to *intervention approach* to working with struggling students that puts a premium on the general education teacher's versatility. In this type of set up, the teacher must be able to address individual needs by making key adjustments across a number of instructionally related areas and provide effective instruction. The ability of general education teacher to manage her/his classroom effectively and efficiently as well as address the needs of a range of students can greatly enhance the quality of the educational experience for all students. Well-organized and well-managed classroom allow more time for productive instruction for all students most including those with special needs.

As Marzano (2003) points out: "Teachers play various roles in a typical classroom, but surely one of the most important is that of classroom manager. Effective teaching and learning cannot take place in a poorly managed classroom (p.13)". Sound instructional and management tactics promote learning for all students and are practically relevant to successful inclusion of students with special learning needs.

From the management perspective, the absence of heavy-handed, adult-directed management system is characteristic of classroom where students are valued and solid relationships between teachers and students are established (Bender, 2003). When attention is given to preventive action rather than to reactive interventions, classroom runs smoothly and without notice. Smith (2004) has referred to this notion "***invisible management***" and suggests that when effective management is operant, it is virtually hard to discern, unless you know what to look for.

In this unit, we will discuss on addressing individual needs in the classroom by implementing differentiation instruction so that the students with special needs can be accommodated in general/regular classroom.

5.1 Basic Concepts about Differentiating Instruction

The importance of sound, evidence-based techniques has been affirmed numerous times by professionals in the field of education. Although much attention is given to curricular and instructional aspects of students' educational programmes, knowing how to differentiate based on needs of a range of students is more difficult to execute.

Teachers face challenges in the smooth functioning of the general education classroom because students have diverse background, knowledge, skills, abilities and needs. Jones and Jones (2007) describe the profile of a typical first-grade class as being composed of a vast array of students with special needs that might include any combination or all of the following: arrange of disabilities, English language learners, in-school and out of-school counseling, abusive situations and other unsafe home lives, homelessness, frequent relocation. Students with any of these features in their lives require special attention in school.

5.1.1 Conceptual Basis and Definitions
The concept of differentiating instruction has been used long time ago. Kaplan (1979) used the term "*differentiated*" to describe the development of curricula for students who were gifted. The work of Tomlinson (1999) in the 1990s established this concept within most discussions of general education classroom. Historically, terms like adaptation, modification, and accommodations have been used to describe to differentiating instruction. It is important to recognize and understand the definitions and terminology that are used.

Definition
Hall (2002) captures, what we mean by addressing the needs of students by providing the definition, *Differentiated instruction is a process to approach 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 s/he is, and assisting the learning process (p. 2).* This definition, or any definition of differentiating instruction, deserves some comments:

1. This process implies that teaching and learning should be considered on comprehensive basis. It involves a number of dimensions that all relate to maximizing student outcomes.

2. Differentiation is needed for a range of students, including the following:
   - Students already identified as having disability
   - Students who are struggling in some fashion with the demands of school but who have not been and may never be identified as disabled
   - Students who are trying to master the English language
   - Students who are at-risk for any number of issues and whose school lives and performance are impacted by out-side factors
   - Students who are gifted and whose needs are as great as those with significant learning problem – however, their needs require a different type of attention

3. In order to address the needs of students, it is necessary to have a firm assessment what their specific needs are. For the teacher who has a particular student in her/his class, this information is fairly obvious, or ought to be. For other school personnel who do not have direct contact with the student and who are charged with making recommendations, this information must be gathered

4. The bottom line in terms of differentiating instruction is that it is accomplished mostly through adjustments/accommodations to the learning environment and instructional process.

Terminology

In relation to this fourth point, it is very essential to know the difference in certain terms that are used in schools refer to the process of differentiating instruction. The terms adaptation, modification, and accommodation are often used interchangeably; however, these terms do, in fact mean different things:

*   *Adaptation* refers to specific changes made to the way content is presented and the way students respond to instruction includes all adjustments to instructional methodology and environment that enable students to engage the general education curriculum.
*   *Modification* refers to actual changes made to the content itself in terms of content covered or content that is assessed.
*   *Accommodation* refers to changes that are made to support students with various educational settings.

Levels of Differentiation

Differentiating instruction should be considered as consisting of two levels:

1. The first level is a *global, or macro*, level that applies to the education classroom on a general level. It incorporates the concept of *universal design for learning* (UDL). The practical interpretation of this level is that various features on instructional design that are essential to some students, beneficial to others, and not detrimental to anyone are implemented on a universal classroom level. For example, one of the most common accommodations requested by students with special needs is more time to complete a test. For most students, this accommodation has to be requested through a formal process or is mandated through the *IEP* (The Individualized Educational Plan is a plan or programme developed to ensure that a child who has a disability identified under the law and is attending an elementary or secondary educational institution receives specialized instruction and related services) or *504 plan* (a plan developed to ensure that a child who has a disability identified under the law and is attending an elementary or secondary educational institution receives accommodations that will ensure their academic success and access to the learning environment).

    In the United States, not all students who have disabilities require specialized instruction. For students with disabilities who do require specialized instruction, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) of USA controls the procedural requirements, and an IEP is developed. The IDEA process is more involved than that of Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act and requires documentation of measurable growth. For students with disabilities who do not require specialized instruction but need the assurance that they

will receive equal access to public education and services, a document is created to outline their specific accessibility requirements. Students with 504 Plans do not require specialized instruction, but, like the IEP, a 504 Plan should be updated annually to ensure that the student is receiving the most effective accommodations for his/her specific circumstances.

However, in a UDL classroom, this feature is provided to anyone who needs it. As a result, it really is not an accommodation; it is merely a feature of class. Other adjustments that can be made on a macro level that are worthy of consideration include: providing Power-point slides ahead of a class presentation; making available audio files of class lectures or presentations to all students; distributing notes to all students in class; allowing students to choose a project based on their interest and background for demonstrating mastery of a topic; and providing graphic organizers for all required reading materials.

2. The second level of differentiation is *specific and individualized* and can be considered on a micro level. Some students (e.g., students who are blind or deaf) will need very specific adjustments while other students will not need to benefit from instruction. These individualized adjustments will be needed as a function of a number of students' factors: level of performance (skills, ability), unique presenting feature, interest/motivation, and learning styles.

5.1.2 Operating Procedures for Differentiated Classrooms

In implementing differentiating instruction, the implementer needs to be efficient so that s/he may implement effectively the tactics, strategies, conditions, or activities related to the needs of the learners. In this regards, a five-step process to be followed when differentiating instruction.

1. *Determine the Need for Differentiation* – It is important to determine which student will need differentiation in their programme. The challenge for classroom teachers is to know which students need assistance, know what exactly needs to be done, and know how differentiate instruction.

2. *Identify Specific Areas of Need* – The teacher needs to know information in detail is essential for problem solving what adjustments need to be made within the classroom setting to address the problems. Hoover and Patton (2005) developed a simple instrument that can be used as an initial tool to isolate what areas might need attention.

Figure No.5. 1:
A SAMPLE: CURRICULUM ADAPTATION QUICK SCREEN

Educator: _____ Student:_____ Subject:_____
Strategy:_____
Class Setting: _____
Place a check next to each item for which the student possesses sufficient abilities to work within the classroom relative to the identified subject, strategy, and setting.

Content Needs:
- Sufficient reading level
- Necessary pre-requisite skills
- Necessary prior experience
- Sufficient language abilities
- Sufficient abstract thinking abilities
- Interest in subject area material
- Other:

Instructional Strategy Needs:
- Motivated by strategy used
- Strategy generates active student participation
- Acquires information through strategy
- Understands strategy used
- Strategy holds student's attention to task
- Other:

Instructional Setting Needs:
- Able to attend to task within type of setting used
- Able to work independently when necessary
- Possesses appropriate peer interaction skills for type of setting used
- Acquires information easily through setting used
- Participates freely in setting
- Completes assignments within setting used
- Other:

Student Behavior:
- Maintains self-control
- Completes assigned tasks on time
- Is responsible for own action
- Uses effective self-management techniques
- Uses study and learning strategies effectively
- Exhibits appropriate behaviors for any type of instructional setting used
- Other

Source: Hoover, J. & Patton J. R. (2005). Curriculum adaptations for students with learning and behavior problems: Differentiating instruction to meet diverse needs (3rd ed.). Austin: PRO-ED. Pp.49-50.

3. *Implement Various Differentiation Practices – Least Intrusive First* – Educators will need to incorporate many features to address the needs of a range of students into the on-going operations of the classroom (i.e., UDL). However, the use of the more specific, individualized process will be needed often. When differentiating instruction on an individual basis, they should start with the least intrusive, yet effective, practice first.

4. *Monitor Students Progress* – Monitoring the progress of students in academic, behavioral, and social areas needs much attention and is very important. Similarly, it is essential that data be collected in regard to the adjustments that are made for students.

5. *Evaluate and Modify Differentiation Practices* – All differentiation practices must be evaluated for their effectiveness and then the decisions need to be made as to whether to continue, terminate them, or modify them in some way.

5.2 Comprehensive Model of Differentiating Instruction

Every classroom environment involves a number of elements that have a profound impact on the effectiveness of instruction and learning (Doyle, 1986), including the following:

- *Multi-dimensionality* (a wide variety of activities occur in a classroom within the course of an instructional day);
- *Simultaneity* (many different events occur at the same time); *immediacy* (events occur at a rapid pace);
- *Unpredictability* (some events occur unexpectedly and cannot consistently be anticipated, but require attention nonetheless);
- *Publicness* (classroom events are witnessed by a significant number of students who are very likely to take note of how teachers deal with these ongoing events);
- *History* (over the course of school year, various events – experiences, routines, rules – will shape the evolving dynamics of classroom behavior).

Considering these elements endorses the complexity of teaching large numbers of students who have diverse learning needs in our schools today.

To address these classroom dynamics, teachers need to be aware and competent to utilize ways, to differentiate their instruction to maximize the potential opportunities for learning. Figure 2 depicts a comprehensive model of differentiated instruction that highlights the multi-faceted nature and complexity of this concept.

FIGURE: 5.2
MODEL FOR DIFFERENTIATED INSTRUCTION
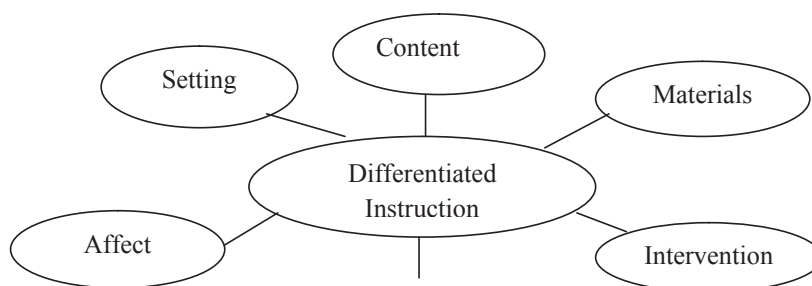
$$\left(\text{Management}\right)$$

This model emphasizes mainly two things. First, emphasis is on the ***curriculum and content***. Second, emphasis is in the area of ***management and behavior***. Addressing the needs of a broad range of students is based on numerous considerations. To maximize the success of students in their classrooms, teachers must pay attention to the six key elements of differentiated instruction: setting, content, materials, intervention/instruction, management/behavior, and affect.

Nine overarching principles guide the development and implementation of a comprehensive model of differentiated instruction:

- All students must be valued
- Meaningful relationships between teachers and students need to be developed and cultivated (Bender, 2003)
- Successful learning outcomes derive from a positive classroom climate
- Teachers have control over a number of critical factors that have a major impact on student learning and behavior (Jones & Jones, 2007)
- Affording students choices contributes to effective classroom dynamics and enhances self-determination
- Teachers and students in effective classrooms are considerate of individual differences including cultural and familial differences
- Proactive planning for differentiation (prevention) is preferable to reactive approaches (crisis intervention)
- Teachers should not feel that they are alone – resources such as other teachers, administrators, and parents can contribute to successful instruction
- Effective classroom management is "invisible" (Smith, 2004).

Teachers must be aware of the diverse range of students in their classroom while developing and implementing a comprehensive system of differentiating instruction. Cultural diversity is very important, which needs to be considered preparing differentiated instructions. Levin (2003) noted two very important points that teachers must acknowledge and address in regard to students who come from different cultural backgrounds:

1. Schools and classrooms are not culturally neutral or culture free, and
2. Because of cultural differences, many children from under-represented groups experience cultural dissonance or lack of cultural synchronization in school (i.e., teacher and students expectations of appropriate behavior may differ).

5.2.1 Setting Differentiation

Setting includes the aspects of the physical environment that teachers can manipulate to enhance the context for learning. As Doyle, (2006) notes, "the data on classroom design and furniture arrangements indicate that different patterns of spatial organization have little effect on achievement but some effect on attitudes and conduct" (p. 106). The physical environment of the classroom does not have any impact on behavior and attitudes (McEwan, 2006). For students with certain disabilities, some features of physical setting may need to be specially arranged to ensure that individual needs are met. Four aspects of the physical dimensions of a classroom include:

1. *Preferential seating* – Seating adjustment may be the most common one used in general education classroom. This tactic is essential for use with students who have various hearing issues and for those students who may be having great difficulty with attention. The attractiveness of this tactic is that the teacher can be near the student and thus in a position to be able to assist the student in focusing. The judicious use of seat arrangements can minimize problems as well as create better learning opportunities for students.

2. *Classroom arrangements* – Classroom arrangements are the physical facets of the classroom, including classroom layout (i.e., geography of the room), arrangements of desks, storage, wall use, display areas, and signs. Some suggestions for arrangements include:
   - Consider establishing areas of the classroom for certain types of activities (e.g., discovery or inquiry learning, independent reading).
   - Clearly establish which areas which area of classroom, such as the teacher's desk, are off limits – this recommendation is also a procedural one
   - Be sure students can be seen easily by the teacher and that the teacher, or other presenters, can be easily by students (Evertson et al., 2006)
   - Begin the year with a more-structured environment, moving to more flexibility after rules and procedures have been established
   - Notify students who are blind or partially sighted of changes made to the physical environment
   - Arrange furniture so that teachers and students can move easily around the classroom
   - Direct students' attention to the information to be learned from bulletin boards, if they are used for instructional purposes
   - Establish patterns that students can use in moving around the class and that minimize disruption – keep high-traffic areas free of congestion (Evertson et al., 2006)
   - Keep frequently used teaching materials and student supplies readily accessible (Evertson et al., 2006)
   - Secure materials and equipment that are potentially harmful if used without proper supervision, such as certain art supplies, chemicals, and science equipments
   - Avoid creating open spaces that have no clear purpose, as they often can become staging areas for problem behaviors (Rosenberg, O'Shea, & O'Shea, 1991)

- Provide labels and signs for areas of the room to assist younger or more delayed students in better understanding what and where things are.

3. *Accessibility* – The concept of accessibility extends beyond physical accessibility. It touches on overall programme accessibility for students with special needs. Students who are identified as special needs as well as those who qualifying as having substantial limitations in the major life function such as walking or learning, are able to benefit from needed adjustments to the classroom. Students with disabilities must be able to use the classroom like other students and the room must be free of potential hazards or triggers (e.g., allergens). Most of the time, making a classroom physically accessible is neither difficult nor costly. Specific suggestions for creating an accessible classroom include the following:

   - Ensure that the classroom is accessible to students who use wheelchairs, braces, crutches, or other forms of mobility assistance – this involves doorways, space to move within the classroom, floor coverings, learning centres, microcomputers, chalkboards or dry-erase boards, bookshelves, sinks, tables, desks, and any other areas or physical objects that students use.
   - Guarantee that the classroom is free of hazards (e.g., low-hanging mobiles or plants) that could injure students who have a visual impairment.
   - Label storage areas and other parts of the classroom for students with vision impairments by using raised lettering or Braille.
   - Pay special attention to signs identifying hazards by providing non-verbal caution for non-readers

4. *Specialized equipment* – Some students with disabilities require the use of specialized equipment, such as wheelchairs, hearing aids, and other types of amplification systems, communication devices, adaptive desks and tray, prone standers (i.e., stand-up desks), and medical equipment. Teachers need to understand how the equipment works, how it should be used, and what classroom adaptations will need to be made to accommodate the student using it. Other students in the classroom should be introduced to the special equipment as well. Suggestions include the following:

   - Identify the special equipment that will be used in the classroom prior to the arrival of the student who needs it.
   - Learn how special equipment and devices work and how to identify problems or malfunctions.
   - Find out how long students need to use time-specified equipment or devices.
   - Structure lessons and other learning activities with the knowledge that some students will be using specialized equipment or materials.

5.2.2 Content Differentiation
Content refers to the subject-matter of instruction and is reflected in the curriculum that is covered in the course. Curriculum relates significantly to the content that is covered and that

leads to knowledge acquisition and skill development. Differentiation in the area of content typically refers to three areas: *reducing content coverage*, ex*pediting coverage* (e.g., compacting), and *covering additional content* that is not specifically stated in the curriculum.
For some gifted students who are in general education classes, the content being introduced to students has already been mastered. Thus, differentiation requires that teachers find ways to extend the coverage (i.e., acceleration) to meet the needs of these students. Sometimes acceleration will entail moving the student to a more advanced grade level or finding more suitable ways to meet the student's needs. Students can be motivated by curricula that they find relevant and meaningful with regard to their daily lives. Kohn (1993) notes that a key condition for developing authentic motivation is the content of the tasks – learning that is contextualized where there is a connection to students' lives and interests.

Commonly, these skills are never taught directly to students, with the thinking that students learn these skills incidentally. In reality, many students who are struggling in school have not been systematically taught these key support skills. The ideal situation is the implementation of ongoing coverage of important skill areas, such as study skills, learning strategies, social skills, and life skills. Such programmes include simple variations of the skills in the primary grades and gradually increase to more complex variations, as students' progress through school. In other words, critical skills instruction becomes part of the hidden curriculum.

1. *Study Skills* – Without question, one of the most important areas in which students with special needs must achieve competence is study skills. Study skills are tools for learning and can be described as those specific skills that individuals employ to acquire, record, remember, and use information efficiently. These skills are useful not only in school but in everyday living as well. Some examples of study skills are: reading rate, listening, graphic aids, library use, reference material usage, test taking, note-taking an outlining, report writing, oral presentation, time management, self-management, organization (Hoover & Patton, 2007).
2. *Learning Strategies* – Learning strategies are another set of skills that can be extremely valuable to students. Learning strategies are "task-specific techniques that students use in responding to classroom tasks" (Archer & Gleason, 1995, p. 236). Utilizing a cognitive orientation to learning, these types of strategies provide students with a method for using their own abilities and knowledge to acquire, organize, and integrate new information.
3. *Social Skills* – Social skills are the ability to demonstrate behaviors that are socially desirable and to refrain from displaying behaviors that elicit negative responses within the context of two or more persons interacting. Social skills should be proactive, pro-social, and reciprocal in nature so that participants of the interaction share in mutually rewarding experience.

When social skills problems are present, they are of four types:

- Total deficit – all components of skills are absent,
- Partial skill deficit – some critical elements of the skill are absent,
- Performance deficit – the person can demonstrate skill but does not use it at all, and
- Control deficits – undesirable social behaviors (i.e., obtrusive or excessive) are present (Sargent, 1991).

Each of these situations requires a more formal approach to social skills development. For many students with special needs, social skills training should be part of the explicit curriculum. In reality, such training is part of hidden curriculum in many schools because of the ultimate importance of competence in this area.

Elksnin and Elksnin (1998) recommend some types of social skills such as:
- Interpersonal behaviors or friendships-making skills
- Peer-related social skills (skills valued by classmates and associated with peer acceptance
- Teacher-pleasing social skills (following directions, doing one's best work)
- Self-related behaviors (assess a social situation)
- Assertiveness skills (expressing needs without resorting to aggression)
- Communication skills (Listener responsiveness).

4. *Related Life Skills* – Another curricular area that might be absent from the educational programmes of many struggling students is that of life skills instruction. The inclusion of life skills topics can be extremely useful to students, both while they are in school and in the future. Life skills can be thought of as "specific competences (i.e., knowledge, skills and their application) of local and curricular relevance needed to perform everyday activities across a variety of settings" (Cronin, Patton, & Wood, 2007, p. 2). Without question, life skills competence is needed to deal successfully with the many challenges and demands of adulthood.

5.2.3 Material Differentiation
Many different types of materials used in school settings such as print materials that students must be able to read and extract information form for use at a later time. Other non-print materials such as maps, globes, models, photographs, videos, and computer-based images are available in school settings.

Certain characteristics can play a key role in limiting a student's ability to use various materials. Students may not display prerequisite skills necessary to handle the material. The conceptual complexity of the material exceeds the level at which a student understand. And finally, the students may not have sufficient background and experience to make sense of the information being presented. Various characteristics of the materials themselves often pose major problems. The linguistic complexity of the material may be such that the student is unable to extract

meaning from it. Typically an emphasis has been placed on breadth of coverage rather than depth of coverage.

Textual Materials – Text-based materials are any type of material that requires reading as the primary means of obtaining information. Text-based, materials typically used in classrooms include basal textbooks, workbooks, worksheets, literature, weekly periodical, handouts, other reproduced materials, as well as text-based material read via computer.

Three general approaches can be implemented to address problem that arise with text-based materials:

1. Substitution using some types of alternative material in place of existing textual material
2. Comprehension enhancement of the existing material, and
3. Use of techniques that assist the student in retaining information over time

The first technique aims to avoid the problems associated with existing textual material. The next two approaches require adjustments with the use of existing material.

Adapting Textual Material – The primary characteristic of this technique is use an alternative method for conveying the information contained in the textual material being used with students. This approach ranges from the complete substitution of existing text to the modification of the existing text. Some of the suggestions are more likely to be implemented than others due to time, effort, and availability factors. For example:

- Audiotape textual material – The material being used is already available through Recordings for the Blind and Dyslexic, and the student can qualify for this service
- Read the material aloud
- Pair students to master textual material
- Use other ways to deliver the material (e.g., direct experiences, media)
- Work with students individually or in small groups
- Use a multi-level, multi-material approach
- Develop abridged versions of textual contents
- Simplify existing textual material

Enhancing Comprehension – A variety of ways exist to assist students in better understanding what they read. This may be especially important for students who struggle with reading or listening comprehension. The following recommendations focus on tactics for improving comprehension textual material, particularly grade-level material:

- Provide students with purposes for the reading they are being asked to do
- Preview the reading assignment
- Teach students how to use format features
- Engage the student prior to reading
- Use a study guide
- Utilize graphic organizers
- Modify the nature of the reading assignment

- Highlight the textual material
- Teach comprehension-monitoring strategies

Adapt Text-Based Activities – Reorganizing and rewriting the end-of-chapter questions that are often included with the books may be needed. The students who are experiencing reading problem, these types of questions can be very frustrating.

Retaining Information Acquired Through Text – Students need to earn ways to help them retain what they have read, whether the need is test-related, which is an important reality, or for general knowledge:

- Utilize the graphic aids
- Incorporate formal learning strategies
- Teach test-preparation skills
- Teach class-discussion preparation skills
- Adapting other instructional materials – In addition to text-based materials, math materials and learning aids can also present challenges to students with special need.

Math Material – The key factors that teachers must consider when using math texts with students who are experiencing problems include:

- o Instructor's manuals do not provide specific teaching strategies for teaching a given skill.
- o Sufficient practice may not be provided.
- o Movement from one skill/topic to another may be too rapid.
- o Sometimes there is no enough review of previously covered topics.
- o Linguistics and conceptual demands may inhibit understanding – the issues of text-based material are relevant in math as well.
- o The variety of the types of activities that student do is limited.
- o Activities and content are not relevant to students.
- o Problem-solving applications are often too contrived (Polloway, Patton, & Serna, 2008).

Learning Aids – Brief mention needs to be given to any type of learning aid (e.g., outside readings, realistic representations, games, learning centres, in-class projects) that might be part of instructional programme. Caution must be exercised to ensure that students know how to use these materials. If textual material is part of the learning aid, some of the various suggestions offered previously may need to be included. In regard to the use of instructional games, students need to possess appropriate game-playing skills and behaviors – this is extremely critical if students play games in cooperative situations without direct teacher involvement or monitoring.

5.2.4 Instructional Differentiation

There are many ways to alter the teacher input/student output exchange, the specific adjustments that are needed in regard to homework, testing, and grading. There are a number of differentiation practices that can be used to optimize the learning environment for all students and are required for students who are struggling.

Learning Considerations – Three different instructional considerations are available:
- Teacher-directed (nature of learning is teacher led and teacher dominated),
- Student-directed (nature of the learning is teacher facilitated but the student is the focus of the activities), and
- Peer-directed (nature of the learning is teacher facilitated but activities are accomplished in joint manner in student groups)

Most teachers use all three orientations in their classrooms.

Another learning-related issue that teachers must understand is the different types of learning. This is important because certain instructional conditions and adaptations are required for each type of learning as they are used with different students with special needs. Mastropieri and Scruggs (1994) identify the different types of learning as *discrimination* learning, *factual* learning, *rule* learning, *procedural* learning, and *conceptual* learning. Each type of learning is used in school and home.

In working with a broad range of students, attention should be given to the *stages of learning*. Many problems arise when these basic stages of learning are ignored or misapplied. The primary stages or levels of learning are acquisition, proficiency, maintenance, and generalization. It is crucial to recognize the aim of each stage and to apply it appropriately in instructional contexts.

TABLE NO.: 5.1
STAGES OF LEARNING

Acquisition – The learner is in the process of acquiring but has not acquired the skill. The learner has no knowledge of how to perform the task accurately and therefore never responds correctly, no matter how many times s/he is tested. In this stage the teacher offers direct instruction, followed by practice in the skill area. Modeling may be used here. The aim of instruction is *accuracy* of response.

Proficiency – The learners responds accurately but with insufficient speed. The learner performs accurately, indicating acquisition of the requisite information but needs to perform the skill quickly enough to be practically automatic, so that other skills may be built upon this one and not to be impeded by slow performance. The aim of instruction is for the teacher to reinforce the learner for faster *rates* of response.

Maintenance – The learner is expected to retain both accuracy and fluency with the skill. The learner may or may not continue to perform at a proficient level. Consequently, the teacher must periodically evaluate retention and again use direct instruction when necessary to maintain both accuracy and speed of response. The aim of instruction is *retention* of the skill.

Generalization – The learner is expected to transfer the skill to new situations or settings, regardless of the setting or response mode required. The teacher provides direct instruction in alternate settings and response modes when the student fails to generalize. The teacher programmes for generalization in different settings and modes, varying stimulus conditions,

telling students which to attend to and which to ignore, as well as training other personnel in alternative settings to maintain similar procedures. The aim of instruction is *expansion* of the skill across the situations, behaviors, and time.

_____
Source: Adopted from "Resource/Counseling Teacher: An Integrated Model of Service Delivery" by L. Idol, 1989, Remedial and Special Education, 10(6), p.41.

Delivery of Systematic and Explicit Instruction
When teaching students who are encountering challenges in school, teachers should implement the basic elements of effective teaching. Some of the more important points to review include:
- *Capitalize on location*, having proximity to students who are experiencing learning-related problems can assist those students to attend to the important dimensions of what is occurring in the classroom, give them easier access to support, and minimize behavioral problems that might arise.
- *Utilize the demonstration-guided, practice-independent, practice-evaluation paradigm* – This method is highly effective for maximizing the probability that a skill will be learned, and includes the following sequence of stages:
    - The teacher demonstrates the behavior or skill to be taught
    - The student is then given an opportunity to perform the behavior with guidance from the teacher (this phase may be physical, verbal, visual, or gestural prompts), and
    - The student eventually practices the behavior without assistance. Ultimately, an adequate evaluation of performance is undertaken.
- *Take great care in presenting new information*: Mastropieri and Scruggs (1993) have identified six factors that are crucial for teaching new information to students. They refer to them as the SCREAM variables: **s**tructure, **c**larity, **r**edundancy, **e**nthusiasm, **a**ppropriate pace, and maximize engagement.
- *Use multi-sensory experiences* – The statements that multi-sensory activities can have a drastic impact on learning, as some people claim, should not deter from the fact that such activities can be instructionally useful.
- *Make needed Lecture-related accommodations* – Teacher-controlled adaptations include scheduling the session so more breaks as possible, organizing the lecture so that a variety of instructional methods (e.g., discussion, media) are utilized, moving around the room, being responsive to the audience and specific students, highlighting important points, and providing advanced organizers. The use of preparatory activities like those used in enhancing comprehension of text is applicable here as well. In addition, note-taking skills and listening strategies may need to be taught. If the lecture format allows for the discussion, the student may also need to develop better question-asking skills
- *Use assistive technology* – Familiarity with the range of assistive technology (AT) options is warranted for certain student. AT ranges from low-tech application (e.g., tape player) to high-tech (e.g., FM systems for helping students concentrate on what is being

said). Teachers should know what devices are available, how to have a student evaluated, and if such devices are used, how they work.

Instructional Planning

Three elements need to be considered in planning. First, lesson plans should include a section on *accommodating students* who have learning-related needs. One suggestion is to include a section on special needs as part of the lesson planning form.

The second issue is the use of different *input and output modes* in teaching. There are two benefits: it allows the teacher to address the needs of the students and it introduces variety. In this model input refers to the way the teacher delivers information/instruction (i.e., the way a student receives information), and output refers to the way the student acts on this information.

The third issue related to planning is grouping. In *peer-oriented learning* situations such as cooperative learning arrangements, students will need to display a host of skills to be successful. When planning instruction and deciding on grouping arrangements, teachers need to consider a number of factors: purpose for grouping, group size, physical conditions, student characteristics, and as mentioned, the requisite academic and social (e.g., cooperative) skills.

In-class Activities

Three key issues related to the way in-class activities occur. The first **topic concerns** how teachers present information. In addition to being explicit in the instruction that occurs, teachers need to be aware that some students will require time devoted to the 'pre-teaching' of vocabulary and or concepts that are new and will be introduced in the readings or lesson.

The second issue involves the **reality that some students take longer to process** information. As a result, it is important that these students are given a sufficient amount of time to process a question and then come up with a response. The use of 'wait time' for the entire class is a good way to address this need. With this tactic, all students are told to wait to respond until signaled to do so. This allows time for those who need more processing time.

The third concern is the desire to **keep students actively engaged** in the ongoing instruction. One of the best ways to accomplish this goal is to have students use choral responding – that is, everyone responds to all questions. The use of clickers or some other type of system (e.g., yes/no cards) can also serve to keep students actively involved.

Assignments and products

This component of the differentiation process involves practices that relate to the assignments that are given, the type of products that are possible, and the ways that are evaluated. Five topics are presented for which some suggestions are given these five areas are:

- Alternative product areas
- Assignment adaptations and management
- Home-work issues
- Testing options, and
- The monitoring and evaluation of performance

Frequently, it will become necessary to alter the assignment so that students with certain learning-related problems can handle what is assigned. Teachers can alter assignments in the following ways:

- Shorten the assignment (i.e., break them into smaller versions),
- Change the criterion that designates successful completion of the assignment,
- Allow more time to complete the assignment,
- Reduce the difficulty of the content, and
- Change the output mode.

Each of these adaptations can be beneficial to certain students in the general education classroom. The important point is that none of these adaptations should be made if it is not needed; if one is needed, the least amount of change possible is desirable.

Another way to differentiate assignments is to use tiered assignments. In this method, assignments can be designed with varying features that can based on individual student's skill levels, abilities, motivation; or interest. For example, assignments can be tiered by challenge level, complexity, reading level, product/outcome, and what is required (i.e., process).

Homework Adjustments

A staple of the education diet is homework. Most of the literature supports the theory that the use of homework has a desirable effect on school learning. Whole homework may present special problems for students who are struggling in school and their families, certain homework-related suggested can result in beneficial outcomes.

Testing Options and Adjustments

Another area that is of great interest to teachers and parents is testing. While there may be no clear solution to how to test students with special needs appropriately and with fairness to them and to their peers, some differentiating practices can be made.

Grading Considerations

Along with testing and homework, grading is one of the most frequently discussed topics related to students with special needs.

5.5 Management/Behavior Differentiation

The management component of the differentiation model focuses on behavior. Establishing an effective system for managing behavior will be useful for all students in the classroom. However, for those students whose behavior breach what is considered desirable or acceptable, certain specialized techniques will be needed.

The teacher must identify all general expectations, rules, procedures, and other regulations before the school year begins and should plan to teach them to students during the first days of the school year. Equally important is preparation for dealing with violations of rules. Students various disciplinary techniques can be implemented to ensure that inappropriate behavior is handled effectively.

Students with exceptional needs will benefit from being systematically taught the administrative and social rules operative in a classroom. Students who have difficulty interpreting the social and administrative rules of a classroom (e.g., students with Asperger syndrome) need this form of direct instruction.

General Expectations

Most individuals respond best when they know what is expected of them. General expectations provide standards that are in place at all times in the classroom. They can be thought of as *guidelines for life* at school and include very general statements that can be evoked in many different situations. The following are representative examples of guiding principles that are adapted from Smith (2004): treat each other fairly, show respect and responsibility, school is a safe place to learn, our classroom is our community, and students have right to learn and teachers have the right to teach, be safe, kind and productive.

Classroom Rules

Rules provide a general sense of what is expected of students in a classroom setting. Rules can be specific to certain expectations; however, they apply to general classroom situations. The rules that are chosen should be essential to classroom functioning and help create a positive learning environment (Christenson, Ysseldyke, & Thurlow, 1989; Smith & Rivera, 1995). Reasonable classroom rules, presented appropriately, will be particularly beneficial to students with special needs who are in general education settings, as this process assists in clarifying expectations. Evertson and colleagues (2006) offer four general rules that cover many classroom behaviors:

- Respect and be polite to all people,
- Be prompt and prepared,
- Listen quietly when others are speaking, and
- Obey all school rules.

Rubrics can be developed for all these rules to assist students in recognizing the continuum of levels at which a rule can be performed along with the acceptable levels for the classroom.

Classroom Procedures

Classroom procedures refer to the specific way in which various classroom routines and activities will be performed or the way certain situations will be handled. Failing to address procedural issues in the classroom can cause distress for teachers if not attended to at the beginning of the school year. Teachers are often surprised by the complexity and detail associated with many seemingly trivial areas. The procedures for these areas combine to form the mosaic of one's management system. Here are some suggestions:

- Identify all situations for which a procedure will be needed.
- Develop the procedures collaboratively with the students.
- Explain (describe and demonstrate) each procedure thoroughly.

- Teach each procedure though modeling, guided practice, independent practice, and feedback, allow every student to have an opportunity to practice the procedure and demonstrate learning on an appropriate learning on an appropriate level.
- Introduce classroom procedures during the first week of school, scheduling priority procedures for the first day and covering others on subsequent days.
- Avoid introducing too many procedures at once.
- Incorporate any school regulation of importance and relevance into classroom procedures instruction (e.g., hall passes, restroom use).

Managing Behaviors
The ability to create and maintain appropriate behaviors and to manage inappropriate behaviors that can disrupt the learning environment, are important components of classroom management. Management systems should also include techniques for developing new behaviors or increasing desirable behaviors within the students' repertoire. Moreover, a sound programme must ensure that behaviors learned or changed will be maintained over time and generalized (e.g., demonstrated in different contexts).it must also teach self-control and self-regulatory mechanisms. Attention has been given to behavior that goes beyond the typical emphasis on external behavioral tactics. For instance, Bender (2003) promotes the concept of "relational discipline":

Relational discipline focuses squarely on the relationship between the teacher and the student, and various tactics and strategies are implemented within that broader context. For it, is this relationship, rather than the specific disciplinary tactics that are used, that forms the basis for appropriate classroom behavior and that eventually develops into self-discipline (p.3).

Differential techniques must be considered in terms of age-related needs and predominant influences operative at a given age. The figure below illustrates these points. Bender notes that few disciplinary systems have, to any reasonable extent, built on the influence of peer groups with older students.

FIGURE: 5.3
RATIONAL DISCIPLINE
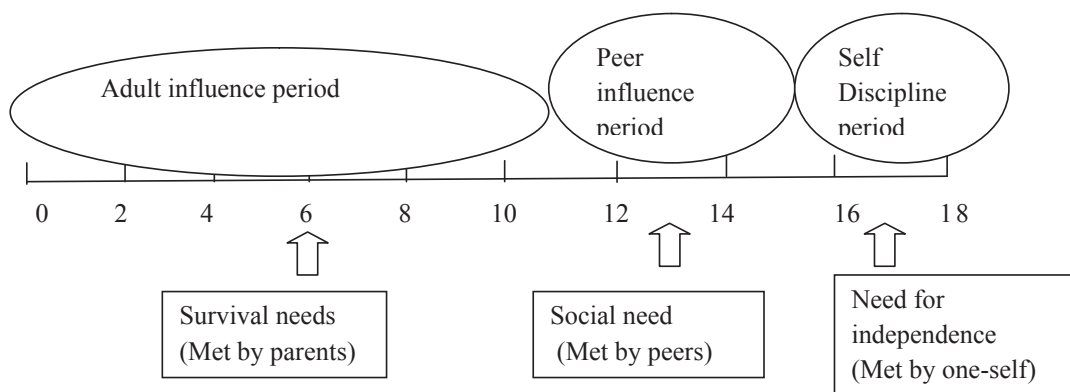
(Source: from Relational Discipline: Strategies for In-Your-Face Kids, p.35 by W.N. Bender, 2003. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.)

Behavior Management Plans
When behaviors need to be developed or when certain behaviors interfere with the learning of a student or that of his or her classmates, the development of a behavior management plan might be necessary or required, depending on the situation. Behavior management plans are much like behavior intervention plans (BIPs) that are required by IDEA for certain students.

FIGURE: 5.4
COMPONENTS OF A BEHAVIOR MANAGEMENT PLAN

Conduct a Functional Assessment
  1. Collect information
     - Identify and define the target behavior
     - Identify events/circumstances associated with the problem behavior
     - Determine potential function(s) of the problem behavior
  2. Develop hypothesis statements about the behavior
     - Events/circumstances associated with the problem behavior
     - Function/purpose of the behavior

Develop an Intervention (Based on Hypothesis Statements)
  1. Teach alternative behavior
  2. Modify events/circumstances associated with the problem behavior

Source: From Using Functional Assessment to Develop Effective, Individualized Interventions for Challenging Behaviors (p. 46) by L.F. Johnson and G. Dunlop, 1993, Teaching Exceptional Children, 25.

The BIP planning process, mandated under IDEA for any student displaying serious behavioral problem, is built on the idea of understanding the functions of behavior prior to designing ways to address it.

Positive Behavioral Supports
As Horner (2000) noted, "Positive behavior support involves the assessment and reengineering of environments so people with problem behaviors experience reductions in (these behaviors) and increased social [and] personal quality in their lives…. It is an approach that blends values about the rights of people with disabilities with the practical science about how the learning and behavior change occur (p. 181)".

The essential element of positive behavior support is the emphasis on fixing environments rather than focusing just on changing the behavior of individuals. Thus, the key element is to design the schools and curricula to prevent problem behaviors from occurring and thus make them "irrelevant, inefficient, and ineffective" (Horner, 2000, p.182). The basis for effective positive

behavior support programmes is the use of functional behavior assessment that identifies classroom events that serve to predict the occurrence of problem behaviors and function to maintain positive behaviors (Horner, 2000).

Creating and Increasing Desirable Behaviors
The acquisition of desired new behaviors, whether academic, personal, behavioral, social, or vocational, is a classroom goal. A new desired behavior can be affirmed with a reinforcer, any event that rewards, and thus strengthens, the behavior it follows. Positive reinforcement presents a desirable consequence for performance of an appropriate behavior.

Reinforcers can consist of praise, physical contact, tangible items, activities, or privileges. The use of reinforcement is the most socially acceptable and instructionally sound tactic for increasing desired behaviors. The goal of most behavioral regimens is to internalize the nature of reinforcement (i.e., self-reinforcement).

Three basic principles must be followed for positive reinforcement to be most effective: it must be meaning to student, contingent on the proper performance of a desired behavior, and presented immediately.

Group contingencies, which are set up for groups of students rather than for individuals provide excellent alternatives in managing behavior and actively including students with special needs in general classroom.
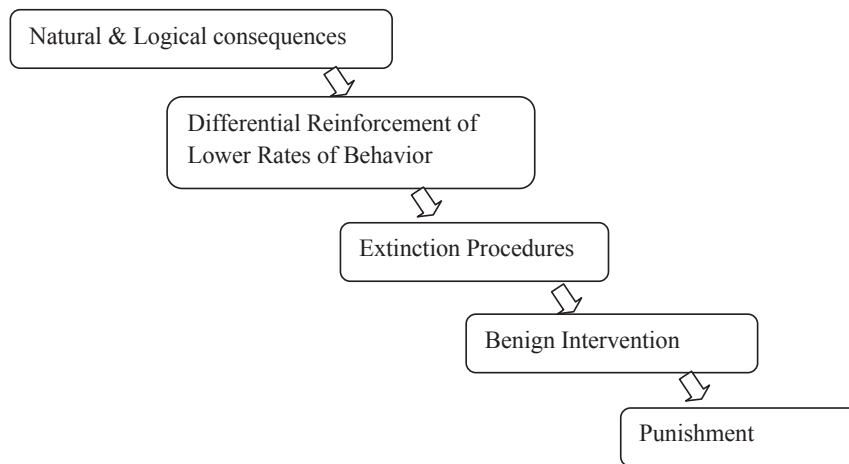
There are three types:
- Dependent contingencies: All group members share in the reinforcement if one individual achieves a goal (i.e., the "hero" strategy: one student's performance for attention)
- Interdependent contingencies: All group members are reinforced if all collectively (or all individually) achieve the stated goal.
- Independent contingencies: Individuals within the group are reinforced for individual achievement toward a goal.

Decreasing Undesirable Behaviors
Every teacher will face situations involving undesirable behaviors that require behavior reduction. Most undesirable behavior will represent minor infraction that will require straightforward, fairly easy-to-administer interventions; some behavior will be more disruptive, defiant, or disturbing, and will require more intrusive and complex responses. For these more severe behaviors, knowledge of the "acting-out cycle" (Colvin, 1993) and responding during the early stages will prevent the behavior from escalating or minimize the impact of the behavior on classroom dynamics. This cycle includes the following seven sequential phases: *calm, triggers, agitation, acceleration, peak, de-acceleration, and recovery.*

A recommended sequence of behavior reduction strategy is depicted in figure 5.5. As teachers consider reductive strategies, they are cautioned to keep records, develop plans of action, and follow state and local guidelines. The use of natural and logical consequences can help children and adolescents learn to be more responsible for their behaviors (West, 1986, 1995). These principles are particularly important for students with special needs who often have difficulty seeing the link between their behavior and the resulting consequences.

FIGURE 5.5
SELECTING BEHAVIOR REDUCTION TECHNIQUES

```
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│ Natural & Logical consequences  │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
        ⇩
    ┌──────────────────────────────┐
    │ Differential Reinforcement of │
    │ Lower Rates of Behavior       │
    └──────────────────────────────┘
            ⇩
        ┌──────────────────────┐
        │ Extinction Procedures │
        └──────────────────────┘
                ⇩
            ┌─────────────────────┐
            │ Benign Intervention │
            └─────────────────────┘
                    ⇩
                ┌────────────┐
                │ Punishment │
                └────────────┘
```

With *natural consequences,* the situation itself provides the contingencies for a certain behavior. For example, if a student forgets to return a permission slip to attend an off-campus event, the natural consequence is that the student is not allowed to go and must remain at school. Thus, rather than intervening in a given situation, the teacher allows the situation to teach the student. Natural consequences are an effective way to teach common sense and responsibility (West, 1994).

In *logical consequences*, there is a logical connection between inappropriate behavior and the consequences that follow. Logical consequences relate the disciplinary response directly to the inappropriate behavior.

The next option on the continuum is the use of *differential reinforcement*. A number of variations of this research-based technique exist, such as differential reinforcement of alternative behaviors (DRA), differential reinforcement of incompatible behavior (DRI), differential reinforcement of other behavior (DRO), and differential reinforcement of lower rates of behavior (DRL). The DRL technique uses positive reinforcement strategies as a behavior reduction tool. The next

reduction option involves *extinction procedures*. In this technique, the teacher withholds reinforcement for a behavior. Over time, such action, in combination with the positive reinforcement of related desirable behaviors, should extinguish the inappropriate behavior. The fourth option is the use of behavior reduction techniques that border on being punishment but are so unobtrusive that they can be considered *benign tactics*. These suggestions are consistent with a concept developed by Cummings (1983), called the "law of least intervention," and that of Evertson and colleagues (2006), called "minor interventions." The main idea is to eliminate disruptive behaviors quickly with a minimum of disruption to the classroom or instructional routine. Benign tactics for reducing undesirable behavior that is based on five types of prompts: physical, gestural, visual/auditory, verbal and instructional.

The last option in this reduction hierarchy and the one that is most intrusive and less attractive is the use of *punishment*. It is the least preferable option because it involves the presentation of something unpleasant or the removal of something pleasant as a consequence of the performance of an undesirable behavior. Punishment should be considered only as a last resort. Three punishment techniques are commonly used in classrooms and at home: *reprimand* (unpleasant condition), *time-out* (exclusion and seclusion), and *response cost* (loss of student values – privileges or points).

Generalization and Maintenance of behaviors
After behaviors have been established at acceptable levels, the next stages involve transferring what has been learned to new contexts and maintaining established levels of performance. Teaching appropriate behaviors and then hoping that students will be able to use various skills at some later time is detrimental to many students with special needs because a core difficulty they experience is performing independently in the classroom.

Teachers need to programme for generalization – the wide application of a behavior skill – by giving students opportunities to use new skills in different settings, with different people, and at different times. Students often need help to identify the cues that should trigger the performance of an acquired behavior, action, or skill.
To maintain their skills, students also need to practice what they have learned previously. Instructional planning should allow time for students to determine how well they have retained what they have learned.

Self-Management
Ultimately, we want all students to be able to manage their own behaviors without external direction, as this ability is a requirement of functioning independently in life. Special attention needs to be given to those students who do not display independent behavioral control and thus must develop student-regulated strategies – interventions that, though initially taught by the teacher, are intended to be implemented independently by the student. Bender (2003) refers to this end state as the "self-discipline" phase. The concept of self-management is an outgrowth of

cognitive behavior modification, a type of educational intervention for students with disabilities in use since 1980s, which stresses active thinking about behavior. Student-regulated strategies form the essence of self-management. The following figure illustrates self-management.

FIGURE: 5.6
COMPONENTS OF SELF-MANAGEMENT
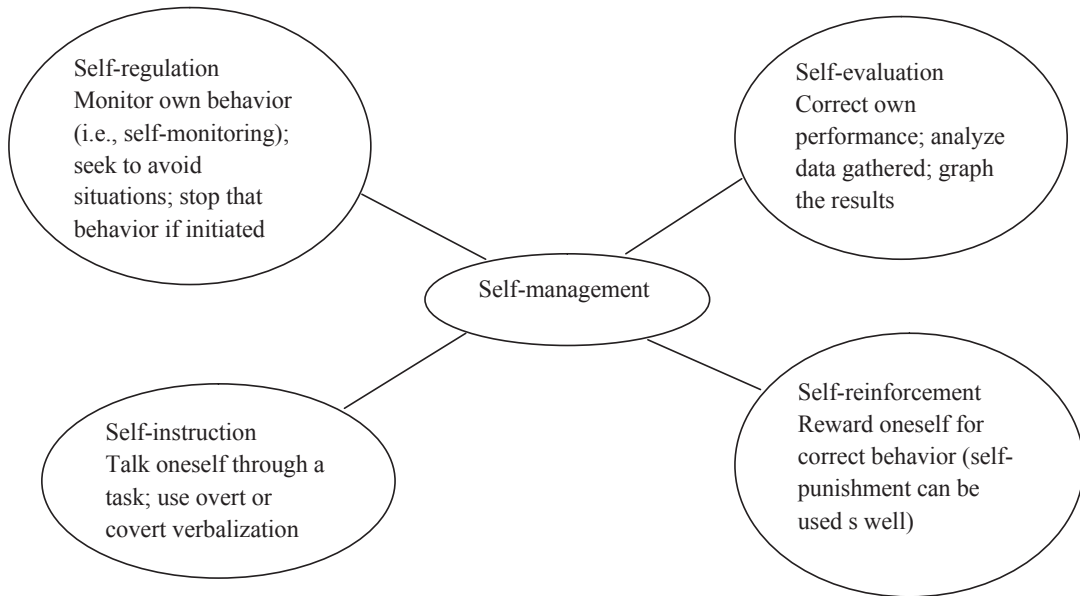
(Source: From Guide to Attention Deficits in Classroom (p.162) by C.A. Dowdy, J.R. Patton, T.E. C. Smith, and E.A. Polloway, 1998. Austin, TX: Pro-Ed. Used by permission.)

5.6 Personal-Social-Emotional (Affective) Differentiation

This dimension refers to personal and emotional aspects of a student. This is a tricky area because when a student is experiencing significant personal/emotional issues that are having a functional impact on his or her performance in school, a teacher needs to know when to refer the student to other professionals who are trained to deal with these issues. Nevertheless, teachers will need to be able to differentiate their instructional routines to accommodate students who might be struggling on a personal level.

A key feature of how to differentiate for students who are experiencing personal/emotional problems is to create a classroom climate – the classroom atmosphere in which students must function – that allows for a range of student needs. The basic needs that students have in a classroom include sense of belonging, freedom to make choices, feeling of valued, being in a

safe place, and enjoying their time in the class. Providing these elements in a classroom will go a long way to assisting many students who have personal/emotional needs.

Student Factors

The dynamics of classroom are influenced by certain student factors. Key factors to consider about students in terms of their personal/emotional states include (Fries and Cochran-Smith, 2006): home life, cultural considerations, individual temperament, language abilities, social and interpersonal skills, nature of previous educational experiences, how they feel about themselves, motivation – their own expectations concerning their scholastic futures (i.e., ability of being able to do the task and potential for success), whether they are intrinsically or extrinsically motivated, perceived relevance of the instructional tasks, emotional factors, including levels of stress etc.

Teacher Factors

The psychological atmosphere of any classroom depends in great part on certain teacher factors – some of which are personal and others professional. A teacher's attitudes toward students with special needs can dramatically affect the quality of education that a student will receive during the time s/he is in that teacher's classroom. The type of expectations a teacher holds for students can significantly influence learning outcomes. One's personal philosophy about education, management and discipline, and curriculum/instruction weigh heavily as well. Fries and Cochran-Smith (2006) noted that a teacher's ability "to adapt to the needs of learners" (p. 945) can also make a difference.

One particular set of skills that has bearing on the psychological aspects of the classroom is teacher communication skills. Evertson and colleagues (2006) note that the ability to communicate clearly and effectively with students influences the nature of ongoing dynamics in the classroom.

Peer Factors

Peers are also key players in forming the psychological and social atmosphere of a classroom, especially among middle-and high-school students. Teachers must understand peer values, pressures, and needs and use this knowledge to benefit students with special needs. Valuable cooperative learning opportunities can evolve based on successful peer involvement strategies. As Kohn (1996a) notes, "Communities are built upon a foundation of cooperating throughout the day, with students continually being invited to work, play, and reflect with someone else" (p. 113).

Family-Related Factors

The final component involves a variety of family-related factors. Three major issues, all of which have cultural implications, include family attitude towards education, level of family support and involvement in the student's education, and the amount of pressure placed on a child by the family. Extremes can be problematic – for example, a family that burdens a student (e.g., a gifted child) with overwhelming pressure to succeed can cause as many difficulties as one that take a limited interest in a child's education.

Efforts should be made to establish relationships with parents and guardians. The following recommendations should help create a positive, nurturing environment that contributes to positive outcomes of the students:

- Create a learning environment that provides challenge to students, is built on success, and minimizes failure experiences common to the learning histories of students with disabilities.
- Establish that each student in the classroom has rights (e.g., not to be interrupted when working or responding to a teacher inquiry) and that you expect everyone to respect those rights.
- Share philosophies, management systems, and instructional perspectives with parents or guardians.

Let Us Sum-Up

In this unit, we have learned about different strategies and aspects about managing and differentiating classrooms. The initial part of the unit covered basic concepts of differentiation dealing with two levels such as 'macro level' and 'micro level' differentiation and different terms used in differentiation etc. The later part included a comprehensive model of differentiating classroom management like – setting, content, material, instructional, management/behavior, and personal-social-emotional differentiations.

Unit-end Activities

- Objective questions   Group: A
1. Invisible management is referred as………….
    a. Reactive interventions
    b. Preventive actions
    c. Deliberate interventions
    d. Progressive actions
2. Task-specific techniques of learning strategies provide students the opportunity of ………..
    a. Utilizing teacher-based knowledge
    b. Utilizing peer support
    c. Utilizing psycho-motor skills
    d. Utilizing a cognitive orientation
3. Control deficits in social problem refer to…….
    a. Skills demonstrated but not used
    b. Undesirable social behaviors
    c. Absence of all components of skills
    d. Some critical elements of the skill are absent
4. Cross-age tutoring occurs when ………..

a. Evaluating academic work of peers
b. One student assisting another student
c. Older Students provide academic support to younger students in their difficulties
d. Non-disabled peers usually provide suggestions for appropriate behavior to peers with disabilities

5. Invisible management is referred as………….
    e. Reactive interventions
    f. Preventive actions
    g. Deliberate interventions
    h. Progressive actions

- Short-answer questions   Group: B

1. How do you define the concept of differentiation? Discuss with a suitable example.
2. Why are differentiation and management important in a classroom instruction?
3. What are the levels of differentiation?
4. What are the major elements for a model of differentiated instruction?
5. What do you mean by self-management? List the components of it.

- Long-answer questions   Group: C

1. Describe the factors, which are essential to consider for personal-social-emotional differentiation with suitable examples.
2. How can we maintain setting differentiation? Explain four aspects of physical dimensions of classroom.

Points for Discussion
- Basic concepts about differentiating instruction
- Terminology: adaptation, modification and accommodation
- Steps in operating the procedures of differentiating instruction
- Essential component to consider in setting differentiation
- Required skills in content differentiation
- Material differentiation
- Instructional differentiation
- Management/behavior differentiation
- Personal-social-emotional differentiation

Reference

Tom E. C. Smith, Edward A. Polloway, James R. Patton & Carol A. Dowdy (2012). Teaching Students with Special Needs in Inclusive Settings (6th Eds.). Delhi: Pearson.