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NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

COURSE CODE: PED 422

COURSE TITLE: BEHAVIOURAL PROBLEMS AND PRIMARY SCHOOL CHILD



COURSE GUIDE

PED 422: BEHAVIOURAL PROBLEMS AND PRIMARY SCHOOL CHILD

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PED 444: Behavioural Problems and Primary School Child is a two credit unit 400 level course. It will be available for students in the second semester of their fourth year in the B.A. Primary Education Programme.

The course consists of 15 study units covering the following areas: the meaning of behaviour problem, the etiology of behaviour problem, social learning and maladjustment factors in behaviour problem, the school and behaviour problem, disruptive behaviour in schools, categorisation of behaviour problem, techniques of shaping behaviour, successive approximation and problem and behaviour problems, the teacher and reinforcement, discipline in primary school, mental health of the teacher and the school teachers and universal tension and fostering good mental health in school.

The materials have been developed to suit Nigerian students. You will be expected to give practical examples where necessary to fit your local environment. This course will develop in you the knowledge and skills needed to enable the school discharge its responsibilities to the child and the state.

This Course Guide tells you briefly what the course is about, what course materials you will be using and how you can work on your own with the materials. It also suggests the general guidelines for the amount of time you can spend on each unit of the course so that you can successfully complete it. It also provides you with some Tutor Marked Assignments (TMAs).

There are regular tutorial classes that are linked to the course. You are advised to attend these classes. Details of time and places of the tutorials will be made known to you later.

The Course Guide gives you information on the following items about the course:

Introduction

What you will learn in this course

Course aims

Course objectives

Working through this course

Course materials



Study units

References/Further Readings

Assignment file

Presentation schedule

Nature and Mode of Assessment

Tutor-marked assignments (TMAs)

Final examination and grading

Course marking scheme

Course overview

How to get the most from this course

Tutors and Tutorials

Summary

2.0 What you will learn in this course

The overall aim of PED 422: Behaviour Problems and Primary School Child is to enable you learn and understand the meaning of behaviour problem, search for the causes of behaviour problem, social learning and maladjustment, important factors in behaviour problem, and the school behaviour problem, disruptive behaviour in schools, techniques of shaping behaviour, the teacher and reinforcement, mental health of the teacher and the school system and fostering good mental health in school.

These blocks of knowledge are important in today's world and you will have to understand them and apply the knowledge. You will be given sufficient grounding to achieve this, which should provide you with the necessary basis for further study.

3.0 Course Aims

The general aim of this course is to expose you to the etiology of behaviour problem. You will learn potent factors in behaviour problem and techniques of shaping behaviour.

This will be achieved by aiming to:

- * explain the concept and meaning of behaviour problem.
- * describe the causes of behaviour problem.
- * explain behaviour problem according to psychoanalysts.



- * describe the Adlerians view of behaviour problem.
- * outline Field theory and maladjustment.
- * describe the school and behaviour problem.
- * introduce you to the meaning of disruptive behaviour in schools.
- * explain different categories of behaviour problem.

4.0 Course Objectives

In order to achieve the aims highlighted above, the course has some specific objectives. These are in addition to the specific objectives at the beginning of each study unit. You must read these objectives before you start studying each study unit. You can refer to them as you go on with the course to find out how you are progressing. After completing each study unit, you must look at the study unit objectives. This will help you to be sure that you have done what is expected of you in the study unit.

Outline below are the more general objectives of the course. By accomplishing these objectives, you should have achieved the overall aims of this course. After successfully completing this course, you should be able to:

- * describe techniques of shaping behaviour.
- * explain successive approximation and behaviour problem.
- * explain how the teacher can display reinforcement to elicit non-problem behaviour in school.
- * describe discipline in primary school.
- * explain mental health of the teacher in school.
- * outline how the teacher can foster good mental health in school.

5.0 Working through this course

To complete this course, you are required to read the study units, and books and other materials recommended. You will need to find out more about the examples given to illustrate certain points in the course study units and also need to spend about three hours on each study unit. That will be about 45 hours to complete this course.

6.0 Course materials



The major components of the course are:

1. Course Guide
2. Study units
3. Textbooks
4. Assignment file
5. Presentation Schedule.

7.0 Study Units

There are fifteen study units in this course which are as follows:

Module 1

- Unit 1: The Aetiology of Behaviour problem
- Unit 2: Social Learning and Maladjustment
- Unit 3: The Field Theory and Maladjustment
- Unit 4: Potent Factors In Behaviour problem
- Unit 5: The School and Behaviour problem

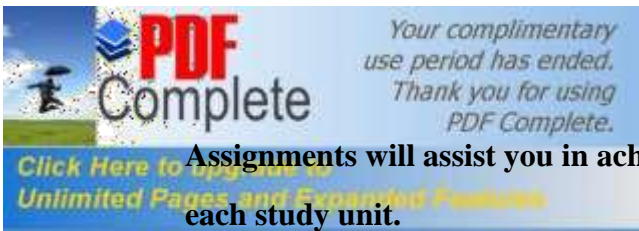
Module II

- Unit 1: Disruptive Behaviour in Schools
- Unit 2: Categorisation of Behaviour problem
- Unit 3: Techniques of Shaping Behaviour
- Unit 4: Successive Approximation and Behaviour problems
- Unit 5: The Teacher and Reinforcement

Module III

- Unit 1: Discipline in Primary School
- Unit 2: Mental Health of the Teacher and School
- Unit 3: Teachers and Universal Tension
- Unit 4: Fostering Good Mental Health in School

Each study unit consists of three hours work and includes the specific Objectives, direction for study, reading materials and other sources. Each study unit consists of self – tests. The self-tests question on what you have just read in the material. The self-tests question or self-assessment exercise help you to assess your progress and to reinforce your understanding of the material. These exercises together with the Tutor - Marked



Assignments will assist you in achieving the stated objectives at the beginning of each study unit.

8.0 References/Further Readings

- * **Clinnard, M. B. (1994)Sociology of Deviant Behaviour. New York: Hold, Rinehart and Winston Inc.**
- * **Gardner, W. I. (1988)Children With Learning and Behaviour Problems. Allyn and Bacon. Inc.**

9.0 Assignment file

The assignment file consists of the assignments which you must do and submit to your tutor for marking. The scores you obtain for these assignments will count towards the final score you will obtain for this course. Further information on the assignments will be found in this Course Guide later.

There are fifteen assignments in this course with each study unit having one.

10.0 Presentation Schedule

The presentation schedule in your course material gives you the important dates for the completion of tutor marked assignments by attending tutorials. Remember you are to submit all your assignments by the date stipulated. You should guide against falling behind in your work.

11.0 Nature and Mode of Assessment

There are two aspects to the assessment of the course. One consists of the tutor marked assignments and the other is a written examination at the end of the course. In tackling the assignments, you are expected to apply information, knowledge and techniques gathered during the course. The assignments must be submitted to your tutor for formal assessment in accordance with the deadlines stated in the Presentation Schedule and the Assignment File. The work you submit to your tutor for assessment will count for 30% of your total course score.



At the end of the course, you will need to sit for a final written examination of three hours duration. This examination will also account for 70% of your total course mark.

12.0 Tutor-Marked Assignments (TMAs)

There are 15 tutor-marked assignments in this course. You only need to submit 10 of the 15 assignments. You are encouraged however to submit all the 15 assignments in which case the best 10 of the 15 will be used to assess you. Each assignment counts 5% towards your total course mark.

Assignment questions for the units in this course are contained in the Assignment File. You will be able to complete your assignment from the information and materials contained in your set books, reading and study units. However, it is desirable in all degree level of education to demonstrate that you have read and researched more widely than the required minimum. Using other references will give you a broader viewpoint and a deeper understanding of the course.

When you have completed each assignment, send it together with a TMA form to your tutor. Make sure that each assignment reaches your tutor on or before the deadline given in the Presentation Schedule and Assignment File. If for whatever reason you cannot complete your assignment on time, contact your tutor before the assignment is due to discuss the possibility of an extension. Extensions will not be granted after the date unless there are exceptional circumstances.

13.0 Final Examination and Grading

The final examination for PED 422 will be of three hours duration and have a value of 70% of the total course grade. The examination will consist of questions which reflect the types of self-testing, practice exercises and tutor-marked assessments you have previously encountered. All aspects of the course will be assessed.

Use the time between finishing the last unit and sitting the examination to revise the entire course. You might find it useful to review yourself – tests, tutor-marked assignments and comments on them before the examination.

The final examination covers information from all parts of the course.

14.0 Course Marking Scheme

The following table lays out how the actual marking is broken down.

Assessment	Marks
Assignments 1-4	Assignments, best ten of the fifteen @ 5% each = 50% of course mark.
Final examination	60% of overall Course mark
Total	100% of course marks

Table 1: Course Marking Scheme

15.0 Course Overview

This table brings together the study units, the number of hours you should take to complete them and the assignments that follow them.

Unit	Title of work	Hours activity	Assessment (end of unit)
1	Course Guide	3	
	Module 1		
2	The Aetiology of Behaviour Problem	3	Assignment 1
3	Social Learning and Maladjustment	3	Assignment 2
4	The Field Theory and Maladjustment	3	Assignment 3
5	Potent Factors In Behaviour Problem	3	Assignment 4
6	The School and Behaviour Problem	3	Assignment 5
	Module II		
7	Disruptive Behaviour in Schools	3	Assignment 6
8	Categorisation of Behaviour problem	3	Assignment 7
9	Techniques of Shaping Behaviour	3	Assignment 8
10	Successive Approximation and Behaviour problems		Assignment 9
11	The Teacher and Reinforcement	3	Assignment 10
	Module III	3	Assignment 11
12	Discipline in Primary School		
13	Mental Health of the Teacher & School	3	Assignment 12
14	Teachers and Universal Tension	3	Assignment 13

15	Fostering Good Mental Health in School	3	Assignment 14
		3	Assignment 15
Total		45	

Table 2: Course Organisation

16.0 How to get the most from the course

In distance learning, the study units replace the conventional university lecturers. This is one of the great advantages of distance learning; you can read and work through specially designed study materials at your own pace and at a time and place that suit you best. Think of it as reading the lecture instead of listening to a lecturer. In the same way that a lecturer might set you some reading to do, the study units tells you when to read your set books or other materials, and when to undertake practical work. Just as a lecturer might give you an in-class exercise, your study units provide exercises for you to do at appropriate points.

Each of the study units follows a common form. The first item is an introduction to the subject matter of the unit and how a particular unit is integrated with the other units and the course as a whole. Next is a set of learning objectives. These objectives will let you know what you should be able to do by the time you have completed the unit. You should use these objectives to guide your study. When you have finished the unit, you must go back and check whether you have achieved the objectives. If you make a habit of doing this, you will significantly improve your chances of passing the course.

The main body of the unit guides you through the required reading from other sources. This will usually be either from your set books or from a reference list. Self-tests are interspersed throughout the units and answers are given at the end of each self-test. Working through these tests will help you to achieve the objectives of the unit and prepare you for the assignments and the examination. You should do each self-test as you come to it in the study unit. There will also be numerous examples given in the study units; work through these when you come to them too.

The following is a practical strategy for working through the course. If you run into any problem, get in touch with your tutor. Remember that your tutor's job is to help you. When you need help, don't hesitate to call and ask your tutor to provide it.



1. **Read this Course Guide thoroughly**
2. **Organise a study schedule.** Refer to the course overview for more details. Note the time you are expected to spend on each unit and how the assignments relate to the units. Important information e.g. details of your tutorials and date of the first day of the semester is available from NOUN. You need to gather together all this information in one place, such as your dairy and a wall calendar. Whatever method you choose to use you should decide on it and write in your own dates for working on each unit.
3. **Once you have created your own study schedule, do everything you can to stick to it.** The major reason that students fail is that they get behind with their course work. If you get into difficulties with your schedule, please, let your tutor or the counsellor know before it is too late for help.
4. **Turn to unit 1 and read the introduction and objectives for the unit.**
5. **Assemble the study materials.** Information about what you need for a unit is given in the overview at the beginning of each unit. You will almost always need both the study unit you are working on and one of your set books on your desk at the same time.
6. **Work through the unit.** The content of the unit itself has been arranged to provide a sequence for you to follow. As you work through the unit you will be instructed to read sections from your set books or other articles. Use the unit to guide your reading.
7. **Keep an eye, ear on your television or radio.** Up-to-date course information will be continuously posted there.
8. **Well before the relevant due dates, find out your next required assignment.** Keep in mind that you will learn a lot by doing the assignments carefully. They have been designed to help you meet the objectives of the course and therefore will help you pass the examination. Submit all assignments not later than the due date.
9. **Review the objectives for each study unit to confirm that you have achieved them.** If you feel unsure about any of the objectives, review the study materials or consult your tutor.



10. **When you are confident that you have learnt a unit's objective, you can then start on the next unit. Proceed unit by unit through the course and try to pace your study so that you keep yourself on schedule.**
11. **When you have submitted an assignment to your tutor for marking, do not wait for its return before starting on the next unit. Keep to your schedule. When the assignment is returned, pay particular attention to your tutor's comments both on the tutor-marked assignment form and also written on the assignment. Consult your tutor as soon as possible if you have any question or problem.**
12. **After completing the last unit, review the course and prepare yourself for the final examination. Check that you have achieved the unit objectives listed at the beginning of each unit and the course objectives listed in this Course Guide.**

17.0 Tutors and Tutorials

There are 45 hours for tutorials. You will be notified of the dates, times and locations of these tutorials, together with the name and phone number of your tutor, as soon as you are allocated a tutorial group.

Your tutor will mark and comment on your assignments, keep a close watch on your progress and on any difficulties you might encounter and provide the necessary assistance during the course. You must submit your tutor-marked assignment to your tutor on or before the due date; it will be marked by your tutor and returned to you as soon as possible.

Do not hesitate to contact your tutor by phone, e-mail or discussion board if you need help. The following might be circumstances in which you would find help necessary. Contact your tutor if:

- **You do not understand any part of the study units or the assigned readings**
- **You have difficulty with the self-tests or exercises**
- **You have a question or problem with an assignment, or with your tutor's comments on an assignment or with the grading of an assignment.**

You should try your best to attend the tutorials. This is the only chance to have face to face contact with your tutor and to ask questions which are answered instantly. You can raise any problems encountered in the course of your study. To gain maximum benefit



from course tutorials, prepare a question list before attending them. You will learn a lot from participating in discussions actively.

18.0 Summary

Upon completing this course, you would have acquired the basic knowledge of Behaviour Problems and Primary School Child, the aetiology of behaviour problem, social learning and maladjustment, factors in behaviour problem, the teacher and reinforcement, and fostering good mental health in school. You will be able to answer questions like these ones:

1. What is behaviour problem?
2. Explain the concept of socialisation
3. How will you describe the psychoanalytic theory?
4. What must we recognise in dealing with the difficult and disturbing child?
5. How will you explain the effect of the child's early experiences on adjustment and maladjustment?
6. What is motivation?
7. How will explain the nature of human motivation?
8. What is self – concept?
9. How will you explain self – concept and behaviour?
10. How will you define the term “effective school”?
11. How can we describe the teacher behaviour in effective school?
12. What is discipline?
13. What are the specific elements of teacher-pupil relationship?
14. How can we identify attitudinal qualities in teacher – pupil relationship?

We wish you success with the course and hope that you will find it both interesting and useful. We hope you enjoy your relationship with NOUN and we wish you every success in your future undertakings.



PED 422: BEHAVIOURAL PROBLEMS AND PRIMARY SCHOOL CHILD

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

By now, you have read through the course guide, which was sent to you as part of your instructional package for the course. If you have not, please ensure that you read the course guide before reading your study materials as it provides a comprehensive outline of the materials you will cover on a study unit to study unit basis, starting with the topic you are about to study: **The Aetiology of Behaviour Problem**. The study unit guides you through the meaning of behaviour problem, concept of behaviour problem. Let us look at what you should learn in this study unit as specified in the study unit objectives below:

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this study unit, you should be able to:

- 1. Explain what is meant by the term behaviour;**
- 2. Define the concept of socialisation;**
- 3. Explain the concept of behaviour problem;**



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3.0 MAIN CONTENT
3.1 The Term Behaviour

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Behaviour is any activity that can be observed, measured and recorded. Behaviour is caused. What a child does, he does for a reason. Behaviour is the .result of the action between environment and the child’s growing self. Dennis Child (1977:1) sees behaviour to include ‘all those aspects of human activity which we can observe’. He does not however exclude behaviours that are not observable hence he went further to involve personal experience which can only be studied by asking individuals to express their ‘feelings and thoughts’ as part of behaviour. An aetiological approach to something is the search for causes. I am sure you are already finding our discussion interesting. Let us continue.

3.2 The Concept of Socialisation

The learning theorists’ you are familiar with in your course on Psychology of Learning such as Thorndike, Skinner, Pavlov, and Kohler general belief is that social behaviour has to be acquired: it is not there at birth; it develops through socialisation. Now try your hand on this:

Self-Assessed Exercise 1.1

How does parents influence their children to behave the way they want?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Good attempt.

Let us continue our discussion.

Socialisation is concerned with how parents influence children to develop socially appropriate modes of thoughts, feeling, and behaviour. Potentially, almost anything parents do or say has some direct or indirect influence on the child’s socialisation. However, because it is parent’s assigned responsibility to transmit society’s values, standards, and rules of conduct to the child, because they have considerable powers of



influence at their disposal, and because they often make deliberate efforts to train the child, developmental psychologists such as Bandura (1969), Blakemore et. al (1981) and Galloway et.al. (1982) have been concerned primarily with the influence parents exert through the use of persuasion and of discipline techniques which are intended to modify the child’s subsequent behaviour.

Therefore, socialisation is the process of growing up into a human being, a process which necessitates contact with other people. It is through this process that the growing child acquires language and standards of the social group into which it has been born. All human beings, except those born with severe handicaps, have the inborn capacity to become fully mature members of society but in order for this capacity to be realised, the child has to have adequate social relationship with others (Alhassan, 2000). It is important for you to note that social behaviour in humans is not inborn. In a very important sense, we have to learn to be human beings. Not try your finger on this quiz:

Self-Assessed Exercise 1.2

List any seven (7) things you have done today as a human being.

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.
7.

Oh yes. That’s nice of you. We should continue our discussion now.

33 Concept of Behaviour Problem

The literature parades common concepts used interchangeably, though all having the same implications: ‘behaviour problem’, ‘behaviour disorders’, ‘abnormal behaviour’, or ‘maladjustments’, ‘emotional disorders’ or ‘emotional disturbances’. Clinnard (1994) explained that behaviour problem is behaviour that digresses from what the majority approves of, or a variation of a normal behaviour. There is no absolute definition of a behaviour problem. The definition is a function of the social environment

and thus relative to the cultural, historical, and social setting in which an individual emits a given behaviour. If the behaviour conforms to the prevailing consensual form, it is considered normal, if it deviates from this norm, it is considered deviant. In a given society, at any given time in its history, the members of that society have fairly explicit expectations for the role-or appropriate behaviour of a child. These expectations are a function of the child's age, and they vary depending on his sex, position in birth order, and the social status of his family. With these points in mind, it is possible to propose the following definition of behaviour problems, as when a child emits behaviour that deviates from a discretionary and relative social norm in that it occurs with a frequency or intensity that authoritative adults in the child's environment judge, under the circumstances, to be either too high or too low.

Gardner (1988) explained that in a child, any behaviour is generally viewed as what he does, how he relates to others, what he accomplishes, what he reports about his emotional experiences, how he accomplishes, how he approaches a learning task, how he performs in a competitive situation and how he uses covert cognitive behaviours to influence other behaviours.

A behaviour problem is thus any consistent discrepancy between what is expected of a child in academic and social areas and what is done by him in these various areas. Hurlock (1989) termed it misbehaviour and warned that there is reason for serious concern when the number and seriousness of the child's behaviour problem deviate either above or below the norm for his age and not group. Her list of behaviour problem included lying, cheating, stealing, destructiveness, truancy, willful disobedience and vandalism.

In a study that employed the survey method to unravel most persistent behaviour problems that pupils manifest in our schools, Alhassan (1999) similarly identified the followings as indicated in Table 1 below:

Table 1: Behaviour Problems Manifested by Pupils

- a. Damages class furniture
- b. Spits on floor
- c. Quarrelsomeness
- d. Rudeness

- e. **Vandalism**
- f. **Aggression**
- g. **Mimics other pupil**
- h. **Shouts at teacher**
- i. **Disobedience**
- j. **Fighting**
- k. **Verbal abuse**
- l. **Interfering with the work of other children**
- m. **Spits at other pupil**
- n. **Carries on distracting conversation with others**
- o. **Disregards of the rights of other children.**

4.0 Conclusion

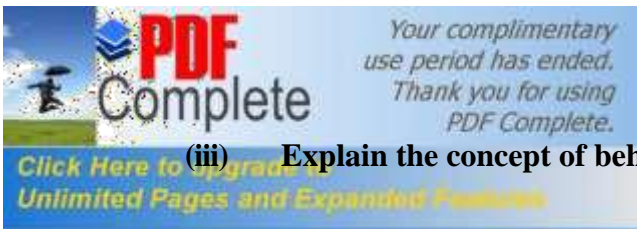
In this study unit, you have learnt the meaning of the term behaviour and some description of the concept of socialisation and the explanation of behaviour problem. You have also learnt the description of the psychoanalytic theory. In addition, you learnt that the concept of fixation was Freud's way of explaining how important psychological characteristics and individual differences are in personality development.

5.0 Summary

1. What you have learnt in this study unit concerns description and definitions of the term behaviour, and the concept of socialisation.
2. You have similarly learnt what is meant by behaviour problem and the description of psychoanalytic theory.
3. The study unit has served to introduce you to other study units in the course material.
4. The study unit that follow shall build upon this introduction to ensure clarity of terms, concepts and understanding of contents.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment (TMA)

- (i) What do you understand by the term behaviour?
- (ii) What is socialisation?



(iii) Explain the concept of behaviour problem citing six (6) examples.

7.0 References and Further Reading

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UNIT 2: MORE THEORIES OF BEHAVIOUR

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In study unit 1, we explained the term behaviour and learnt about the concept of socialisation. You have similarly learnt what is meant by behaviour problem. The study unit also served to introduce you to other study units in this course material.

You can now explain in your own words the concepts of socialisation and behaviour problem. You are about to study another interesting study unit: Theories of Behaviour. Let us look at what other content you should learn in this study unit as specified in the study unit objectives below.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this study unit, you should be able to:

- 1. Describe the psychoanalytic theory**
- 2. Explain how the Adlerians recognises man**
- 3. Describe what we must recognise in dealing with the difficult and disturbing child.**
- 4. Explain the effect of the child's early experiences on adjustment and maladjustment.**

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Psychoanalytic Theory

Essentially, the explanation of behaviour problem according to psychoanalysts must be sought in analysis of the unconscious mind, which consists of a world of inner feelings that are unlikely to be subject to recall at will. Sigmund Freud – the Viennese physician (1856 – 1939) is the father of this school of thought of psychology.

The position of the psychoanalysts is that much of the adults’ behaviour owes its form and intensity to certain instinctive drives and to early reactions to parents and siblings. They stress the vital role of early childhood experiences in determining certain patterns of behaviour in the adult. The psychoanalytic theory maintain that unless the basic drives for the need for food, warmth, love, and security are gratified during early interactions, a child will leave infancy with a certain degree of fixation or conflict with the resultant behaviour problem.

It is important for you to note that the two variables which mark disturbed behaviour are fixation at early stage of development and regression to an infantile stage during periods of stress. According to psychoanalysts, the development process consists of a series of fixed stages which every child passed in sequential order. Personality progresses from the oral stage to the anal, to the phallic and to the latency stage in childhood. The experiences that occur during each period are believed to affect an individual’s character traits manifested through life.

Self-Assessed Exercise 2.1

To ensure you understand our discussion, list the basic drives that children would want satisfied or met to avoid behaviour problem.

1. 2.....
3. 4.....

Very good. Let us continue our discussion.

As stated elsewhere (Alhassan, 1993), Freud noted that sometimes individuals never lose their desire for a particular kind of gratification, such as oral stimulation. When this happens, the person is said to be fixated at the stage in which that kind of pleasure normally is sought. Such a person might engage in behaviours that give direct

oral stimulation, such as smoking or chewing gum, or the person might symbolically pursue oral gratification. For example, s/he might want to acquire lots of money or knowledge, which may be compared to taking in nourishment through the mouth during the oral stage. A person fixated on the pleasure retaining feces might be extremely sloppy, late and disorganised as adult. A person fixated on the pleasure of retaining feces might also be miserly, withholding money like s/he withholding feces as a child. Table 2 indicates the kind of behaviours or characteristics that are associated with oral, anal, phallic fixations. Thus the concept of fixation was Freud's way of explaining how important psychological characteristics and individual differences are in personality development.

Table 2: Characteristics (behaviours) Associated with Fixations at Freudian Stages of Development

Stage	Period	Characteristics
Oral	0 – 1 yr	Optimistic Dependent Generous Demanding Sarcastic
Anal	1 -3 yrs	Orderly Frugal Punctual Obstinate Rebellious Stingy
Phallic	3 – 5 yrs	Proud Self-assured Vain Timid Bashful

Source: Fenichel, (1985) (adapted)

Freud proposed that once the phallic stage is over, at about five, there is a long, quiet period of psychological development in which no major unconscious drives press the ego for satisfaction. This period is called latency period, as it extends through late childhood to puberty. During this time, children may learn a good deal about the world around them, other people, and their own skills, capacities, and interests. At this stage of our discussion, here is a relevant question for you to answer:

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Self Assessed Exercise 2.2

1. What causes fixation?

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.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

That’s a good attempt. Let us continue our discussion.

According to Freud, when the child is extremely frustrated in the pursuit of a pleasure, or oversatisfied, s/he may become fixated. The child then becomes continuously concerned with obtaining the pleasure, and this concern becomes an enduring personality characteristic.

Psychoanalysts have shown that many social phenomena can be understood only when viewed in the light of the oedipal complex which produces significant manifestation in almost every sphere of human activity. For instance, Freud theorised that the child between the ages of three and five develops an increased affection for the parent of the opposite sex. The typical boy views the mother as a desirable love object that he wants to possess exclusively. The girl similarly yearns to possess her father (Electra complex). However, the child recognizes that s/he has been won in this competition by the like-sexed parent. The boy’s father has been the winner in the contest for the mother’s sexual attention and the girl’s mother has been the winner in the competition for the father’s love.

To resolve this problem of yearning for the opposite sex parents, the normal child in Freud’s system seeks to acquire the characteristics of the winner. This means that the boy identifies with his father and seeks to adopt his father’s traits; the traits of masculinity. Similarly, the girl identifies with the mother and tries to behave in those feminine ways that apparently have made her mother successfully attractive. If the process of resolving the parent-love conflicts goes away, the child apparently will not achieve a proper resolution of the conflict s/he faced in middle childhood. This will result in inappropriate behaviour later on – at home and more importantly in social interactions at school.

The Adlerian theorists called after Alfred Adler (Australian Psychiatrist 1870 – 1937) see behaviour in terms of the individual’s perception of his own particular situation. It is important for you to note that the Adlerian theory regards man as relatively free in determining his own behaviour, although he is also a product of external influences and making his own decisions and engaging in activities that enable him to pursue his goals.

The Adlerian recognises man as being essentially a social being and believe that actions and movements are directed toward a goal. All behaviour has social meaning and can best be understood when seen in the context of the child’s social setting, whether it be the family, the class, his/her peers, or and some other group. The behaviour patterns and conceptions of right and wrong, of others and the society learned by the school and other social settings. Outside the home, the child encounters children from other homes who are different from him in behaviour patterns. Given our discussion thus far, try your finger on this quiz.

Self-Assessed Exercise 2.3

1. Outline any three decisions you have taken and corresponding three activities you have embarked upon in relation to your B. A. Primary Education programme in NOUN.

- 1.1
- 2.2.
- 3.3.

That’s quite interesting: Please, clap for yourself. So, let us continue our discussion.

The ability of the child to adjust and accommodate others depends on his socialisation pattern at home. If parents are deficient in the qualities and elements that



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enhance the development of a well-adjusted individual, then the children will be maladjusted inside and outside the home (Ukpong, 1995).

It is imperative for you to remember that man is understood only in terms of his phenomenological field; the world and self as experienced by the individual at the instant of action. It is more important then to know how the child sees the situation or feels about it than to know what has objectively occurred. It is assumed that the child’s behaviour can be understood and makes sense only in terms of the way in which he subjectively views the world. Thus, the child has the capacity to interpret and assign meaning to events that occur around him. According to the Adlerian, although a child’s behaviour may appear inappropriate the child himself/herself believes that this is the most effective way for him to behave at that time. Now think reflectively and attempt the following question.

Self-Assessed Exercise 2.4

1. Have you ever had the experience of a child behaving inappropriate?
.....
If yes what behaviour what behaviour was it?.....
.....

You can see we are making progress in our discussion: Let us continue.

The Adlerians believes that the child’s first experiences came as the child observes and accumulates experiences from members of his family and develops certain attitudes and convictions. His basic pattern of activity is established early in life and is difficult to change. Adlerians proposed that in dealing with the difficult and disturbing child, manifesting the behaviour problems listed in study unit 1, it is important to recognise:

1. The family constellation which essentially refers to the child’s psychological response and his evaluation of his position among his siblings. Studies, for example Nwachukwu (1989) and Onyenekwe, (1993) indicated that children separated from their natural parents, especially their mothers are prone to display abnormal emotional behaviours. In this connection, Lewin (1957) reported that children most closely identified with their fathers (mother absent homes) displayed aggressiveness in ‘doll play sessions’. Similarly, Orutu (1994) states that any sizable brake in a child’s relationship with his mother from 6

months to 5 years may adversely affect the child's personality development, particularly, the ability to socialise with people.

It is noteworthy for you to remember Akang (1982) who reported that in a bid to exercise authority and execute discipline single-handedly the single parent may unguidedly adopt the authoritarian child rearing techniques. This child rearing approach is known to create fear, confusion, anxiety and insecurity in the children – traits which are likely to be manifested in and out of school;

2. the social attitudes within the family which influences the attitudes he eventually develops;
3. the child's goals of the misbehaviour which Dreukurs (1957) formulated as (a) attention getting, (b) power, (c) revenge or the desire to retaliate (d) the display of real or imagined inadequacy and inferiority.

It is important for you to note that the overwhelming moral suggestion in Adlerian writing is that cooperation is 'good' and competition is 'bad'. And most recent literature in psychology emphasises cooperative learning method because competitive learning encourages cheating, stealing, and so on. The family provides the matrix within which the child is moulded and background against which much of his most intense personal life is enacted. It is the primary institution that teaches the basic psychological and social lessons to the young child and it supplies him with his initial models for appropriate and effective behaviour. It may not be surprising, therefore to find that a home that fails to make the important contributions leads to poor personal and social adjustments in the child both at home and in school.

Pringle (1975) acknowledged the saying that 'there are no problem children, only problem parents' to show that it is parent's behaviour that causes problems in their children. The obvious implication of this is reflected in the patterns of parenting and their outcome on children's behaviour. Blanchard and Paynter (1977) reported the interrelations of the child's behaviour problems and the parents' deficiencies when they found that 65 – 75 percent of children with behaviour difficulties in their sample were from homes in which the parental training was markedly at faults in some respect: They identified the faults as harsh disciplinary measures, in consistency, and over-indulgence which all have their bad effects on character formation.



Tilson (1989) summarised the most common undesirable parental practices as disagreement of parents on discipline, friction between parents, nagging the child and comparing him unfavorably with other children, lax or inconsistent discipline, lack of sense of responsibility for training the child, tension between mother and child, waiting on the child too much and bribing and deceiving the child. Other attitude of parents that may be associated with adjustment are the presence of a step-mother, drunkenness, illegitimacy, and lack of adequate facilities for recreation.

We shall now discuss another theory to ensure increased level of understanding.

3.3 Social Learning Theory

Learning theory explanations of adjustment and maladjustment are based on an environmental view of determinism, but emphasis is on how certain tendencies have been shaped by reinforcement rather than by fixation or the influence of unconscious memories. It is important for you to note that the social learning theorists puts special emphasis on experiences stemming from the early dependency of the child. Let us cite an example to ensure your understanding: Biehler (1998) states that compulsiveness in a ten-year old might be explained by the hypothesis that parents frequently rewarded tendencies toward neatness early in life, particularly when the child was dependent on them and eager for their approval. An older child's excessive concern about neatness might be explained as an effort on his part to re-experience the pleasurable sensations associated with early praise, which in turn was associated with satisfaction of physiological needs such as hunger.

Wolf (1986) points out that many undesirable types of behaviour are retained even though they may be unrewarding or actually detrimental: Now why do you think this is so?

Self-Assessed Exercise 2.3

1. State your view to the above question.....
.....
.....
.....
.....



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Wolf argues that one reason for such inconsistencies is that man is not only a learning creature but also a thinking creature. Human beings are influenced not only by first-hand experiences but also by second-hand experiences, such as observations of the behaviour of others or information acquired by listening to others or by reading books.

Hans Eysenck (1970) has formulated a theory that suggests that through genetic endowment some individuals are born with central and autonomic nervous system which affect their ability to learn from, or more properly to condition to, environmental stimuli. It is this conditionality that, in turn set patterns of behaviour that define the individual's personality. It is relevant for you to remember that the main point in Eysenck's theory, as far-as-antisocial behaviour is concerned, is that children learn to control bad behaviour through the development of a 'conscience': this conscience, Eysenck argues, is a set of conditioned emotional responses to environmental events associated with (that is conditioned to) antisocial behaviour.

Let us cite an example: the misbehaving child is reprimanded by an adult, the fear and pain this brings is associated with the antisocial act, thereby making the behaviour less likely to recur in the future – and so the process of socialisation (which we explained in study unit 1) is underway. According to Eysenck, the speed and efficiency of the individual's socialisation are related to that person's personality. Eysenck has defined two dimensions:

- (i) extraversion/introversion, and**
- (ii) neuroticism/stability.**

Both are crucial to the development of a conscience. The theory predicts that certain personality characteristics – specifically high extraversion and high neuroticism – are related to less efficient conditionality: individuals who display these specific personality traits are predicted to be less socialised and more likely to be antisocial (Eysenck and Gudjonsson, 1989).

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this study unit, you have learnt how the Adlerians recognises man. In addition, we explained the Adlerian theory. You have also learnt what should be recognised in



dealing with the difficult and disturbing child. In addition, you learnt learning theory explanations of adjustment and maladjustment.

5.0 SUMMARY

- 1. What you have learnt in this study unit concerns how the Adlerians recognises man.**
- 2. You have similarly learnt what must be recognised in dealing with the difficult and disturbing child at home and particularly in school.**
- 3. In addition, you have learnt the effects of the child's early experiences on adjustment and maladjustment.**
- 4. The study unit has served to introduce you to other study units in the course.**
- 5. The study units that follow shall build upon your understanding of this study unit to ensure clarity, understanding and comprehension.**

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1. 'There are no problem children, only problem parents': From your understanding of our discussion, how will you react to his statement?**

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UNIT 3: THE HUMANISTIC VIEW OF MALADJUSTMENT

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In study Unit 2, we explained how the Adlerians recognises man. You have similarly learnt what must be recognised in dealing with the difficult and disturbing child. In addition, you have learnt the effect of the child’s early experiences on adjustment and maladjustment. The study unit also served to introduce you to other study units in this course material. You can now explain the Adlerian view of man. You are about to study another fascinating study unit. The Humanistic view of Maladjustment. Let us look at what other content you should learn in this study unit as specified in the study unit objectives below.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this study unit, you should be able to:

- 1. Define the concept of motivation**
- 2. Explain the nature of human motivation**
- 3. Describe Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs**
- 4. Outline the implications of Maslow’s theory.**

Travers (1986:204) posits that it is doubtful if any topic is more important to teachers than that of motivation. Most classroom problems such as those of discipline, learning and failure could be resolved if teachers knew more about the issue of motivation and acted upon their knowledge. What then is motivation; this vital factor in human learning and behaviour? Motivation is the energising and maintenance of goal-directed human behaviour (Alhassan, 1983). Motives are needs and desires the goal – directed behaviour attempts to satisfy. Try your finger on the following quiz:

Self Assessed Exercise 3.1

1a. Why do you eat when you feel hungry?

.....
.....

b. Why do you seek sexual satisfaction?

.....
.....

c. Why are you reading this study unit?

.....
.....

The brief answer to all these questions is motivation.

There are certain instances when one is more predisposed to act in a certain way rather than in another way. Often times, this is attributed to what is called motivation. Generally, motivation is referred to the phenomena involved in the operation of drives, incentives and motives.

Atkinson (1964) defines motivation as the arousal of tendency to act to produce one or more effects. Maslow (1943) has advanced the theory of hierarchy of needs and as he puts it, motivation is constant never-ending, fluctuating, and complex and that it is an almost universal characteristic of particularly every organismic state of affairs.

Since people behave in different ways even in the same situation, there is no satisfactory explanation as to why people behave the way they do. Many behaviours are

motivated, that is, they are goal-directed, for example, seeking food, wealth, prestige, academic achievements, and so on. Now try your hand on another quiz.

Self Assessed Exercise 3.2

1. Itemise any five (5) goal-directed behaviours you manifested in the last six (6) days.

- (i)
- (ii)
- (iii)
- (iv)
- (v)

That’s nice of you. Let us continue our discussion.

The behaviours identified above are products of thoughtful actions and careful planning. Hence the organism does not move in a haphazard way. His behaviour is directed towards a specific goal which he sets for himself. Furthermore, there are other types which are neither impulsive nor goal-directed, but they are perfected by our habits. It is generally recognised that since there are different types of behaviour, there should be different ways of explaining them. Motivation involves all types of behaviour and it is therefore difficult to find one theory that would give sufficient explanation to all types.

32 The Nature of Human Motivation

Maslow (1968:190) suggests that ‘we have, each one of us, an essential inner nature which is instinctoid, intrinsic, given, ‘natural’, that is, with an appreciable hereditary determinant, and which tends strongly to persist’. This inner nature is shaped by experiences and interactions with others, but it is also self-created. As Maslow puts it, ‘Every person is, in part, ‘his own project’ and himself’ (p. 199).

Consequent upon the fact that individuals are unique and make themselves, Maslow submit that they should be allowed to make many of their own choices. This implies that parents and teachers should have faith in children and let them grow and help them grow, not try to make them grow or attempt to shape their behaviour. He further argues that the best way to help a child grow is to take into account the nature of human motivation.

Maslow hypothesised that human behaviour is motivated by a number of competing needs that can be arranged in a hierarchy. It is important for you to note that this need hierarchy is a systematic listing of needs in priority order, such that needs further up the hierarchy can be met only after more basic needs have been satisfied. The more basic needs are deficiency needs – needs that must be satisfied for survival. The needs at the very top are growth needs – needs that enhance the person's psychological functioning (see Figure I)

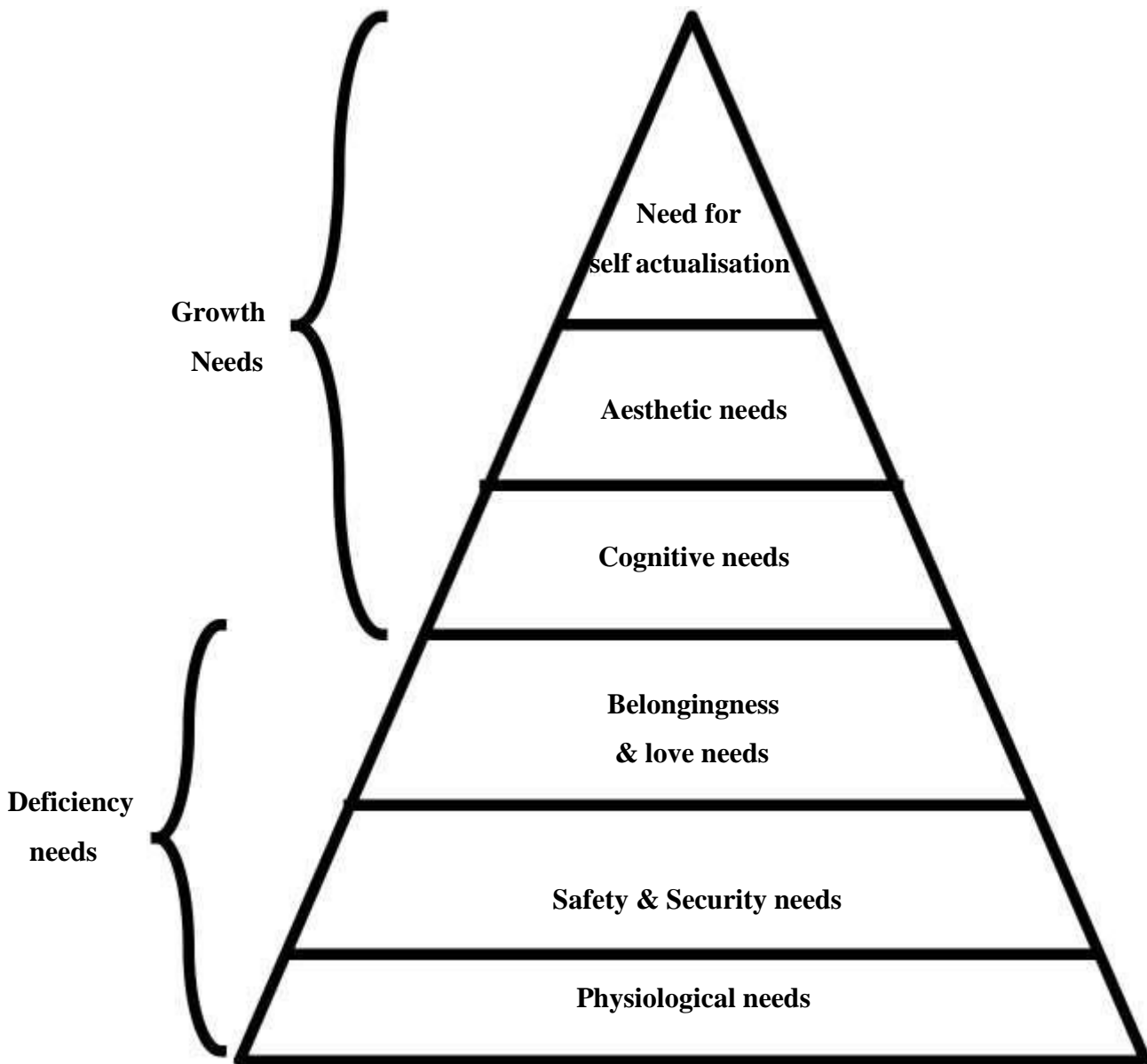


Figure I: The Hierarchy of Needs (Maslow, 1970)

Let us now explain in more detail the six basic needs:

- 1. Physiological needs:** At the lowest level of the hierarchy are physiological needs such as hunger, sex, maternal behaviour, and various sensory pleasures (that is of the senses, for example taste). These needs are of remarkable importance essentially because they are the most prepotent of all man's needs and, if unsatisfied, dominate all activity.
- 2. Safety needs:** These are almost as dominating as the physiological needs. These are illustrated by a child's reaction to noise and light, and generally reflect man's need for a safe, orderly predictable world. It includes the need for shelter, clothing and freedom from fear of personal danger, many parents in Nigeria satisfy the safety need for children. A substantial percentage of parents do not. This generates a severe obligation for other agencies of society particularly the school. Today in Nigeria, both child and adult safety needs are often threatened by societal violence, avoidable communal violence, and state-of-the-art armed robbery incidence.
- 3. Belongingness and love needs:** Travers (1986:206) writes that if the physiological and safety needs are met, the need for love, affection, and belongingness emerges. The individual begins to look to others for satisfaction, both to give and to receive. The educational implications of this need seem obvious: children must feel wanted and experience a sense of affection toward and from the teacher. Remember that children need and want discipline as much as they require love and affection. It is important for you to note that the child's needs for love, acceptance, security, achievement, and status development are satisfied only as he interacts successfully with others.
- 4. Esteem needs:** These are the needs of being worthwhile and capable of making a contribution to society. Real self-respect is based upon achievement, and the esteem needs founded upon actual achievement, manifest themselves in a feeling of confidence and a corresponding desire for recognition by others. Self-esteem is the need to maintain a perception of oneself as a generally competent, strong, independent person. The need for other esteem is the desire to have a good reputation and to obtain recognition and status. Failure to satisfy the esteem needs

is likely to lead to feeling of incompetence, helplessness, and inferiority. It is important for you to note that the lesson for educators seem obvious: Teachers must insure that the task are such that pupils/students can satisfactorily complete them, thus insuring goal achievement and a growing confidence in self and recognition by peers. How the child feels about his ability to cope with tasks assigned to him has an important bearing on his success in those tasks. Davidson and Lange (1960) found that children's perceptions of their teacher's feelings toward them had a positive, significant relation to their self-perception.

5. **Aesthetic needs:** When all the deficiency needs are regularly satisfied, the growth needs, including the cognitive needs for understanding and knowledge, and the aesthetic needs for order and beauty, become dominant motivators. The aesthetic needs are the needs in which one finally comes to a deep understanding of the world and the purpose of life and feel a part of the cosmos. Satisfaction of these needs moves the individual to a higher state of psychological functioning and makes him a more effective person.
6. **Self-actualisation needs:** The very highest need – the capstone of Maslow's hierarchy – is the need for self-actualisation. It is each individual's need to advise all higher capacities, fulfill his/her potentials, and become the best in which one enjoys the experience of creativity and the joy of personal success. The self-actualising person referred to by Maslow as the fully human person, is constantly striving to achieve higher and higher levels of personal growth. He/she is non-defensive, open to experience, spontaneous, problem-oriented, and largely autonomous from the environment (Mittelman, 1995).

It is important for you to note that children whose deficiency needs are not satisfied are very likely to develop one or more of the behaviour problem identified earlier – on. Children whose deficiency needs are well satisfied should be given freedom of choice: This is what Maslow means when he urges parents and teachers to help children grow.

Children's personal-social needs for affection, belonging, acceptance, security, and recognition must be met if children are to succeed in achieving their potential. A number of children perform inadequately in school because their personal-social needs



are not being understood by the teacher. How the child feels about his ability to cope with tasks assigned to him has an important bearing on his success in those tasks.

Davidson and Lange (1960) found that children's perceptions of their teacher's feelings toward them has a positive significant relation to their self-perception. Remember that the child's need for love, acceptance, security, achievement, and status development are satisfied only as he interacts successfully with others. As he experiences satisfaction in his encounters in his social world, receives recognition for achievement, and is regarded by his teacher as an individual of worth, he is able to accept himself and others. It is now relevant for us to consider some implications of Maslow's theory.

34 Implications of Maslow's Theory

For the teacher of young children the implications of Maslow's theory are numerous: one important implication is that the teacher must take responsibility for ensuring that the lower-level needs of children are satisfied so that they will be more likely to function at higher levels. Not until children are physically comfortable, fed, safe and relaxed, have a sense of belonging and experience self-esteem are they likely to be interested in satisfying the need to understand and know.

To the extent that the child is not inhibited by fear, he feels safe enough to dare, explore, experiment.

The child must feel safe and self-accepting to interact with his environment. If he is free to select those experiences, which bring him delight, he will return to them again and again up to the point of repletion, satiation, or boredom. The teacher or adult must recognise the signals that show that he is ready to move on to more complex, richer experiences and accomplishment.

As the child experiences success, it is evident that not only is he progressing, but he is gaining confidence and his actions speak loudly: 'This I like'. By-products of success in new ventures are feelings of capability, mastery, self-trust, and self-esteem.

In the unending series of choices life demands, the choice generally will be made in terms of the extent to which the delights of developing and anxieties of safety outweigh the anxieties of development and the security of safety. Only the child who is secure in that his safety needs have been met will be so bold as to venture new risks.



In order to make his choice in terms of his own desires and growing personality, he must be permitted to retain the experiences of delight and boredom as the criteria of the correct choice for him. If the choice is truly a free one, and if the child is not inhibited by trying to please another person, we may expect him ordinarily to choose progression forward.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this study unit, you have learnt the concept of motivation. In addition, we explained the nature of human motivation. You have also learnt Maslow's hierarchy of needs. In addition, you learnt the implications of Maslow's theory generally and particularly for the child in school.

5.0 SUMMARY

- 1. What you have learnt in this study unit concerns the concept of motivation.**
- 2. You have similarly learnt the nature of human motivation.**
- 3. In addition, you have learnt Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs**
- 4. Also, you have learnt the implications of Maslow's theory for the child in school.**
- 5. The study unit has served to introduce you to other study units in the course.**
- 6. The study units that follow shall build upon your understanding of this study unit to ensure clarity, understanding and comprehension.**

6.0 Tutor - Marked Assignment

- 1. (a) From your understanding of our discussion, how will you define Motivation? 3mks.**
(b) What is hierarchy of needs? 2mks.
(c) Briefly explain the first two (2) needs. 5mks.

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UNIT 4: POTENT FACTORS IN BEHAVIOUR PROBLEM

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In unit 3, we define the concept of motivation. You have similarly learnt the nature of human motivations. In addition, you have learnt the description of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. The study unit also served to introduce you to other study units in this course material. You can now make an outline of the implications of Maslow's theory. You are about to study a very interesting study unit: **Potent Factors in Behaviour Problem**. Let us take a closer look at what other content you should learn in this study unit as specified in the study unit objectives below.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this study unit, you should be able to:

- 1. Define the term Life-space in relation to behaviour**
- 2. Explain the term Self-concept and behaviour**
- 3. Describe discouragement in relation to behaviour.**
- 4. Explain reality approach within the context of behaviour.**



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3.0 MAIN CONTENT
3.1 Life-Space and Behaviour

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Kurt Lewin (1890 – 1947) was a German-American psychologist who developed a favourite way of viewing a child’s behaviour: This he did by plotting behaviour visually as a map of the child’s life-space. So, what does he mean by life-space?: I can see you are eager to know. Let us go on with our definition of life-space. By the term life-space he meant all the different forces influencing the child’s thought processes at the moment the child is making a decision about how to act.

Amongst these forces are pertinent memories of the past that the child brings to bear on the incident, the child’s physical state at the time (for example degree of hunger or fatigue), and whatever the child is perceiving at the moment in the environment. Inevitably, some of these forces push the child to act one way, and some push him to act another way. The child’s final decision is the result of the stronger collection of forces winning out over the weaker collection. Try your finger on this quiz:

Self Assessed Exercise 4.1

1. If you are to embrace Lewin’s view, what will be your suggestion with respect to behaviour problem in the classroom?

.....

That’s a good attempt. Let us continue our discussion.

The Lewinian perspective to behaviour problem is to be viewed with reference to the particular child, his physical- and psychological-environment. The next section in this study unit will examine other potent factors in behaviour problem.

3.2 Self-Concept and Behaviour

Erikson (1963) points out that children gain their first experience with life outside the home when they enter school. In the classroom, they get their first taste of what will be a critical part of their lives: applying themselves to given skills and tasks which go far beyond the mere playful expression of organ modes or the pleasure in the function of



limbs. That is, children learn that they need to work and ‘to win recognition by producing things’ (p. 259).

It is important for you to note that a child whose effort in school are successful will develop a sense of industry. Erikson notes, ‘This is socially a most decisive stage’: since industry involves doing things beside and with others, a first sense of division of labour and of differential opportunity, that is a sense of the technological ethos of the culture develops at this time’ (p. 260). Remember that a child who does not do well in school, has no confidence in being able to do things ‘beside and with others’, and fails to achieve any status with peers will develop a sense of inadequacy and inferiority.

Nwachukwu (1989) defines self-concept as a reflection of who the individual is and what he/she thinks about himself/herself in three dimensions:

- (i) ‘Self as seen by me’,
- (ii) ‘Self as seen by others, and
- (iii) ‘the ideal self’.

Hansen (1992) and Corey (1994) posits that, where discrepancy exists between how an individual sees himself or herself or how he would like to become (ideal self) and the reality of his performance or achievement in whatever endeavour, might result in psychological maladjustment.

According to Gerow (1986), maladaptive behaviours stem from maladaptive cognitions which, in most cases, are simply unrealistic beliefs about one’s self and one’s environment. Further, Beck in Gerow (1986: 564) argues that people with psychological disorders tend to have very negative self-image. For Rogers (1989) most of the ways of behaving which are adopted by the organism are those which are consistent with the concept of the self. Rogers made several postulates, one of which states that , psychological adjustment exists when the concept of self is at least roughly congruent with all the experiences of the organism. The obvious implication of this is that where experiences are in conflict with the concept of self, they are likely to result in maladaptive behaviours of defences, some of which might be in conflict with the rules and regulations of the school system or even with the societal law.

Alhassan (1993: 238-239) states that as the child’s self-concept is formed it commences to influence his behaviour: warm, friendly, expecting to succeed or cold,



hostile, and anticipating rejection. Olowu (1983) observed that family variables such as parent's characteristics, values and self-acceptance are supposedly relevant to children's self-concepts; while Salawu (1991) observed that the amount of time one spends with a person is one of the chief determinants of how significant that person will be in his life and how much influence his attitudes, values and behaviour will have on one's behaviour and on his attitude toward self.

The school, with its teachers and counsellors, is in an enviable position to help children to acquire a positive self-concept that will serve as an enduring shock-absorber for the buffets of life. The child attains ideas, attitudes, opinions, and values by learning – either by conscious commitment or by a form of conditioning. The school can, therefore, aid the child in his self-evaluation by encouraging healthy perceptions of his environment. This is done by providing experiences that lead to success and pleasure, thus inspiring him to see his environment as friendly, and not hostile.

Self - Assessed Exercise

1a. Do you think the school is well positioned to help children acquire positive self-concept?

.....

b. Briefly explain your answer in (a) above.

.....
.....
.....
.....

We should continue with our discussion.

33 Discouragement and Behaviour

A most potent factor that underlie most misbehaviour is discouragement (Dreikurs, 1957). Children whose morale is generally good are inclined to do the things that are expected of them provided, of course, that the expectations are reasonable. If a child's morale is good, he sees some point in trying to learn and to behave in socially acceptable ways. The child who is discouraged, however, may behave in disruptive ways in the classroom because he sees no point in being cooperative and agreeable. This

misbehaviour is what Dreikurs called an ‘attention-getting’ mechanism because it serves the purpose of drawing attention to him.

It is relevant for you to note that it is quite possible for discouragement to express itself in other ways: for example, in reading problems, withdrawing behaviour, or even in attitudes of extreme dependence. Akanbi and Lasisi (1984) write that pictures make a significant contribution to primary school reading comprehension. Some are able to express their dependence in a charming and attractive way that serves to flatter the teacher’s ego. Dreikur’s description of their behaviour qualifies to be paraphrased:

These children follow the teacher’s order exactly, tempting her to give them special attention and more than their share of help. Because they are so dependent, they have no initiative of their own, and few teachers bother to get them involved in projects that require them to behave independently. The underlying discouragement of these children is seldom apparent and may appear only when a teacher becomes impatient at the chronic passivity. Such children are actually more discouraged than those who use active-destructive methods to gain the attention of the teacher. The latter can be encouraged to channel their energy into constructive activities, but changing a passive child into an active one is difficult (p. 49).

It is to be noted that the task of encouraging pupils, either aggressive or passive, and of building up their sense of adequacy and optimism – morale- is not an easy one. As if this is not enough, the school itself often contributes to the child’s sense of discouragement by setting perfectionistic standards and by making failure appear disgraceful. Factually, a certain amount of failure is normal in learning – only seldom do we achieve complete success the first time we attempt a new task of skill.

The problem of getting parents to develop more supportive attitudes toward their children is even greater. Today, the nation’s primary school system has grown and the situations are not likely to be any different substantially. In actuality, some parents display much anxiety when their child is not at the head of his class and become upset at any indication that his performance is anything less than ‘perfection’. We shall now examine reality approach in relation to behaviour particularly among children.

34 Reality Approach and Behaviour

The reality approach is a cognitive-behavioural approach developed by William Glasser. Its basic assumption is that the individual has to meet basic psychological needs



in order to develop a success identity. These are the need to love the need to feel that he is worthwhile to himself and to others. If these needs are not met, the child develops a failure identity and hence engage in delinquent and other maladaptive behaviours. According to Glasser (1965:xiii)

... to be worthwhile, we must maintain a satisfactory standards of behaviour. To do so, we must learn to correct ourselves when we do wrong and to credit ourselves when we do right. If we do not evaluate our own behaviour or having evaluated it, if we do not act to improve our conduct where it is below our standards, we will not fulfill our needs to be worthwhile and will suffer as acutely as when we fail to love or be loved.

Responsibility is described as the process by which a child meets his or her needs for love and self worth without infringing on the right of others. Acting responsibility implies a sense of right and wrong. In order to be responsible, people must be exposed intimately to others who care enough about them both to love and to discipline them.

Reality therapy maintains that a real world exists beyond an individual's subjective view of the world. Such a world consists of hard facts of everyday living, such as the fact that one does not get everything one wants or desires. A fully functioning individual operates within the constraints of the real world and attempts to meet his needs within those constraints.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this study unit, you have learnt the definition of life-space in relation to behaviour. In addition, we explained self-concept and behaviour. You have also learnt discouragement in relation to behaviour. In addition, we explained reality approach within the context of behaviour.

5.0 SUMMARY

- 1. What you have learnt in this study unit concerns the term life-space in relation to behaviour.**
- 2. You have similarly learnt what is meant by self-concept and behaviour.**
- 3. In addition, you have learnt discouragement in relation to behaviour.**
- 4. Also, you have learnt reality approach within the context of behaviour.**

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Within the context of behaviour, distinguish between self-concept and life-space.

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UNIT 5: THE SCHOOLS AND BEHAVIOUR

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- 6.0 Tutor -Marked Assignment**
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In study unit 4, we defined the term Life-space in relation to behaviour. You have similarly learnt what is meant by self-concept and behaviour. In addition, you have learnt the description of discouragement in relation to behaviour. The study unit also served to introduce you to other study units in this course material. You can now explain reality approach within the context of behaviour. Well done for your active participation in our discussion thus far. You re about to study a most fascinating study unit: **The School and Behaviour Problem**. It is the last study unit in Module I. Let us take a closer look at what other content you should learn in this study unit as specified in the study unit objectives below.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this study unit, you should be able to:

- 1 Explain the term effective school**
- 2 Describe the teachers behaviour in effective school**
- 3 Explain morals and cognition as an approach of understanding behaviour problem.**

The school can also be an important factor in understanding behaviour problem. We can see this in some of the research findings on effective schools and persistent absenteeism (Reynolds, 1977, Galloway, 1985, and Alhassan, 1988).

Emotional climates of effective schools are warm and accepting. These schools are happy places where administrators do not rigidly impose rules on teachers and pupils. Such schools are concerned about discipline and special provisions are made to minimise discipline problems (Stedman, 1987). Rosenshine and Berliner (1978) reported pupils not exhibiting behaviour problem in class (among others) as an indication of effective teaching.

A vital method of perceiving quality of teaching is observable indications of effective teaching indicated by pupil's behaviour as given in the Table below:

Table I: Observable Indications of Effective Teaching: Pupils' Behaviour and Performance

1. Pupils show knowledge and understanding, skill and attitudes intended by the curriculum as measured by performance on tests.
2. Pupils exhibit independent behaviour in learning curriculum content.
3. Pupils exhibit behaviour which indicates a positive attitude towards teacher and peers.
4. Pupils exhibit behaviour which indicates a positive attitude towards the curriculum and the school.
5. Pupils exhibit behaviour which indicates a positive attitude towards themselves as learners.
6. Pupils do not exhibit behaviour problems in class.
7. Pupils seem actively engaged in learning academically relevant material while the class is in session.

Rosenshine and Berliner (1978) in a research on teaching have concluded that this indicator, which they described as academic engaged time, is an important factor in school achievement. By academic engaged time, Rosenshine and Berliner mean the amount of time the pupil spends on reading, writing or other activities which involve the pupil in



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learning academically relevant material. Time spent on other activities was negatively associated with the pupils' achievement.

Observational studies of teaching suggest that the effective teacher is one who is able to demonstrate the ability to bring about intended learning goals, the two critical dimensions of effective teaching being intent and achievement. Without intent, the pupil's tasks become random and accidental rather than controlled, and the achievement become unpredictable. The achievement of intended learning goals is of great importance because without achievement of his intended learning goals, the teacher cannot truly be called effective.

A number of studies have shown that children and adolescents who spend long periods away from school believe that their teachers are condescending to them and their work, for example, Reid (1985). Wickman (1987) wryly comments that there can be little doubt about the type of discipline maintained by the teacher who frowned upon the following as examples of behaviour problem:

- the child whispering when she/he should be working,
- not putting pens down when told to do so,
- raising hands when standing,
- asking to leave the room when not necessary, and
- talking aloud in the library.

Now try your finger on this quiz.

Self – Assessed Exercise 5.1

1. Reflect on your classroom experiences as a pupil/teacher in your school days: Make a list of any five (5) examples of behaviour problem.

- (i)
- (ii)
- (iii)
- (iv)
- (v)

That's nice. Let us continue our discussion.

It is important for you to note that the teacher's behaviour is under the searchlight:

If the child's behaviour can be thought of as social behaviour, so the teacher's action in

the classroom can be considered in the same way. The teacher's social perception, decision-making, conception of social rules, understanding of the child's behaviour, and social skills interact with those same elements of their pupils' behaviour. Where there is concordance between teacher and pupil then, like the two skilled table tennis players maintaining the flow of their game, successful and mutually reinforcing social exchanges can take place. Conversely, if one player is playing according to the rules of table tennis but the other is playing football, then the result is at best chaos, and at the worst open conflict.

It is clear from the work of Michael Rutter and his associates (1979) that different schools have different characteristics which, in turn, promote different rates of behaviour problem. The researchers found a range of organisational factors related to the schools and their operation that were correlate with pupil conduct. These factors included the degree of emphasis placed on academic matters, the school's system of reward and punishment, the pupil's participation, and responsibility for school activities, and the stability of teaching and peer groups within the school – most of these factors were similarly reported by Reynolds (1977) and Alhassan (1988).

In effective schools, pupils know that a good teacher 'cares' and that caring is displayed in overt conduct, such as regular and timely attendance, well-organised lesson plans, reasonably ordered classes, routinely assigned and appropriately graded homework, friendly but authoritative relationships with pupils, purposeful use of class time, and supportive relationships with colleagues.

3.2 Morals, Cognition and Behaviour Problem

Another psychological approach toward understanding behaviour problem in children is one that focuses on the child's cognitive and moral development. This approach is associated with Jean Piaget and Jerome Bruner and Lawrence Kohlberg. Essentially, the way the child perceives, understands, and constructs his world is the thrust of this approach.

According to Piaget, the child actively attempts to make sense of his/her environment and so adapt to their surroundings. This process of adaptation is guided and directed by the child's cognitive structures or schemas of their environment.



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It is important for you to note that as children mature through distinct developmental stages (that you learnt in the course on Psychology of Learning), so their cognitive structure become more and more complex. Essentially, the children’s behaviour is directed by their cognitive map of the world. What does this mean? This means that the information from which the map is drawn is of vital importance. Thus, if the child is faced with an inconsistent social world, then the child’s schema will become more and more idiosyncratic. Thus behaviour problem is the result of a lack of consistency in the cognitive structures of those involved: specifically, the teacher has one way of seeing and understanding the world, the child a different way: the differences in their behaviour as guided by their respective schema that gives rise to problems. Where pupils are divided into separate groups by criteria of ability and/or attainment certain effects ensure.

You should remember that there is a correlation between low ability and antisocial behaviour: it is not absolute correlation by any means, but where division by ability is practiced the pernicious phenomenon of the sink group emerges and the sink group can be disruptive influence not only within its own classroom but throughout the school. Such groups can take up disproportionate amounts of staff time and energy in what may amount to a containing exercise. The schools objective are in reality cognitive and curricular rather than expressive and personal. The potentially difficult pupil often becomes actively disruptive in the classroom because high achievement levels in the various subjects are insisted upon.

Self – Assessment Exercise 5.2

1. From your understanding of our discussion, identify any four (4) types of behaviour by the school teacher that may generate behaviour problems in pupils.
 - a.
 - b.
 - c.
 - d.

Quite interesting. Let us continue our discussion.

Kohlberg, like Piaget, argues that moral reasoning develops in a sequential fashion as the child attains maturity. In the initial stages, moral reasoning is concrete in orientation, being concerned with deferring to authority, avoiding punishment, and



satisfying one's own needs and wishes. With maturity comes a growing sense of social responsibility and an acknowledgement of the rights of others in society.

It is to be noted that the relationship between morality and behaviour is not always predictable: a number of well-known experiments in psychology have shown that people will behave in ways they believe to be wrong (Asch, 1996, Milgram 1999). While moral reasoning is an aspect of cognition, a cognitive amount of bad behaviour would necessarily be extensive, covering areas such as intellectual functioning, self-concept, social cognition and so on. This type of explanation for behaviour problem places the causes of the behaviour on some complex system within the child.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this study unit, you have learnt the term effective school. In addition, we described the teachers behaviour in effective school. You have also learnt morals and cognition as an approach of understanding behaviour problem. You learnt that the way the child perceives, understands and constructs his world is the thrust of this approach.

5.0 SUMMARY

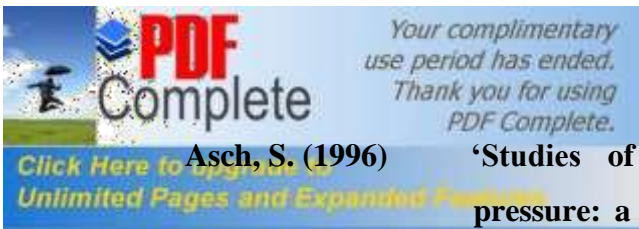
- 1. What you have learnt in this study unit concerns the term effective school?**
- 2. You have similarly learnt the description of teachers behaviour in effective school.**
- 3. In addition, you have learnt the explanation of morals and cognition as an approach of understanding behaviour problem.**

6.0 Tutor – Marked Assignment

- 1. Identify ten (10) characteristics of effective schools within the context of behaviour problem.**

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MODULE II

Unit 1: Disruptive Child in Schools

Unit 2: Categorisation of Behaviour Problem

Unit 3: Techniques of Shaping Behaviour

Unit 4: Operant Conditioning Processes and Managing Behaviour Problems

Unit 5: The Teacher and Reinforcement

UNIT 1: THE DISRUPTIVE CHILD IN

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 - 3.4 Determining Normalcy of Behaviour**
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- 7.0 References/Further Readings**

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In study unit 5 of Module I, we discussed the concept of effective school. You can now describe the teacher's behaviour in effective school. You are now in a position to explain morals and cognition as an approach to understanding behaviour problem. You are about to study a topic that is refreshing and stimulating. Let us look at what other content you should learn in this study unit as specified in the study unit objectives below.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this study unit, you should be able to:

- 1. Define what is meant by the disruptive child**

2. **Explain teachers view of behaviour problem**
3. **Outline behaviour problems identified by teachers.**
4. **Determine normalcy of behaviour.**

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Conceptual Clarification

A disruptive child is a child who, knowingly or unknowingly, effectively and frequently disrupts his own education and the education of others. Fortunately the percentage of seriously disruptive children in a school is usually small (about 5), but unfortunately just one chronically disruptive child can damage the education of a great number of children. As David Bell, Chief Inspector of Schools in England, U.K. puts it, 'Teachers have to have regard for the education of all other children in the school. Their education must not be disrupted by the behaviour problems of other children' (Ofsted Report, 2009: 21).

The disruptive child is very much an extrovert dependent on an audience. The disruptive child may be backward or normal academically although the inevitable outcome of his negative behaviour is such that he often becomes a low – or under – achiever. Lovell (1987) individually identified such children as physically muscular, less methodical than other pupils, tending to focus on the concrete rather than the abstract as coming from less caring or less organised families.

Yet another source suggests that eight of the most salient of forty-one major characteristics of American pupils who were a disturbance in class were, in order of importance, low socio-economic status, low-income family, work-rather than school-oriented, low mental ability, lacking interest in school, retarded at school, parents anti or indifferent to school, and a long record of failure in school work, especially reading (Blough, 1978).

It is important for you to note that these pupils, like other individuals, have hopes, interests and expectations which must be respected. As we discussed in Module I study unit, Maslow states that individuals have a hierarchy of needs which stem bodily and security needs through the need for achievements, respect, love and ultimately for self realisation. But the curriculum in many primary schools fails to provide the potentially

disruptive child with what he requires in the way of adequate aims, security, organisation, content and guidance facilities.

Any solution must depend upon the qualities of the staff and the number of disruptive pupils, but there are study of disruptive pupils in Malawi which may be adapted to particular circumstances. The objective is to meet the needs of disruptive pupils more adequately than hitherto by applying the following strategies:

- 1) **The curriculum should consist initially of learning a basic core of traditional skills supplemented with free-choice open-ended topics;**
- 2) **A reappraisal of the aims of the school curriculum;**
- 3) **The compartmentalisation of the school into smaller self-contained units;**
- 4) **Individualised learning should be encouraged where possible;**
- 5) **Assessment should be biased towards the encouragement of expressive rather than cognitive attributes and towards the measurement of individual progress rather than comparison with group norms;**
- 6) **Highly disruptive pupils should be allocated to a special class and suspension might be considered for a few of the more serious cases;**
- 7) **A guidance system should be used to improve the efficiency of the curriculum process and to help with individual learning, and emotional problems of pupils;**
- 8) **The prevailing theme should be cooperation rather than competition, senior teachers assisting new and junior teachers, more able pupils helping the slower ones: This is consistent with the Adlerian position we discussed earlier in Module 1 study unit.**

3.2 Teacher Perception of Behaviour Problem

Teachers view the activities of disruptive children as being undesirable because they tend to reduce the effectiveness of the classroom as a place in which learning takes place (Alhassan, 1992). Consequently, even those teachers who are generally tolerant of interruptions and committed to encouraging relatively unconstrained self-expression on the part of pupils find that it is hard to maintain a good environment for learning. Even the comparatively few liberal and pupil-centered teachers require a degree of peace and quiet in their classrooms, and freedom from noise disruptions. A recent report from



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Ofsted states that education inspectors in England, United Kingdom provided evidence that schools remains reluctant to be ‘inclusive’ if it means accepting pupils with behaviour problems. It is obvious that schools have difficulties when it comes to behaviour problems (http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/uk_news/education/3734370.stm).

Now try your finger on this quiz.

Self – Assessed Exercise 1.1

1. What will be your immediate reaction to noise making and interruptions by pupils in your class?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

You are getting it right. Let us continue.

In actuality, many teachers had actually brought discussion or explanation of the day’s lesson to a halt to enable such teachers direct attention to one or more pupils whole disruptive behaviour was making it impossible to continue. In its broadest sense, behaviour problem is a term that applies to any kind of behaviour that creates difficulties (interferes with the effective functioning of the pupil or the classroom group) or reveals the presence of difficulties (indicates that the pupil or the group is not functioning effectively).

3.3 Teachers and Behaviour Problems

Full-time career teachers are likely to be more sophisticated than they used to be, with respect to evaluating the behaviour of their pupils. This sophistication is sharpened by classroom experience. Glavin and Guay (1989) notes that the use of teacher judgment in referring to psychologically disturbed children is generally justified, as teacher estimations may be regarded as an index of psychological maladjustment. Most teachers are primarily concerned with the effect that a child’s behaviour has on their educational programme and are often unaware of the psychological bases for the misbehaviour.



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It is important for you to remember that teachers are more effective in identifying the one who acts up or acts out than in sensing the inward disturbance of the child who is deeply upset but hides it. The increasing incidence of behaviour problem is the concern of teachers across the world (Galloway, 1995). Among the behaviour problems identified by teachers are fighting, disregards of the rights of other children, interfering with the work of other children, impoliteness, arrogance, rudeness, verbal abuse, unseriousness, eating in the classroom, sleeping in the classroom, hindering other children (HOC), non-completion of homework, noise-making, restlessness, walking about class, running about class, writes on wall, and shouts at teacher.

Self – Assessed Exercise 1.2

1. From your understanding of our discussion, briefly explain any two (2) grounds on which the above listed behaviours are problematic

- i)
-
-
- ii)
-
-

You really are on top of this study unit. Let us continue our discussion.

Obviously, you can see that from the above list, the term behaviour problem covers a multitude of activities. In addition, it is clear that, to a greater or lesser extent, such behaviours are problematic on a number of fronts:

- 1) they are problematic because they provoke and offend members of the teaching profession;
- 2) they are problematic because they are detrimental to the educational progress of the ‘bad child’;
- 3) they are problematic because such behaviours and associated educational failures may well have untoward effects later in the child’s life;
- 4) they are problematic because they may hinder and disrupt the educational and social progress of the ‘good children’ who share a classroom with the ‘bad children’.



A primary function of the classroom teacher is to facilitate learning. When children in a class behave in ways that interrupt the classroom programme then some form of intervention can be justified. Children manifesting behaviour problems can interfere with the academic progress of other pupils as well as impede their own learning (Rutter, et. al., 1979), while classroom problems have been shown to be a major cause of stress among primary school teachers (Galloway and associates, 1982).

3.4 Determining Normalcy of Behaviour

Many psychologists agree with Coleman et. al. (1984) that the best criteria for determining normalcy of behaviour is whether or not the behaviour fosters the well being of the individual and the society. Thus behaviour are considered adaptive if they enhance both the maintenance and actualisation of potentials of the individual or group, or maladaptive if they inhibit the same process.

The teacher who is interested in fostering and promoting classroom learning cannot afford to ignore the psychological problems of his pupils and thus must have some understanding of the various symptoms of what we have defined as behaviour problem.

In the open expressive atmosphere of a good primary school many maladjustments and behaviour disturbances emerge. It is often said that educational failure, particularly difficulty in learning to read, and maladjustment go hand in hand; and there is little doubt that continued failure – particularly when school or home apply misguided and ineffective pressure and punishment – has a seriously disturbing effect upon general personal morale.

It seems probable also that in a number of cases behaviour problems will inhibit learning or at least some important aspects of it: Let us cite an example: a refusal to learn to read may be the only way for a child to express his rejection of an environment which he perceives as itself rejecting and aggressive.

As children move through their school lessons and activities, pupils are confronted with many academic and personal challenges. These pressures may lead virtually every pupil, at one time or another, to misbehave in the classroom. All those who teach must recognise this reality. Every child, if he is to live a reasonably



satisfactory life, has to come to terms with society. The school has a duty to train its pupils in social living.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this study unit, you have learnt the definition of the disruptive child. In addition, we explained teacher's view of behaviour problem. You have also learnt the behaviour problems identified by the teachers. In addition, you learnt what determines normalcy of behaviour.

5.0 SUMMARY

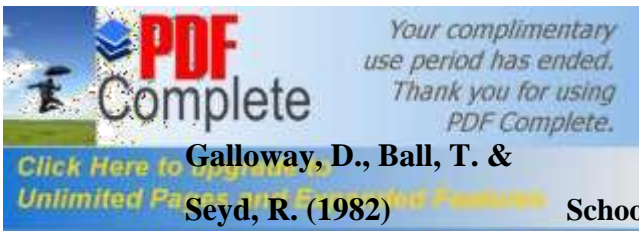
- 1. What you have learnt in this study unit concerns the term disruptive child.**
- 2. You have similarly learnt the explanation of teacher's view of behaviour problem.**
- 3. You also learnt the behaviour problems outlined by the teachers.**
- 4. In addition, you have learnt what determines normal behaviour**

6.0 TUTOR – MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1. Identify and briefly explain the fronts on which the schools child's behaviour may become problematic.**

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UNIT 2: CATEGORISATION OF BEHAVIOUR

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In study unit 1, you learnt the definition of the disruptive child. You can now explain teacher's view of behaviour problem. You have also learnt the behaviour problems identified by the teachers. In addition, we explained what determines normalcy of behaviour. You are about to study another fascinating aspect of behaviour problem. Let us look at what other content you should learn in this study unit as specified in the study unit objectives below.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this study unit, you should be able to:

- 1. Explain what is meant by conduct problems**
- 2. Identify specific examples of such conduct problems**
- 3. Describe personality problems**
- 4. List examples of personality problems**
- 5. Explain the characterisation of emotional – social immaturity problems.**

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Conduct Problems

Conduct problems consist of behaviour that is grossly disturbing to others and may in fact be directed against them, in that it is hostile, aggressive, destructive and or disobedient. Conduct problems are more likely to characterise the behaviour of children who are relatively free of anxiety, that is, who do not have enough ‘normal anxiety’ to feel any concern for the rights and feelings of others or for the consequences and implications of their behaviour. The following are conduct problems identified in Nigerian schools by teachers in an investigation conducted by Alhassan (1996):

Table 1: Conduct Problems Manifested by Pupils in the Classroom

1.	Vandalism
2.	Aggression
3.	Bullying
4.	Disobedience
5.	Fighting
6.	Disregards of the rights of other children
7.	Interfering with the work of other children
8.	Verbal abuse
9.	Damages class furniture
10.	Spits on floor
11.	Spits at other pupil
12.	Carries on distracting conversation with others
13.	Mimics other pupil
14.	Shouts at teacher
15.	Quarrelsomeness
16.	Rudeness

Source: Alhassan (1996)

Self Assessed Exercise 2.1

1. **Take a closer look at the list of conduct problems: Do you think such behaviours are likely to be noticed by the classroom Teacher?**

.....



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Give one reason for your answer above

That's fine. Let us continue with our discussion.

Obviously, conduct problems are the type that are more likely to come to the attention of teachers. Although not all classroom disturbances are caused by children with conduct problems, these children are likely to cause or contribute to disturbance and to demand their full share (or more than their share) of the teachers attention. It is relevant for you to remember that children labeled as psychopathic are those having conduct problems.

3.2 Personality Problems

Personality problems are more or less 'neurotic' in character and often take the form of what may be called 'withdrawal behaviour', that is, behaviour suggesting that the child is fearful of others, feels anxious, and is avoiding situations that might expose him to criticism, ridicule, or rejection.

Withdrawn behaviour however is behaviour; the child is actively responding to his environment. He is not "doing nothing". His responses take the form of avoidance and escape behaviour; he is actively withdrawing from contacts with his environment. As the word "withdrawn" suggests, these children have "drawn away" from social interactions that were at one time a part of their behaviour repertoire.

It is to be noted that children troubled by personality problems may also have some degree of hostility but, unless they are placed under an unusual degree of stress, they hold it back or direct it against themselves in the form of guilt or self-criticism. They are usually unaware that they are hostile. The following may be categorised as personality problems identified by teachers:

Table 2: Personality Problems Manifested by Pupils in the Classroom

1.	Stealing
2.	Cheating at exam
3.	Lateness

4. Absenteeism
5. Truancy
6. Inattention
7. Impoliteness
8. Arrogance
9. Temper tantrum
10. Carelessness
11. Withdrawal
12. Self-failure
13. Introvertism
14. Extroversion
15. Restlessness
16. Thumb sucking
17. Enuresis
18. Autism

Source: Alhassan (1996).

Personality problems may result from attempts to cope with much anxiety. The child with personality problem is likely to remain in the background and is thus not easily identified as someone needing help.

33 Problems of Emotional and Social Immaturity

Children with problems of emotional – and social – immaturity are characterised as restless, hyperactive and having a short ‘attention span’. Such problems are shyness, hyperactive, spits on floor, nail-biting, restlessness, wandering attention, and untidiness. The categorisation is meant to aid psychological explanations. Human problems are seldom simple but are infinitely complex and intricate.

According to Lasko (1986), depression in children manifest through expressions of hopelessness, self deprivation, withdrawal, lowered energy and appetite, disturbances and difficulties in school. He identifies other anti-social behaviours in children such as stealing, truancy, drug abuse and aggression. Stone, (1986) in his study of behaviour problems discovers that drug taking is not only found in adolescence but also in children.

Amajirionwu (1981) studied behaviour problems in primary school pupils in Anambra and Imo States and found that primary school pupils in these areas are identified with such behaviour problems as lateness to school, wandering, dishonesty, damage to school property, rudeness, fighting, pilfering, and stubbornness. Denga, (1981) identified stealing, lying, and truancy among Nigerian children, while Nwana (1971) reported that between January 1964 and June, 1966 in 31 schools in the Western Region there were 609 cases of stealing, 541 and 877 cases of serious lying and bullying respectively. According to Ofsted Report (2009), no less than 560 (18.2%) of primary school pupils in England are manifesting behaviour emotional and social difficulties.

Social development appears in any form of behaviour that involves relationships with others, while emotional development refers to feelings and attitudes: this is the aspect of behaviour that psychologists term affective. The preschool years sees the child moderately interested in playmates outside the family – a situation which increases with his level of activity in the primary school years. Inevitably, the child acquires some new models for his behaviour during the school years. For example, teachers and classmates assume an importance that sometimes rivals that of his family (Glavin & Guay, 1989).

From the psychology of preadolescence, we know that during this period, many youngsters are more likely to take their cues from their peers than they are from their family. The obvious implication of this is that parents and teachers must continually emphasise positive school values such as sincerity, honesty, kindness, punctuality, hardwork, and fairness while negative school values – dishonesty, absenteeism, cheating, uncooperativeness, and vandalism – must be continually discouraged and condemned.

In addition to the above, emotional readiness of the child for schooling has to be ensured. This readiness depends heavily on the care and affection he receives from home, the satisfaction of his needs and the psychological climate prevailing in the home. We shall discuss more on this in the study units that follow.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this study unit, you have learnt the description of conduct problems. In addition, we identified specific examples of personality problems manifested by pupils in



primary schools. You have also learnt an explanation of the characterisation of emotional – social – immaturity

problems. 5.0 SUMMARY

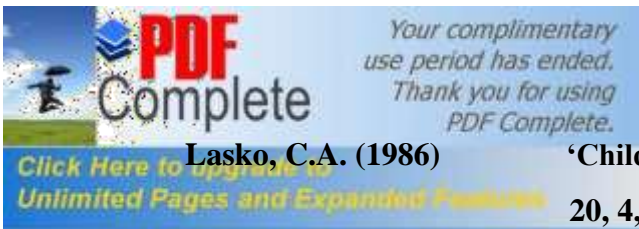
1. What you have learnt in this study unit concerns the term conduct problems.
2. You have similarly learnt specific examples of conduct problems.
3. In addition, you have learnt the description of personality problems.
4. You have also learnt specific examples of personality problems.
5. Finally, you have learnt the explanation of the characterisation of emotional and social – immaturity problems.

6.0 TUTOR – MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. a). Distinguish between conduct problems and personality problems
b). List five (5) examples of each type of problem.

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UNIT 3: HELPING CHILDREN WITH ADJUSTMENT PROBLEMS

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In study unit 2, you learnt the explanation of conduct problems. You can now identify specific examples of conduct problems. You have also learnt the description of personality problems. In addition, you can list personality problems. Further still, you learnt the explanation of emotional and social-immaturity problems. You are about to study a very interesting component of your course. Let us look at what other content you should learn in this study unit as specified in the study unit objectives below.

There are a number of possible approaches to ‘treatment’ of children with behaviour problems, many of which overlap with each other. Three main types of specific help may be offered. They are: 1) Child psychotherapy, 2) Behaviour modification or behaviour therapy approach, and 3) Counselling

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this study unit, you should be able to:

- 1) **Define the concept of Behaviour Modification.**
- 2) **Explain the basic assumptions on the child at school.**
- 3) **Describe the importance of members of the family and teachers in modifying behaviour problems.**

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Child Psychotherapy

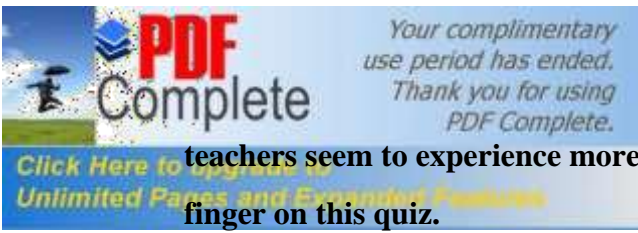
Child psychotherapy has a number of forms. It can include full-scale psychoanalysis adapted for children to varying extents, but essentially following the classical Freudian pattern in which the patient talks about his dreams and uses dream material and free association to help recall and work through earlier conflicts, so arriving at insight into his or her problems. But very few teachers or psychologists consider that even bright, highly verbal children can best work through their problems in this direct way; accordingly, they practice a number of indirect techniques. These include play-therapy approaches in which the child can express his conflicts symbolically and indirectly through painting and water play and the use of other materials.

Symbolic and dramatic play often figure largely in this form of treatment. Sometimes it is carried out with children individually, at others with small groups of two to four children, often carefully matched so that their problems will be complementary and each may help the others.

Although, Freudian processes such as transference are held to occur, the play therapist typically indulges in very little direct interpretation and the child resolves his problems at a level below the fully conscious one. Some therapist work entirely with the patient; at the other extreme, parents or others close to the child may be seen frequently in counseling sessions.

3.2 Modifying Behaviour Problems

We now know that disruptive behaviour are the behaviour problems manifested by pupils in the classroom which are frequently perceive by teachers as troublesome to teachers, or damaging to the future well-being of the child. Naturally, some types of behaviour problems cause more concern than others. Some rebels in some classes are much more difficult to deal with than some other rebels in other classes. Similarly, some



teachers seem to experience more disruptive behaviour than others. Now try your finger on this quiz.

Self-Assessed Exercise 3.1

1a. From your understanding and comprehension of our discussion, will you say you have experienced more/less disruptive behaviour that other teachers in your school/last school?

.....
.....

b. Justify your response in (a) above

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Mba (1978) states that the identification of behavioural maladjustment by researchers as one of the major symptoms of other handicapping conditions in children emphasises the need for all primary school teachers to have some basic knowledge of the symptoms and manifestations management techniques for such children.

The teachers in Alhassan’s (1992) study regarded these traits – stealing, vandalism, bullying self-failure, aggression – as the most detrimental to the future of adjustments of the child. Most teachers and parents at one time or another complain of children’s manners, forgetting how much these are dependent upon the kinds of examples which they themselves set in a number of subtle contexts. Under normal circumstances, children try to behave in a manner which will gain the approval of those around them – members of the family, teachers, peer-group members, people with whom they work, and so on.

Children’s behaviour is conditioned by reactions of parents, teachers, classmates and others in authority. If children admire and respect the teacher, they will try and behave in a way that pleases him. If they don’t admire him they will tend to misbehave. The conduct of teachers is more important than that of pupils in establishing standards because it will tend to be copied by the children.



Teachers who are irregular and absent cannot expect regular and punctual attendance from the pupils. Teachers who are dirty and untidy encourage dirtiness and untidiness. Displays of bad temper, bad language, shouting and physical violence by the teacher may produce similar behaviour among the pupils. Now it is time for another exercise.

Self-Assessed Exercise 3.2

- 1. What do you think we can do to help pupils manifesting disruptive behaviour?**

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.....
.....

Oh yes. You are making progress. Let us continue our discussion.

3.3 Management of Behaviour Problems

The teachers in Alhassan’s (1992) study referred to earlier in our discussion reported that measures adopted for checking behaviour problems, including disruptive behaviours, have remained punitive and coercive. Durojaiye (1972) reported that his subjects mentioned physical (corporal) punishment as the main form of punishment. Utalor (1985 cited in Alhassan, 1992) from a study of Bendel State (now Delta and Edo States) found that measures taken against serious disciplinary problems included corporal punishment, suspension from school, and replacement of property.

As if to lend credence to such coercive measures, the government of Nigeria had at some time, drafted soldiers to maintain ‘discipline’ in schools. The failure of that exercise seems to have driven home the psychological, point that corporal punishment reinforces the punisher, not the punished and that rather than ‘erase’ misbehaviour, punishment suppresses it only for it to find expression sooner than later. It is probable to eliminate maladaptive and disruptive behaviour among pupils and help them develop self-control.



It is important for you to note that educational psychologists, guidance counsellors have tried various strategies for behaviour control in pupils. In some instances, just establishing a ward close relationship with pupils has been found to be effective in dealing with behaviour problems (Boyinde and Adamolekun, 1985); Rogers, (1990). In other instances, an attempt to structure situations which will give pupils some measure of success in school and can make them feel wanted and needed has produced wonders (Miller, 1995, Idowu, 1991). These strategies have been found to work only for some groups of pupils.

Significantly, some parents and teachers believe that ‘discipline’ – stern and invariable – is needed in order to break the spirit of the unruly child. It is to be noted that the purpose of discipline is not to restrict freedom but rather to teach children how to use the social system in which they live in order to maximize their freedom. Human behaviour is complicated, and even the simplest form of behaviour may have many causes: (You must remember or definition of Behaviour discussed in study unit 1). Over – simplification is a common error of even the most ardently scientific students of behaviour. The remediation measures should be based on the therapeutic management of behaviour problems. This should be centred on the interference method.

The interference method should be based on correcting the pathological behaviour of the maladjusted child through counter conditioning, deconditioning and desensitisation. What does these mean? I am sure you are eager to learn what these terms mean. Here are the meanings: Counter conditioning is a behaviour modification technique for strengthening of a response that is opposed to or incompatible with an undesirable stimulus. It is a constructive approach to reduce undesirable behaviour or improving a desirable behaviour. It involves the joint presentation of negative and positive stimuli such that the former becomes neutral or slightly negative.

Desensitisation is behaviour therapy involving a conditioning technique of pairing relaxation with a phobic stimulus through imagery or practice. It is treatment used to lessen anxiety by rendering a previously threatening stimulus mild by repetitive and guided experience to the stimulus under non – threatening conditions. It leads to gradual reduction of anxiety about a particular object, event or situation.



Deconditioning is a behaviour modification technique for the non acquisition of specific patterns of undesirable behaviour. In addition, the interference method should also be

based on manageable relationships and elements in the child's environment, hence there should be the active cooperation and involvement of all that make up the child's environment, including parents, teachers, other children, peers and so on, who can in some way influence his/her behaviour and induce some change. It is important for you to note that therapies in psychotic treatments are normally geared towards three major goals:

- i) **Change the maladjusted child**
- ii) **Change the child's environment, and**
- iii) **Inducing change in the child's interpersonal relationships with parents, teachers, peers and others.**

These goals must be pursued in an integrated manner.

3.4 Behaviour Modification Approaches

The modern origins of behaviour modification with children can be traced to 1924, the year Mary C. James published the case of Peter whose generalized fear of furry objects she had treated by the application of the principles of respondent conditioning. A few years later Krasnigorski (1925), Ivanov-Smolenski (1927) and Gesell (1938) pointed to the relevance of Pavlovian conditioning to the treatment of psychological disorders. But it seems that the time was not ripe for this obvious suggestion, for although Mowrer and Mowrer (1938) described the treatment of bed-wetting by conditioning techniques in the intervening years, it was not until Skinner (1953), Eysenck (1957), Wolpe (1958), and Bandura (1961) pointed out that laboratory-derived and laboratory-tested methods could be applied to the modification of psychological disorders, that behaviour therapy became more widely used.

3.4 The Premises of the Behaviour Therapist

Behaviour therapy is an approach to the alleviation of psychological problems which rests on the premise that these problems represent learned maladaptive behaviour or a failure to have learned adaptive behaviour. The focus is on behaviour as it can be observed in the here-and-now, and the aim of the behaviour therapist is to change that behaviour in the adaptive direction. His premise leads the behaviour therapist to seek



behaviour change through the application of various psychological principles that derive from research in the laboratory where learning has long been the object of systematic study.

35 Theoretical Background

The behavioural therapist seeks to apply known psychological principles in the treatment of behaviour problems. In the case of deficient behaviour the therapeutic task is to establish missing responses; in the case of excess behaviour, the child must learn to modify these responses so as to make his behaviour more adaptive to the demands of his environment. In either case, treatment involves learning which behaviour therapists bring to bear on the analysis and modification of behaviour problems can be discussed under three headings, namely; respondent conditioning, operant conditioning and observational learning. Although, the three may well represent different aspects of the same basic process, and they assuredly interact whenever human learning takes place in a natural environment.

3.6 Respondent Conditioning

At times called Pavlovian or classical conditioning, this kind of learning involves the modification of a response that the organism is innately capable of making by substituting a conditioned stimulus for the natural or unconditioned stimulus. A well-known example is the case of little Albert (Watson and Raynor, 1920) who was conditioned to make a fear response to the stimulus of a white rat by having the rat repeatedly paired with a loud voice – a stimulus that elicits fear, apparently innately. Prior to this conditioning, the rat had been an object of curiosity to the child who was thus shown to have learned to fear the animal. It is a distinctive aspect of respondent conditioning that an innate response is elicited by a stimulus which precedes it and that the organism is passively responding to potent environmental event or external stimuli. The responses in question usually involve the autonomic nervous system, and the respondent conditioning is probably always involved when emotional responses come to be attached to previously neutral stimuli.

A number of phenomena that have been intensively studied in the psychological laboratory are of particular relevance to the behaviour therapist. These are stimulus generalization, extinction, conditioned inhibition and differential inhibition. Wolpe



(1958) and others, who treat maladaptive emotional reactions by what they variously call counter conditioning or reciprocal inhibition, produce a decrement of a conditioned response by eliciting an incompatible response to the same conditioned stimulus.

3.7 Operant Conditioning

In respondent conditioning the environment elicits a response from a primarily passive organism. The situation is essentially reversed the case of operant conditioning. Here, the organism actively emits a response to which the environment reacts that is, the response is instrumental in bringing about an instrumental event. The importance of this sequence lies in the fact that it is the consequence of the response that serves to change the probability of that responses recurrence under similar conditions at a latter time. In technical terminology the sequence of operant conditioning is the presence of a discriminative stimulus, the emission of an operant response and the presentation of a reinforcing stimulus which is usually followed by a consummatory response. The discriminative stimulus thus represents a signal that indicates the likelihood of the appearance of the reinforcing stimulus once the response has been emitted.

Since the operant response cannot be reinforced until it has been emitted, the response must be one that is not the case, someone in the environment –parent, teacher or therapist – must select a similar, already established response and, by selectively reinforcing successive approximations of the desired response, “shape” the necessary behaviour.

In as much as the operant response is a function of its consequences, an examination of possible consequences is essential if one is to attempt the modification of a response. Consequences can fall in one of three classes; positive, negative, neutral. Positive consequences will strengthen the response in the sense that, they will increase the likelihood of its recurrence under similar circumstances; negative consequences will reduce the likelihood of the response that is they will weaken it; while neutral consequences; being those that have no reinforcing effect, will result in extinction.

There are two conditions that can represent positive consequences and two that can represent negative consequences .The presentation of a satisfying stimulation (reward) or the termination or avoidance of noxious stimulation (negative reinforcement) both represent positive consequence ; while the presentation of noxious stimulation

(punishment) or the removal of satisfying stimulation (time-out from positive reinforcement) both represent negative consequences.

A phenomenon which permit a wide range of stimulation to serve as reinforcers is that variously called conditioned, secondary, or acquired reinforcement. A preciously neutral event that repeatedly precedes a reinforcing stimulus takes on reinforcing properties in its own right. This makes it possible to reinforce a child's responses not only with such primary reinforcers as food but also by such secondary rein forces as approval, praise, tokens, or with grades on report card. Premack (1959) has printed out that a response with high probability of occurrence can be used to reinforce work, shouting can reinforce being quiet and so on. The principle of secondary reinforcement also holds in the case of punishment . Thus, when verbal reprimands, frowns, or threats have been paired with the administration of more direct, physical punishment, or the removal of positive stimulation, the more symbolic, social stimuli can acquire punishing properties in their own right.

3.8 Observational Learning

When a response is not in an individual's repertoire, the principle of operant conditioning demands that the desired response must be "shaped" by reinforcing successive approximation. Bandura (1969) has pointed out that, the painstaking process of successive approximation is so inefficient that it lacks survival value in natural setting. Bandura has been instrumental in calling attention to a learning process that seems to play a major role in socialization, the process of observational learning.

When an observer watches a model engage in a given behaviour, three effects can be observed. The observer may acquire new response patterns, previously not in his behaviour repertoire; the consequences of the modeled action to the performer may strengthen or weaken the observer's inhibitory response ; and the observer's previously learned behaviour in the same general class as that displayed by the model may be facilitated. Bandura (1969) stresses that, the acquisition of the response does not require reinforcement of the observer at the time of observing but that the performance of the vicariously learned response may depend on reinforcement contingencies.

At the same time, observational learning requires more than exposing an individual to modeling stimuli, and the absence of appropriate matching responses



following such exposure may result from a variety of factors such as the observer's failure to have attended to the relevant stimuli, his failure to retain what he has learned, a motor deficit that makes it impossible for him to perform the response or unfavourable conditions of reinforcement. Research conducted by Bandura (1969) demonstrates convincingly that observational learning is enhanced when the model's behaviour receives positive reinforcement when the model hold higher status than the observer and when the model is in a power position regard to the observer.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this study with unit, you have learnt the concept of behaviour modification. In addition, we explained the basic assumptions on the child at school. You have also learnt the importance of members of the family and teachers in modifying behaviour problems. In addition, you learnt the interference method and the meanings of counter conditioning, deconditioning and desensitisation as strategies for managing behaviour problems in schools.

5.0 SUMMARY

- 1. What you have learnt in this study unit concerns behaviour modification approaches.**
- 2. You have similarly learnt the premises of behaviour therapist.**
- 3. In addition, you have learnt the theoretical background and respondent conditioning in modifying behaviour problems.**
- 4. Also, you have learnt the operant conditioning and observationing learning in modifying behaviour problems in schools.**

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1a. Define the concept of Behaviour Modification

- b. What do you understand by:**
 - i) Counter conditioning**
 - ii) Desensitisation**

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UNIT 4: OPERANT CONDITIONING PROCESSES AND MANAGING BEHAVIOUR PROBLEMS

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3.1 What is Successive Approximation?

3.2 Application of Successive Approximation and Behaviour Problems

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In study unit 3, you learnt the definition of behaviour modification. You can now explain the basic assumptions on the child at school. In addition, you can describe the importance of members of the family and teachers in modifying behaviour problems. Further still, you learnt the explanation of management of behaviour problems in school. You are about to study another interesting aspect of your course. Let us look at what other content you should learn in this study unit as specified in the study unit objectives below.

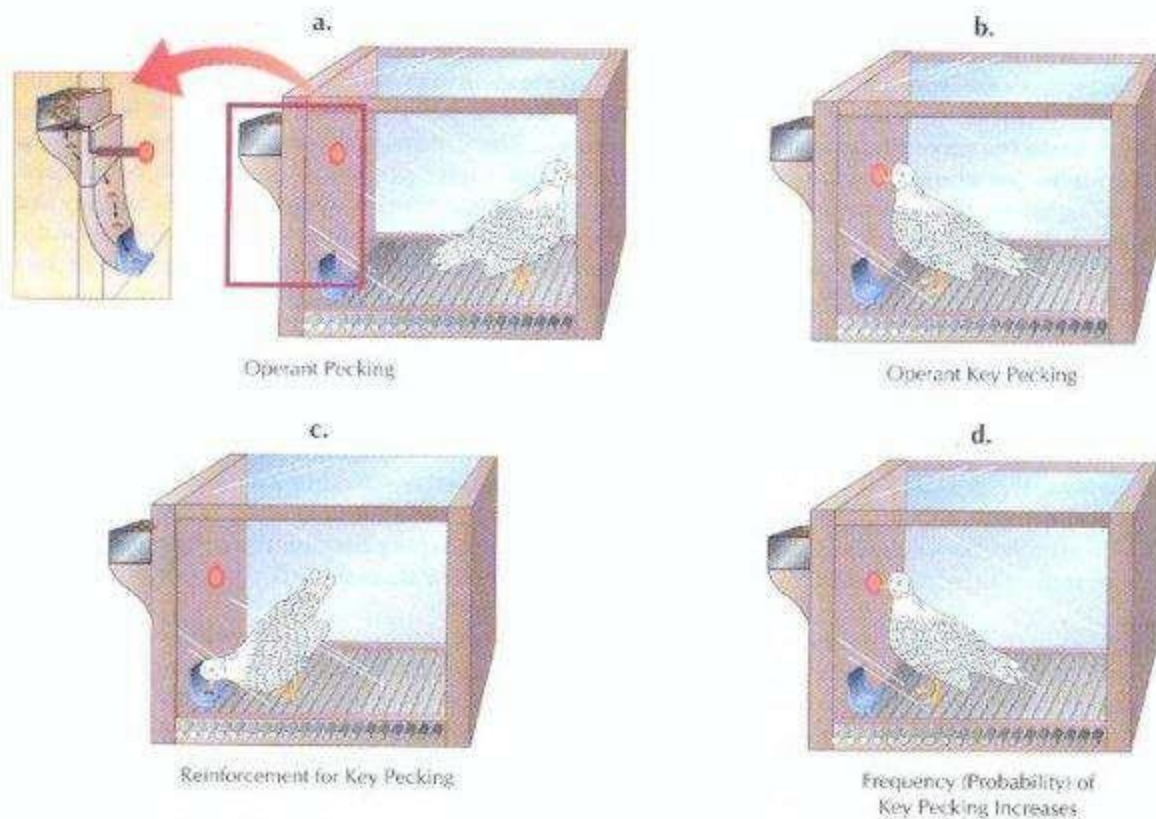
2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this study unit, you should be able to:

- 1) Explain the term acquisition.**
- 2) Describe what is meant by successive approximations of behaviour.**
- 3) Explain what is meant by shaping the desired behaviour.**

The basic process by which new behaviours are acquired is acquisition – an increase in response frequency with repeated reinforcement. To ensure you fully understand our discussion, we shall remind you of what you learnt in the course, Psychology of Learning. Acquisition is the learning phase of Operant Conditioning during which the conditioned stimulus (CS) gradually increases in frequency or strength and conditioned response (CR) first appears and increases in frequency. A new response is learned and gradually strengthened in a stage.

It is important for you to note that the increased key pecking of the pigeon, for example, is an indication of acquisition (see Figure 1 below)



The Operant Conditioning Process Unlike classical conditioning, there need be no prior stimulus in operant conditioning. The pigeon operantly pecks the floor and walls of the box (a), accidentally pecks the key (b), is rewarded for the key peck (c), and increases the frequency with which it pecks the key, rather than pecking elsewhere in the box (d).



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Self – Assessed Exercise 4.1

1. Ever since you matriculated as a student of the National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN), identify any five (5) types of behaviour you have acquired.

- i)
- ii)
- iii)
- iv)
- v)

That’s interesting. Let us continue our discussion

3.2 Successive Approximations and Management of Behaviour Problems

One problem experimenters run into is that they cannot reinforce a response until the participant emits it. Skinnerian experimenters may have to wait a long time for the pigeon to peck the key accidentally, just as parents may have to wait patiently for their baby to smile in order to reinforce this behaviour. It is important for you to note that when we do this, we are reinforcing successive approximations of the behaviour.

We may initially reinforce the pigeon with pellets (food) for simply standing near the key, then for turning toward the key, for approaching it more closely, and finally for pecking it. When we reinforce successive approximations and thus make the response more and more nearly correct, we are shaping the desired behaviour, a procedure that can lead to much more rapid learning than if trial and error is simply allowed to take its own course. Skinner used shaping to teach pigeons to ‘play’ Pong-Pong, and others have used it to show how maladaptive behaviours can develop in rats (Rasey & Iversen, 1993), among many other demonstrations.

It is relevant for you to remember that shaping is not just a laboratory convenience; it is used by parents everyday. Shaping can teach children to eat, dress themselves, or ride a bicycle. In the latter case, parents may reinforce the child with praise for just approaching the bike, then for sitting on the seat with someone holding the bike, for making a series of initial failed attempts to ride, for riding successfully a short distance and finally for mastering the skill. We shall now discuss how you can manage some of the maladjusted behaviours found among school pupils:

Withdrawn behaviour takes the form of avoidance and escape behaviour; he is actively withdrawing from contacts with his environment. The pupil with this behaviour is shy, timid, seclusive, sensitive and submissive. He or she is very dependent and easily depressed. Such a pupil abhors competitions with other children, be it academic or social.

As the word 'withdrawn' suggests, these children have 'drawn away' from social interactions that were at one time a part of their behaviour repertoire.

Management

The following measures could be taken to modify the behaviour of such a pupil: such an individual should be mobilised and not be allowed to remain alone because such a person is prone to inflicting bodily harm to himself and in extreme cases, may even commit suicide. Both in school and at home, such a pupil should be encouraged to get involved in various activities that would enhance socialisation. The cause should be identified and treated accordingly. In addition, there should be adequate love and security from both the teacher and the parents. There should be a positive sense of direction and acceptance to build up the ego of such a child. Finally, the counsellor working with the teacher should encourage the class to have a cordial relationship with the child by using grouping methods to develop the spirit of team work, associate-ship, and so on.

Aggressive Behaviour

Aggression is best viewed as an overt response, a response as Buss (1961) defined it, that delivers a noxious stimulus to another person. The noxious quality of the stimulus can take a variety of forms; hence aggression takes a variety of forms. It can involve the inflicting of physical pain, the withholding of reinforcement, the damaging of property, the presentation of irritating stimuli, the blocking of a consummatory response, or the presentation of negative evaluations. This listing which is by no means exhaustive, immediately suggests the relative nature of this definition. Pain inflicted in the course of medical treatment, reinforcement withheld as part of a teaching program, and the parent's interruption of a toddler's consummatory response of swallowing an object are not considered instances of aggression. Such relativity indicates that under certain conditions, a given response is labeled aggression, while under different conditions, the same response carries a different label. One is thus led to the recognition



that aggression is not an absolute entity but a relative concept whose use is a function of social convention. A response is labeled as aggressive if agents of the social-labeling process consider it capable of inflicting pain, damage, or loss to another individual and if the circumstances are judged not to warrant such an outcome

Reducing Aggressive Behaviour

Traditional treatment approaches for children with problems in this area have primarily focused on the removal of frustration, largely on the no longer tenable assumption that frustration is the prime antecedent to aggression. Since aggression has shown to be a response maintained by its consequences modification of antecedent conditions will reduce the frequency of the aggression response only for as long as these antecedent conditions are kept out of the child's environment.

Hyperactivity

Hyperactive children are unable to control their impulses in situations which demands care, concentrated attention, and organised planning. Such hyperactive children are often out of their seat disrupting other pupils' attention. Hyperactive children act impulsively that is, reacting at first instance. According to Douglas (1972), they have a marked inability to stop, look and listen. Clearly, hyperactive children do not make ideal pupils because they have learning disorders due to excessive extraneous movements.

Management

It is crucial that adequate and timely attention is paid to hyperactivity and impulsive characteristics as they may lead to delinquency. In this connection, the teacher should provide step-by-step lessons that a child can do while seated and the teachers should reinforce such manifested ability as doing lessons and staying seated.

Thumb Sucking

This type of undesirable behaviour is commonly found in children in all cultures. If this behaviour is not stopped, the act may persist till late childhood.

Management

As soon as the act is noticed, special effort should be made to stop the child. The teacher should get the child involved in activities that may require the use of both hand or mouth. The use of operant conditioning may be helpful: For example, when a child is

thumb-sucking and at the same time watching the television, the television is turned-off. If this continues for sometimes, the child associates turning-off of the television to thumb-sucking. The main treatment in this case is changing the surrounding environment so that it will be more receptive to the child. Reinforcement will also be effective in this case; that is, positive reward for practising the desired behaviour.

Vandalism

Both at home and in schools, it is very common to see some children express their anger, envy, jealousy, disappointment, revenge or other unhappy or unfriendly feelings by willfully destroying properties. Such acts could be very vandalistic and such children may be described as vandals. There are, however, pupils who break windows, throw pebbles, at buildings and damage properties in general for some reasons. They might have been neglected with little or no warm relationships with parents and friends. It may well be that such pupils have unsympathetic teachers, and unable to win esteem among their peers in all things they do and thus try to join gangs of young vandals.

Management

It is very important that parents and teachers and guidance counsellors should be very accommodating and show enough warmth and care. They should make the children have sense of belonging and recognition – a development which would accord them a feeling of importance; this could go a long way to boost their ego. There is the urgent need for a sustained good and warm pupil-teacher relationship.

Fighting

It is a common sight to see pupils fighting either at home or in schools. When pupils start quarrelling, hitting one-another, a serious misbehaviour is being manifested. Pupils' unfriendliness or hostile behaviour may be traced to the following reasons: The physically well-built and energetic ones may have the ambition of feeling superior among their peers. They may be feared by the weaklings or the less powerful ones. Some children always attempt to resolve their differences with forces because of the example they have seen from their homes wherein fathers and mothers settle their differences by beating each other physically. Some pupils may resort to fighting after committing a serious offence. Such resort to fighting might be a kind of defensive mechanism to cover-up the offence committed. In our primary schools, pupils are fond of calling themselves

nicknames, most often in the form of abuses. Pupils so nicknamed may become nervous, restless, and may not be able to concentrate in their studies. They sometimes resort to fighting in a deliberate attempt to gain their confidence and assertiveness.

Management

The physically well built and energetic pupils may be encouraged to join clubs in schools such as Judo, Wrestling and such extracurricular activities to meaningfully direct their strength and gain recognition, instead of bullying others. Parents should act as good models at home simply by demonstrating what they preach. In actuality, children are likely to model their behaviour after that of members of their families. This opinion is similar to that explained by Vernon (1973: 90) that:

among all human groups the family is most fundamental, since it moulds the behaviour of the child at this malleable age.

The spirit of sportsmanship should be inculcated in pupils by acknowledging the efforts of the individual pupils in sports. The teacher must be seen as a good model in all his interactions with the pupils. Sanctions in form of corporal punishment should be introduced, but should be carefully handled in other to give the desired effects (result). The teacher should invite the child and interview him on his action; the reason behind it and make him see the need why he should be punished.

Emotional Imbalance

For the normal functioning of individual pupils there should be adequate love and security. Some pupils are not sufficiently loved by their parents partly because such parents have many wives plus many children: such a situation makes for little time for the individual child. In actuality, this author has come across young people who have acknowledged the fact that their parents have rejected them. A pupil feels hopeless when he perceives and acknowledges that he has been rejected by his or her parents. Such a condition may affect not only the emotional well-being of an individual but also his total personality and behaviour. Such a child may cultivate some anti-social forms of behaviour.

Management

The life of a rejected youngster is miserable. This view found expression in the writings of Jersild (1960: 134) who states that:

The lot of a rejected child is bitter. But the possibility exists (while he is still growing up) that someone somewhere will accept him. The lot of a rejecting parent is also bitter. His attitudes is noted in the tragedies of his own life. And, as an adult, he probably is less likely than the rejected child to discover that someone, somewhere, will view him with compassion.

Within the context of the above quotation, classroom teachers must cooperate and work together to help young pupils in remedying and preventing such sufferings. Teachers need to help such youths to feel that they are loved, cared for and re-assured in their various situations.

Truancy

According to Williams (1975: 20) truancy is one of the behaviour problems ranked at the tip of other behaviours like cruelty, disobedience, stealing, and untruthfulness as being the most undesirable. Truancy is a symptom.

Truancy could be seen as persistent unjustified absence from school on the part of a child without the consent of both the teacher and parents. As has been argued elsewhere, Alhassan (1989: 8) a child becomes like the people he lives with. Children who come from organised families where there is affection and discipline rarely play truant for long. In addition, the school or classroom environment matters; the arrangement of seats; the availability of materials for study, good ventilation; the methodology adopted by the teacher, all these have serious impact towards the child's reactions in his academic life. This view is consistent with those of Adeyemi's (1985: 17) who writes that:

Lack of school materials makes many pupils to run away from school. If a pupil has no exercise books, pen and reading books, he would not like to be punished by the teacher and as such he runs away from school. If the life in the classroom is dull and uninteresting, it may be that the teacher's method is dull and uninteresting, hence the pupil feels he could run away from the school.

Management

The teacher should visit the home of the pupils playing truants in a deliberate attempt to find out the reasons for truancy and eliminating same. Parents should be encouraged to help the child set out on time for school. If the fault is with the child, then



he can be given some responsibilities in the school that would require his being around on time. He could even be made a class representative or even a class monitor if he is big and old enough. He could also be made the time – keeper for the entire school.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this study unit, you have learnt the meaning of the term acquisition. In addition, we described what is meant by successive approximations of behaviour. You have also learnt what is meant by shaping the desired behaviour. In addition, you have learnt successive approximations and management of behaviour problems particularly withdrawal, aggressive behaviour, hyperactivity, thumb sucking, vandalism, fighting, emotional imbalance, and truancy.

5.0 SUMMARY

- 1. What you have learnt in this study unit concerns the term acquisition.**
- 2. You have similarly learnt successive approximations of behaviour.**
- 3. In addition, you have learnt shaping the desired behaviour**
- 4. Also, you have learnt management of behaviour problems particularly withdrawal, aggressive behaviour and truancy.**

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

- 1. Briefly explain how you can manage aggressive behaviour and thumb sucking in your classroom.**

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- 1.0 Introduction**
- 2.0 Objectives**
- 3.0 Main Content**
 - 3.1 Concept of Reinforcement**
 - 3.2 Schedules of Reinforcement**
 - 3.3 Application of Reinforcement in Managing Behaviour Problems**
- 4.0 Conclusion**
- 5.0 Summary**
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment**
- 7.0 References/Further Readings**

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In study unit 4, you learnt the explanation of the term acquisition. You can now describe what is meant by successive approximations of behaviour. In addition, you can explain what is meant by shaping the desired behaviour. Further still, you learnt how specific behaviour problems in school can be managed. You have indeed been actively involved in our discussion. That's nice. You are about to study a stimulating aspect of your course. Let us look at what other content you should learn in this study unit as specified in the study unit objectives below.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this study unit, you should be able to:

- 1. Define the concept of reinforcement.**
- 2. Identify schedules of reinforcement.**
- 3. Explain schedules of reinforcement.**
- 4. Describe how reinforcement can be applied in managing behaviour problems.**

Some discussions use ‘reinforcement’ and ‘reward’ as interchangeable terms, but a widely acceptable usage identifies reinforcers simply as stimuli whose presentation, contingent upon the occurrence of a response; changes the probability of occurrence of that response.

It is important for you to note that the concept is credited to B.F. Skinner’s work. It is a stimulus or an event that increases future probability of a proceeding response. Any factor which when made to follow a response immediately will increase the probability of the occurrence of the response to a conditioned stimulus. Reinforcement may be described using various variables such as positive, negative, primary, secondary, partial, intermittent, social, token, or vicarious.

Positive reinforcement involves the use of desirable or pleasant stimuli (positively reinforcers) in the treatment of behaviours such as those that the client can perform but needs to perform better, more frequently or more convincingly. In operant conditioning, negative reinforcement refers to the withdrawal or terminating an aversive or obnoxious stimulus from a subject to strengthen the probability of an emission of a desirable behaviour. Primary reinforcement occur naturally. Many of them are biological in nature and govern human behaviour automatically; for example, air and water. Partial reinforcement effect refers to phenomenon that involves extinction that follows the maintenance of a response on partial reinforcement (fixed or ratio or time). Token is operant conditioning strategy for modifying behaviour. It involves the reward of secondary reinforcers (token) for clients each time they behave in socially constructive way. Tokens can be traded for a reward or exchanged for desired gifts or privileges for example snack or sweets.

3.2 Schedules of Reinforcement

Central to discussions of learning and motivation is the concept of reinforcement. Skinner distinguished four schedules of reinforcement. Remember that reinforcers are stimuli whose presentation, contingent upon the occurrence of a response, changes the probability of occurrence of that response. The study of the control of behaviour by



intermittent reinforcement has not been neglected in the analysis of behaviour. On the contrary, it has been one of the most prominent areas of investigation in the last 30 years. It has been concerned, first describing how the patterning of reinforcement in time (different types of intermittency – affects the patterning of behaviour in time.

In addition, it has been concerned with discovering the mechanism by which intermittent reinforcement of various types produces these different patterns of behaviour. Note that this area of research is generally referred to as the study of schedule of reinforcement. What is a reinforcement schedule? A reinforcement schedule is simply a rule which specifies how often and under what conditions a particular response will be reinforced. All schedules of reinforcement have one thing in common; reinforcement depends upon the occurrence of a response.

With schedules in which response is reinforced, called continuous reinforcement (CFR) schedules, a single response is all that is required for reinforcement. With other schedules, reinforcement may depend upon something in addition to a particular response, either the passage of a certain amount of time (interval schedules) or the occurrence of a certain number of previous responses (ratio schedules). You should note that each of these types of schedules can be subdivided. The intervals required for reinforcement may be fixed (each intervals is the same) or variable. Similarly, ratios may be fixed (each reinforcement depends upon the same number of responses) or variable.

The four types of schedules identified above: fixed interval, variable interval, fixed ratio, and variable ratio are the basic types of reinforcement schedules. Importantly, the study of schedules of reinforcement amounts to the study of different types of intermittency on behaviour. Now try to reflect on this question: How well do the basic schedules of reinforcement characterises intermittent reinforcement in the real world? Let us continue our discussion.

It is not too difficult to find examples of human behaviour which are maintained by one or another of the basic reinforcement schedules. Fixed ratios used to be quite common for factory workers to be paid on a piece of work basis: transmissions installed or every hundred packets of sugar packaged produced a certain pay off. These fixed – ratio schedules generated very high rates of responding, with brief pauses after each ratio. This kind of salary arrangement was very desirable to management for a variety of



reasons. It maintained high outputs. In addition, it made wages a direct part of unit costs. When business was good, and much was produced, employees earned high wages.

When business was bad, employees were given less work, completed fewer ratios, and earned less money. To ensure you have a clear understanding and comprehension of our discussion, we shall explain the following generalised examples of basic ratios:

Fixed Ratio: The teacher call on wazobia every third time she raises her hand.

Wazobia's hand raising is then on an FR 3 schedule.

Variable Ratio: Wazobia is called by the teacher after she raises her hand a number of times, sometimes after one or two responses, sometimes after three or four responses.

Mukherjee (1978: 51) writes that evidence from the animal laboratory shows that the effects of variable-ratio schedule of reinforcement were the most powerful as measured against extinction curve, which were obtained by plotting against time the number of bar

– pressing operant behaviour of rats following initial conditioning of their operant behaviour.

Fixed Interval: Wazobia is called upon by the teacher only when she raises her hand five times after she was last called upon for raising her hand.

Variable Interval: Wazobia is called upon by the teacher only when some time she passed since she was last called upon for raising her hand. But the length of time elapsing between previous and subsequent times Wazobia is called varies.

It is important for you to note that in daily life, contingencies are often extremely complex. We are rarely on a 'pure' schedule as given above. Let us cite an example: In a classroom discussion, a teacher may call on students according to both how many times they raise their hands (ratio schedule) and how long it has been since they last contributed (interval schedule). Or the teacher may shift back and forth from one schedule to another. In addition, calling on a particular student depends on how many hands are raised, who the teacher thinks will answer well, and many other factors. This can produce a very complex schedule for a student. But you must note that complex schedules are often good because they provide unpredictable reinforcement, and it is unpredictable reinforcement that best produces resistance to extinction once a response is established. Variable ratio and variable – interval schedules are, therefore, the best schedules to use to maintain behaviour and to make it persistent. Now it is time for you to try your hand on this quiz:



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Self – Assessed Exercise 4.2

1. How will you explain briefly and in your own words what you understand by:

(a) Schedules of Reinforcement

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(b) List 4 types of schedules

- (i)**
- (ii)**
- (iii)**
- (iv)**

Well done. Clap for yourself. Let us continue our discussion.

33 Application of Reinforcement in Managing Behaviour Problems

In looking at the role of stimulus change in producing and maintaining behaviour, we can see the reasons for many problems in classroom control. Pupils are likely to get different consequences for talking with friends or engaging in unassigned activities, as opposed to consequences for studying.

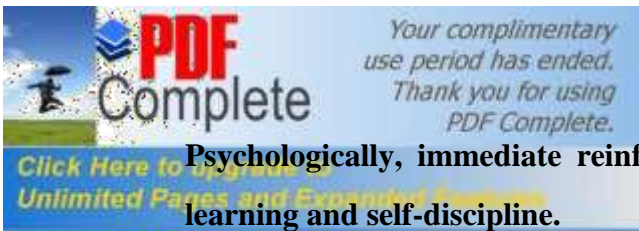
When there is an immediate reason for working now, as in a timed test which counts towards a grade, students for whom a grade is meaningful consequence work hard. When it really does not make much difference whether or not a pupil works now, or ten minutes from now, he or she is likely to do other things. And what about misbehaviour? What are the consequences for misbehaviour? If one pupil in a room starts to hum or to look out of the window, who gets the teacher’s attention? You should note that whenever teachers criticize any pupil, they are providing a consequence for the misbehaviour they are criticizing. If teacher – attention is reinforcing enough (and it usually is), such teachers are strengthening the unwanted behaviour, thus producing a disciplinary problem.

The superstitious behaviour exhibited by Skinner's pigeon (to the green light and red light) can be used to explain the many superstitious behaviour human beings manifest. You should remember that Skinner trained food-derived pigeon to eat grain from a feeder that dispensed it at a regular interval irrespective of what the pigeons were doing. The first pigeons were banging their head about or turning around in the cage. You should note that the more reinforcement the stereotyped response received, the greater the likelihood of its occurrence. Well done for your participation. Let us continue our discussion.

The teacher's role is to foster desirable pupil behaviour and to eliminate undesirable behaviour. This is accomplished primarily by consistently and systematically rewarding (reinforcing) appropriate pupil behaviour (honesty, punctuality, completing homework, cooperating with classmates in carrying out classroom activities and so on); and removing rewards for inappropriate pupil behaviour (lateness, lying, aggression, bullying, fighting, engaging – in distracting conversation with other pupils), uncooperative, noise-making, rudeness, talking out of turn (TOOT), and hindering other children (HOC) and so on).

A basic procedure in changing a variety of unacceptable behaviour problems of primary school children is the use of social reinforcers. Teachers should learn to reward the behaviours to be strengthened with attention and praise, and withdraw attention from behaviours to be weakened. As Baker (1993:101) puts it 'Learning not to respond to disruptive behaviours is important for effective teaching'. However, while understanding and patience are required, it is also important to create a classroom setting in which the children understand what the limits are and in which each child is guided toward self-directed responsible behaviour.

Dengal (1995) rightly states that teachers' reward to the children who complete their home-work on time and manifest normal behaviour will stimulate the child to behave better in order to receive applause and recognition from the teacher. Thus, uncooperative and irresponsible behaviour is not rewarded while normal, responsible and acceptable behaviour is reinforced. Giving the child time to draw, paint or engage in other play activity in the classroom will go a long way to stabilise the child.



Psychologically, immediate reinforcement and correction are imperative in good learning and self-discipline.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this study unit, you have learnt the concept of reinforcement. In addition, we identified the schedules of reinforcement. You have also learnt the explanation of schedules of reinforcement. In addition, you have learnt how reinforcement can be applied in managing behaviour problems in schools.

5.0 SUMMARY

- 1. What you have learnt in this study unit concerns the definition of reinforcement.**
- 2. You have similarly learnt identification of schedules of reinforcement.**
- 3. In addition, you have learnt how reinforcement can be applied in managing behaviour problems in schools.**

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

- 1. From your understanding of our discussion, explain the four specific types of reinforcement with examples.**

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MODULE III

UNIT 1: DISCIPLINE IN PRIMARY SCHOOL

UNIT 2: FOSTERING GOOD MENTAL HEALTH IN SCHOOL

UNIT 3: TEACHERS AND UNIVERSAL TENSION

UNIT 4: MENTAL HEALTH OF THE TEACHER

UNIT 1: DISCIPLINE IN PRIMARY SCHOOL

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Classroom Discipline: Conceptual Clarification

3.2 Teacher – Pupil Relationships

3.3 Punishment in School

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In study unit 5 of Module II, we discussed the concept of reinforcement. You can also identify the schedules of reinforcement. In addition, you should also be able to explain how reinforcement can be applied in managing behaviour problems in schools. You are about to commence the study of a unit you would find refreshing. Let us examine what other content you should learn in this study unit as specified in the study unit objectives as stated below.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this study unit, you should be able to:

- 1. Explain the concept of Discipline.**
- 2. List specific elements of teacher-pupil relationship.**
- 3. Identify attitudinal qualities in teacher – pupil relationship.**

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3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Classroom Discipline: Conceptual Clarification

Classroom discipline is a condition where pupils are using their time in educationally desirable ways. The teacher who cannot establish this condition cannot teach. Good discipline does not require every student in her place, every pupils silent save one, everyone focused on the speaker. In such a classroom the listeners may be learning nothing. Discipline has not failed when five eager children burst out with an idea at once, so long as they are willing to listen to each other (Alhassan, 2000: 234). It is good for a class to break up into groups doing different things, all humming with busyness and work-related conversation. The test of discipline is whether or not the behaviour of the group permits everyone to work effectively.

Durojaiye (1972) posits that the aim of discipline is to ensure that children learn to adjust to other people. They need to adjust their desires and activities to the needs and rights of others and their own future needs. The author further posits that the best way by which adult authority can help discipline is by adults adjusting their own demands upon children so that they promote sound growth for the children. This is done by helping children to adapt their inner drives, inner impulses, feelings and actions so that they may fit reasonably well into the pattern of the culture (society) in which they live. Now try your finger on this quiz.

Self – Assessed Exercise 1.1

- 1. How would you describe discipline in schools today in comparison with the situation ten years ago?**

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That’s revealing. Let us continue our discussion.

3.2 Teacher – Pupil Relationships

Good and functional teacher-pupil relationship, depend in the main on the personality and enthusiasm of the teaching staff. The disruptive pupil and the rather slow learner must be considered normal. This may have the effect of changing teacher-pupil relationships which will be based on a cooperation or bargain model. Waller (1960:39) describes the problem as follows:

The teacher-pupil relationship is a form of institutionalised dominance and subordination. Teacher and pupil confront each other in the school with an original conflict of desires, and however much that conflict may be reduced in amount, or however much it may be hidden, it still remains. The teacher represents the adult group, ever the enemy of the spontaneous life of groups of children. The teacher represents the formal curriculum, and his interest is in imposing that curriculum upon the children in the form of tasks; pupils are much more interested in their own world... . Each of these hostile parties stands in the way of the other; in so far as the aims of either are realised, it is at the sacrifice of the aims of the other.

This may be assisted by the guidance and counselling system which should provide ‘feedback’ to the curriculum system.

A major process in the school system is interaction. Messages concerning expectations, power relations, and attitudes towards others and the learning process are passed through verbal and nonverbal cues. Learning is clearly central to the enterprise of schooling. The type and extent of classroom interaction is related to teacher styles, which can be grouped into three types:

- **Authoritarian:** whereby power is vested and used by the teacher.
- **Democratic:** whereby pupils are involved in the decision-making which affects classroom activities.
- **Laissez – faire:** whereby there is general freedom in the classroom. It is important for you to note that the daily pupil-teacher interactions and interpersonal relations determine the atmosphere of the classroom. For a large part of each weekday, the pupil lives in this classroom. His relationships with his teacher and with his classmates are major aspects in his adjustment to school (Alhassan, 1998; 143 – 144).

In the classroom the personal relationships teacher must adopt a series of techniques if he is to be successful. He will have to obtain rapport with his class, so he must not be faced with difficult and impossible conditions. For example, his class must



not be too large, the room should provide an informal and relaxed atmosphere. Towards good personal relationships, the teacher will have to spend a proportion of his time on factual teaching, so he must have a clear knowledge of his facts and the ability to impart them effectively.

Dealing with children’s questions is part of the everyday business of a teacher, and requires as much in the way of preparation as does the formal imparting of knowledge. The task of the teacher is to persuade the young to realise their responsibilities and to keep a sense of normalty. The aim is always to help them form attitudes towards life, and the answers to questions should be wider than detailed statements of facts. So we consider what lies behind the question and listen carefully, taking all questions seriously, and avoiding flippant and ‘off the cuff’ answers. The teacher’s attitude will set the tone of the lessons, and she should not be shocked by questions or condemn, condone pupil’s weaknesses. High drama must be avoided while good humour and understanding must be strived for.

It is important for you to note that children are sensitive observers of adult behaviour, and they frequently recognise, and become preoccupied with, aspects of the teacher’s attitude toward them of which the teacher may be unaware. A position that is worth considering now is that of Carl Rogers (1969), noted Counsellor, Psychologist, and Therapist, that significant learning depends on certain attitudinal qualities that exists in the personal relationships between the facilitator and the learner. It is time for another quiz.

Self-Assessed Exercise 1.2

1. Ever since you matriculated for your B.A. Primary Education Programme at the NOUN, you have the golden opportunity of interacting with Instructional Facilitators at your study centres across the country: Now why do you think Carl Rogers uses the term Facilitators?

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Good response!. Let us continue our discussion.

It is important for you to note that Rogers uses the term Facilitator, rather than Teacher because he believes it puts emphasis on what happens to the learner rather than on the performance of the teacher. The term facilitator also implies significantly different functions than does the term teacher. The attitude most basic to the learning relationship, according to Rogers, is realness or genuineness. Instead of playing a role or presenting a front, the facilitator must enter into a relationship with the learner. The facilitator must be a real person, one who ‘is *being* herself/himself and who is free to be enthusiastic, bored, interested, angry, sensitive, and sympathetic.

Another essential attitude Rogers describes is valuing the learners – their feelings, their opinions, and their persons – as they are and as worthy in their own right, and accepting both their imperfections and their potentialities. This attitude is an expression of the facilitator’s confidence and trust in the capacity of the human being.

A third attitude that Rogers considers essential to the establishment of a climate for self-initiated, experiential learning is emphatic understanding. What does this imply?. Emphatic understanding implies that the facilitator understands the learner but does not judge or evaluate the learner. Remember that Rogers intended to create classroom environments conducive to self-initiated learning. He maintains that the teacher’s skills, knowledge of the field, curricular planning, lessons and selection of books and other learning aids are all peripheral; the crux of the learning situation is the relationship between the facilitator and the learner, which should be characterised by realness, valuing, empathy.

Unless the learning environment is characterised by those attitudinal predispositions, according to Rogers, it is sterile and cannot produce significant learning. There is little question that if a teacher has empathy for her/his pupils, value them as unique individuals, s/he will be a more successful teacher; and the atmosphere in her/his classroom will make possible for her/him and her/his pupils a joy, excitement and closeness absent from many classrooms.

3.3 Punishment in School

An important dimension that must be examined in any discussion on discipline in school is punishment. Alhassan (1995a:7) states that there was a time when corporal punishments which invokes the use of physical contact such as paddling or spanking were virtually universal. Often they were administered for poor school work as well as for misbehaviour. Although Nigerian parents commonly believe that beating is necessary to ensure learning (Onwuka, 1968), flogging and strict discipline are often unpopular among students and some parents (Blakemore and Cooksey, 1981).

From the psychology of reward and punishment, we know that punishment tends to reinforce the punisher and not the punished. Thus notwithstanding a long tradition of punishment as an antidote to misbehaviour and as an approach to achieving conformity, the unequivocal answer is that in the long run punishment is futile. Indeed, experience and research have shown that irrespective of very strict regime, punishment is futile. Punishment is not something done to save and build the child but is an activity performed for the gratification of the punisher.

You should remember that from cognate experience in the teaching – learning process, punishment can be described as having a number of drawbacks. It does not remove the reinforcement which is maintaining the behaviour, so that it results in two consequences producing conflict in behavioural tendencies. It has undesirable side effects, hostility, aggression, fear avoidance, and escape are common by-products. It wears out with use, and when the threat is lifted, the punished behaviour may not only return, it may return stronger than ever. Other pupils may imitate a teacher who is punishing. They may also try to control other pupils by scolding, rough handling, humiliation, and so on.

It is important for you to note that the position of most educational psychologists is that, if a teacher must punish, then that teacher should:

- 1. Provide alternatives – make sure the students know what to do as well as what not to do and that they can get at least as much reinforcement from the desirable behaviour as from the undesirable.**
- 2. Punish immediately every time with minor punishment rather than later or occasionally with something severe.**

3. Punish only behaviour you personally see. If you rely on someone's else's report, you cannot punish immediately and you may punish unjustly.

4. Use only consequences you would like your students to use too. If you don't want pupils to yell at others, you should not yell at them (Alhassan, 2000).

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this study unit, you have learnt the concept of classroom discipline. In addition, we listed specific elements of teacher-pupil relationship. You have also learnt how attitudinal qualities of teacher-pupil relationship could be identified. In addition, you learnt punishment in school and what a teacher should do if he/she must punish in school.

5.0 SUMMARY

- 1. What you have learnt in this study unit concerns the concept of classroom discipline.**
- 2. You have similarly learnt specific elements of teacher-pupil relationship in school.**
- 3. In addition, you have learnt punishment in school.**
- 4. Also, you have learnt what the teacher must do if he/she must punish in school.**

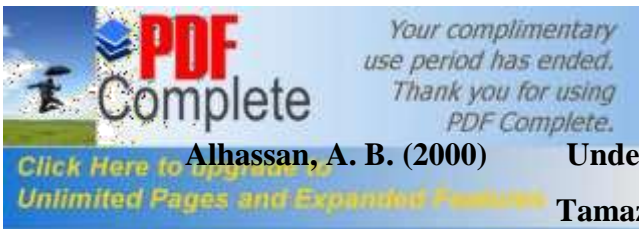
6.0 TUTOR – MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1. Explain how teacher-pupil relationship can be effective in school.**

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UNIT 2: FOSTERING GOOD MENTAL HEALTH IN SCHOOL

- 1.0 Introduction**
- 2.0 Objectives**
- 3.0 Main Content**
 - 3.1 The contribution of the school**
 - 3.2 Role of the Headmaster and Teacher**
- 4.0 Conclusion**
- 5.0 Summary**
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment**
- 7.0 References/Further Readings**

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In study unit 1, we explained the concept of discipline. You can now list specific elements of teacher-pupil relationship. In addition, you should also be able to explain punishment in school. You are about to study a very interesting unit in this Module. Let us examine what other content you should learn in this study unit as specified in this study unit as specified in the study unit objectives as stated below.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this study unit, you should be able to:

- 1. Describe the contribution of the school toward fostering good mental health.**
- 2. Explain the role of the Headmaster and the Teacher in fostering good mental health.**

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Contribution of the School

Children have a right to teacher who inspire them, teachers for whom respect and love can develop simultaneously. Such an expectation is not too high. Such teachers can be found in the primary school if they have a concern for children and an ability to establish warm personal relationships with pupils, if they have retained the joy of living, the unquenchable thirst for knowledge, the insatiable appetite for wonder, the delight in



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creating, and the ability to transmit these qualities in day-to-day living and learning with boys and girls. Wait a minute. Provide answer to this quiz.

Self-Assessed Exercise 4.1

1a. From your understanding of our discussion so far, and with regard to your experience at the primary school level, what percentage of teachers in your state would you say manifested the characteristics listed above?

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b. Explain your answer in (a) above.

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Let us continue our discussion.

When we take into consideration the emotional health of most children, it is obvious that the positive contributions of the school outweigh the negative ones. For instance, the school offers a variety of opportunities for children to learn satisfying ways of working and playing together. Importantly, the aid it provides in helping children develop the necessary skills is called ‘group living’: this is of crucial importance, inasmuch as the mental health of any person depends, in part on his ability to develop sound relationships to and with other people.

Among the most important skills children can learn at school is how to express their feelings without injury to themselves and others. As we learnt in the preceding study units, some children express themselves through behaviour problems because they have not learned more acceptable ways of self-expression. In addition, the school provides a stable environment in which children may develop and learn: its hours are regular, its demands and expectations are well defined, and it is governed by rules and regulations.

Remember that for many children in developing countries, school provides the only stable, secure, and predictable experience in their lives. Someone once observed, with irony, that schools give a second chance to children who are unfortunate in their



selection of their parents. It is important for children to have experiences with a well organised controlled, and stable environment.

3.2 Role of the Headmaster and Teacher

It is important for you to note that the responsibility for fostering good mental health in the school falls heavily on the headmaster and teacher. To succeed, the administrator and the teacher should relate better to each other and to the pupils. They should develop broad-mindedness in order to free them from their own unconsciousness parochial perceptions and attitudes so that they may be able to search critically for and appreciate the reasons or main springs behind each other's behaviour. This knowledge or awareness will prevent the administrator and the teacher from feelings personally offended or threatened over minor disagreements to the point of mental disturbance by much of what the other does or fails to do.

To relate effectively with each other and with the pupils, the administrator and the teacher must be free from neurotic anxiety: Essentially, they should not be threatened by the behaviour of each other; they should not be unduly over-active and suspicious, irritable, neither should they act unconsciously problems of their own in relation each other. They should be able to relate to each other reasonably well and yet be objective. They must be firm and just without fear or favour to earn each other's trust and confidence: once the headmaster and the teacher lost confidence in each other the success of effective communication and cooperation for the good of the school is virtually sealed.

It is important for you to note that children are always watching the interactions (with one another) of staff, academic or administrative: Thus, the effect of the kind of interpersonal relations that exist among the personal may be challenging and traumatising to the pupils. Good interpersonal relationships are cardinal to freeing the school of mental ill-health.

In the earliest years of schooling, the teacher may offer affective support to the child who has not felt enough affection at home. The teacher can give the child friendship, which makes him feel comfortable and valuable. Warmth is especially valuable in dealing with people who feel guilty or incompetent. Therapists regard establishing friendship with the patient as an essential step in treating him. A friendly



relationship does not mean an indulgent one in which the pupil can ‘get by with anything’, nor does it mean singling out a particular pupil as a favourite. A teacher can be on friendly terms with every pupil in a class and yet hold all of them responsible for worthwhile, activity and for judging themselves.

Group activities should be encouraged as it gives pupils a chance to contribute and feel approved. Sociometric evidence can be used to place the pupil among those likely to give him emotional support. Isolates can be diagnosed and given special help. The teacher can minimise competition and other practices that make some pupils feel inferior.

The mental health of the individual member of the school population affects in varying degree the mental health of the group, and the mental health of a group may affect that of other groups in the school. To this end, the mental health of the headmaster, the administrative staff, the teacher, and of the pupils affects one another for better or worse.

Ademuwagun (1972) writes that the mentally unhealthy administrator may find it difficult to get along with the classroom teachers and his administrative staff. He may be weighed down by his own personal problems that he cannot communicate intelligently, not relate harmoniously, nor recognise and appreciate the contribution of his staff members, nor give encouragement to his staff. His/her own personal ‘unfinished business’ may harper his interpersonal relationships to the extent that the school as a whole suffers mental ill-health.

It is relevant for you to remember that a socialised person is a contributor and problem solver. He uses his knowledge and skill to act wisely on his environment. Excessive timidity or aggressiveness can prevent the child from making this contribution. The adjusted child is one who commits himself to a consistent set of goals and uses his emerges effectively in working toward them. Effectiveness has to be emphasised because the person who is consistently effective, and so fulfils his needs, will be happy as well. Good adjustment calls for emotional balance. Remember also that trust is essential in the teacher’s interaction with the pupils. According to Hobbs (1996), it is almost a cliché to state that the successful teacher is the one children trust.



It is also important for you to note that the techniques of leadership and control used by the teacher make it easy for some children to adapt, and hard for others. If the teacher reduces rules to the minimum in order to give children experience in planning and self-regulation, some children make good use of their opportunity. Other children, however, have learned that to get along, they must do just what the teacher (or adult) wants. They become insecure when the teacher does not state rules and regulations; instead of denying goals for themselves they try to find out ‘what is wanted’. The pupil finds demands of the teachers difficult to satisfy when they run counter to his other training. Boys are especially likely to be in conflict with teachers because the teacher disapproves of pupils who are rough, noisy and unmanageable.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this study unit, you have learnt the contribution of the school toward the fostering good mental health. You have also learnt the explanation of the role of the headmaster and the teacher in fostering good mental health.

5.0 SUMMARY

- 1. What you have learnt in this study unit concerns the contribution of the school toward fostering good mental health.**
- 2. You have similarly learnt the explanation of the role of the headmaster and the teacher in fostering good mental health.**

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1. From your understanding of our discussion, who contributes more toward good mental health of the school between the Headmaster and the Teacher?**

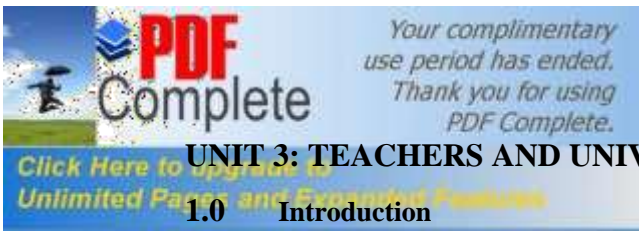
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UNIT 3: TEACHERS AND UNIVERSAL TENSIONS

- 1.0 Introduction**
- 2.0 Objectives**
- 3.0 Main Content**
 - 3.1 Concept of Teaching**
 - 3.2 Concept of Learning**
 - 3.3 Human Learning**
 - 3.4 The Teaching – Learning Process**
 - 3.5 Tensions Teachers Experience During The Teaching – Learning Process**
- 4.0 Conclusion**
- 5.0 Summary**
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment**
- 7.0 References/Further Readings**

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In study unit 2, we described the contribution of the school toward fostering good mental health. Also, you learnt the role of the headmaster and the teacher in fostering good mental health. You are about to study a most stimulating study unit in this Module. Let us examine what other content you should learn in this study unit as specified in the study unit objectives as stated below.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this study unit, you should be able to:

- 1. Explain the concept of teaching**
- 2. Define the concept of learning**
- 3. Explain the term Human Learning**
- 4. Describe the teaching – learning process**
- 5. Identify the most common tensions teachers experience.**

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Concept of Teaching



Teaching is the purposeful direction and management of the learning process. Teaching is not giving knowledge or skills to students, teaching is the process of providing opportunities for students to produce relatively permanent change through the engagement in experiences provided by the teacher. Teachers all over the world have been coming to psychology with the expectation that they will learn simple, definite, scientifically proved remedies for their troubles.

Kinner (1989) classified teacher behaviour into six categories:

- (i) director of learning;
- (ii) Guidance and counseling person;
- (iii) mediator of the culture;
- (iv) member of the school community;
- (v) liaison between school and community; and
- (vi) member of a profession.

Self-Assessed Exercise 3.1

1. Take a closer look at the classification of teacher behaviour from the perspective of Kinner: make a list of the categories in order of importance.

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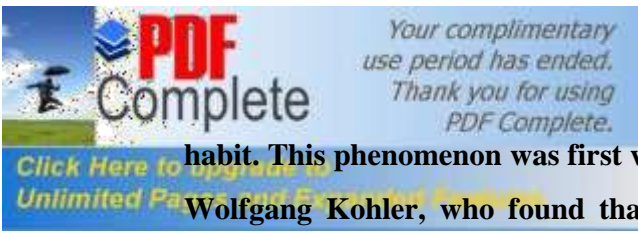
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3.2 Concept of Learning

Kohler (1925) in his book, ‘The Mentality of Apes’ (cited in Alhassan, 2000), explained learning as a perceptual process with the major emphasis being on the study of relationships and how people learn to see relationships among various items of experience. Learning of relationships can be clearly seen in the phenomenon o-f insight. Sometimes, pupils work for a long time on a problem or skill with little apparent progress. All of a sudden, there will be a flash of understanding (cureka) in which the pupil or student sees through the problem or re-forms his responses into more complex



habit. This phenomenon was first widely published by the famous German psychologist, Wolfgang Kohler, who found that apes, when confronted with a different problem, might act as if they were surveying the situation and would then go directly to the goal object (banana) by putting two sticks together, or by piling, one box on top of another. You will learn more about this exciting problem solving situation in study unit 2 of Module II where we shall discuss the Gestalt theory of learning.

Aristotle talked of learning as an association of ideas following the laws of similarity, contrast, and continuity. He believed that people learn and remember those things that are alike, that are striking because of their difference, and that occur together, in space and time (Murphy, 1998).

Bugelski (1986:117) on his part, sees learning as the process of the formation of relatively permanent neural circuits through the simultaneous activity of the elements of the circuit-to-be; such activity is of the nature of change in cell structures through growth in such a manner as to facilitate the arousal of the entire circuit when a component element is aroused or activated.

Lindgren (1991) posits that learning is a central process in understanding human behaviour. Most aspects of human behaviour are learned contrary to the widely held view at the turn of the century that human behaviour is instinctive in nature. According to Lindgren, only perhaps such behaviours as sucking of breasts and blinking of the eyes are instinctive. Lindgren explains instinctual behaviour as inherited patterns of complex responses which become less important as life progresses up the evolutionary scale.

Learning may also be thought of as a process of problem-solving, a way of thinking, creating and synthesising. I am sure our discussion is clear and understandable. Now try your hand on this question.

Self-Assessed Exercise 3.2

List any two (2) human behaviour that are inattentive in nature:

1.
2.
-
-

Let us continue our discussion.

Human beings learn. This statement looks and sounds simple, yet it has generated as much controversy as any statement could in the behavioural, natural, or physical science. Travers (1996) posits that man is a philosopher before he is a psychologist or an educator, and as he sees human nature, so he sees the nature of learning. Consequently, learning is viewed as a cognitive, problem-solving process whereby man actively seeks and uses environmental clues that enable him to form concepts, solves problems, and think creatively.

Human learning depends upon at least three pre-conditions:

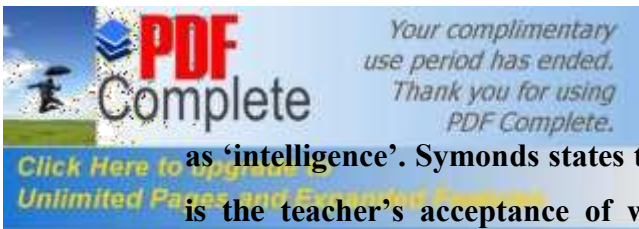
1. A functioning biological organism;
2. An on-going social/cultural/religious/political/economic environment and
3. An opportunity for a biological being to interact with any form or forms of the environment in (2) and thereby learn from it.

Human learning is the ultimate goal of our educational system. Man turns to several disciplines to discover what aids or hinders learning, and to grope toward a more adequate knowledge of the process itself. From biology, the student of learning takes information about growth and development, he utilises facts about man's activities in groups and what impact environmental forces have on learning. From anthropology, he derives insight into the meaning of cultural differences.

3.4 The Teaching – Learning Process

Learning as a process is influenced not only by the teacher, the techniques used, the classroom settings, and the formal or informal material taught, but by the child's ability, motivation, interest in the subject matter, readiness to learn, retentiveness, values and attitudes, relationship with the teacher, feelings about self, relationship with peers, and background experiences. Also of importance are the environmental pressures of learning, the time allotted for learning, and the atmosphere of the school and classroom.

It is important for you to note that children's learning experiences differs as a result of such variables as sex and socio-economic background. Clearly then, it is superficial to explain learning differences between children by one primary factor, such



as 'intelligence'. Symonds states that the most potent reward for classroom learning is the teacher's acceptance of what the pupil does and the way she does it. In actuality, much classroom learning seems to be explicable in operant conditioning terms. Classroom teachers reinforce the kind of behaviour they prefer to see in students by comments of approval, marks, smiles, and such similar gestures.

But we know that teachers cannot respond to every pupil on every appropriate occasion, and students learn to be their own reinforcers basically through discovery, for example, that their answers to problems are correct. Given a normal classroom situation, a student is not reinforced for every response s/he makes. Rewards appear only occasionally, yet we know from experience that students put forth a great deal of work. Importantly, this is consistent with Skinner's concept of intermittent reinforcement discussed in study unit 5 of Module II.

You should also remember the following suggestions for teaching in the classroom.

1. Do everything possible to satisfy the deficiency needs – physiological, belongingness, esteem, and so on.
 - (a) Allow for the physical condition of your pupils and the classroom, for example, be aware that your pupils may be occasionally hungry or thirsty. This may sound obvious, but it is frequently forgotten. Make a habit of checking ventilation of the room.
 - (b) Show your pupils that you take an interest in them and that they belong in your classroom; and
 - (c) Arrange hearing experiences so that all pupils can gain at least some degree of esteem. Play down comparisons: encourage self – competition; give individual assistance to slow learners.
2. Direct learning experiences toward feelings of success in an effort to encourage a realistic level of aspiration, an orientation toward achievement, and a positive self-concept.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this study unit, you have learnt the concept of teaching. In addition, we explained the concept of learning. You have also learnt what is meant by human learning



and the specific conditions under which human learning could flourish. In addition, you have learnt the teaching – learning process. Also you learnt the tensions that teachers experience during the teaching – learning process in schools.

5.0 SUMMARY


- 1. What you have learnt in this study unit concerns the concept of teaching.**
- 2. You have similarly learnt the concept of learning**
- 3. You also learnt what is meant by human learning and the conditions under which human learning could be experienced.**
- 4. In addition, you have learnt the teaching – learning process.**
- 5. Finally, you have learnt the tensions teachers experience during the teaching – learning process.**

6.0 TUTOR – MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1a. What do you understand by Learning?**
- b. Explain Human Learning.**

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UNIT 4: MENTAL HEALTH OF THE TEACHER AND THE PUPIL'S NEEDS

- 1.0 Introduction**
- 2.0 Objectives**
- 3.0 Main Content**
 - 3.1 What is Health?**
 - 3.2 What is Mental Health?**
 - 3.3 Teacher's Mental Health**
 - 3.4 Needs of Pupils in School**
- 4.0 Conclusion**
- 5.0 Summary**
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment**
- 7.0 References/Further Readings**

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In study unit 3, we explained the concept of teaching. You can now explain the concept of learning in your own words. In addition, you should also be able to explain the term human learning. Also, you learnt the description of the teaching-learning process. Finally, your experience during the teaching-learning process. You are about to study a very interesting unit in this Module. It is also the last study unit in the Module. Let us now examine what other content you should learn in this study unit as specified in the study unit objectives below.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this study unit, you should be able to:

- 1. Define the term Health.**
- 2. Explain the concept of Mental Health**
- 3. Discuss teacher's mental health.**
- 4. Identify the needs of pupils in schools**

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 What is Health?



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Health is a state of complete physical, mental, and social wellbeing and not merely absence of disease or infirmity (World Health Organisation (WHO), 1946).

Before a person can be considered healthy, the nature of his integrated physical, emotional, and social health is taken into account. This has to be so because physical, emotional and social health are interrelated, they function dynamically. Not try your finger on this quiz.

Self-Assessed Exercise 2.1

1. Arising from your understanding of the definition of Health, make a list of six (6) Professional groups (workers) in Nigeria with the most healthy as No. 1, and the least healthy as No. 6

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.

Let us continue our discussion.

3.2 What is Mental Health?

Jahoda (1988) reviewing the writing of Psychologists, Philosophers, and men of religion, as well as behavioural scientists, concludes that many distinct personality patterns must be judge as mentally healthy. She warns against blurring the concept of mental health by making it synonymous with all goodness. One can be well adjusted in the pursuit of almost any set of values. Mental health is the quality of one’s state of mind and absence mental disorders, that affect both male and female. Akbar, a black Psychologist (in the US), defined it as the affirmative identification and commitment of one’s African (natural) identity.

Schifferees (1998) states that a mentally healthy person is generally comfortable with himself and behaves acceptably in the eyes of his fellowmen. Thus, mental health embraces both emotional and social health. As the American Medical Association puts it:



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Mental health includes emotional stability and maturity of character as well as the strength to withstand the stresses of living without due or persistent symptoms, physical or psychological.

3.3 Teacher’s Mental Health

Teacher’s mental health is very important in fostering the mental health of pupils. Consequently, administrators must seek ways of fostering and improving the mental health of teachers. Now try your finger on this quiz.

Self-Assessed Exercise 2.2

1. In your opinion and as a participant observer of the primary school system in your locality, how do you think teacher’s mental health could be improved?

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Good. Let us continue our discussion.

You should remember that to foster and improve the mental health of teachers, headmasters, headmistresses, supervisors and school counselors will need to concern themselves with three things:

- 1. providing working conditions which will preserve and enhance the teacher’s mental health.**
- 2. engaging and promoting his professional and general intellectual growth, and**
- 3. finding ways of increasing his self –understanding.**

In addition, teachers must be provided with both the physical and psychological conditions of work that will satisfy their emotional needs for achievement, recognition, and a sense of worth. A class of reasonable size, a reasonable teaching load, and an uncrowded classroom, adequate teaching equipment, freedom from too many non teaching duties job security, and an adequate salary are all important factors in meeting teachers’ mental health needs.



The psychological conditions of work are sometimes the most important. The climate of the school – the tone set by the school board, the supervisor, and the Headmaster/Headmistress – as well as the teachers’ relationships with his fellow teachers, counselors, supervisors, parents, and the public, profoundly affects the teachers’ mental health and, in due course, that of his pupils. Poor staff relationships, friction between teachers and parents and the public can do a great harm to the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom.

Every help must be given by school boards administrators and teacher associations to help teacher to continue to grow. In addition to the above, teachers should know how to grow, and how to establish routine because without it a classroom can disintegrate into chaos. But a teacher must and should also learn to break a routine, to provide variety when routine borders on boredom.

3.4 NEEDS OF PUPILS IN SCHOOL

It is convenient to explain behaviour (and personality) in terms of needs. A need is a broad motive that makes certain types of goals attractive and important to the individual. The needs most frequently important in school, as sources of positive motivation or of troublesome behaviour, are those of affection, adult approval, peer approval, independence, and competence and self respect. To ensure you understand our discussion, we shall now consider briefly, some of the child’s needs.

Psychological need: A hungry child will be maladjusted in school as a child who lacks affection.

Need for Affection: Sometimes, a child from a cold or rejecting home finds affection in a teacher. Some adults find an emotionally significant purpose in community service or in a career where they can give and get affection. Many people, however, do not find a way to fulfill this need. Among the adults and children who require help from clinical psychologists, the feeling of rejection is a common trouble. The development of a person is interlocked with the needs and development of others around him. Development continues throughout life. Important adjustments and learning remain to be accomplished in adulthood.



Erikson (1950) refers to the need for mastery as a ‘sense of industry’ which the young child develops during his early school years. Havighurst (1952) refers to it as a developmental task which must occur at a particular stage in a child’s life as he deals with the task of learning to read, use numbers, deal with science and social concepts.

It is important for you to note that the child is not satisfied until he has achieved his objectives of making things, and doing them well; of mastering skills, and becoming proficient. Unless the child develops a sense of industry, unless he accomplishes the developmental task at certain stages of growth, he will be hampered in realising his further psychological growth. He needs not only to be active, to achieve mastery, he also needs to be stimulated. The child must find stimulation or become bored. New ways of working, new games to play, new things to do - these are a part of the need for mastery.

In working with children, it is important for you to keep in mind that what delights the healthy child, what moves him to explore, manipulate, create is often something that contributes to his needs for affection, acceptance, achievement (psychological needs), his needs for food, warmth, air, liquids, rest, and activity (biological needs), his needs for affection, acceptance, and security (social needs), and his needs for self-realisation, creativity and self-expression (integrative needs).

To meet the needs of children, teachers should act not only as catalysts, but also as guides, facilitators or learning, and resource persons. They are cognitive of the fact that the child must learn that both his physical and social world puts limits upon his ability to satisfy his every want. The child, through experience, has to learn that other people too are seeking to satisfy their needs and wants. This means learning self-discipline, tolerance, and self-control. He must learn to accept delay, limits, renunciation, frustration, and rules.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this study unit, you have learnt the definition of health. In addition, we explained the concept of mental health. You have also learnt from our discussion on teacher’s mental health. In addition, you learnt what the needs of pupils in schools are, and what a teacher should do to meet such needs.

5.0 SUMMARY

- 1. What you have learnt in this study unit concerns the definition of health.**
- 2. You have similarly learnt what is meant by mental health.**
- 3. In addition, you have learnt about teacher's mental health and what should be done to foster and improve on it in schools.**
- 4. Also, you have learnt the needs of pupils in school and what the teacher should do to meet them in schools.**

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1a. What three (3) specific things must stakeholders do towards fostering and improving the mental health of teachers in your state?**
- b. Distinguish between health and mental health.**

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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It is now appropriate and meaningful for you to congratulate yourself for the successful completion of your course.



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