

**MODULE 1**

Unit 1	Orientation to Psychology
Unit 2	Social Psychology
Unit 3	Personality
Unit 4	Individual Differences
Unit 5	Adjustment
Unit 6	Social Maladjustment
Unit 7	Implications of Maladjustment for the Teaching and Learning Process
Unit 8	Interventional Role of the Teacher in helping the Maladjusted Children in Schools

**UNIT 1 ORIENTATION TO PSYCHOLOGY****CONTENTS**

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	How to study the Unit
4.0	Word Study
5.0	Main Content
5.1	Definitions
5.1.1	The Meaning of Psychology
5.2	Branches of Psychology
3.3	Reasons for the study of Psychology
6.0	Conclusion
7.0	Summary
8.0	Tutor – Marked Assignment
9.0	References/Further Reading

**1.0 INTRODUCTION**

This unit will expose you to the meaning of psychology, its branches and rationale for studying it. Psychology touches every facet of human life. From day to day our society continues to become more complex and consequently, psychology has assumed an increasingly significant role in handling human problems. Since psychology affects so many aspects of our lives, it is important for everyone to have some knowledge of the basic facts of psychology. A little orientation to psychology gives us a better understanding of why people behave the way they do and gives insight into our own attitudes and reactions. Psychologists engage in a variety of activities depending on their areas of specialisation and work locations. By the end of this unit you should be familiar with the following objectives.

## 2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- define Psychology;
- identify the various areas of specialisation in Psychology; and
- state why the study of Psychology is important.

## 3.0 HOW TO STUDY THIS UNIT

- you are expected to use the study objectives stated above to guide you on what you will learn from the unit
- Read through the sub- topics carefully
- You are expected at the end to go back to your objectives to check whether they have been achieved by you

## 4.0 WORD STUDY

- **Behaviorism Behaviorists:** Group of individuals that saw learning as a mental process that results in change of behavior
- **Behavioral Process:** Observable behaviors such as gestures speech and physiological changes
- **Achievement tests:** All tests and examinations conducted that are graded to depict the actual performance of the examiner
- **Juvenile delinquency:** Deviant behaviors exhibited by children in adolescent periods

## 5.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 5.1 Definitions

#### 5.1.1 The Meaning of Psychology

Psychology has been defined in various ways. The early psychologists defined it as the study of mental activities. When behaviourism came to prominence at the beginning of the last century, and with its concern for studying only those phenomena that could be objectively measured, psychology came to be defined as “the study of behaviour”. Later with the development of cognitive and humanistic psychology, most current definitions of psychology include reference to both behaviour and mental processes.

Consequently, Hilgard, Atkinson and Atkinson (1975) defined psychology as the science that studies behaviour and mental processes. Morgan, King and Robinson (1979) defined psychology as the science

of human and animal behaviour. They further indicated that it includes the application of this science to human problems. Clark and Miller (1979) defined psychology as the scientific study of behaviour. They further stated that the subject matter of psychology includes behavioural processes that are observable, such as gestures, speech and physiological changes and processes that can only be inferred such as thoughts and dreams. Gates (1931) stated that psychology seeks to discover the general laws which explain the behaviour of living organisms. From the various definitions cited above it is clear that psychology attempts to describe and classify the several types of activity of which the organism is capable.

### **SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE**

1. What do you understand by the term, psychology?
2. What are the common features of these definitions of psychology?

### **5.2 Branches of Psychology**

Some of the major branches or fields of specialisation in psychology as accepted by most authorities in that field are listed below:

1. Educational Psychology
2. Social Psychology
3. Counselling Psychology
4. Industrial Psychology
5. Experimental Psychology
6. Physiological Psychology
7. Clinical Psychology
8. Engineering Psychology
9. Community Psychology
10. Abnormal Psychology
11. Personality Psychology
12. General Psychology
13. Psychometrics
14. Developmental Psychology

#### **5.2.1 Description of some fields of specialisation in Psychology.**

##### **1. Educational Psychology**

According to Hilgard, Atkinson and Atkinson (1975) Schools provide a wide range of opportunities for Psychologists. Since the beginnings of serious emotional problems often appear in the early years, many elementary schools employ psychologists whose training combines

courses in child development, educational and clinical psychology. These school psychologists work with individual children to evaluate learning and emotional problems, administering and interpreting intelligence, achievement and personality tests is part of their job. In consultation with parents and teachers, they plan ways of helping the child both in the classroom and at home. They also provide a valuable resource for teachers, offering suggestions for coping with classroom problems.

## 2. **Social Psychology**

We all belong to many different kinds of groups – our family, an informal clique and our social class to mention only a few (Morgan, King and Robinson (1979). The groups to which we belong influence our behaviour and shape our attitudes about many things. Social psychologists are primarily engaged in studying the effect of group membership on individual behaviour. For instance, a social psychologist might study how the decisions of a committee member are influenced by what other members do and say. Sometimes, however, the emphasis is on the way in which an individual affects a group, as in studies of leadership. Another focus of social psychology is on the ways we perceive other people and how these perceptions affect our behaviour towards them. Social psychologists are concerned also with the behaviour of groups: They do a lot of work in public opinion and attitude surveys.

## 3. **Counselling Psychology**

The counselling psychologist engages in many of the same functions as the clinical psychologist, although he/she typically works with students giving advice on problems of school adjustment, vocational and educational goals. Counselling psychologists work with people who have milder emotional and personal problems. Counselling psychologists are often consulted by people with specific question, such as a choice career or educational problem. They may make extensive use of tests to measure aptitudes, interests and personality characteristics.

## 4. **Industrial and Personnel Psychology**

The first application of psychology to problems of industries and organisations was the use of intelligence and aptitude tests in selecting employees (Morgan, King and Robinson, 1979). Today, many companies use modern versions of such tests in their hiring and placement programmes. Private and public organisations also apply psychology to problems of management and employee training, to

improving communication within the organisation, to supervision of personnel, to counselling employees, and to alleviating industrial strife. The industrial psychologists who do this work are sometimes called personnel or organisational psychologists. Many of them work as members of consulting firms which sell their services to companies.

### 5. **Experimental Psychology**

According to Hilgard, Atkinson & Atkinson (1975), the term experimental psychology is really a misnomer because psychologists in many other areas of specialisation carry out experiments too. However, the category of psychologists under study usually consists of those who use experimental methods to find out how people react to sensory stimuli; perceive the world around them, learn and remember, respond emotionally, and are motivated to action, whether by hunger or other desires. Experimental psychologists also work with animals in order to compare the behaviour of different species. Whatever their interest, experimental psychologists are concerned with developing precise methods of measurement and control.

### 6. **Physiological Psychology**

Closely related to experimental psychology is physiological psychology. The physiological psychologist wants to discover the relationship between bodily processes and behaviour. How do sex hormones influence behaviour? What areas of the brain control speech? How do drugs like marijuana affect co-ordination and memory? The physiological psychologist studies man from the neurological viewpoint (Hilgard et al, 1975).

### 7. **Clinical Psychology**

Clinical psychologists engage in the application of psychological principles to the diagnosis and treatment of emotional and behavioural problems – mental illness, juvenile delinquency, criminal behaviour, drug addiction, mental retardation, marital and family conflict and other less serious adjustment problems. A clinical psychologist may work in a mental hospital, a juvenile court or probation office; a mental health clinical psychologist may work in a mental hospital, a juvenile court or probation office, a mental health clinic, an institution for the mentally retarded, a prison or a medical school. He may also practice privately, often in association with other professional colleagues.

### **5.3 Reasons for the study of Psychology**

The study of psychology has been considered quite relevant for so many reasons. According to Chauhan (1978) psychology uses the scientific method to collect data about individuals and groups to analyse and predict their behaviours. Psychology deals with observable behaviours and establishes facts by objective proof or evidence. In psychological studies we attempt to know more and more about the variables that affect behaviours and present causal relationships as a system of hypothesis. Psychology as a science helps us to understand, control and predict behaviour. Psychological findings are applicable to future researches and practical life. Replication studies are used in psychology to safeguard against accepting a chance finding as typical. In psychology, we study how society influences the behaviour of an individual and vice versa. Psychology as a social science studies scientifically cultural and social problems of the society and proffers solutions. Psychology also is concerned with the study of issue of creating and maintaining good relationships between individuals.

### **SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE**

1. Mention at least 15 branches of psychology
2. Discuss on any 5 branches of psychology you study.
3. Give some reasons for the study of psychology.

### **6.0 CONCLUSION**

This unit acquainted you with what psychology is all about, the various areas of specialisation in psychology and the reasons for engaging in the study of psychology. This knowledge will undoubtedly lay the foundation as you proceed in this course for better understanding of the subject matter.

### **7.0 SUMMARY**

In this unit you have been introduced to the meaning of psychology by being exposed to its various definitions. You have also been acquainted with the various branches of psychology also known as the fields of specialisation in psychology. You have also learnt why it is relevant to engage in the study of psychology.

### **8.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT**

1. Give at least four different definitions of psychology.
2. What are the major fields of specialisation in psychology?

3. Discuss five major reasons for engaging in the study of psychology.

## 9.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Adeloye,T (2000) *Fundamentals of Educational Psychology*. New York; Royale Publishers

Chauhan, S.S. (1978). *Advanced Educational Psychology*. New Delhi: Vikas Publishers.

Clark, K. E. & Miller, G.A. (eds) (1970). *Psychology* Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice Hall

Gates, A. I. (1931). *Elementary Psychology*. New York: Macmillan

Hilgard, R.L., Atkinson, R.C. & Atkinson, R.L. (1975). *Introduction to Psychology*. New York; Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Hockenburry, D.H G Hockenburry S.E (2000) *Psychology*. New York; Worth publisher

Morgan, C. T., King, R.A. & Robinson, N.M. (1979). *Introduction to Psychology*. London; McGraw Hill Publishers.

## **UNIT 2    SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY**

### **CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 How to Study this Unit
- 4.0 Word Study
- 5.0 Main Content
  - 5.1 Meaning of Social Psychology
  - 5.2 Boundaries of Social Psychology
  - 5.3 Relationship between Psychology and Education.
- 6.0 Conclusion
- 7.0 Summary
- 8.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 9.0 References/Further Reading

### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

The focus of this unit is mainly on social psychology and the relationship between psychology and education. Social psychology has a variety of definitions by different authors but all these definitions point to the same direction. The relationship between psychology and Education is enormous and should be understood by teachers at all levels. At the end of this unit you will appreciate to a very great extent the scope of social psychology.

### **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

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

- define social psychology;
- identify the closest neighbour of social psychology; and
- discuss the relationship between psychology and education.

### **3.0 HOW TO STUDY THIS UNIT**

- you should study the objectives before going through the content
- Read the unit carefully and understand meaning of social psychology and understand the relationship with other fields of Education.
- Go back to the objectives to see whether they have been achieved by you before you attempt the assignment given at the end of the unit.



## 4.0 WORD STUDY

- **Interactions:** People coming together for the purpose of relating with each other.
- **Inter- dependence:** Group of people working together with each depending on one another in many ways

## 5.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 5.1 Meaning of Social Psychology

Social Psychology which is a branch or an area of specialisation in psychology has been defined in various ways by different authors. Morgan, King and Robinson (1979) defined social psychology as the scientific study of ways of interaction, interdependence, and influences among persons and how they affect their behaviour and thought. This definition emphasises that it is the interactions and interdependence among people that are the socially effective factors which influence most of what we think and do. Similarly, Feldman (2001) defines it as the scientific study of how peoples' thought; feelings and actions are affected by others. For him, social psychologists seek to investigate and understand the nature and causes of peoples' behaviour in social situations. For Hilgard, Atkinson, and Atkinson (1975) Social Psychologists study the ways in which a person's thoughts, feelings and behaviour are influenced by other people. Finally, Lindgren (1973) opined that social psychology is concerned with the behavioural processes, causal factors, and results of interaction among persons and groups.

### 5.2 Boundaries of Social Psychology

An in-depth discussion of the wide range of social psychology may leave one wondering if the field excludes anything. Social psychology is part of the broader field of psychology which itself is situated in the general realm of social science. Within the field of psychology, social psychology is most closely related to personality psychology. Others are developmental and cognitive psychology. Outside the field of psychology, social psychology's closest cousins are Sociology and Anthropology (Feldman, 2001).

### 5.3 Relationship between Psychology and Education

Psychology is the science of behaviour. Behaviour means the activities of living organisms which can be observed and measured in an objective way (Chauhan, 1978). Education in a narrow sense is the modification of behaviour of an individual in a controlled environment. To shape the

behaviour or to bring about some changes, it is necessary to study the science of behaviour. The developmental stages of children and their characteristics are very essential factors which the teacher must be acquainted with to be a successful teacher. If the teacher does not know the science of behaviour, how do we expect that he would succeed in bringing about desirable changes in children? Therefore for one to be a successful teacher, he must be thoroughly versed in the science of behaviour.

## 6.0 CONCLUSION

This unit acquainted you with the concern of social psychology as well as the various definitions proposed by different authors. This undoubtedly had put you in the right frame of mind to face the next unit.

## 7.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have been introduced to the meaning of social psychology. You have also known those courses that share common boundaries with social psychology. The relationship between psychology and education was also highlighted.

## 8.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What is Social Psychology?
2. Which courses of study have common boundaries with social psychology?
3. Discuss the relationship between Psychology and Education.

## 9.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

- Chauhan, S. S. (1978). *Advanced Educational Psychology*. New Delhi: Vikas publishers.
- Feldman, R.S. (2001). *Social Psychology* New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Hilgard, R. L., Atkinson, R. C; & Atkinson, R. L (1975). *Introduction To psychology*. New York: *Harcourt Brace Jaanovich*
- Lindgren, H.C. (1969). *An Introduction to Social Psychology*. New York: John Wilay Publishers.
- Morgan, C.T., King, R.A. & Robinson, N. M (1979). *Introduction to Psychology*. London: McGraw Hill Publishers.

## UNIT 3 PERSONALITY

### CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 How to Study this Unit
- 4.0 Word Study
- 5.0 Main Content
  - 5.1 Meaning of Personality
  - 5.2 Shaping of Personality
- 6.0 Conclusion
- 7.0 Summary
- 8.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 9.0 References/Further Reading

### 1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit focuses on an aspect of psychology – personality. The unit is expected to expose you to what personality is and how an individual's personality is being shaped. No subject in the field of psychology is more fascinating than personality. Tremendous research has been done on the topic but no final conclusions have been drawn as regards the nature of personality. This notwithstanding, studies on personality have continued to flourish.

### 2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- define Personality; and
- discuss how the human Personality is shaped.

### 3.0 HOW TO STUDY THIS UNIT

- you should be guided by the set objectives
- Read the content carefully and understand what personality is.
- Follow the definitions made by the various authorities to understand how personality is shaped.
- Make your own explanation of its meaning

### 4.0 WORLD STUDY

- **Personality:** Behavior of an individual that is peculiar to him/her which differentiates him/her from others
- **Trait:** Any distinguishable way that an individual differs from another person

## **5.0 MAIN CONTENT**

### **5.1 Meaning of Personality**

Psychologists do not agree on an exact definition of personality, hence they have come up with a plethora of definitions of this concept. Hilgard, Atkinson and Atkinson (1975) defined personality as the characteristic pattern of behaviour and modes of thinking that determine a person's adjustment to his environment. The term characteristic in this definition implies some measure of consistency in behaviour that people have tendencies to act or think in certain ways regardless of the situation. For Lindgren (1969), Personality as used by psychologists, refers to the total behaviour of the individual, but particularly to those relatively enduring and consistent aspects that cause us to resemble others in some ways and to be totally different and unique to others.

According to Mischel (1977), personality usually refers to the distinctive patterns of behaviour (including thoughts and emotions) that characterise each individual's adaptation to the situations of his or her life. The emphasis here is on understanding normal individual variation in one's everyday setting. Guilford (1959) defined personality as an individual's unique pattern of traits. A trait is any distinguishable, relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another. Allport (1961) defined personality as the dynamic organisation within the individual, of those psychological systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment. Drever (1952) opined that personality is the integrated and dynamic organisation of the physical, mental, moral, and social qualities of the individual, as that manifests itself to other people in the give and take of social life.

So far we have seen that various perspectives have been adopted to define personality but there is no agreement on a single definition of personality. Though there is diversity of views, nevertheless there are common basic characteristics. One of the basic characteristics is that personality is unique. No two individuals, even the identical twins, have the same personality. The second characteristic is that personality is the product of its own functioning. What we do today depends on our accumulated experiences of the past. The experiences are accumulated day after day and they shape our personality by continuous interaction with the external environment.

### **5.2 Shaping of Personality**

There has been a constant disagreement between hereditarianism and environmentalists as regards the contributions of heredity and environment in the development of an individual's personality.

According to Chauhan (1978), there are some psychologists who over-emphasise the environment influences to the exclusion of heredity in the growth and development of personality, and there is another group of psychologists who claim the superiority of heredity over environment in the development of personality. As a matter of fact, no definite line of demarcation can be drawn between the contributions of heredity and environment in human personality development. There is no doubt that man is the by-product of heredity and environment. Both factors contribute in their different ways to the development of the individual. The way an individual is like or different from other individuals in his performance and personality is due to those factors. Having said that, let us briefly discuss each of the two factors separately as it affects the shaping of personality.

### **Genetic/hereditary Determinations**

Like begets like. Even the lay man knows that it is a common-sense fact that a cat gives birth to kittens, lions have cubs, and human beings have babies. Children, generally, resemble their parents or relations. Thus, heredity pretty much determines what an individual will be like.

### **Environment (social and cultural)**

Determination: Man is a social animal. He is born into a social set up. Some of these social systems include the home, the school and the teacher. They play an important role in shaping the personality pattern of an individual in early infancy. Schools play an equally important role in moulding the personality of children because a significant part of a child's life is spent in school between the age of six and twenty years. The teacher's ways of teaching equally has an important effect on future personality of children. The personality of an individual is equally shaped by the culture he is born into. Culture refers to the total life activities of a society which among others include beliefs, morals, laws, customs and knowledge. Culture leaves permanent impressions on the personality of the child.

## **6.0 CONCLUSION**

This unit has acquainted you with the concept of personality and how the human personality is shaped. You have learnt that genetic /hereditary as well as environmental factors play important role in shaping the personality pattern of an individual.

## 7.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have been exposed to the concept of personality and the various definitions by different authors. You have also been acquainted with the various factors that shape or determine the human personality.

## 8.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What do you understand by the concept personality?
2. Discuss how the human personality is shaped.

## 9.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Allport, G.W. (1961). *Pattern and Growth in Personality*. New York: Holt

Chauhan, S.S. (1978) *Advanced Educational Psychology*. New Delhi: Vikas publishers.

Drever, J. (1952). *The Penguin Dictionary of Psychology*. New York: Penguin Books

Guilford, J.F. (1959). *Personality*. New York: McGraw Hill

Hilgard, R.L., Atkinson R.C. & Atkinson, R.L. (1965). *Introduction to Psychology*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich

Lindgren, H.C. (1969). *An Introduction to Social psychology*. New York: John Wiley publishers

Mischel, W. (1977). On the further of Psychology Measurement. *American Psychologist*. 32, 246-254.

Ronald, T.K (2000) *Cognitive Psychology* (3<sup>rd</sup> Edition)  
USA: Thomson Wadsworth.

## **UNIT 4 INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES**

### **CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 How to Study this Unit
- 4.0 Word Study
- 5.0 Main Content
  - 5.1 Meaning of Individual Differences
  - 5.2 Sources of Individual Differences
  - 5.3 Areas of Differences among individuals
  - 5.4 Classroom Implications of Individual Differences
- 6.0 Conclusion
- 7.0 Summary
- 8.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 9.0 References/Further Reading

### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

This unit focuses specifically on individual differences – its meaning, sources and areas of differences among individuals. It also delves into its implications in the teaching-learning process. The concept of individual differences is synonymous with the concept of personality. Each of us is an individual because each differs somewhat from every other person. Consequently, no two human beings have the same characteristics, not even identical twins. An infant is born with certain potentialities. The development of these potentialities is a function of nature and nurture.

### **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

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

- define individual differences;
- explain the sources of individual differences;
- discuss the areas of individual differences; and
- list the classroom implications of Individual differences.

### **3.0 HOW TO STUDY THIS UNIT**

- you should refer to your previous knowledge on personality
- take yourself as an individual, reflect on your similarities and difference with your brother
- Read through the content bearing in mind the above reflections.

## 4.0 WORD STUDY

- **Socio-economic difference:** deals with differences in income and earnings
- **Introverts:** People who hide their emotions and keep to their selves, hardly mingling with others except selected few. They are usually on the quiet side and secretive
- **Extroverts:** People that are open, talkative and friendly. They relate with others very well

## 5.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 5.1 Meaning of Individual Differences

When Psychologists talk about Personality, they are concerned primarily with Individual Differences. Dreyer (1952) defined individual differences as the variation from the average of the group, with respect to mental or physical characters, occurring in the individual member of the group. According to Hilgard, Atkinson and Atkinson (1975), individual differences refer to the characteristics that distinguish one individual from another. The term characteristics in this definition implies some consistency in behaviour - that people have tendencies to act or think in certain ways regardless of the situation.

### 5.2 Sources of Individual Differences

Individual differences are shaped by both biological (hereditary) factors as well as environmental (socio-cultural) factors. When new-born infants are seen in a hospital, they look pretty much alike, but the physical characteristics that will later make them readily distinguishable from each other are already determined by heredity. Intelligence and certain special abilities such as physical strength, sensitivity, endurance, musical talent, also have a large hereditary component, and some differences in emotional reactivity may be there (Hilgard et al, 1975). It is a common knowledge that parents respond differently to babies with differing characteristics. In this way, a reciprocal process that may exaggerate some of the characteristics present to the potentialities with which the infant is born depends on his experiences while growing up. According to Papalis and Olds (1975) the range of individual differences increases as people grow older. Later in life, experiences and environment exert more influences and since we undergo different experiences and live in different cultures, it is natural that we should reflect these differences.



### 5.3 Areas of Differences among Individuals

Individuals vary widely from each other. Consequently, an understanding and appreciation of the differences among individuals is fundamental to implementing a worthwhile educational programme of providing each and every child with educative experiences geared to his potentials, interest and background. Agbegbu and Anaekwe (1996) identified the following areas of differences among individuals:

- a) **Physical differences**  
Physical differences in height, weight, physical fitness, motor coordination and proficiency are very noticeable, particularly at the age of puberty.
- b) **Sex Differences**  
Generally, boys are taller and stronger than their female age mates. However, females mature earlier. Boys outplay the girls in skills that require physical strength, spatial or mechanical aptitude, hence they tend to dominate the field of Engineering and the physical science. Girls tend to perform better and usually more proficient in the language arts. Generally, girls tend to be more quiet, docile, friendly and responsive to social demands than boys of the same age.
- c) **Age Differences**  
Generally, there is a decline with age in physical competence, agility, muscular strength and sensory acuity. Learning ability also shows a decline with age.
- d) **Socio-Economic Differences**  
Socio-economic differences manifest among different individuals. These exert remarkable influences on our physical and mental health, intellectual and academic status, the kind of clothes we wear or the house we live in, the use of leisure time etc. Socio-economic differences bring about social stratification in the society.
- e) **Intellectual Differences**  
This manifests itself very well in classroom activities. Some of the learners are mentally bright, others are of average intelligence, while some may be dull. Intellectual differences among learners, to a very large extent, is responsible for their differential levels of achievement in class work.

f) **Difference in interests**

Different learners have different interests. A particular method of teaching, for instance may be of interest to a group of learners while it may not arouse the interest of the other group.

g) **Emotional Differences**

In a classroom, it is not uncommon to notice that some of the learners are introverts while others are extroverts or ambiverts. While introverts are withdrawn from class activities or decision taking; the extroverts make friends easily, are sociable, and boastful. The ambiverts exhibit circumstantial behaviours. This means that they are neither introverts nor extroverts but circumstances may warrant them to behave in any of those modes.

#### **5.4 Classroom Implications of Individual Differences**

Agbaegbu and Anaeke (1996) indicated that in the classroom, there exist as many different personalities as there are pupils. A consequence of this is that they react differently to the same content being presented in the class even by the same teacher. Individual differences in learning accounts for this instructional presentation. These differences are rooted in the biogenic and socio-cultural characteristics of the learners. Hence, the product of learning to each of the learners is different and personal (Agbaegbu and Anaeke, 1996).

Since learning is a personal affair, the teacher should not treat the entire pupils in the class as an entity. He should introduce variety and variation in his instructional strategies, instructional materials and use of examples. This is with a view to accommodating the peculiar qualities of each individual in his class.

Some pupils in class may be introverts while others may be extroverts. That being the case, questions should be evenly distributed to both groups to avail each of them the opportunity to participate in the class activities. Agbaegbu and Anaeke (1996) stated that in a class, while some of the pupils have high intelligence quotient (IQ) others have low intelligence quotient.

This underscores the need for the teacher to present problems that demand high mental reasoning as well as lower mental reasoning ability. This is with a view to enabling the not-very –bright pupil in the class to at least attempt correctly lower order problems and have some sense of belonging in the class. Because some students perform better under competitive, cooperative or individualistic learning strategies, the

teacher should endeavour to adopt a variety of these learning strategies during instructional processes.

## 6.0 CONCLUSION

This unit has acquainted you with the concept of individual differences, sources and areas of differences among individuals. The classroom implications of individual differences were also highlighted.

## 7.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have been exposed to various definitions of the concept individual differences. You also learnt that individual differences are functions of heredity and socio-cultural (environmental) factors. The areas of differences among various individuals were highlighted. The implications of individual differences for the teaching and learning situations were discussed.

## 8.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Define Individual Differences
2. Discuss how hereditary and environmental factor shape individual differences
3. Identify and discuss at least five areas of differences among individuals
4. What are the implications of individual differences for the teaching and learning process?

## 9.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Agbaegbu, C. N. & Anaekwe, M. C. (1996). Individual Differences in U. Dappa & Ahiakwo G. J M (Eds) *Psychology of Learning*. Onitsha Noble Graphic Press
- Drever, J. (1952). *The Penguin Dictionary of Psychology*. New York: Penguin Books
- Hilgard, R. L, Atkinson, R.C.& Atkinson, R.L. (1975). *Introduction to Psychology*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich
- Papahlia, D.E. & Olds, S.W. (1995). *Human Development* New York: McGraw Hill
- Sternberg, B. J (2003) *Cognitive Psychology* (3<sup>rd</sup> Edition) USA; Thomas Wadsworth

## UNIT 5     ADJUSTMENT

### CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 How to Study this Unit
- 4.0 World Study
- 5.0 Main Content
  - 5.1 Meaning of Adjustment
  - 5.2 Criteria for Good Adjustment
- 6.0 Conclusion
- 7.0 Summary
- 8.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 9.0 References/Further Reading

### 1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit deals with social adjustment. It takes a concise look at what adjustment is and the criteria for good adjustment. Among all living beings, man has the highest capacity to adapt to new situations. Man as a social animal adapts not only to physical demands but he also adjusts to social pressures. By the end of this unit you should be very much at home with the following objectives.

### 2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- give various meaning of adjustment; and
- enumerate the characteristics of a well adjusted individual.

### 3.0 HOW TO STUDY THIS UNIT

- you are expected to study the various definitions of adjustment
- Take a book at the criteria for good adjustment and reflect on real life situations as example to make the definitions more understandable

### 4.0 WORD STUDY

- **Belief and values:** what is being held sacred and important in a society or by an individual
- **Excessive:** Anything that is more than enough or adequate

## 5.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 5.1 Meaning of Adjustment

Biologists use the term adjustment strictly for physical demands of the environment, but psychologists use the term adjustment for varying conditions of social or interpersonal relations in the society. Consequently, Chauhan (1978) defined adjustment as the reaction to the demands and pressures of social environment imposed upon the individual. Such demand may be internal or external to which the individual has to react. External demands include the urge to do certain things and avoid others, following certain beliefs and set values. Internal or physiological demands include need for food, water, oxygen, sleep etc, which if not satisfied keeps the individual uncomfortable. These two types of demands sometimes come into conflict with each other thereby making adjustment a complex process for the individual. For Shertzer and Stone (1976) adjustment is a term used to denote a general process in which the individual changes response patterns as the dimensions of the environment change. Other terms which are used interchangeably with adjustment include mental health, emotional health and psychological health. Shertzer and Stone (1976) stated that the emotionally healthy individual has been described in many ways: responsible, sensitive to others, respectful of self and others, realistic, insightful into own needs, employs problems-solving approach, possesses sense of human, to cite but a few. A frequently quoted description is that by Jahoda (1950), who calls persons psychologically healthy when they actively master their environment, show considerable unity of personality, and are able to perceive themselves and their world realistically. Such persons are independent and able to function effectively without making undue demands upon others.

### 5.2 Criteria for Good Adjustment

No universal criteria can be set for adequacy of adjustment because criteria involve value judgments which differ from culture to culture and from generation to generation within the same culture. Chauhan (1978) however identified four criteria for judging the adequacy of adjustment.

1. **Physical Health:** The individual should be free from perennial physical ailments like headache, ulcers, indigestion and impairment of appetite. These symptoms in individuals sometimes have psychological origin and may impair his physical efficiency.
2. **Psychological Comfort:** One of the most important facts of adjustment is that the individual has no psychological diseases as

obsession, compulsion, anxiety, depression, etc. If these psychological diseases occur excessively, the individual will be forced to seek professional advice.

3. **Work Efficiency:** The person who makes full use of his occupation or social capacities may be termed as well adjusted in his social set up.
4. **Social Acceptance:** Everybody wants to be socially accepted by other persons. If a person obeys social norms, beliefs and set of values, we may call him well adjusted, but if he satisfies his needs by antisocial means, then he is referred to as maladjusted.

## 6.0 CONCLUSION

This unit acquainted you with the meaning of the concept of adjustment as well as the criteria for good adjustment. This has put you in the right frame of mind to understand the next unit which is on maladjustment.

## 7.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have been exposed to the various definitions of the term adjustment. You have also learnt some of the criteria for judging when one can be said to be well adjusted.

## 8.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1 Explain what you understand by social adjustment
- 2 Discuss the four criteria mapped out by Chauhan for judging good social adjustment.

## 9.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Andrew, m. and Dowson, M (2009) Interpersonal Relationships, Motivation Engagement; Yeild for Theory current Issues and Educational Practice British Journal of Educational Psychology.

Chauhan, S.S (1978). *Advanced Educational Psychology*. New Delhi: Vikas Publishers

Shertzer, B. & Stone, S.C. (1976). *Fundamentals of Guidance*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Jahoda, M. (1950). Towards a social psychology of mental health, in M.F.E Senn (ed.) *Symposium on the Healthy personality*. New York: Josiah Mancy, fr., foundation.

## **UNIT 6 MALADJUSTMENT**

### **CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 How to Study this Unit
- 4.0 Word Study
- 5.0 Main Content
  - 5.1 Meaning of Maladjustment
  - 5.2 Indices of Maladjustment
  - 5.3 Causes of Maladjustment.
- 6.0 Conclusion
- 7.0 Summary
- 8.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 9.0 References/Further Reading

### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

This unit is intended to acquaint you with what maladjustment is. By the end of this unit you should become familiar with the indices and causes of maladjustment. Almost everyone has periods when he feels anxious, depressed, unreasonably angry, or inadequate in dealing with the complexities of life. Each of us at times resort to self-deceptive defence mechanisms when confronted with the threatening situations. It is only when such reactions becomes habitual that we consider them unhealthy.

### **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

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

- define the term maladjustment;
- discuss the indices of maladjustment; and
- enumerate the causes of maladjustment.

### **3.0 HOW TO STUDY THIS UNIT**

- Go through the objectives that are stated
- The introduction is straight forward and it will give you a reflection of the content and meaning
- Take each of the indices of maladjustment and reflect on it in real life situation
- Go back to the objectives to see if they have been achieved

## 4.0 WORD STUDY

- **Repercussion:** Result of an action especially an unforeseen problem that results from actions

## 5.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 5.1 Meaning of maladjustment

The term maladjustment is not very easy to define. Moreover, maladjustment is used interchangeably with many other words. That notwithstanding, some attempts have been made to provide some definitions. First of all, it should be noted that maladjustment is the opposite of adjustment which had been discussed in the previous unit. Drever (1952) defined maladjustment as the condition of a individual who is unable to adapt or adjust himself adequately to his physical, occupational or social environment, with repercussions on emotional life and behaviours. For Hornby (2000) maladjustment is the condition of an individual having mental and emotional problems that lead to unacceptable behaviours. Shertzer and Stone (1980) opined that maladjustment and behaviour disorder are used interchangeably with the term emotional disturbance. For them emotional disorder is a condition in which a disproportionate emotional reaction attends a reality situation. Morgan, King and Robinson (1979) observed that behaviour disorder, mental disorder, mental illness, emotional disturbance, and abnormal behaviour all mean much the same thing. Abnormal behaviour is the broadest since it is sometimes used to refer to a peculiar behaviour in normal people. Coleman and Boren (1972) see abnormality from the point of view of those behaviours which do not conform with social expectations of a given group. They also see abnormality as maladjustment behaviours, that is, behaviours that interfere with the ability of the individual, or the group to function as effectively as possible in a given environment at any point in time.

### 5.2 Indices of Maladjustment

Shertzer and Stone (1980) citing the administrative manual the Bureau of Educationally Handicapped, said that the disturbed child is characterised by the following:

1. An inability to learn that cannot be explained by intellectual, sensory or health factors;
2. An inability to establish or maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationship with peers and teacher;
3. Inappropriate types of behaviour or feelings under normal circumstance;



4. A generally pervasive mood of unhappiness or depressions, and
5. A tendency to develop physical symptoms, pains or feelings associated with personal or social problems.

It is within this type of working definition or description that most school personnel, including counsellors, operate in making day –to-day judgments about the presence, degree and effects of emotional disturbance on pupils. For Nwankwo (1997), abnormality should be understood from the following four fundamental perspectives.

- 1 **Deviation from any given society's values or norms at any given point in time:** Every society cherishes and approves certain behaviour of its members. Any behaviour which deviates from approved and cherished standards are considered abnormal.
- 2 **Time:** This is another important criterion for discussing abnormal behaviour. Time factor influences values, perception, interest and overall behaviour of individuals. In effect, what is considered abnormal behaviour at a particular time (generation) may not be seen as such at other times.
- 3 **Intensity of maladaptiveness:** There is a recognisable degree of maladaptiveness before any behaviour can be regarded as abnormal. That is to say that both the society and the victim are affected adversely by the obnoxious behaviour. Such abnormal behaviour does not foster the well-being of the victim and the society too.
- 4 **Chronicity of distress:** There is persistent personal distress in the individual manifesting some kind of abnormal behaviour. The distress usually could be in form of anxiety, depression, fear, sadness, anger and so on.

### 5.3 Causes of Maladjustment

There are numerous factors in the home, society and school which lead to maladjustment. Chauhan (1978) discussed the following various conditions which leads to frustration of needs which is the basic cause of maladjustment.

- 1 **Physique:** The physique and appearance play an important role in the social development of the child. If the child is physically weak, ugly and has some sensor handicaps, he may be shunned by others. Comments by parents, siblings and strangers affect the behaviour of the ugly, weak, and handicapped children. They develop a number of problems resulting in maladjustment.

- 2 **Long Sickness and Injury:** Long sickness of a child affects his social development and academic achievement in school.
- 3 **Poverty:** There is a positive correlation between poverty and maladjustment in children. The crucial factor in poor homes is that parents cannot even provide the legitimate basic needs of their children. Frustration of needs leads to maladjustment.
- 4 **Broken Home:** Children who come from homes that have been broken by death of parents, divorce, separation, physical or mental handicaps of parents are often more maladjusted than children from more stable homes. Children from broken homes generally lack affection, love, sympathy and security. They are emotionally disturbed.
- 5 **Personal Inadequacies:** Parents who are ambitious and set very high goals for their children irrespective of their physical and mental abilities create frustration in their children.
- 6 **Parent's Attitudes:** Some parents reject their children. The rejected child develops feelings of insecurity, helplessness and loneliness. Rejection and lack of affection may lead to maladjusted behaviour. Equally, over-protection of the child may lead to lack of responsibility, lack of socialisation, aggressiveness, selfishness and general infantile behaviour which may put the child into trouble in the social environment.
- 7 **Value placed on the sex of the Child:** Some parents discriminate between their male and female children. Sons are preferred to daughters in our society. This partial treatment given to girls may lead to maladjustment.
- 8 **Child Adoption:** In some cases, adopted children are maladjusted when they come to know about it.
- 9 **Emotional Shock:** Children who experience emotional shocks such as death, accidents, riots, flood etc may manifest maladjustment in their behaviour.

## 6.0 CONCLUSION

This unit acquainted you with the meaning of the concept maladjustment, indices of maladjustment and the causes of maladjustment. This no doubt has prepared you to follow the discussion on the educational implications of maladjustment in the next unit.

## 7.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have been exposed to various definitions of maladjustment, the indices of maladjustment as well as the possible causes of that condition.

## 8.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Give a definition of the concept maladjustment.
2. What are the characteristics of maladjustment?
3. Briefly discuss the various causes of maladjustment among school children.

## 9.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Chauhan, S. S. (1978). *Advanced Educational Psychology*. New Delhi: Vikas Publishers.
- Coleman, J. C. & Boren, W.E. (1972). *Abnormal Psychology and Modern Life*. London: Scott Foreman Company.
- Drever, J. (1952). *The Penguin Dictionary of Psychology*. New York: Penguin Books.
- Hornby, A. S. (2000). *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Morgan, C. T., King, R. A. & Robinson, N. M (1979). *Introduction to Psychology*. London: McGraw Hill Publishers.
- Nwankwo, O. C. (1997). *Advanced psychology*. Enugu: Fredinco Printing Press.
- Shertzer, B. & Stone, S. C. (1980). *Fundamentals of Counselling*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Uztaz, A (2011). *Psychology from Islamic perspective: Riyadh, king fahad*  
National Library Cataloging Publication

## **UNIT 7      IMPLICATIONS OF MALADJUSTMENT FOR THE TEACHING AND LEARNING PROCESS**

### **CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 How to Study this Unit
- 4.0 Word Study
- 5.0 Main Content
  - 5.1 Implications of Social Maladjustment for the Teaching and Learning Process
- 6.0 Conclusion
- 7.0 Summary
- 8.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 9.0 References/Further Reading

### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

This unit focuses on the implications of social maladjustment for the teaching and learning process. Teaching and learning are activities carried out in a formal setting called the school. The school being a social environment required the individuals within it to interact effectively for the success of the teaching and learning process. For this interaction to occur optimally, both the teachers and learners should be socially well adjusted. If this social adjustment is lacking, thereby giving way to social maladjustment, the process of teaching and learning will adversely be affected. The implications of this social maladjustment on teaching and learning is the subject of the next discussion.

### **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

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

- discuss at least five implications of social maladjustment on teaching and learning.

### **3.0 HOW TO STUDY THIS UNIT**

- you should reflect on the previous unit that explained maladjustment and its indices
- Try to see the problems that will manifest in teaching and learning that are as a result of maladjustment
- Check the objective to see if they are achieved by you.

## 4.0 WORD STUDY

- **Anxiety:** A seeing of unseen that is psychological and sometimes characterized by physical uneasiness.

## 5.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 5.1 Implications of Maladjustment for the Teaching and Learning Process

There are many implications associated with social maladjustment in the classroom. This is so because the maladjusted learner is always in conflict with himself, his teachers and his peers. The implications of having such children in the classroom includes the following:

- The problem of actually identifying the nature of the maladjustment. If the nature is not identified, and adequately managed, the child will continue to be disadvantaged. This is because the insecurities arising from personal maladjustment generate anxiety which may lead to great liability in mood and extreme fluctuations in behaviour. Over activity, withdrawal, loneliness and preoccupation with fantasy may result.
- Due to ignorance, some teachers may over-react to the affected child's behaviour with punishment such as incessant scolding, flogging, manual labour etc. which could end up reinforcing the deviant behaviour. In this case, the teacher's action has produced a negative effect (Cronbach, 1963). At the same time the maladjusted child becomes a nuisance to the teacher. He is usually observed to be disobeying the teacher, and in some cases, the child threatens and even fights the teacher. Consequently, teachers are frightened and unhappy when they have such children in their class.
- Some maladjusted children are often ostracised by their peers mainly because of their egocentric and domineering characters that make them unpopular. This unpopularity according to Cronbach (1963) makes it difficult for the affected child to interact and learn. Moreover, a child with such behaviour disorder causes problems to his peers. He disturbs class works. He quarrels and fights his peers. Some pupils especially the younger ones are usually afraid of going to school because of the deviant activities of the maladjusted child.
- Maladjustment retards the victim's ability to learn because he/she lacks the motivation and self-confidence to do so. Normal

children are usually easily motivated and participate in activities eagerly and with confidence that they will succeed. But for the maladjusted children, new activities are restricted because of their learning difficulties due to their handicapping conditions. They cannot concentrate in the classroom and as such they continue to fail.

- Another problem of the maladjusted child may not always be that of failing to learn, but that of learning other things. For instance, while other learn mathematics, all he learns is that the task is beyond him; that he is a non-coper, that teachers and students find him unreceptive, stupid and inattentive (Cashdan and Williams, 1972). Thus, due to the learning difficulties encountered by the maladjusted child, he would constitute a nuisance to himself and in some cases ends up in prison or commits suicide.
- A maladjusted child has the problem of being easily frustrated and may not develop task-imposed discipline necessary for learning. Ugwu (1994) asserted that emotional disturbance narrows one's perceptual field, making him to ignore relevant details in his environment and this retards his ability to solve problems and draw meaningful conclusions.
- When maladjustment results to failure at school, inability to get along with teacher, dislike for social relationships in school and the belief that school work is unrelated to individual needs, the tendency to drop out of school becomes apparent. But because the prospects for school drop-out is bleak, they are prone to delinquency.

## **6.0 CONCLUSION**

This unit has acquainted you with the implications of social maladjustment on the teaching and learning process. It has highlighted several ways social maladjustment can affect teaching and learning

## **7.0 SUMMARY**

In this unit, you have been exposed to at least seven problems that social maladjustment can create in the teaching and learning process in the classroom. These problems as the case may be affect the maladjusted individual, his peers, his teachers and the society in general.

## 8.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss fully the implications of social maladjustment in the classroom as it affects:

1. the maladjusted child
2. the peers
3. the teachers
4. the society

## 9.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Cashdan, A. & Williams, P(1972). *Maladjustment and Learning*. Bucks: The Open University.

Cronbach, L. J. (1963). *Educational Psychology*. New York: Harcourt Brace

Ugwu, A. B. C. (1994). *Elements of special Education for Higher Education*. Awka: Christian Publisher Company

## **UNIT 8      INTERVENTIONAL ROLE OF THE TEACHER IN HELPING THE MAL- ADJUSTED CHILDREN IN SCHOOLS**

### **CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 How to Study this Unit
- 4.0 Word Study
- 5.0 Main Content
  - 5.1 General Strategies for the Management and Control of Maladjusted Behaviours.
  - 5.2 Specific Strategies for the Modification of Specific Undesirable Behaviours
- 6.0 Conclusion
- 7.0 Summary
- 8.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 9.0 References/Further Reading

### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

In the previous units you have been exposed to the concept of maladjustment as well as its implications for the teaching and learning process in the school. In this unit, the focus is on how to help the maladjusted to change and become adjusted once more. To do this effectively, the teacher has to adapt various strategies that have been tested and found effective in achieving the desired goal.

### **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

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

- discuss the general strategies for the management and control of maladjusted behaviours; and
- discuss the specific strategies for the modification of specific undesirable behaviours.

### **3.0 HOW TO STUDY THIS UNIT**

- Reflect on the 2 previously, and study the objectives presented in this unit.
- Take a look at implication of maladjustment for teaching and learning link them up with the strategies for managing and controlling maladjustment behaviors



## 4.0 WORD STUDY

- **Symbolic Modeling-** employing the use of words and pictures for modification of undesirable behavior

## 5.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 5.1 General Strategies for the Management and Control of Maladjusted Behaviours

Nwoye (1988) outlined the following strategies for managing and controlling children with behaviour disorders;

1. Convincing the behaviour disordered child that he needs to change his behaviour pattern and that if he does so, his future life will be made better.
2. Changing the child's environment (both at home and at school) in such a way that it can promote the child's emotional, cognitive life, and
3. Planning of learning experiences in such a way that the behaviour disordered child may have ample alternatives for action.

Ngwu (1994) came up with a list of strategies that a teacher can adopt to change or modify unacceptable behaviour and encourage acceptable ones in the classroom. They include the following:

1. A teacher should react calmly to misbehaviour as it places him in a better position to get at the root of the behaviour. Related to this is that too much time should not be spent on reprimand as it might reinforce the behaviour by attracting the attention which the child may be seeking.
2. Rules should be established in a democratic way in the classroom. This leads to a better appreciation of rules, why they were made and punishment for offenders.
3. Teachers should avoid threats as they may occur and where this is the case, the teachers authority is eroded. Reporting a child to the higher authority should be the last resort.
4. An average emotionally disturbed child has problem with his memory and may not be able to think and learn in abstract terms. Therefore teaching materials that are of interest to the child should be used.

These include non-projected pictorial materials like real pictures or photographs, hand made drawings, diagrams and graphs, and projected pictorial materials like films and slides of desirable behaviours.

For the child with learning difficulties, Omebe (2001) outlined the following strategies for helping him/her.

1. The use of appropriate teaching method
2. The use of individualised instruction
3. The use of reinforcement
4. Referral to the Guidance Counsellor

For Nwoye (1988) the following approaches should be applied in helping the learning disordered child to get over his/her difficulties.

1. Showing the child that he/she (the teacher) expects him to learn. The teacher does this by bringing the child to the front seat where he would be able to give him or her special attention.
2. Preventing other children from laughing at or making caricature of him, when he fails in his attempt to answer question put to him and
3. Avoiding the temptation to label or call the child by any derogatory name.

Chauhan (1978) came up with the following strategies for the treatment of undesirable behaviour:

1. **Re- education**  
The child has already learned antisocial behaviours. The aim of re-education is to build his self esteem by giving him information and clarify his ideas on different problems which he faces.
2. **Abreaction**  
This involves providing opportunity to the child to express his pent up and suppressed emotional feelings by means of free expression through discussion.
3. **Persuasion**  
Persuade the child not to indulge in delinquency in future. It is based on an appeal to the reason of the delinquent child. Persuasion should be logical and thorough in order to appeal to the delinquent child.

4. **Suggestion and Counselling**  
Everyone is suggestible and children are more suggestible than adults. Positive suggestions are given to strengthen the super ego of the child.
5. **Environmental Treatment**  
This is generally done by improving the home and school environment of the child. In addition, the child may be shifted to another better environment for a temporary period. It is expected that by placing the maladjusted child in a new environment, he may give up his undesirable acts and start his life afresh again.

Ugwu (1994) came up with the following guiding principles for educating the learning disabled.

1. **Individualised Instruction**  
The individual differences inherent in learning disabled children require that programmes be planned and implemented for individuals, bearing in mind their peculiarities.
2. **Continuous Assessment**  
There is the need that the children be continuously assessed to establish their level of progress and definite problem areas.
3. **Task Analysis**  
The fact that most learning-disabled children cannot pay attention for long requires that tasks be broken down into parts which sum up to produce the desired behaviour.
4. **Teaching Materials**  
The learning-disabled cannot engage in abstract thinking. This necessitates the use of concrete, teaching aids. However teaching aids that are complex and over-loaded with information capable of confusing or distracting the child should not be used.
5. **The Teacher**  
The teacher should adopt a more friendly, co-operation and democratic attitude rather than autocratic, domineering and frightening posture. His dressing should be moderate, neat, and free from ornaments to avoid distraction.

### **5.1 Specific Strategies for the Modification of Specific Undesirable Behaviours**

In addition to the general methods of intervention discussions above, there are specific strategies that have been found very useful in helping to bring about desirable changes in young school children with

behaviour problems. These strategies belong to the broad area of study called behaviour modification/therapy. Some of these strategies are discussed below.

### **Modelling Methods**

The term modelling, observational learning, imitation, social learning, and vicarious learning have been used interchangeably. All refer to the process by which the behaviour of an individual (the model) acts as a stimulus for similar thoughts, attitudes and behaviours on the part of observers (Corey, 1996). Through the process of observational learning, client can learn to perform desired acts themselves without trial and error. Bandura (1986) has emphasised the role of modelling in the development and modification of much of human behaviour such as fears developed through social transmission rather than through direct experience with aversive stimuli. Bandura (1986) outline these major effects of modelling, each with significant effects for practice. First is the acquisition of new responses or skills and the performance of them. This observation learning effect refers to integrating new patterns of behaviour based on watching a model or models. Examples include learning skills in sports, learning language patterns, training autistic children to speak through the use of models, learning social skills, and teaching hospital patients coping skills necessary for their return to the community.

The second effect of modelling is an inhibition of fear responses which occur when observers' behaviours are inhibited in some way. In this case the model who performs an inhibited fear response either does not suffer negative consequences, or infact, meets with positive consequences. Examples include models who handle feared objects, and models who perform daring feats like moving into a dark room and do not get hurt.

The third effect of modelling is a facilitation of responses, in which a model provides cues for others to emulate. The effect is to increase behaviours already learned and for which there are no inhibitions. An example is coming to school early and staying in class during lessons.

Several types of model can be used in treatment sessions. Live modelling is a vicarious form of learning in which a client who needs behaviour change is exposed to the sensory experiences of another person. Symbolic modelling employs the use of words or pictures. With written words and pictures some behaviours can be modelled for the interest of those who need to imitate such attributes. Film modelling is equally relevant because films have potential for shaping human behaviour since the behaviour to be imitated has often been reproduced in films.

On the characteristics of effective models, Bandura (1969) indicated that a model who is similar to the observer with respect to age, sex, and attitude is more likely to be imitated than the model who is unlike the observer.

Secondly, models who have a degree of prestige and status are more likely to be imitated than those who have a low level of prestige. However, the status level of the observer should not be too high that the observer sees the models behaviour as unrealistic.

Finally, models who are competent in their performances and who exhibit warmth tend to facilitate modeling effect.

### **Assertion/Assertive Training**

Wolpe and Lazarus (1966) described assertive training as a method of helping people to overcome undesirable behaviours elicited by interpersonal encounters. The rationale for assertive training was presented as follows:

When anxiety inhibits the behaviour called for in interpersonal relations, there are also undesirable consequences. The individual is almost inevitably left at an objective disadvantage vis-a-vis others.... His unexpressed impulse continues to reverberate within him.... In many cases these persistent discharges produce somatic symptoms and even pathological changes in predisposed organs. Although most common class of assertive responses involved in therapeutic actions is the expression of anger and resentment, the term "assertive behaviour" is used quite broadly to cover all socially acceptable expression of personal rights and feelings (Wolpe and Lazarus 1966, p39).

This view hypothesised that if an individual could be encouraged to express his feelings more adequately in interpersonal situations, anxiety could gradually be inhibited since it was assumed to be incompatible with assertive expression of feeling. At each developmental stage in life, important social skills must be mastered, children need to learn how to make friends, adolescents need to learn how to interact with the opposite sex, and adults must learn how to effectively relate to mates, peers and supervisors. People who lack social skills frequently experience interpersonal difficulties at home, at work, at school and during leisure time (Corey, 1996).

**Assertive training can be useful for the following people:**

- Those who cannot express anger or irritation,
- Those who have difficulty in saying no,
- Those who are overly polite and who allow others to take advantage of them,
- Those who find it difficult to express affection and other positive responses and
- Those who feel that they do not have a right to express their thoughts, beliefs and feelings.

Most assertive training programmes focus on defeating beliefs and faulty thinking. People often behave in unassertive ways because they think that they do not have a right to state a view point or ask for what they want or deserve.

**Reinforcement**

Reinforcement refers to the presentation of a positive reinforcer or the removal of a negative reinforcer after a response to increase the frequency of that response.

The event (i.e. the reinforcement) that follows behaviour must be contingent upon (dependent on) that behaviour. There are two types of reinforcement namely, positive reinforcement and negative reinforcement.

**Positive reinforcement**

Positive reinforcement refers to an increase in the frequency of a response that is followed by a positive reinforcer (Craighead, Kazdin, and Mahoney 1976). In other words, positive reinforcement is a behaviour change process in which a positive reinforcer is made to follow the manifestation of a desired behaviour thereby increasing the frequency of that behaviour. A positive reinforcer is any pleasant stimulus which if applied after a response, increases the frequency of the behaviour.

Positive reinforcer can be in form of verbal remarks. Like praise or commendation, or material items or food, pen, pencil, exercise book, eraser, sharpener, sweets etc, or they may be in form of redeemable tokens.

Any event or stimulus that does not increase the behaviour it follows is not an effective positive reinforcer. An increase in the frequency of the preceding behaviour is the defining characteristic of a positive reinforcer. In contrast, rewards are not positive reinforcers because they are given or received in return for service, merit or achievement.

**Negative Reinforcement**

According to Corey (1996) negative reinforcement involves the removal of an unpleasant stimuli from a situation once a certain behaviour has occurred. Put differently, negative reinforcement refers to an increase in the frequency of a response following the removal of a negative reinforcer. Negative reinforcers are generally unpleasant, so that the individual is motivated to exhibit a desired behaviour in order to avoid the unpleasant condition. An event is a negative reinforcer only if its removal after a response increases the performance of that response. Negative reinforcement requires some aversive events such as shock, noise, isolation, which is presented before the individual responds.

The aversive event is removed or reduced immediately after the desired response. An example is a situation where a child is timed –out (isolated) for noise making or any other form of class disruption. This isolation or time-out is an aversive event which can only be removed or stopped if the child shows a willingness to be orderly in the class. The moral or termination of the time-out (isolation) is a negative reinforcer which follows a desirable behaviour or response which is being orderly in class.

**Punishment**

Punishment refers to the presentation of an aversive stimulus or unpleasant event or the removal of a pleasant event after an undesirable response so as to reduce the probability of that response. This definition is at variance with the lay man's view of punishment as application of corporal punishment such as whipping, slapping, manual labour, etc. Azrin and Holz (1966) defined punishment as a reduction of the future probability of a specific response as a result of the immediate delivery of a stimulus for that response. Therefore for an event to meet this technical definition of punishment, the frequency of that response must decrease. Because of the negative connotations frequently associated with punishment, it is important to dispel some stereotypic notions that do not apply to the technical definition of punishment. Punishment does not necessarily entail pain or physical coercion. Punishment is neither a means of retribution, nor a retaliation for misbehaving (Craighead, Kazdin and Mahoney, 1976). Sometimes in everyday life, punishment is employed independent of its effect on subsequent behaviour. For instance, criminals may receive penalties that do not necessarily decrease their criminal acts. In the technical sense, punishment is defined solely by its effect on behaviour. Punishment is effective only if the frequency of a response is reduced.

There are two types of punishment identified by Craighead et al (1976). The first is punishment by application whereby an aversive stimulus is applied immediately after a response. Familiar examples include being

reprimanded or spanked after engaging in an undesirable behaviour, or being burned after touching a hot stove. The second type is punishment by removal whereby a positive reinforcer is removed after an undesirable response. Examples include losing privileges like not watching a favourite film after stay out late, or for failing to complete a home work; losing pocket money for misbehaving, or having one's driving licence revoked for reckless driving. Whether these examples from everyday life qualify as punishment depends upon whether they decrease the frequency of the antecedent response.

### **Time-out**

Time-out also called social isolation is a behaviour change strategy that is used to manage certain situation - specific excess behaviour. Essuman, Nwaogu and Nwachukwu (1990) defined it as a technique which removes an individual from the source of social reinforcement that maintains his behaviour. During time-out an individual is removed for a short while from a reinforcing situation in order to eliminate or decrease an undesirable behaviour. Essuman et al (1990) recommended a screened-off area adjoining the classroom as an ideal place for time-out following a disruptive classroom behaviour. The child remains in social isolation for a minimum period of time, usually about 10 minutes. Return to the classroom is contingent upon the passage of fixed period of time or the passage of that time period plus appropriate behaviour in the last minutes of the isolated period.

The technique can be used to manage undesirable classroom behaviour like hyperactivity, aggression and other disruptive behaviour.

### **Counter-Conditioning**

Yates (1970) defined the terms counter conditioning and reciprocal inhibition as equivalent terms referring to the procedures that strengthen alternative (or new) responses to stimuli to which maladaptive responses are attached. Counter-conditioning takes place when the behaviour change agent reinforces an incompatible alternative behaviour in order to stop the obnoxious or excess behaviour.

The first move towards counter-conditioning is to select an alternative to the disruptive behaviour being exhibited by the client. An alternative or incompatible behaviour is one that is difficult to perform simultaneously with the deviant behaviour. Essuman et al (1990) cited the following examples: A child instead of reading engages in noise making. The teacher can stop the noise making by making reading pleasant through offering the child help in his efforts at finding out the difficult words in the passage. While the child engages in the reading exercise, the teacher praises him, and with time, the child forgets his noise-making tendency. Examples of incompatible behaviour according to them are:



- Crying and eating
- Thumb sucking and manipulating objects
- Talking and listening to a peer at the same time
- Reading and noise-making
- Problem-solving and movement in the class.

Counter conditioning can be used to manage anxiety, stress, phobias etc.

### **SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE**

List the specific interventional strategies that a teacher can adopt in managing disruptive classroom behaviour.

## **6.0 CONCLUSION**

An important function of the school is to modify behaviour towards a desired goal. In this unit, you have been exposed to the various general and specific strategies that the teacher can apply in handling undesirable behaviours in the classroom in order to attain one of the goals of being in school which is social adjustment.

## **7.0 SUMMARY**

This unit has shown that various disruptive behaviours are manifested by children in the classroom. Various interventional strategies for handling such behaviours equally abound. The interventional strategies the teacher can adopt in dealing with disruptive behaviour were discussed under two headings – general and specific.

## **8.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT**

1. Discuss the strategies mapped out by Nwoye (1988) for the management and control of behaviour disorders.
2. Discuss assertion/Assertive training as a technique for handling a specific undesirable behaviour.

## **9.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING**

- Azrin, H. H. & Holz, W.C. (1966). In W. K. Honig, (Ed.) *Operent Behaviour: Areas of Research and Application*. New York: Appleton Century Croft.
- Bandura, A. (1969). *Principles of behaviour Modification*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and actions: A Social Cognitive Theory*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J: Prentice hall.
- Chauhan, S. S. (1978). *Advanced Educational Psychology*. New Delhi: Vikas publishers
- Corey, G. (1996). *Theory and Practice of Counselling and Psychotherapy*. Pacific Grove CA: Brooks/Cole Publishers
- Craighead, W. E., Kazdin, A. F. & Mahoney, M. J (1976). *Behaviour modification: Principles, issues and applications*. Boston; Houghton Mifflin Company
- Essuman, J. K, Nwaogu, P.O & Nwachukwu, V. C. (1990). *Principles and techniques of behaviour Modification*. Owerri: International Universities press.
- Nwoye, A. A.(1988). *The Task and Demands of Counselling the Disabled Persons in Nigeria*. Jos: Fab Anieh Limited.
- Omebe, S.E. (2001). *Human Learning*. Enugu: Cleston Ltd.
- Ugwu, A. B. C. (1994). *Elements of Special Education for Higher Education*. Awka: Christian publishing company.
- Wolpe, J. & Lazarus, A. A. (1966). *Behaviour Therapy Techniques*. New York: Perganon.
- Yates, A. J. (1970). *Behaviour Therapy*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.