

**CHILD DEVELOPMENT
AND EDUCATION**

BY

BERNADETTE U. MENKITI

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Published by:
Chembus Communication Ventures

First published in 2008
Reviewed 2012

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ISBN: 978 – 36189 – 8 – 9

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DEDICATION

To God, the author of my life.

To my father, J.E. Menkiti (Late) who heeded to the
call for my quest for education.

To all who help to form and develop human beings.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I acknowledge in no small way, the Provost of the Institute of Ecumenical Education, Thinker's Corner, Enugu, Rev. Fr. (Professor) Christian Aneke who through his speeches delivered in many meetings and activities held in the Institute, encouraged my the embark on writing this book. I am grateful to Mrs. Meg Okolo who supplied me with abundant materials which helped in putting this book together. I am also grateful to Miss. T.C. Egwuji who did the initial typing of this book: Ngozi Okeke who did the initial computer work and Ijeoma Abanobi who made the final computer correction. I sincerely acknowledge the members of my family especially Chukwudi and Nwasinachi Menkiti for their encouragement, understanding and useful advice that helped to make the production of this book less stressful.

PREFACE

My main objective in writing this book is to provide broad based information for knowledge and understanding of how man develops from conception to adolescence. It has been my sincere desire to help education students in the universities and colleges of education in the area of child development and education. I have tried to look at the phenomenon of development, changes, issues and researches, and the theories that provide meaningful and coherent explanations and interpretations of the facts that the book is designed to address. Many examples and illustrations are drawn from the Nigerian contexts to ensure that students are at home with the concepts and issues discussed in this book.

Psychology is a wide field of study and so making selections of relevant areas for education students was not an easy task. However I was guided by what students in tertiary institutions are expected to study in child development and education in making the selections.

Child Development and Education is addressed to psychologists nurses, teachers, educators, parents and students of psychology and to others who seek to understand how human beings develop. The book is arranged in twelve chapters beginning with chapter one which deals on the nature of psychology; chapter two which covers the concept of growth and development, through to chapter twelve that discusses basic elements in

adolescent psychology. At the end of each chapter, I articulated educational implications to act as a guide to teachers and student teachers whose duty it is to develop children in the classroom. The information which Child Development and Education provides is sufficient for one semester course for undergraduate and post graduate students in tertiary institutions.

The book is comprehensive but not exhaustive and it does not attempt to deal on all aspects of child development. So ample opportunity is offered to teachers to select, explain, elaborate and expand information/material in this book.

The references at the end of the book go beyond the authors cited they contain other authors who provide ideas and clues of what should form part of the book.

The book is produced not only to help student teachers pass their examinations but also to help them to observe, understand and predict their children and students in schools in order to help them become useful and well adjusted individuals. I hope that the book will help to build up a strong foundation, evoke and stimulate interest for further research in the area of child developmental psychology.

MENKITI BERNADETTE U.

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CHAPTER ONE

THE NATURE OF PSYCHOLOGY

What is Psychology?

People all over the world discuss, interact to understand one another and how they influence what others do, say, think, desire, feel, etc. Many professionals in various fields especially story writers, actors and historians have done a lot to exhibit how people act, their gestures, overtures, tone of voice. The bottom line of what these professionals want to understand, exhibit, discuss or influence is behavior of people. According to Nwachukwu (1992) creatures that breathe do a variety of actions and these actions form the subject matter of psychology.

Defining psychology is a problem, since there is no single definition that has been accepted by all psychologists especially at the earlier period of its evolution as a scientific discipline in the family of social sciences. The earliest definition of psychology was that it is the science of soul or mind and it is Blancard (1693) who conceptualized it as such. Along with Blancard, Aquinas in Oniel (1974) defines the word psychology as the study of the soul or human nature. Soul means a person's inner character containing their true thoughts and feelings, sensations, urges and the principles underlying the phenomena of this mental and spiritual life. No one can see, feel or touch soul or mind, but the content

of mind is made known from the behavior the individual exhibits. The snag is that neither soul nor mind can be defined in definite and scientific terms. Therefore defining psychology as the study of soul becomes subjective. As a result, there arose oppositions to the definition.

Another definition of psychology was evolved in the area of the study of all the conscious activities an individual carries out everyday in his external environment. Defining psychology as the science of consciousness was eventually rejected on the ground that consciousness is very negligible in relation to the totality of man's actions and behavior.

Watson, a behaviourist (1919) in (Miller, 1970) sees psychology as that division of natural science that takes human behavior – actions or doings, sayings, both learned and unlearned as its subject.

After the Renaissance or rebirth or learning (about 14th – 16th century) there was a great revolution, which occurred in the field of psychological thought and which helped to redefine the science of psychology. The mentalistic/mechanistic viewpoint of psychology was therefore replaced by another psychological viewpoint, which states that psychology touches on the totality of an individual's behavior, thoughts, attitudes etc. This new psychological thought gave rise to behaviourism, cognitive and humanistic approach which has led to different definitions of psychology in the area of the study of behavior and mental process. As a result of this new viewpoint in psychology, other more objective definitions have

been evolved by various psychologists. Psychology therefore came to be defined as “the scientific study of organisms (human and animals) and the application of this scientific study to the solution of problems of human beings.” This means applying or putting into practice what is studied in psychology in order to solve human problems.

Holland (1981) defines psychology as the science of behavior and the study of individuals and what they can do. For Wood and Wood (1993) psychology is the scientific study of behavior and mental processes. Obidigbo (2003) conceptualizes psychology as the science of human and animal behaviours and how these are modified. Psychology as a science helps us to observe, understand, control and predict behavior. In their own view, Mussen (1970) defines psychology as a scientific study of behavior of organisms and the study is done through observation which enables the psychologists to understand learning, thinking, memory, motivation, emotion and personality.

Psychology addresses a number of problems some of which are: how do people learn; to what extent are people’s personality shaped by biological and environmental circumstances; what do we describe as mental problems and how is it treated? It also seeks to study the problem of adjustment and maladjustment, emotional problems, mental health and so on. Psychologists are interested in how and why an individual behaves the way he does. Psychology as a science helps the observation, understanding, predicting, explaining and

controlling of behavior. It is both a biological and a behavioural science. In the biological sense, it studies the biological determinants of motivation, learning, intelligence, abnormality and personality while as a science of behavior, it studies how and why an individual behaves the way he does his own things.

What is Behaviour?

Clifford (1981) explains that behavior is an activity an individual engages in such as sleeping, talking dancing, thinking, hating, crying, etc. Behaviour can be covert (unobservable and hidden) such as thinking, meditating and overt (observable and not hidden) such as dancing, singing, walking, writing, climbing among others. Covert behavior cannot be measured unless it is made overt through one form of action or another. Behavior is made up of three components

- (a) Cognitive component e.g. thoughts opinions, beliefs
- (b) Affective component e.g. feelings or emotions
- (c) Psychomotor component e.g. actions

Behavior is defined simply as the response of an organism to its environment. It is the response of the organism to its environmental stimulation. All forms of behavior, simple or complex are reactions to stimuli. A stimulus is a change in some aspects of the organism's environment. It is by its behavior in response to stimuli that an organism lives or survives (Nwachukwu, 1992). Stimuli come from

both living and non-living parts of an organism's environment.

Teachers study behavior in order to:

- (a) Understand
- (b) Predict, and
- (c) Control behavior

Teachers should understand their students, their intelligence, how they learn, how they react, how they relate with the teachers and to themselves. Most of all, teachers should understand themselves.

Teachers are supposed to predict and if they cannot predict, they cannot teach. Prediction is a statement that says what people think will happen. It is also behaving or something happening in a way that people would expect somebody to behave or something to happen. Prediction is therefore based on previous experiences. Teachers need to predict behavior. They need to predict that children of certain age cannot learn certain lessons and that extra bright children can go faster than slow ones.

Teachers are expected to control the behavior of their children. Control in this sense means influencing other people in an expected direction for maximum results. Teachers who want to achieve their goal must control the behavior of their students.

Scope of Psychology

Psychology covers a lot of grounds and these grounds cover our behavior, thought processes, emotions values, impulses, interest, etc. This implies that psychology covers all areas of human

activities and experiences. Therefore psychologists can work in organizations, institutions and establishments, in schools, hospitals, churches, etc. Specifically psychology covers areas like behavior modification, learning/teaching, psychological testing and research work.

Education

Education is a concept or a term which is not easy to pigeonhole into one universally accepted definition. It is a term which many people are familiar with but which lends itself to various definitions. This gives rise to different interpretations, explanations and definitions of education.

Education is referred to as a process by which an individual is developed socially, physically, emotionally, intellectually, spiritually and morally so that the individual can effectively live and be lived with in the society. It is also used to refer to the transmission of beliefs, values, traditions and customs of a society to its members from one generation to another. In modern usage, education indicates schooling.

Some people view education as a process, some as a product and some as a course of study in institutions of learning. Onowor (1987) explains that education as a process emphasises a shift from the amount of materials of knowledge accumulated to the change that the materials learnt should make to the educated individual. This view is focusing on the quality of knowledge acquired rather than the

quantity. It also focuses on how knowledge is transmitted and acquired. When education is interpreted as a product, it is referred to as the amount of education a person has and this is measured by the amount of knowledge acquired from various levels of educational institutions from primary through secondary to the university. One is therefore a product of any level of education one terminates at or attains.

The third view of education as a term is seen in the area of various courses people study and the structures set up to provide and make available necessary information in relation to these various courses. There are three (3) aspects of education.

- Formal education which is acquired through schooling
- Informal education – whereby children learn informally from parents, significant others, parent substitutes and peers, etc.
- This is obtained outside the school environment
- Non-formal education – a process of learning through the activities of governmental or non-governmental organizations like the Red Cross, Boy Scouts, Man-O-War, etc.

Educational Psychology

Schools are provided so that the learner can learn. The main problem facing those who cause students/pupils to learn is seeking how best to make them learn and to make learning easier for them.

Learning must be facilitated to remove every impediment or stumbling block standing against effective learning and create a favourable and conducive school environment for effective, enriching and result oriented learning.

Glassier (1973) in Child (1980) writes that traditionally educational psychology has endeavoured to apply the findings in general, social and child psychology to assist in better understanding of learning processes. The factors which influence the quality and quantity of learning, offer the means of appraising children's behavioural differences and help the evaluation of both the teachers and the children's strength and weaknesses.

Educational psychology, writes Durojaiye (1976), is "the study of the ways in which the learner can be most effectively brought into successful interaction with the materials to be learnt, the learning situation and the teacher who provides the learning opportunity." For the writer, it is the application of the principles derived in psychology to the solution of problems in education, that is, in teaching/learning situations. The scientific foundation of educational psychology is derived from psychology. Principles, methods of investigation and tools used for the investigation are also derived from psychology. These principles, techniques and methods are applied to the solution of problems which teachers face, in trying to assist children to understand, learn and internalize.

Educational psychology is also useful in the area of human growth and developing whether manifested at home, school or community because they affect how students respond to learning. Educational psychology may therefore be defined as the application of knowledge of psychological principles/findings to the field of education in order to facilitate learning and then, to, as much as possible, prevent learning loss. According to Chanhon (1981) educational psychology is an applied discipline, which combines the different fields of education and psychology in a scientific study of human behavior, which can be understood, predicted, controlled and directed by education to achieve both educational and life goals.

Scope and Contents of Educational Psychology

- (a) Psychology helps the teacher to understand the development of his students/pupils
- (b) It helps the teachers to understand the process through which learners learn and their social relationships. Their social relationships imply their interpersonal relationships with the teachers and among themselves in the class, outside the class, at play, at work and in the face of threat or danger.
- (c) Through the knowledge of psychology the teacher will understand himself better, accepts his assets and liabilities (his strengths and weaknesses) and then learn

how to strengthen his weaknesses and how to utilise his assts for effective teaching and learning.

- (d) The knowledge of educational psychology helps the teacher to keep a developed and impartial point of view with regards to current educational issues and practices as a result of his ability to do research and to continue to improve himself. (Derived from Chanhan, 1981).

Contributions of Educational Psychology

Educational psychology has made a lot of contributions first to the theories of education and secondly to the practice of education. The following are its contributions to the theories of education as enunciated by Chanhan (1981).

- (a) *It has assisted in the understanding of human development characteristics.* Development of a human being starts immediately conception takes place through to the time the individual is born and then from infancy to adulthood. Each of these stages of development has its characteristics. It is necessary that the teacher understands the characteristics that emerge at each stage and be able to utilize them for effective teaching and learning.
- (b) *Understanding the nature of classroom learning.* The knowledge of educational psychology helps the teacher to understand the process of learning and problems arising from this. How to solve these problems is part of the

contributions of educational psychology. Everyday experience in the classroom has shown teachers that varying approaches and methods of teaching which are appropriate for children in various classes at various levels of educational institutions should be made use of.

- (c) *To understand individual differences.* It has been known from studies that no two persons are alike, not even the identical (homozygotic) twins. Individuals are different in gender, physis, intelligence, family background, emotions, etc. So a teacher who has 20 or 30 children should understand that they are all different and so study factors responsible for the differences and how to help them to achieve learning.
- (d) *Formulation of curriculum.* What should be taught, how, when and why it should be taught should be articulated with the knowledge acquired from the study of educational psychology as a guide. What should be incorporated into the curriculum content should be in areas of need of both the children and the society. The curriculum formulation should take care of the age of the learners both mental and chronological, their attention span and their level of maturation etc.
- (e) *Measurement and Evaluation.* This contribution is of great importance. Psychological tools developed by psychologists have assisted the teacher to measure what has been taught through tests, assignments,

projects, seminars among others. The teacher can also evaluate the learning outcome of the learners and himself to ascertain how far effective teaching and learning have occurred.

- (f) *Research.* Knowledge is dynamic. With the new system of information technology, acquiring new information and new knowledge, in the area of education has increased. Educational psychologists have developed psychological tools to assist in carrying out studies/researchers on the mirade of information and knowledge made available in the area of education. The findings of these research works especially in the area of behavior and performance of students have helped teachers to understand, predict, explain, direct and control the behavior of students for effective classroom activities.
- (g) *Exceptional/disabled children.* These children who were thought to be useless both to themselves and the society and so denied of any educational opportunities have benefited from the contributions of educational psychology. It has paved the way for the provision and organization of special education for the children.

Contributions of Psychology to the Practice of Education

Psychology contributes to the practical aspect of education. This involves all activities that help in putting the theoretical contributions of educational psychology into effective use for proper teaching and

learning to take place. These activities can be seen in the area of:

- a. *Disciplinary problem:* Discipline in this context has to do with the practice or act or method of training people to obey rules, regulations and orders and then punishing them when they fail to do so. (Hornby, 2001). Disciplinary problem arises in connection with the punishment of people who break rules. These disciplinary problems can be solved through the application of psychology which lays guidelines or principles on how, when and what disciplinary measures to apply for each disciplinary problems in order to correct an individual.
- b. *Use of instructional materials:* These are introduced and used in the course of teaching by the teacher. The use of the materials makes difficult concepts and ideas clearer, definite and easier to understand. It also makes learning more lasting. This is because materials make students use their physical senses of touch, sight, hearing, speech and taste as teaching is going on. It is the knowledge of educational psychology that has made teachers realize the importance of instructional materials to teaching and learning.
- c. *School and classroom organisation and management:* The study of educational psychology has equipped teachers with necessary skills to deal with teaching/learning problems. The effective management of class resources – human and materials and their

organisation for effective school and classroom activities results from proper utilisation of the knowledge of educational psychology by teachers. Classroom organisation and management is very crucial because the realisation of curriculum objectives is a function of how a teacher organizes and manages his class.

- d. *Provision of textbooks:* With the knowledge of educational psychology, textbooks are produced bearing in mind the intellectual development of students, their needs and interests at various age levels. This enables both the teacher and the learner to have wider knowledge of things around them and by so doing broaden their view, knowledge and experience of what should be taught and learnt.
- e. *Provision of school psychological services:* These services are undertaken in the area of counselling, testing and guiding the students.
 - School psychologists are involved in testing and counselling of students who need special attention.
 - Educational psychologists (may include school psychologists) are concerned with increasing efficiency of learning in schools through the application of psychological knowledge about learning and motivation to the curriculum.

History of Child Development

Developmental psychologists focus their interest and attention on the study of human development, the sequential changes in human beings which begin with conception and continue until the individual dies.

Going back to about 300 – 200 BC we read about the fate of children in many societies including Greece where Plato and Aristotle worked hard to describe ideal societies and their suggestions regarding child rearing practices. Parents in the main were not supportive of their children. In the *History of Childhood*, 1974, edited by Lloyd de Mause it was reported that before the eighteenth century, both parents and teachers used to abuse their children. There was no expression of love. Based on the attitude of parents, the contributions to the History of Childhood reached some conclusions which were summed up by de Mause as follows:

The history of childhood is a nightmare from which we have only recently begun to awaken. The further in history one goes, the lower the level of child care and the more likely children were to be killed, abandoned, beaten, terrorized and sexually abused. This kind of child rearing continued until about 400BC when philosophers, church leaders and political leaders began to cry out against infanticide. It however took many

centuries for infanticide to be replaced by more humane handling of children.

De Mause and co-contributors gave some reasons or explanations on why parents meted out such cruel treatments to their children. The first one was that at the time, more babies were born and parents found it difficult to conveniently feed, clothe, house and or eventually get them employed. There was no knowledge of birth control of any type and so infanticide was considered the best logical option for population control. Abnormal and irritable children were not allowed to survive. Healthy first-born sons were allowed to survive but daughters born to any family no matter their position or characteristics were most likely to be eliminated. Plato, for instance, recommended a law that no abnormal child should be allowed to survive. In order to control population too, parents chose to kill their children or fail to care for them.

The next explanation was that the children were considered unimportant perhaps, because, both parents engaged themselves working for many hours everyday, especially women of the lower class and perhaps children did not contribute financially to their upkeep. In England at this period, children were considered unimportant to the extent that they had an adage which stated “who sees a child, sees nothing”. The contributors again noted that during this period children did not live long – about thirty year – life expectancy and that most pregnancies ended up as stillbirths. Parents, therefore, because

of fear of failure or survival developed callous and inhuman attitude towards their children. Finally infants were dependent on their parents or at least one of their parents. De Mause and company speculated that parents living under squalid conditions transferred their frustration on their children.

Between the fourth and thirteenth centuries, parents had started to accept the idea that children have souls but had developed little sense of parental responsibility to their children and therefore the children experienced abandonment from their parents. From the fourteenth to the eighteenth centuries, there began a shift from the inherent wicked notion about children by parents to children being innocent. It was literal and extreme interpretations of the doctrine of original sin which was widely accepted at the time in Europe that gave rise to the notion that children were inherently wicked. This notion was reflected in these bible statements:

- I was shapen in iniquity and in sin did my mother conceive me (Psalm 51³)
- He that spares his rod hates his son and he who loves his son chastises him (Proverbs 13²⁴)
- Foolishness is bound in the heart of a child, but the rod of correction shall drive it away. (Proverb 22¹⁵)

Parents too upheld this notion that the children were inherently wicked. They were therefore encouraged to correct their wicked behavior though making

use of frequent punishment. But from the eighteenth century there was a remarkable shift in the thinking of people about the nature of children. The mode of preaching by pastors took a change in direction where they emphasized that baptism helped to purify a child's immortal soul. There was no longer emphasis on biblical interpretations of sin but on the verses of the bible like the ones below.

- Except you are converted and become as little children, you shall not enter the kingdom of God (Matthew 18³)
- Suffer not the little children to come to me and do not forbid them; for of such is the kingdom of God (Mark 10¹⁴)
- Train up a child in the way he shall go; and when he grows he will not depart from it (Proverb 22⁶)

The proponents of this view were

- (a) John Amos Comenius, the famous Slavic educational reformer of the seventeenth century was the first person who felt that children should be studied not as miniature adults but, that, the nature of children should be studied in order to understand their abilities and how to deal with them. The study of Comenius spurred other educational reformers who contributed indirectly, valuable information about children and what they were capable of accomplishing. These other reformers include John Locke of England; Jean J. Rousseau of France; Pestalozzi of

- Switzerland; Herbert and Frobel of Germany
- (b) John Locke, an English philosopher who argued that experience and observation were the sources of all ideas. In his book *Some Thoughts on Education* (1693), Locke pointed out that at birth the mind of the baby was 'blank' (tabula rasa) but it did not lack personality. Locke advised parents to be patient with their children, employ them in useful ventures and he recommended the use of praise and commendation instead of punishment. Locke saw children not as depraved victims of original sin but as rational, innocent and benevolent individuals.
- (c) Jean Jacques Rousseau was the next psychologist of this period who viewed children as innocent and good. He believed that everything (children included) is good as it comes from the hand of God, the maker of the world but degenerates as it gets into the hands of man. In his book *Emile*, he recommended that the basic purpose of education should be to develop the individual and that each mind has form of its own which will guide its direction. Fathers should observe their children before giving them any direction or speaking a word to them. He advocated that the children's inherent good nature will help them make good and wise choices about

what they should learn, provided they are screened from negative aspects of society. He believed that man is perfectible and recommended that children should be educated and not be left to develop entirely on their own.

- (d) Pestalozzi's 1774 observational study of his three and half year old son was the first scientific record of child development. Tiedemann of Germany after some years kept biological records of the development of his children during the early years.

By the 18th century, there was no specialised scientific area in psychology that was called "developmental psychology" as yet because interest had not been generated in the area of scientific child study. It was the study of Itard, the young physician who worked on retarded Victor and tried to transform him into a civilised Frenchman that revealed that science can be applied to human behaviour and development (Nwachukwu, 1995). Many years after Itard's work with Victor, scientific concern about children started and this was traced to the changes brought about by industrial revolution. By the nineteenth century early developmental psychologists still continued to deal on the general question of human growth and development.

The turning point that induced scientists to view the development of organisms as an area of

study was the publication of Charles Darwin's evolution theory in his book, *The Origin of Species* in 1859. Because his work was widely accepted, children came to be viewed as an all-encompassing unit or for the study of different areas of development.

By the end of the nineteenth century, developmental psychologists began to form organisation to promote and make people more aware of their work. Prominent among these developmental psychologists was Stanley G. Hall of Clerk University who generated interest in scientific study of children. He carried out this study, which started with children's concepts reported in 1891 in his *Contents of Children's Mind on Entering School*. He laid emphasis on the fact that children are not miniature adults. Hall formed Child Study Association in 1890 and established the first journal on child development. This innovation spurred the formation of other child welfare organisations and the springing up of institutions and departments in various major universities. These institutions and departments were devoted to the study of the process of human development. He generated and stimulated a lot of interest through his study and so he is often referred to as 'father of the child study movement'.

Since then other developmental psychologists have emerged and have continued to emerge. All study children from their different perspectives

using different methods, techniques and tools. Such developmental psychologists include J.B. Watson

who conditioned Albert, an eleven month-old boy to fear a white rat; Arnold Gessel championed maturation and inner determination of human beings. B. F. Skinner known for shaping of behaviour; Eric Erikson who dwelt on psychosocial developmental theory; Sigmund Freud of psychoanalytic fame, Albert Bandura and Abraham Maslow, a humanistic psychologist. The list is not exhaustive as it continues to get longer as new developmental psychologists make their entry into this branch of psychology. This is necessary for continued research and experiment on how and why children behave the way they do.

Branches of Psychology

1. Physiological psychology – of animals and humans- that is the study the body structures (various parts of the body) and the type of effect they have on behaviour, e.g. the study of the brain and the central nervous system and how they impact on the study – behaviour connections.
2. Social psychology – is the study of social institutions and their impact on the behaviour of the individual; the institutions are external. Social psychology looks at or examines the impact of these social institutions and the psychological characteristics of people in these settings; (such as the home, school, village, etc), how, for instance, the family background can affect the academic achievement of children at school.

3. Developmental psychology is a broad field of study in which all the areas of development are studied from conception to death. In these areas are studied the social, moral, physical and motor, emotional, intellectual characteristics and development of children. This is very relevant to education specialists who draw extensive information or knowledge for application to teaching.

There are a number of fields where the knowledge of general, physiological, social and developmental psychology is applied. These applied fields help to make up the branches of psychology and they include the following:

4. Clinical psychology – this is the study of normality or abnormality of human behaviour. It makes use of findings from other branches and also offers useful criteria for defining attributes of normal mental life and healthful living. This branch is of interest to psychiatrists and clinical psychologists.
5. Occupational psychology involves the study of vocational development, job selection and satisfaction.
6. Educational psychology is another important applied branch of psychology, which has tried to apply the findings of general, social and child development to better understand and

solve educational problems. It provides the means for appraising individual children's

similarities and differences, their group behaviour and also gives a means of evaluating their strengths and weaknesses as teachers and learners. (Glaser 1973).

7. Experimental psychology is useful to psychologists in this area, who carry out experiment/research to find solutions to the problem of education. Their research findings have assisted in better understanding of such areas of learning as motivation, remembering and forgetting, transfer of learning, personality etc. It is useful to anyone who deals with young ones and also to parents in the context of their daily lives and interactions with others.
8. Industrial psychology and cybernetics which is the study of how to run business enterprises by applying psychological principles in job generation, selection, analysis, specification, satisfaction, policy formulation, work area conditions, decision making, maximum production. It helps in the study of machine simulation, of human function.
9. Counselling psychology: In this area psychological principles are applied in order to help people solve their day-to-day problems. The counselling psychologists handle some degree of emotional problems. They are found in mental health institutions, universities, colleges of education where they work in their counselling centres.
10. Community psychology also applies psychological principles and results to the

solution of problems of a community. Its area of concern is the entire community. The community psychologists are always on the lookout for the desired needs of the community and also seek out how to provide those needs for the good of the people as a group and as individuals within the group. They work with the people of the community to map out these needs according to their priority and also help to fight for the provision of the needs or amenities. These amenities can be in form of roads, schools, hospitals, clinics or health centres or mental health treatment centres. They can also help to provide information on child rearing practices, establish early childhood education centres, borstal institutions, rehabilitation centres, make an input into appropriate curriculum innovation and change and so on.

Methods Of Child Study

Psychology studies behaviour of people. However, it is not the only discipline that studies behaviour. Disciplines like economics, geography, history, political science, sociology and anthropology study various aspects of behaviour of human beings. Psychology as a discipline employs a number of methods of child study. These include:

Observational method

Experimental method

Interview method

Questionnaire method

Case histories method

Survey method

Test method

Observational method: Observation is one of the techniques for data collection. While the other techniques for data collection may give only indirect and subjective information, observing things and persons will give direct and also a more objective information. With observation, the researcher collects first hand information and not as given him by a respondent. This method starts by building a checklist on critical incidents already prepared as guideline to lead the observer. Observation implies watching the individual and recording the outcome. When a teacher wants to assess whether some traits are present in the behaviour of an individual or not, he can use a checklist. A checklist consists of a number of statements on various traits of personality. Any statement that applies to a pupil or student is checked. Different scoring methods are used in checklist.

Observational method can be used in a natural setting or can be experimental in nature. In natural setting, children are observed without their knowledge. Here observations are made in the natural state (habitat), for example, in a play setting. It is a method of observing and recording events as they occur naturally without disturbance, experimental control or manipulation. Such equipments like cameras, recorders, microscopes, can be used. This method can be employed in studying birds and animals too. It can be used to

study the eating, drinking or smoking behaviour of individuals without their knowing.

Experimental or systematic observation is done in the laboratory or in a controlled environment where careful observation of every situation is made. Nwana (1981) writes that this method does focus attention on things, people or both of them together and is not necessarily restricted to the visual sense but also to the other senses such as hearing, smell, taste as well as touch. Masters and Johns in Obidigbo (2000) used this method to study the physiological aspects of human sexuality. They did this through observing the behaviour, recording the physiological changes observed and then recording responses to the questions asked about the subjects, their feelings and sensation before, during and after sexual intercourse. Observation can be made of persons while they are making use of or while they are manipulating objects or human actions. But despite the usefulness of direct observation, many researchers rarely make use of it. They prefer the other techniques. What might be responsible for this? Observation though very effective has its merits and demerits.

Disadvantages: There might be faking especially when the subject is aware of what is taking place. Since there is no control, the result may not have scientific objectivity, since the data so collected are assumed to be subjective. The result cannot be generalised since the validity and reliability of such

data are questionable. It is time consuming or time demanding on the part of the researcher and the respondents especially where a huge number of respondents are involved.

It is useful only for collecting data about overt behaviour which is manifested in a number of activities which do not provide reliable information regarding the internal mental process. We can only guess about the mental state of the individual on the basis of overt behaviour which may or may not be true. It then becomes very difficult to draw any conclusion in case of adults and even children who can hide their actual behaviour in the presence of an observer. In such a case the observation results become a failure.

There is subjectivity of interpretation which is another area of limitation in the use of observation. The observer may interpret the data if the sensations of his external stimulus are brought to bear on his interpretation on the basis of his past experience. The interpretation bias may result from what the researcher likes or dislikes and values. His observation may also be influenced by his perception of the situation in which observation is taking place.

Advantages: In naturalistic observation, researchers obtain information in a natural setting. Observational data provide feed back in teacher training or in describing classroom process existing within a school or training facility. It can be readily used for comparism of behaviours across grade levels and programme (Anderson, 1976).

For observation to be fruitful there must be a clearly defined concept of what is aimed at. This will help the teacher to know where to collect information and direction of such a study will eliminate the tendency of wasting valuable time observing irrelevant things and persons. There should be a compilation of attributes to be observed in order for the observation to have proper direction and focus.

Experimental method: Nwana (1981) defines experimental method as the term which is used to describe any study in which the researcher or investigator consciously and deliberately interferes with the situation by controlling what group of people are exposed to certain conditions. According to Dworestzky (1995) an experiment is a test made to demonstrate the validity of a hypothesis or to determine the predictability of a theory. It is a situation in which a researcher or an observer systematically manipulates certain variables with a view to describing objectively, a relationship between two variables and the resultant effect (Obidigbo, 2002). The author has the view that experimental study or method is a scientific, systematic and manipulative approach, used by a researcher to differentiate the effects and the relationships between two identical variables in order to obtain an objective result.

Variables refer to the characteristics that are in any event, object or situation that can be measured and can also vary. There are two main types of

variables – dependent and independent variables. A dependent variable depends on the independent variable and it is the measurable result of the experiment. Independent variable stands on its own. It is not depending on anything and it is this variable that is manipulated and controlled. At times a third variable may come up in the course of the experiment to intervene between dependent and independent variables. This third variable is known as intervening variable. In a typical experimental method, two groups of objects, animals or people which are identical in all respects are subjected to different conditions and the effects of these different conditions are determined and compared.

In experimental method two identical groups are used, one will be the experimental group which receives the treatment condition and the control group that will not receive any treatment. The result observed and derived from the experiment can be attributed to the effect of the independent variable. Experimental method involves some control measures which are deliberately employed so that the observed effects can be traced to known variable or variables. The experiment is done in a laboratory or research centres, it makes use of systematic procedure, validity and reliability of data collected are high and the result can be generalised to larger population. The classical condition of the experiment

helps to remove the experimenters bias which can influence the result in an expected direction.

Interview method: Interview is a face to face verbal interchange in which one person (the

interviewer) attempts to elicit information from another person or persons (the interviewee(s)). It is also seen as a systematic way of collecting information through face-to-face interaction. Selection for different posts or admissions into various courses or for obtaining information on a child's social status with other members of the class is made.

It is of paramount importance that the interview schedule should be prepared before hand. A list of questions should be compiled in order that the interviewer does not forget any valuable information. The schedule can come in two forms; one as data blank where spaces are provided for responses to be made by the interviewer and the other in form of checklist of questions which contains a set of most probable responses on the basis of the interview. It is one of the most simple and widely used techniques of personality assessment. The questions compiled should neither be too many nor too few and should be edited by the interviewer and by his colleagues. The final list of questions should be thoroughly studied as much as possible to make for meaningful interview session. The language of the interview needs to be appropriate to the level of the interviewee. The interviewer is expected to establish rapport with the interviewee. This means that their relationship has to be cordial and friendly and there should not be any form of aggression, hostility, anxiety, suspicion or apathy on both sides. It is therefore necessary to establish rapport and also maintain it. The environment in which the interview is conducted

should be comfortable, nice and pleasing. Some electronic information equipment can be used such as tapes, etc, but the interviewee must be intimated on the use of tapes, for example and his consent sought. Interview can be structured or unstructured. It is structured when questions are written down and unstructured or clinical when questions are not written down, but are asked as the interview proceeds. Subsequent questions which are based on the previous ones develop as interview session progresses.

Difficulties:

- (a) Not many people can be interviewed in a day
- (b) It is time consuming
- (c) Interviewee can fake responses
- (d) There can be interviewer bias

Advantages:

- (a) It affords opportunity for one to one observation – observe the face, pick up sense information like shyness, etc.
- (b) Afford opportunity to detect when an interviewee is dodging or telling lies

Questionnaire method: A questionnaire consists of questions relating to the aims of the

study to which the respondent is required to answer by writing his responses. The questions can also relate to the hypotheses to be verified. There is need to validate the draft questionnaire and also test its reliability. Trial run or pilot study could be carried

out with a small sample of respondents from the target population and their responses are recorded in order to determine the errors that may be found in the questionnaire and appropriate changes made. The level of the language used in constructing the questionnaire should be made appropriate to the level of education through reading and editing of the document.

Questionnaire should be thoroughly examined to ensure proper construction and that there are no duplications. There are about three patterns of questionnaire distribution.

The investigator or researcher may deliver the questionnaire in person to the respondent, wait for him to complete and then collect it from him. This pattern does make possible hundred percent return of the completed questionnaire, but many respondents are not afforded the opportunity to think properly before completion is made. It does however offer opportunity for asking for clarification of some confusing issues. Relatively very few respondents can be covered by the method.

Questionnaire can also be delivered to the respondents in person and later the investigator returns for the collection of the completed forms or the forms can be sent to the respondents through the post or computer. Using the last two methods has some problems. The entire forms may not be returned and there may not be any opportunity for the respondents to obtain clarification for areas they do not have clear ideas. On the other hand, respondents have access to necessary and relevant records and are relaxed since the investigator is not

around. The forms may take longer time to be returned, given the circumstances of our postal system.

Survey method: Survey according to Solorow (1995) is a set of questions related to a particular topic of interest administered through an interview or questionnaire. A survey method studies large and small population by means of small samples. It is usually employed if one wants to collect information about opinions, behaviours, attitudes, personal characteristics of people and life experiences. It is usually descriptive in nature and is assembled in either interview schedule or in written questionnaire form. Though this method cannot be used to obtain adequate explanation of causes of most of people's behavior, it can be employed to predict several aspects of behavior in the areas of politics and social relationship and interaction. One of the virtues of survey method is that it has the ability to provide accurate information on a whole population using relatively small samples.

Case histories method: This method is also known as scientific biographies, which contain life histories of particular individuals. It supplies important sources of data to psychologists who are studying how people behave and respond to stimuli in their environment. It is used to supply full and adequate information on various psychological phenomena including neurosis, depression, and truancy to school, various phobias, and tendency towards suicide, maladjustment behavior and personal experiences that might be contributory

factors to the development of these psychological problems. The studies can be done either on short-term basis, which involve a short period of study and can be done on long term basis involving a long-term study. These two have their merits and demerits. The studies can also be carried out in a clinical setting. Sigmund Freud, the father of psychoanalytic theory used this setting in dealing with his clients.

A major defect of case histories is that the result cannot be generalised since the individuals studied are normally abnormal and each client tend to have peculiar personal experiences, feelings and expressions of emotions.

Test method: Tests are measuring tools in psychology. These tools are devised or prepared and administered to either individuals or groups in order to obtain information on their cognitive and other non-cognitive characteristic traits. Psychological tests are used to test aptitude, interest, personality, attitude, social status, etc. Tests can be standardised or teacher made, that is, non-standardised, and can be objective or subjective (essay type) in nature. Objective tests are highly structured. They require the testees to correctly supply a word or two, or to select a correct answer from a limited number of alternative answers. Within the supply type there are short answer and completion patterns. For instance, "Which is the first indigenous university in Nigeria?", falls within the short answer pattern. In completion pattern, the items come as an incomplete statement requiring the testee to fill the

gap. Example is “The first man to go to the moon is _____.”

Essay type tests afford the testees the freedom of response. They are free to select, organize and present answers in their own words. There are no restrictions in the way they are expected to respond to the problems presented by questions asked. Both objective and essay type questions have their merits and demerits. The testers should make use of any of them as circumstance demands.

Many psychological tests are situational. They are non-standardised tests, practical in nature and are administered in arranged situations whereby the testee performs a normal action in that situation without being aware. This means that in situational tests the behavior of the individual is evaluated in action. The individual is confronted with situations in life and is assessed by judges or rated by his peers. Follow up your tests. Do not use one situation to judge a testee. Examples of psychological tests include:

Projective tests which try to tap information on personality by using indirect means. Examples are *Ink Blot Test* where the testee is presented with cards on which there are ink blot stains. He is expected to respond to what he sees in the cards and he is evaluated on that. The other example is *Thematic Apperception Test* in which the testee is presented with a beautiful or fearful picture and asked to write a story about it. He is expected to tell what is happening, what led up to it and what the consequences will be (Thorndike and Hagen 1973). Sometimes the testee projects his personality into

his story and this in part makes projective tests not all that reliable. The tests have to be repeated a number of times and the consistency of behavior or otherwise will reveal the problem of the testee.

CHAPTER TWO

GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE CHILD

This chapter begins by going through the concepts that form the title of the chapter. We occasionally meet these concepts in our daily activities and make use of them. Though they can be applied to all areas of human endeavour, we shall however look at them from psychological standpoint.

Growth

Living things grow. Growth refers to a quantitative increase in body dimensions. It implies a change in quantity and this results in increase in height, size and weight of the whole or any of the parts of the body. Growth means a general change in a person in relation to physical growth. It refers to becoming larger and heavier and indicates increases and changes that are additive and augmentative. It can be measured quantitatively in grammes and kilogrammes etc. The heart becomes bigger, the bones become longer, thicker and heavier. In general, the body grows by adding more grammes and circumference in weight and more metres in height.

According to the British Medical Directory in Nwachukwu (1995) growth is “the progressive development of a living being or part of an organism from its earliest stage to maturity, including the

attendant increase in size. The above medical definition offers certain information.

- a. that growth is progressive and involves series of changes which include differentiation of parts to perform various functions and alterations in the form of the body as a whole and in the individual organs and systems.
- b. that distinction has to be made between the growth of the body as a whole and individual parts; not all parts of the human body grow at the same rate or stop growing at the same time.
- c. growth is a continuous process which starts from conception and extending in certain sense, until the individual dies. This shows that growth does not cease when we attain maturity e.g. continued growth of our skin, hair and nails etc. From Nwachukwu (1995) growth is said to be multiplicative when component cells of a tissue or organ increase in number through division and it is auxetic when the cells increase in size.

Development

The term development means the gradual and orderly unfolding of the characteristics of the successive stages of growth. It is also a gradual growth and expansion process, which involves changes from a lower to a higher level of complexity. It indicates progressive changes in the functions of

the organs in the body and their increase in efficiency. It indicates more specifically than growth, the change in character that takes place. For instance, bones grow larger but they develop as a result of changes in their material composition and structural form. Development results as a product of maturation because the major changes that take place in a human are internally programmed and they manifest in gradual and sequential forms and this makes it possible for certain behavioural changes to occur at each stage of development. In this sense learning is seen to be automatic and internal and the environment has less influence on it. But when we see development as a product of learning, it means that children develop through the accumulation of mirade of information and learning experiences and sensations from their environment. Development in this sense can be made to take place due to the activities of teachers, parents, peers, significant individuals and institutions making up the child's environment. This shows that development in this sense can be caused extrinsically.

For Uba (1980) development means essentially, progress towards a goal and it involves changes in performing function from simple ones to complex ones and there is progressive maturity of behavior, personality and character organization. People grow and develop in functions socially and adapt to their own environment. During the process of growth, the child's body becomes larger, bigger and more complex and also personality expands in scope and

become more complex. While development is qualitative in nature, growth is quantitative. Growth generally, especially in height does not continue till death. Man at some point stops growing.

Periods in Child Development

Prenatal	-	conception to birth
Embryonic	-	conception to 8 weeks
Foetal	-	8 to 40 weeks (birth)
Neonatal	-	birth to 28 days
Infancy	-	2 months to approximately 12-18 months
Early childhood	-	1 - 6 years
Toddler	-	1 - 3 years
Preschool	-	1 - 6 years

Middle childhood 6 – 11 or 12 years (primary school age)

Later Childhood	11 – 18 years
Pre-pubertal	10 - 13 years
Adolescent	13 to approximately 18 years and above.

Pedagogical Periodization

Some authorities in child development categorise the phases of development in terms of educational system. The categorization system in Nigeria is as follows

Prenatal	conception to birth
Infancy	birth to 1 year
Toddler	3 – 5 years

Pre-primary education stage	3 - 5 years
Primary education stage	6 - 11 years
Secondary education stage	12 - 18 years
Tertiary education stage	18 - 23/25 years

Maturation

This means the natural ripening or growing up process, which is qualitative in nature and is also hereditary. Maturation is also the process of attaining a level of development at which a specified cognitive function or type of function ordinarily appears. Therefore it enables an organism to undertake or learn certain tasks. Sometimes, certain potentials and traits inherent in the individual unfold and manifest as a result of maturation.

An individual grows (increases in size, that is, physical changes in the individual). But as he grows the organs, which have increased, develop to the extent that the individual can use them in performing certain functions. Development occurs as a result of certain changes in the material and structural form. For example bones grow larger but they develop as a result of the changes earlier mentioned. This means that they develop as a result of the changes mentioned earlier. When sex organs grow in size, they develop as a result of glandular extra secretion. When the characteristics of sexual manifestations begin to show in an individual, we say that the person has matured sexually.

Maturation and learning

The term maturation refers to genetically determined patterns of changes that occur as individuals age from their immature starting point to full adulthood, the growth process that seems to occur independently of experience. Maturation therefore is not necessarily influenced by environment especially learning, but it produces genetic timetable which guides the development of an individual. It also provides the timetable for learning. Learning has to follow the course of the time table set by maturation for it to take place. For instance a child cannot walk or talk with or without training if maturation of the organs and parts of the body responsible for walking or talking has not occurred, neither can a boy produce sperm without maturation taking place. It does not mean that these features-vocal cord, various limbs or the testes – are not present at birth. They are but an individual cannot make use of them until they are ripe and ready.

Maturation may be affected by environment if it prevents an individual from performing certain task even though maturation has occurred. For instance, a child may be prevented from the use of any of the limbs as a result of injury that has occurred. For instance a child may be prevented from sustained through accident. As soon as the injury is healed he can easily use the limb(s) involved.

Learning comes after genetic maturation. For instance toilet training does not exist at birth but

the baby is trained in toileting at about the sixth month when the baby is genetically ripe or mature enough to learn that. A child's genetic or physiological elements should be allowed to mature before he is allowed to carry on any training or learning.

Readiness

When an individual is developmentally ready or ripe, that is when he is ready to learn and it is also the teachable moment for the teacher. So if the teachable moment has not arrived there should be no need forcing the child, otherwise both the child and the teacher may encounter frustration in the attempt. Teachers should wait and make sure that there is readiness in children before they are allowed to learn. The teacher should wait for genetic maturation and utilize it for effective teaching and learning.

Principles of Human Growth and Development (Patterns of Development)

What is a principle? A principle is seen as moral rules or strong belief that is accepted as a reason for doing something. It is a rule, a law or a theory that something is based on (Horny, 2001). It is a proposition from which other propositions may be derived. It is also a judgement from which other judgements flow. A principle is in short the beginning or source of knowledge about a subject. It helps to influence what we believe in and guide how we think, act or behave.

Development can take place without growth though both are continuous. Since it is the function of the teacher to co-operate with nature in helping the child to develop his potentials, it is worthwhile for him to understand some of the principles of human development. Principles are woven around limitless ideas, subjects and objects. In the area of development, the principles are discussed as follows

Development starts:

- *From head to toe:* An infant grows from head to toe and this means that the head is where the physical development starts. The development of the head precedes that of the neck and the head develops before the chest and so on until it gets to the toes. He develops the ability to carry and hold his head and not to wobble it, to co-ordinate the use of his eyes etc. From the head he goes on to controlling the other parts of his body. This is a directional pattern known as the encephalocaudal principle. This emphasizes the fact that the parts of the body that are closer to the head develop and mature earlier than those further away from it.

The educational implication is that teachers have to introduce drawings, pictures and concrete objects requiring the use of sense of sight first before they introduce activities like reading, singing and before the children would be made to carry on activities requiring the use of hand e.g., writing, drawing etc.

- *From centre to periphery:* This is another directional pattern of growth and development known as promodistal. The principle here is that the child grows from centre to outside or the peripheral part of the body. Development starts from the central part of the body – the shoulder (upper hand) the middle and to the use of fingers. Because of this direction of growth, the child is able to coordinate the large muscles of the body, which lead to the movement of other parts. He has to sit before he can crawl, walk and run. As he develops, he can grab, hold and write using the tip of his fingers. This is as a result of development of fine muscle control.

The teacher has to accommodate this principle by teaching from the known to the unknown, from general to particular or specific and from concrete elements to abstract ones.

- *Development is continuous from conception to death:* Though it occurs at different rates; sometimes development is smooth and gradual and at times it may be rapid or slow. Human beings change constantly but such changes are not substantial because the individual maintains his identity as a person throughout life.

Education should be planned in such a way that the curriculum should be continuous for every class. Each term's work should be a continuation of the previous one for that

particular class. This is why the federal government has introduced continuous assessment for continuous and progressive assessment of students'/pupils' tasks.

- *Development is cumulative:* How an individual behaves is dependent on what things he does or what things that were done to him earlier in life which he himself might not remember, Hurlock (1978) cites studies which indicate that childhood is the foundational period of life for various physical and psychological traits. Habits and attitudes formed early in life determine to a considerable extent the behavior of the individual later in life. For example overweight adults have been found to be products of eating habits established early in life and over protection during childhood. Educational significance of this principle is that new learning should have relevance to the old learning.
- *Development is orderly:* Human development has been found to proceed in a fairly defined set of laws. It follows an orderly and known sequence closely enough so that patterns of behavior can be predicted with a high degree of accuracy. The total development of a person has been described as a process of changing from relatively simple behavior patterns through more complex ones and towards forms of behavior indication of maturity.

The educational implication is that prenatal environment should be conducive in order that development retains its orderly nature. What is learnt has to be orderly and sequentially presented by the teacher.

- *From general (mass) to specific (large and fine muscles):* Human development starts from undifferentiated mass responses towards those, which are more refined, localised or goal-directed. A child's first body movement for example are random and undirected. Gradually, they become differentiated enough for grasping, pushing, walking and climbing. This principle enables the child to coordinate his eye and hand movement. In his first year, a typical child begins to walk unaided but in awkward manner. Eventually, his leg muscles are brought under sufficient control to enable him to walk backward, skip, hop, jump and dance. Later with maturity and experience his movements are made even more specific so that he performs several kinds of dance steps. As he develops the coordination of eye movement, he develops the ability to use his hand flexibly, write legibly and not scribble as before. This same process of differentiation is true of other aspects of his development. For instance, a child begins to speak by babbling, cooing and emitting other sounds, which seem to suit any one of his purposes. Later these vocal responses are distinguished so that each comes to be used for a different purpose. As he

develops, his articulation is better. Children, early in life see things in mass forms before narrowing them down to specific objects and that is why they scribble bold and circular objects until they are able to write specific things. Children should be trained in the activities that help them in the coordination of their eye, hand, head, leg movements, from undifferentiated mass responses towards more refined, specific responses. For instance, a nursery one child should be allowed to learn how to write first by scribbling and in his third year, he should have learnt to write flexibly and legibly.

- *Development is complex:* A human being is a complex of many unrelated, dynamic factors, which do not keep pace with one another in their rates of development. For example, at a given period in the child's life, he may be growing faster mentally than he is emotionally; or he may be more mature physically than he is socially. His social, mental, moral and physical development do not keep pace with one another. Physical components of an individual not only grow at different rates but reach maturity at different ages. At age 10, the genitals have developed less than 10%, the whole body 50% and the brain nearly 30% (Giedd 2004).
- *Development is unified:* An individual is a unified whole so no one aspect of his being

such as his mind can be developed without reference to all other aspects. Physical growth therefore is necessary for optimum social and emotional development. In the light of this, curriculum planners and implementers should formulate courses that would help in all round development of learners.

- *Development patterns vary:* Although human development proceeds in accordance with certain fairly predictable laws, growth patterns vary from individual to individual. The sequence of development is uniform but the rate varies from individual to individual. E.g. the medium height of 12 year olds, for instance is about 1½ metres, yet in a group of students of this age in a given classroom it is quite possible that not one of them would be found exactly this tall. Thus measurable differences have been found to exist in individuals physical sizes and shapes, physiological functions, motor abilities, sensual and perceptual acuity, intelligence, knowledge and achievement, interest, attitude among others. Teachers are therefore to take care of children in their class irrespective of their varying patterns of development. The individual differences in the area of development found in students in a given class should be addressed. The teacher should vary his methods of teaching, skills and techniques to take care of the differences.

Harvighurst (1952) is one of those psychologists most interested in the educational problems arising from social class differences. He proposed that certain educational outcomes are expected to be achieved by sub-groups within a larger society. These outcomes he refers to as “*developmental tasks*”.

What is Development Task

It is a task, which arises at or about a certain period in the life of an individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and to success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by the society and difficulty in later tasks. These tasks are graded according to stages beginning with:

Developmental tasks of infancy and early childhood

1. Learning to walk
2. Learning to take solid food
3. Learning to talk (to be achieved in second year otherwise other tasks will be affected)
4. Learning to control the elimination of body wastes
5. Learning sex differences and sexual modesty
6. Achieving physiological stability
7. Forming simple concepts of social and physical reality
8. Learning to relate to oneself emotionally, to parents, siblings and other people.

9. Learning to distinguish right from wrong and developing a conscience.

If the child learns these tasks at the appropriate times, he gains social approval, is happy and will probably be successful in carrying out future tasks. According to Harrighurst, a particular task should be learned at the “teachable moment”, that is, when these three conditions are met.

- a. When the child is physically mature enough
- b. When the society expects or requires the task to be learned
- c. When the child is ready himself to undertake the task.

Development tasks of middle childhood

1. Learning physical skills necessary for ordinary games
2. Building wholesome attitudes towards oneself as a growing organism
3. Learning to get along with age mates
4. Learning an appropriate masculine or feminine role
5. Developing fundamental skills in reading, writing, calculating
6. Developing concepts necessary for everyday living
7. Developing conscience, morality and a scale of values
8. Achieving personal independence
9. Developing attitudes towards social groups and institutions.

CHAPTER THREE

HEREDITY AND ENVIRONMENT

How an individual grows and develops is a function of two factors. These factors are heredity which is biological in nature and environment which is social in nature. An aspect of an individual which is biological can be influenced or modified by environment either positively or negatively. These two factors among other variables account for various differences in growth, development and maturation that are observed in the physical features and behavioural aspects of humans. These two factors will be fully discussed below.

Genetic Determination – Heredity

Heredity is the process of transmitting the characteristics of the physical body of parents and grand parents to the children (Nwachukwu 1993). Through heredity the traits or attributes of parents especially physical, biochemical and mental are reproduced in their children. This reproduction or transfer is determined through genes the offsprings receive from each of their parents.

Biological Basis of Heredity

Cells

At the moment your life began, you were a single cell about the size of a pinhead ... At the present your body contains approximately sixty

trillion cells – all of them produced by that original tiny organism (that single cell (Biehler 1986). Thus the cell is the fundamental component of all organisms. According to Clifford (1981) when cells deteriorate one gets old, when they do not function well one gets sick and when they die, one dies. Cells are mostly microscope in nature.

Chromosomes

Chromosomes are found in the cell nucleus. They are highly organised thread like particles or V shaped structures contained in the cell nucleus each of which contains approximately between a thousand and twenty thousand genes. According to Ugwu (1997) chromosomes occur in identical or homologous pair excepting the 23rd pair found in the cell of a male xy chromosomes. A normal human cell contains 46 chromosomes. Through the process of meiosis the 46 chromosomes are reduced to 23 in each sex cell – (ovum or egg in the female and sperm cell in the male).

Genes

Genes are the units of hereditary transmission which determine the traits or characteristics that make an individual a unique person. They are therefore the real bearers of heredity and they provide information about the traits or attributes which an individual may possess eg the colour of hair, eyes, the height, shape of the legs, nose etc. This means that genes have actually been identified

as the carriers of traits which offsprings inherit from their parents. Genes are the smaller units into which each chromosome divides itself. Each cell contains about 100,000 genes which like chromosomes are arranged in pairs. Each gene will have its own identical gene in the other half of the chromosomal pair.

Genes are segments of (DNA) deoxyribonucleic acid, whose molecule is in the form of a double helix (coil). The DNA molecules are made of smaller units of chemicals which contain carbohydrate, phosphoric acid and nitrogen and these are sequentially arranged. Genes are either homozygous or heterozygous. They are homozygous when corresponding genes of a pair produce the same effect and heterozygous when they produce different effects (Nwachukwu 1992). What is genetically inherited is called genotype. When there is an interaction of the environment on the inherited traits (genotype) the result is phenotype, that is, what an individual shows or exhibits. An individual's phenotype just like genotype may not be static since some chance factors may play a role in the environment and alter the phenotype, eg, a healthy individual disfigured as a result of accident.

Genes are either dominant or recessive as a result of allele being dominant or recessive. Alleles which are manifestation of genes are found in each pair of genes which determine our inherited characteristics. We can therefore refer to genes or alleles as dominant or recessive. A dominant gene is the one that dominates the other pair when they

come together to determine any trait. For instance if the gene of a yellow flower is dominant over that of green, the gene for yellow flower is dominant over the gene for green flower. If again the allele for normal skin pigment is dominant, it will express itself over the allele for albinism which is recessive. a recessive allele expresses or manifests itself only when it comes into contact with another recessive one. If a cup of malt drink is mixed with a cup of water, malt drink will express itself more because the mixture looks more like malt drink than water. Malt drink is dominant and water is recessive. if water is mixed with water, water will express itself. Some dominant alleles are free ear lobe, polydactylism, (extra toe or finger) broad lips, scaly skin, normal metabolism, achondroplasia (dwarfism) and they correspondingly manifest themselves over these recessive alleles: attached – ear lobe, normal number of fingers, narrow lips, normal skin, phenylketomuria, normal (vision) and so on. The results are manifest traits of dominant alleles. There is no dominance when two dominant or two recessive alleles come into contact.

Germ Cells:

At the beginning of maturational process, there are 23 pairs of chromosomes in each sperm and egg. Sperm and egg cells are called germ cells or gametes. These germ cells develop in the reproductive organs. Sperm cells develop in the testes in males and the egg cells develop in the ovaries in females. It is estimated that millions of

sperms are produced by the testes every 4 or 5 days. At the time of birth, the ovaries contain an estimate of 400,000 eggs one of which is released every 28 days and about 300 to 400 are released during a females fertile years, (Biehler 1986).

The Zygote:

The zygote is the fertilised egg. When the male gamete fuses with or fertilizes the female gamete conception takes place. The result of the fusion is a cell which is known as zygote. It is the zygote that will develop into an individual. All the traits or characteristics which the individual possesses at birth are present at conception within the zygote. These characteristics include colour of eyes, hair, blood type, blood group, sickle cell anaemia, cretinism, various syndromes etc.

Sex Determination:

The science of development of an individual before birth is called embryology. It concerns the means by which a single microscopic cell is transferred into a complete human being (Cornetta and Gratz 1982). The sperm and the ovum (egg) are called germ cells. Their substance, the chains of genes formed into chromosomes, is called germ plasma (Johnson and Medinus, 1974). A human being is formed when two cells – a sperm and an egg or (male and female gametes) unite. In a normal human being the gametes contain 46 chromosomes, the total number found in a human cell. The fusion

of a sperm and an egg would result in a cell that has 92 chromosomes. To avoid this, there is what is called meiosis (reduction division), a process which helps to reduce the number of chromosomes to 46 (23 from the sperm and 23 from the egg) and to enable it to remain constant. The reduction of the chemical number of chromosomes must be precise in order to make sure that the individual has 23 pairs. The 23 pairs are called the diploid number ($2n$) and one each pair is known as the haploid number (n). The male gamete has 23 chromosomes of which 22 have xx and the last pair has xy and this determines the sex of the baby. The female gamete has 23 pairs of xx chromosomes only. When the sperm and the ovum fuse in the process of fertilization of cell(s) that result(s) will possess 46 chromosomes.

Other conditions that can determine the sex of a child include chemical environment of the mother and the health condition of the sperm. The mother's chemical environment has to do with the condition of the ovary – how acidic or otherwise it is. If the ovarian environment is acidic, Y chromosomes which cannot survive easily in acidic condition (but can survive more in alkaline environment), may die off when it comes into contact with the acidic ovary for a long time. X chromosome can survive better under acidic condition. The health condition of the sperm is essentially important in sex determination. How healthy and concentrated the sperms of the man are contribute to the life span of y chromosomes. In older males or those influenced by diseases that

affect the sperms, y chromosomes have little chance of surviving.

Number of offsprings

- a) Singleton – this refers to a child that is born alone
- b) Multiple birth – results when two, three or more babies are born from a single pregnancy.
- c) Identical twins (monozygotic) – these are two or more babies that are born from a single fertilised egg or ovum. These babies are similar. When the first cell division occurs, there is separation of the new cells and each of these new cells or daughter cells develops into a separate human being. When the new cells do not completely separate the result is Siamese twin (Uba, 1980)
- d) Siamese – This results when the new cells do not completely separate. There are categories of Siamese twins which join at various parts of the body. If they join (a) at the head, the condition is known as craniopagus; (b) at the abdomen – emphalogus; (c) at the chest – thorsopagues; and (d) at the buttocks – pygopagus.
- e) Fraternal Twins (dizygotic) – A woman may release more than one egg and when these eggs are fertilised the result is fraternal twins. Since these eggs that produce the twins are differently fertilised, differences in genetic or biological characteristics result. For instance, the twins may include male and female with

differences in skin pigmentation, hair colour etc. There is a chance factor in the determination of sex since any chromosome pair may fuse with any egg or sperm (Nwachukwu 1992).

Chromosomal Abnormalities:

Chromosomal abnormalities occur when chromosomes do not combine well. Chromosomes are arranged in pairs. Sometimes however, there may be extra or less or missing chromosomes in the arrangement involved in their pairing. Such condition results in chromosomal abnormalities because the chromosomes have not combined well. These abnormalities include.

Sex Linked Recessive Traits:

It has been noted that y chromosomes has fewer genes than an x chromosomes. This shows that some x genes may not be matched at the moment of fertilization when the male sperm and female egg fuse. This may produce an undesirable result if the x chromosome of the fertilised egg contains a gene for any physical defect. If the egg results in a female child that has received an x chromosome with a recessive gene which may cause some physical defect, the other chromosome containing a corresponding gene will neutralize the effects of the recessive gene, and block the trait. Y chromosome does not contain genes which will match the genes in the x chromosome. This may lead to undesirable

consequence if a male child results from the fusion of y chromosome and x chromosome which bears the defect. The trait will appear since y chromosome has no corresponding gene to block the trait. Examples of such traits include green-red colour blindness and hemophilia (a condition where blood does not clot). The trait is passed on from mother to son and from son to daughter and from daughter to son and so on. In this condition females are carriers, not sufferers.

Effects of Chromosomal Abnormalities:

(a) Down's Syndrome (Mongolism)

This is caused by an extra chromosome in pair number twenty one of the fertilised egg. (Jacobs et al 1959). This results in mongolism which is a severe case of mental retardation and physical defects like Chinese eyes, protruding tongue etc. According to German (1970), in mongolism the extra chromosome results when the two chromosomes in pair number twenty one fail to separate when the egg is formed. Incidence of mongolism may occur in older women (may be as a result of endocrine changes) who have their first baby after thirty five years. This condition occurs once in 500 – 600 births (Reed 1975). Another type of Down's syndrome (though not common) results from translocation of chromosome, an abnormality where the pair of chromosome number twenty one transfers or translocates to chromosome number fifteen or sometimes twenty two (Carter et al 1960).

The individual suffering from mongolism has 47 chromosomes instead of 46.

(b) Turner's Syndrome (ox or xo combination)

Turner's syndrome manifests only in females. It occurs where a normal egg is fertilised by sperm that does not contain a sex chromosome or where an egg without an x chromosome is fertilised by an x bearing sperm. This results in a female with 45 chromosomes instead of the normal 46. This condition results in stunted growth, and can block breast growth and development and menstruation. The syndrome expresses itself in some aspects of the female's intellectual work. It is not so prominent or pronounced so that such females could pass for normal individuals if things do not go wrong in them. But things may go wrong because it is the parents that pass this condition to their children. It occurs once in every 2500 female births (Reed 1975).

(c) Klinefelter's

This syndrome occurs when an egg having an extra x chromosome is fertilised by a y sperm. In this condition what results is a male that possess xxy chromosome combination. The prevailing characteristics of this syndrome include deficiencies in male hormone production, enlarged breast, non-functioning testes and perhaps mental retardation (Reed 1975).

Another chromosomal abnormality occurs in males with xy combination. This was discovered in the cells of male criminals who were unusually tall and given to periods of violence and they were of low intelligence. When the discovery was publicised, there was argument by lawyers that the xyy individuals could not be held responsible for any criminal act since they did not have control over their behavior because of the chromosomal imbalance. This theory worked for sometime but through further research it was found out that xyy combination did not lead to any criminal tendencies. According to Jarvik, Klodin, Matsuyama (1973) who analysed all available data on xyy pattern, it occurs once in one thousand births, that only a few of them were not affected by the condition and that some of them reported as genetically normal men turned out as criminals.

Phenylketomuria (PKU)

PKU is an inherited metabolic disorder. In children who have this disorder, the enzymes that is responsible for metabolizing phenylalanine does not function well. This results in the accumulation of the compound in the body tissue and this leads to chemical changes that cause injury to the brain cells. Phenylalanine is a substance found in the protein of affected children and can be detected through a urine test. The presence of phenylalanine in children causes mental retardation. It took many years of experimentation to discover that certain diet which contains phenylalanine in very small amount

could put the disorder under control. The affected children could be started off with the diet early in life. Kepp and Parmelee (1979) found out that it occurs once in every ten to twenty thousand births.

Environment

Environment is defined by Ani (1981) as the aspect of the organisms surroundings to which it is responding at a given time. For Sperling (1982) environment is any or everything with which an individual comes into contact after the inherited traits have been received through the genes. A human being responds to what he sees, touches or feels, hears, smells, perceives and tastes.

Environment is composed of various factors apart from the genetic which influence the physiological, social and psychological growth of an individual (Clifford, 2000). Sills (1972) sees environment as “the aggregate of all the external conditions and influences affecting the life and development of an organism. Environmental influence starts from the moment of conception with the emergence of a zygote which will later develop into an adult. The influence stretches throughout one’s life and terminates at death. According to Sperling (1982) environment can be physical or abstract and it includes the womb, the home, the church, the community, the school and the weather or climatic, economic, political influences and how they affect learning or training.

Environmental Influences

How an individual behaves is a function of nature (inherited traits from parents) and nurture (environmental influences). Environment can be poor, average or rich and it influences growth, development and behavior. For instance, studies on twins have shown that even identical twins reared in different environments show significant differences in stature and behavior. Differences in dietary provisions may result in one being plumpier and healthier than the other. Again differences in social climate of the homes may be responsible for one to have better social disposition than the other. An environment where a child is reared influences him negatively or positively – positive where the environment is rich and negatively where it is poor.

Environment can influence or modify genetic traits. Certain chemicals can hinder growth and development or cause deformity or malformation of limbs like the thalidomide tragedy which occurred many years ago. Smoking, alcohol and hard drugs produce adverse effects. Again gonorrhoea and syphilis when suffered by a pregnant mother may cause some congenital diseases if not well treated. People who have black skin pigmentation bleach with chemicals to be fair in complexion. Environmental theorists point out that nobody is born a thief, lawyer, physician, a criminal or a teacher, J.B. Watson, one of the environmental theorists points out that one is what one is as a result of environmental influences. That an individual is a thief, a lawyer, a teacher, a criminal

or an engineer is as a result of influences which the environment exerts on him.

Interaction of Heredity and Environment

Heredity and environment are two sides of a coin. They influence each other and are equally important in the determination of growth and development. Is it possible for the influence of one to exist without the other? Can the growth or the maturation of any genetic trait occur without the environment. It has been proved that growth and maturation cannot occur without the environment and the influence it exerts on them. At the same time the influence or the significance of environment cannot be proved or identified without relating it to heredity. This is because heredity determines and sets the limits at which maturation can occur but maturation is highly important in determining the limits or levels development can reach or attain. A baby must have to walk when he is mature, that is when the legs are mature and strong to carry the entire body. But he cannot walk in the air, he needs the floor or ground to walk on. Without the floor it will be impossible to prove that maturity has taken place or that the baby can walk. Readiness to sit, crawl, walk is biological and hereditary. The floor is part of the baby's environment. Both heredity and environment are crucial in determining growth and development.

Another area of interaction of heredity and environment can further be illustrated using the soil and a seed. The seed which is heredity cannot

survive and germinate without the soil influencing the growth; the seed must germinate in the soil. Heredity and environment are two sides of the same coin because right from conception they consistently interact with and influence each other to the point that it may be difficult to claim that one is more important than the other.

Genotype is the totality of an individual's inherited traits or genetic characteristics. Genotype can be superior, average or poor in nature. It can be said to be superior when it is highly endowed or when it manifests as excellent brain, eyes, lungs etc. It is average when it manifests midway between superior and poor genotype which manifests at very low point. As a result there is average or poor brain, eyes, kidney, reproductive organs etc. In between the continuum from superior to poor or inferior there are other minor or subtle differences which make it difficult to find two persons on the same level. Therefore if two individuals are said to possess poor brain it does not mean that two of them possess the same genotype.

The interaction of genotype and environment produces what is known as phenotype. In other words, the influence which the environment and genotype exert on each other results into what is called phenotype. A black woman who bleaches to alter her skin pigmentation in order to be fair produces another kind of skin pigmentation. In the example above, there is an interaction between genotype (black skin pigmentation) and environment (bleaching chemical) to produce a phenotype (fair

skin pigmentation). It has been noted that the quality and nature of the phenotype produced depends on the nature and quality of genotype and the environment in the course of their interaction. If superior or very good genotype interacts with superior or rich environment, the result will be superior or very good phenotype. Either average or inferior genotype interacting with average or inferior environment will produce average or inferior phenotype. Therefore to the extent the genotype or the environment is superior or poor, to that extent the phenotype produced will either be superior or poor. Though environment interacts with genotype in order to exert influence on it, it is noted that sometimes when genotype has attained a certain level and has consolidated itself, it may resist change when there is any attempt to modify either the environment or the genotype. The implication is that such modification should take place when the individual is young eg PKU condition.

Educational Implications of Heredity and Environment:

1. As environment acts on the genotype to change or influence it, teachers should make the school environment rich in order that the learners potentials will be enhanced.
2. Children come from various backgrounds and with unique behavioural characteristics. These they exhibit in the course of their school activities. It is therefore the responsibility of

teachers to apply various methods and strategies available to them to help the children develop their aptitudes interests and potentials.

3. Teachers should identify those children who cannot benefit from normal school activities due to genetic, congenital or environmental problem. These may either have visual, audio, physiological problems or they may have mental retardation among others. The children can be sent to special education schools where the environment can influence their learning positively.
4. Some remarkable developmental problems create emotional problems for children who experience those developmental problems. Teachers should act as in 'loco-parentis' and provide them with counselling services in their specific classes and for the school as a whole. Obsessed children in the class also need such services.
5. Teachers should always realise that there is always room for improvement. The genotype and environment should always be enriched so that they can interest and influence each other for adequate and effective academic work in the school and also for improved learning.

CHAPTER FOUR

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Apart from identical twins, no two individuals are the same especially in the area of genetic inheritance. This implies that though we are all human beings, we are never the same. Even siblings born of the same parents or who belong to the same phenotype category are not the same. Each person is unique even in the case of identical twins. Areas of differences may include gender (sex), height, skin pigmentation, weight, intelligence, how individuals perceive things, how they believe, their emotions, resistance to diseases, attention span, interests, and problem solving approaches among others.

Each individual though unique has some differences within him personally. This is known as intra individual differences, that is the differences seen or noticed in an individual. The situation is made possible because of differences in periods or stages of growth and development from the moment of conception to birth and finally to adulthood and death. It is expected that growing up from babyhood to adulthood will have to produce certain differences in the person. So from docile or precocious babyhood to dull or lively childhood, the individual grows into quiet or stubborn or probing adolescent. And yet at another period he becomes a loving and caring father and husband. Within each person, these differences continue to manifest in physical

and behavioural domains and he still remains the same person.

Clifford (2004) identifies between subtle and extreme differences. Subtle differences among individuals are not easily noticed. They are identified in members of a racial group who possibly have the same skin colour. He listed the areas of differences to include, colour of the eyes, hair condition, weight, skills, height, taste and other traits. Apart from subtle differences there are other ones. These are extreme differences which are easy to be identified. Sex or gender is one of the extreme differences easily noticed between persons. Some subtle differences may also manifest in extreme differences in the areas of interests, aptitudes, attitudes, emotions, attention span. Apart from gender differences, other trait differences span over a continuum, so that within two extremes of very long attention span and very short attention span, there may be a situation of not so long or not so short and that of average span of attention in between.

From the above it is not easy to find all the children in a school even in a class identical. Differences exist in the areas mentioned above. So in a school of about 600 pupils or in a class of about 40 pupils, each and every one of them is unique in various ways. Teachers who are not aware of these differences treat every child alike. They believe that by using the same method, instructional materials, skills and strategies in teaching and learning and creating conducive classroom environment, that they have accommodated every child in the class. This is

erroneous. The individual differences must come into play in the course of teaching and learning, in allotting and in carrying out other school or classroom activities. For instance, is it profitable for a teacher to delay bright children in the class in a particular lesson so that some backward ones will catch up with them? Or can a teacher run on in his teaching without giving any attention to the backward children just because a few bright ones are following. The teacher has to prepare her lesson and teach in such a way that these differences are accommodated and taken care of through what he does, how he does it, when he does it, where he does it and with what he does it. Therefore taking care of individual differences in schools is necessary for proper implementation of educational programmes. It will also help the teacher to allot duties to each child in the class according to interests, strengths, weaknesses, potentialities, etc.

Areas of Individual Differences

The areas of individual differences are manifested as follows.

- (a) **Differences in Sex:** The differences in sex (gender) are remarkably noticed in human beings and other organisms such as animals. A human being is either born a genetic male or a genetic female. Comparatively, males are more sturdy in stature, more robust, taller, more strongly built, more ambitious, more independent, adventurous, and competitive than females. But females are more docile,

more tolerant, more emotionally mature and dependent.

- (b) **Physical Differences:** No two individuals have the same physique. There are therefore differences in height, weight, skin colour/pigmentation, hair and eye colour, motor development (coordination of the parts of the body which depends on maturation and learning) and shape of the body among people of the same gender and age.
- (c) **Differences in Intelligence:** Intelligence is the centre point of academic process and activities. It is a phenotypic phenomenon and the differences arise as a result of factors in the environment where people operate. As a result of this there are gifted people with very superior intelligence. Others have average, below average, low and very low intelligence. The government even though it recognizes these differences, does not make adequate arrangement to accommodate children with varying intellectual differences. The children are then grouped and lumped together in the same class. The result is that those with superior intelligence are not challenged through the academic work and so get frustrated, while those with low intelligence are over stretched and so cannot cope.
- (d) **Socio-economic Differences:** Socio-economic status refers to social and economic standing of an individual. It refers too to how one is

rated socially and economically arising from ones social and financial standing. Whether a family is socially and financially rated high or not, children are born into it. They live, operate in it and they are influenced by it. A wealthy and well informed family is well disposed to provide a healthy and comfortable environment for their children-good nutrition, enough rest, ample time for extra lessons and provisions of school materials like texts, radio, video games, audio-visual aids like television, computer film projectors etc. These things help children to grow academically.

- (e) **Psychological Differences:** People exhibit varying emotions. Some are easily prone to fear, anger, temper-tantrums while others appear the apposite. Some are introverted while others are extroverted. The degree of relationships between and among people depend on the extent these emotions are expressed. That is why some people make friends easily and some find it so difficult to have close association with people.
- (f) **Physiological Differences:** Physiology is the study of the structure and functions of various parts of the body. From studies it has been found that the structure and functioning of these parts differ from one person to another. For instance the level at which the sense of smell functions differs from one person to another. So are other senses of sight, touch, taste and hearing. Various parts and organs in

the body differ in size and how they function in each individual. There are also differences in the blood group and type, in the rate of metabolism, in the level of sugar, salt content in the blood and differences in the body temperature and pulse rate.

Why we differ:

No two individuals are alike. There are areas of differences between them. Each individual is therefore unique in certain respects. Individual differences refer to the deviations of people from the normal or average and from person to person. Some children are consistent in growth while others are not. There are children who are fast, consistent and who maintain a relatively advanced position while others lag behind (Uba, 1981). Through growth and development people differ in appearance and behavior. New born babies differ in size, skin pigmentation, eye and hair colour and shape of the body. Some are active, they cry more, eat more while some others are dull, cry less, eat less and this may continue as they grow older. Why do people differ? They are different because of three conditions. These conditions are (a) the genetic condition (b) the environmental condition and (c) the phenotype condition.

The Genetic Condition:

The differences found in humans occur as a result of meiosis which is a special kind of cell

division. The process of meiosis results into a condition that no two sperm or ova are the same (Clifford, 2004). We emphasized that since no two sperm or ova are the same, two zygotes cannot be the same at conception. It is only identical twins which develop from one zygote that are more or less the same genetically. All other genetic differences in people result from the fact that we develop and grow from different zygotes at conception.

The Environmental Condition:

Differences in environment bring about differences in individuals. Environmental differences start from pre-natal stage. Each individual apart from twins, grows and develops in a separate womb with its separate environmental conditions. Children of the same mother may experience different environmental conditions either in the womb or post nately. This may result from varying conditions and experiences undergone by the mother during pregnancy. What prevailed in one pregnancy may be absent in another.

Treatment, love and care given to siblings living in the same environment by their parents and other significant individuals vary. These produce varying effects on children. Siblings are mindful of this kind of behaviour. These varying care, love and affection exhibited by parents towards their children are clearly noticed when a new baby arrives in the home and every attention is diverted towards the baby.

Each individual is unique and each environment is unique for each person. This produces varying interests, likes and dislikes among people. The uniqueness found in people results from the fact that they have various background characteristics such as differences in homes, families, villages, towns and countries. Some of these characteristics like the home/family may be rich or poor. Some people live in slums while others live in highbrow areas like Government Reserved Areas such as, Victoria Island, Independence Layout etc. Some also live in urban cities while others live in rural areas.

The Phenotype Condition:

Genetically every individual is different just as environment differs from one situation to another. What produces the phenotype condition is the complex and constant interaction between genotype and the environment. The genetic conditions differ and the environmental conditions also differ. The interaction of these two conditions cannot produce what is the same for everybody. This means that the phenotype so produced varies from person to person even between two identical twins. The skills one develops depend on the kind of environment one lives and grows in. All potentials acquired at conception need environment to manifest themselves. It is the phenotype condition that explains why even identical twins reared up in different environments manifest different phenotypic traits like differences in intelligence or

mental ability, personality, skills, dressing and language. Identical twins born in an Igbo family but are reared in Yoruba and Hausa areas are bound to behave typical of the area where each is bred.

Educational Implications of Individual Differences

Educational implications refer to the role education has to play so that the individual differences are accommodated. This is done through curriculum planners and the teachers who are the implementers of the curriculum. The accommodation of the differences can be handled by teachers in the following ways:

Grouping Strategy

This involves grouping the children according to their academic performance using their results. This may be done by grouping all the intelligent children in one class, for example, grouping them in class 4A; the average ones in 4B and dull ones in 4C etc. Those who advocate this strategy maintain that children in each of these classes fall within the same I.Q. bracket and that they are expected to learn almost at the same rate. Some problems arise out of this arrangement. The first one is that since all the children in one class have relatively the same I-Q. no one is posing a challenge in what is taught and learnt. The next one is that the average or the dull ones do not benefit from the intelligent ones who will help brush them up for better academic

improvement. While the teacher in 4A puts in very little efforts in her teaching, 4C teacher will always exhaust her/his energy in teaching and explaining of points so that the children will grasp what has been taught, no matter how little.

Enriching the School/class environment

Enriching the environment has to do with providing all the school resource materials in the form of library materials, textbooks, laboratory equipment adequate learning experiences and creating opportunities for self and individual studies. Enriching can be made for gifted or very bright children, it can be put in place also for dull children. While the bright ones can cope with studying and experimenting using effectively the equipment and materials with or without supervision, by touching/feeling, manipulating objects, testing, perceiving and hearing, the deficient ones may be able to improve academically and in other areas in the enriched school and classroom environment.

Giving Special Attention

Teachers are meant to give special attention to those children who are not fast in learning. After teaching, teachers should make out time to help those children. Attention should be given to the children's learning styles and rates at which they learn, background experiences and span of attention. So teachers should use different methods, styles, skills and strategies in teaching to

accommodate the differences in the learning styles and rate of learning by children. Special and extra lesson sessions should be devoted to the less intelligent students in order to brush them up.

Acceleration Process

This is a process through which students who have high intellectual ability are made to skip classes. In every class there are students with varying intelligence quotients (I.Q.). Some have very high or superior I.Q., others may possess average I.Q. while still others may acquire inferior I.Q. To take care of these differences, the students who possess superior I.Q. may be accelerated or promoted to one or two levels or classes ahead. According to Ugwu (1997) the acceleration arrangement will avoid the tempo of instruction being dull and unchallenging to those with superior intelligence and hectic and over stretching to the very dull ones.

Integration

Integrated education programme is much more beneficial to segregated arrangement. Integration enhances socialisation and accommodation of various differences in students – including gender differences, social background, physical or mental abilities, and psychological aspects of children. All of them are put in the same programme and the teacher in the class has to do all in his/her power to accommodate these differences effectively for the benefit of each child in such a class.

Special Education

Even though mainstreaming is highly recommended, sometimes some extreme cases need special educational arrangement. Those children who remarkably differ from others are recommended for special education programme. The children involved include the hearing impaired, the visually impaired, the physically challenged, and the gifted among others. Special teachers are trained who work with special equipment that are put in place in such schools and special methods are used in teaching them. Children are therefore arranged in the school according to the type of exceptionality, disability or impairment for maximum academic achievement. Mainstreaming however helps the disabled to integrate themselves with the normal learners in the school. It helps to reduce inferiority complex, enhance their relationships within the school and helps to accelerate learning. It enhances their social and emotional wellbeing in the school and by extension, outside the school.

CHAPTER FIVE

MORAL DEVELOPMENT

Concepts of Moral

The term moral implies events with rules of right or wrong, and sometimes people are said to be good or bad, moral or immoral. According to Piaget morality consists in a system of rules and the essence of all morality is to be sought for in the respect which the individual acquires for these rules. The method of acquiring the respect for the rule determines the character of the individual. So the problem in moral education is in part deciding what type of character to develop in the child. For Freud, the child begins life with a strange unruly amalgam of wishes upon which he is gradually imposed a code of social demands or rules which make some ways of gratifying wishes acceptable and some others unacceptable. Little by little, life becomes a rule following process. The particular type of rule, which the child adopts, determines his behavior. Musgrave in 1975 defines morality as relating to the principles concerning how we choose to act in situations where there are consequences for others.

Sometimes people use moral to refer to resistance to temptation. So if somebody is said to do something wrong, we are referring to that which we are forbidden to do. Those who resist doing those things forbidden are said to be morally good. Morality may also refer to the control of behaviour

when we are thinking of the standards which the individual has internalized rather than control of behavior in relation to consequences. Here, the intention and the motive of the person/actor is being considered, in which case, actions carried out or not carried out because of consequences are not moral.

However, those ones that are carried out or not carried out because of prescriptions or prohibitions an individual has internalized or accepted are moral. Another reference to moral is that it consists of behavior that is carried out by reference to rules, regulations or principles, which are notionally accepted. In this case, any behavior that is inconsistent with these rules or principles is an immoral one. In this sense, we think of the paradigm between moral and immoral, between laws and legality. A good example of this last aspect of moral is what happened to Okonkwo in *Things Fall Apart*, as a consequence of his breaking of the law of his land when he beat his wife during the “week of peace”.

The ability of an individual to break the law is important. Imbeciles cannot be considered moral or immoral as a result of their very low I.Q. Sometimes behavior is regarded as moral or immoral, that is moral used as adjective to qualify behavior. Moral here refers to acceptability of behavior and immoral as unacceptability of behaviour. Social criteria is considered and brought in when the word acceptability is used; that is, with reference to a society that provides the norms or standards against which behavior could be measured. So we can

think about a society establishing norms about behavior that is good and norms about behavior that is bad. This is what is known as criteria – a Greek word meaning standards – standards against which something can be pitched or measured. Criteria imply value judgement, that is, saying that some forms of behavior are socially acceptable, meaning that majority of people accept them. Using promiscuity as an example, if the society upholds it as immoral, any promiscuous person is also immoral because the society sees it as immoral. Sexual promiscuity is measured against chastity (the value), which is the opposite.

The value which a society upholds and in the light on which it makes its value judgement results in moral rules or moral codes. For any rule or code to qualify as a moral it must have a value upon which it is made. Moral rules are prescriptive and prescriptive statements are ‘ought’ statements or imperative of which the Ten Commandments are good examples. Ought statements can lead to moral rules, laws and legality. Laws are prescriptive rules which determine what is a legally accepted behaviour in a society. Legality of behaviour is therefore determined by reference to legal rules. In the same way, the morality of our behaviour is determined by reference to moral rules.

What is Moral?

Moral is an abstract term and its development is closely linked with that of social development, since it is connected with one’s personal relationship

with others. Moral is concerned with events with rules of right or wrong, good or evil. Moral considerations focus on character considered as good or bad, right or wrong. Moral consideration is relative in nature among cultures, implying that what is moral in one culture may be considered immoral in another culture. Moral standards set by any particular society must have to be accepted, internalized and then there must be the urge or desire to live up to those standards.

There are three types of moral events. These are moral judgement, moral behaviour, moral feelings. Moral judgement takes rules of right or wrong, good or evil into consideration. When a child is said to do something bad, a moral judgement is passed on that child. There are certain criteria involved in moral judgement. The first one is that one who should judge ought to be conversant with the norms and standard of behaviour of the particular society. He has to apply the rule in the correct sense, that is appraising the situation well before judgement is given and lastly, it is necessary to understand why it is important to be moral. This understanding develops as one grows and one's action is judged morally or immorally according to the level of understanding, age and one's state of normality.

Moral behaviour pertains to the actions or reactions or activities in terms of rules of right or wrong, good or evil. It is good to be conversant with the rules, understand them, but it is more important to set the rules that is putting the rules into action.

At times one may understand the rules but may not be able to resist the temptation to break them. Again the resistance may depend on the age and the person's mental state.

Individuals must be taught to resist temptation starting from infancy. Moral feelings, the third moral event have to do with feeling guilty, ashamed of violating the rules of right or wrong, good or evil. This has to do with how far one's conscience is developed and this will in turn determine whether an individual will act in like manner again. It is important to note that for these moral events, age of the person, understanding and accepting of the moral rules, internalising them and the ability to act them out are seriously considered.

There are five primary moral traits which are necessary for moral maturity; moral judgement which must be present before any moral decision is made; deferred gratification which requires that at times personal gratification may be shelved in order to put the moral decision into action; moral personalism which depends on the moral quality of the person (has to take into consideration other people involved in a moral situation) moral flexibility which takes care of moral personalism and moral judgement (both altruistic and rational elements) that are involved in reaching a moral decision must be based on moral principles. Therefore there should be flexibility and this is evidently characterised by the ease with which the facts of moral principles are sieved from a lot of other legal fiats intended to control people's behaviour. This

sieving of moral principles must be creatively done to accommodate the circumstances of every day life. Therefore, moral dynamism and moral creativity must be applied. This implies that the person who abstracts or sieves must be competent to make moral decisions and also apply moral principles to specific situations (Nwachukwu, 1995). A morally mature man must be autonomous, rational, altruistic and responsible.

Punishment for Breaking Moral Rules (Cultural)

When an individual breaks moral rules, he is punished. There are many ways of doing this.

1. Through Ostracism – the individual who breaks moral rules is ostracised. He cannot communicate with anybody in the community. Nobody buys from or sells anything to him and vice versa. Infact, nobody would approach him for anything under any condition and vice versa too.
2. Social Disapproval – the individual may have some kind of fines imposed on him; he may be asked to tender open apology, or people may go to his house to remove valuable property. There are other forms of sanctions in the area of social disapproval.
3. Ridicule – for instance if a man is caught stealing yam, he would be made to carry the yam on his head, most of the time naked and go round the entire town. If a spinster gets pregnant without getting

married, the young girls in the community will disgrace her by calling her names and making derogatory statements about her. Sometimes adults join the girls in applying ridicule. These may be possible particularly in rural settings but it can prove rather very difficult in urban centres because of the cosmopolitan nature of these urban centres.

Dimensions of Moral Consideration

1. Cognitive Dimension: This involves perceiving, reasoning, thinking, judging. In terms of moral concept, thought is given to knowledge of moral rules or principles and the way for them, as well as the capacity for deciding on right or wrong. This involves the capacity for self-criticism.
2. Affective Dimension: refers to the kind of feelings people have in relation to actions which are considered right or wrong. To Freud, this feeling may result to one manifesting anxiety. This may happen when ego ignores superego and allies with id and environmental reality, then superego punishes ego with anxiety. This anxiety is called moral anxiety. The manifestation of such anxiety is seen in the feelings of remorse, shame and guilt feeling. The opposite feeling of satisfaction manifests too

when a person does something morally good.

3. Behavioural Dimension: This is seen in overt action or behaviour. This aspect involves resistance to temptation. An individual must have the 'will' and go all out to resist temptation, otherwise he is seen as an immoral person. He must confess and apologise when he does something wrong.

THEORIES OF MORAL DEVELOPMENT

Kohlberg's Stages of Moral Development

- (A) ***Pre-Moral Or Pre-Conventional Stages:***
Behaviour is motivated by anticipation of pleasure or pain. This is typical of children up to nine years. Preconvention suggests that young children do not really understand the conventions or rules of the society.

Stage I: Punishment and Obedience

At this stage, there is avoidance of physical punishment and deference (behaviour that shows respect for a person or thing) to power. Punishment is an automatic response of physical retaliation. The immediate physical consequences of an action determine its goodness or badness. Those in authority have superior power and should be obeyed. Punishment has to be avoided in order to stay out of trouble. The atrocities carried out by soldiers who were simply "carrying out orders" under threat of punishment during the holocaust

illustrate that adults as well as children may function at this level.

Stage 2: Instrumental Exchange

There is a simple principle involved in this stage: “you scratch my back, I’ll scratch yours.” Here, justice is “do unto others as they do unto you.” The individual does what is necessary, makes concessions only as necessary to satisfy his own needs. An action is judged to be right if it is instrumental in satisfying one’s needs. Right action consists of what instrumentally satisfies one’s own needs. To exert revenge is considered a moral duty. Children obey rules with the hope that they will have some benefits in the end.

B. **Conventional Morality:** Acceptance of the rules and standards of one’s group. Persons between nine and twenty years are found at this level. This level is called conventional morality because persons found in this level conform and obey the conventions and rules of the society.

Stage 3: Interpersonal Conformity

Good boy – nice girl orientation. That an individual’s action is deemed right means it has conformed to the behavioural expectations of his society or peers. The individual acts to gain approval of others. Good behaviour is that which pleases or helps others within the group. “Everybody is doing it”. One earns approval by being conventionally

“respectable” and “nice”. Any wrong doing is a breach of the expectations of the social order. Retribution, however, at this stage is collective and vengeance is not on individual bases. Forgiveness is preferable to revenge. Punishment is mainly administered to deter people from doing bad and this is necessary.

Stage 4: Law and Order

For social order to be maintained, there must be laws, rules and order concretely fixed and established. Not only this, they must be obeyed. Therefore, there must be respect for rules, laws, order and properly constituted authority. Injustice is failing to reward work or punish demerit. Right behaviour consists of maintaining the social order for its own sake. Authority figures are seldom questioned. “He must be right. He’s the Pope (or the President, or the Judge, or Governor).” There should be consistency and precedence and these must be maintained. Social and institutional order must be maintained and defended because it must be defended for its own sake. Persons in this stage deem it necessary to take on responsibility for other people’s welfare. They see justice in the area of criminal or forensic justice. There is every expectation that those who go wrong should be punished – he must pay his debt to the society, and those law abiding ones have to be rewarded – a good pay for a good day’s job. It is an injustice if a wrong act is not punished and good not rewarded. There is no way the authority figure can be questioned,

implying that he is always right. Changing the precedence set in respect of obedience to the authority is difficult to achieve.

Stage 4½

In between levels one and two of conventional stages and levels five and six of post conventional or principled morality, there is a transitional stage. Adolescents who see conventional morality as arbitrary and relative to persons and situations, but have not yet reached the stage of ethical principles tend to relapse to “do it your own way” well noted in the hippie culture of the 1960s. As a result, they are neither here nor there in terms of moral principles, Kohlberg calls this stage, 4½ stage.

C. *Post Conventional or Principled Morality (Ethical Principles):* According to Bieler (1986) man reaches this level after twenty years of age and only very small proportion of adults get to it. This level is called post conventional because the moral principles embedded in the conventions of any given society are understood. Here man does good and obeys rules or laws because it is intrinsically good to do so.

Stage 5: Prior Right and Social Contract

What is important at this stage is that any moral action should centre around the logical application of universal, abstract, moral principles in a specific situation. Individuals in a society have

natural rights and privileges that must be protected by it. Punishment that has to be meted to individuals must be rational, just and must be proportionate to the circumstances and needs. Retributive justice must be repudiated. Justice however, must be distributed proportionately to circumstances and needs too. Punishment should not apply because it neither promotes the rights nor the welfare of an individual. Kohlberg discovered that only legal sanctions are necessary since they protect future victims, act as deterrence and help to rehabilitate the victims. At stage 5 rules that are needed to maintain social order and peace have to be based not on blind or 'sheepish' obedience to the authority but on mutual agreement. So individuals act out of mutual obligation and a sense of public good. The rights of an individual should be protected. But what action that is viewed as rights has to be defined in terms of individual rights and in terms of standards that have been critically examined and agreed upon by the society. One example is the constitution of any country. The freedom or the right of an individual should not be blocked or limited by society unless it infringes on the freedom and rights of others. One's freedom and rights end where those of others start.

Stage 6: Universal Ethical Principles

To Kohlberg, an individual who reaches this stage acts out of universal principles based upon the equality and worth of all human beings. Persons are never means to an end, but are ends in themselves. Kohlberg (1969), in Biehler (1986) led us to

understand that moral decisions at this stage should be made in terms of one's chosen ethical principles and that once these principles are chosen, they should be consistently applied. Having rights means more than individual liberties. It means that every individual is given due consideration of his interests in every situation, those interests being of equal important with ones own rights. This is the "Golden Rule" model. A list of rules inscribed in stone is no longer necessary. At this level, God is understood to say what is right because it is right; not just because it is God who said them. Persons at this level have accepted God's invitation to "come and let us reason together.

After Kohlberg had proposed his theory, some evaluator study was carried out on it by some psychologists. Kurtines and Greif (1974) were among those who criticized Kohlberg's theory and pointed out some weaknesses. These include

1. Kohlberg had nine moral problems but on the average presented only six to most of his subjects. As a result, not all the subjects responded to the same set of problems.
2. The main characters in almost all the problems presented were male and this might help to account for the lower developmental scores earned by females.
3. How the scores of the responses were done was complex and difficult to understand and they were almost controlled by Kohlberg who issued all the scoring scheme to selected investigators.

4. Relationship between moral reasoning and moral behaviour is not yet established. The fact is that an experiment has not shown that an individual who has supplied post conventional answers to hypothetical moral problems would act in a similar way in real life situation.

The following are observations that were made by Kohlberg, further explaining human development in stages.

1. Stage Development is Invariant

One must progress through the stages in order, and one cannot get to a higher stage without passing through the stage immediately preceding it. A belief that such a leap into moral maturity is possible is in sharp contrast to the facts of developmental research. Moral development is growth, and like all growth, takes place according to a pre-determined sequence. To expect someone to grow into high moral maturity overnight would be like expecting someone to walk before he crawls.

2. In Stage Development, Subjects cannot comprehend moral reasoning at a stage more than one stage beyond their own.

If Johnny is oriented to see good almost exclusively as that which brings him satisfaction, how will he understand a concept of good in which the "good" may bring him no tangible pleasure at all. The moral maxim, "it is better to give than to receive" reflects a

high level of development. The child who honestly asks you why it is better to give than to receive, does so because he does not and cannot understand such thinking. To him, “better” means better for him. And how can it be better for him to give, than to get.

3. In Stage Development, Individuals are cognitively attracted to reasoning one level above their own present predominant level.

The person has questions and problems, the solutions for which are less satisfying at his present level. Since reasoning at one stage higher is intelligible and since it makes more sense and resolves more difficulties, it is more attractive. For example, two brothers both want the last piece of pie. The bigger, stronger brother will probably get it. The little brother suggests they share it. He is thinking at level two, rather than at level one. The solution for him is more attractive; getting some rather than none. An adult who functions at level one consistently will end up in prison or dead.

4. In Stage development, movement through stages is effected when cognitive disequilibrium is created, that is, when a person’s cognitive outlook is not adequate to cope with a given moral dilemma.

The person who is growing, will look for more and more adequate ways of solving problems, if he has no problems, no dilemma, he is not likely to look for solutions. He will not grow morally. In the apple pie

example, the big brother, who can just take the pie and get away with it, is less likely to look for a better solution than the younger brother who will get none and probably be beaten in the struggle.

5. It is quite possible for a human being to be physically mature but not morally mature

If a child is spoiled, never having to accommodate for others needs, if he is raised in an environment where level two thinking by others gets the job done, he may never generate enough questions to propel him to a higher level of moral reasoning.

6. Kohlberg believed that only about 25% of persons ever grow to level six, the majority remaining at level four.

The Bible enjoins principles of modesty, humility and wise stewardship of money. Application of these principles might preclude the purchase of expensive jewellery, furs, flashy cars, or other items primarily for show. A person functioning at level six would have no problem applying these principles. Persons functioning at level four on the other hand, might make rules about “jewellery” (in a church for instance) or red dresses or cosmetics. But they might not even notice a flashy car or the lady who wears a new dress every single week. Those things aren’t on the list. If Kohlberg’s observation is true, then level 6 thinkers would be in the minority. They might even be misunderstood and persecuted by a level 4 majority (Christ being the primary example).

Piaget's Studies on Moral Development

Piaget after his studies on moral development came up with three stages. At 0-2 years children or pre-schoolers' reasoning about moral issues is predicated upon and shaped by three considerations. One is that rules made by adults must be obeyed and under no consideration must it be disobeyed. The next one is that they consider the rules made and not what was borne in mind for making the rule and finally, to the consequences of their action and whatever conclusion is drawn about their action, they accept. When any of their action is judged good or bad, they accept that they are either good or bad.

When they move into other stages of development they meet and interact with other children especially the peer group. This interaction and increased intellectual abilities help to shape their moral development.

Piagets Stages of Moral Development

1. *Amoral Stage 0-2 years*

At this level, children are egocentric and everything centres around them without consideration for others and they act without restraint. They have not as yet understood what morality is and this is why they easily forget any rules made by adults. This stage corresponds to Piaget's stage of intellectual development.

2. *Morality of Constraint 2-8 years*

This is the stage where children start to understand the concept of morality. Morality of constraint is characterised by automatic obedience to rules without reasoning. Once the rules are made by adults, they must be obeyed because children view adults as powerful and omnipotent or good ones. For children at this stage morality is considered in terms of rules. There may not be any specific rules but for them to be obedient is taken as rules. They take morality and judgement literally and they judge accordingly, judging behaviour in terms of its consequences. Children at this stage do not consider intention but punishment. Between 7-10 years children imbibe and internalize laws and rules without really understanding them, evaluating them or thinking of the alternatives to the rules or alternatives to the responses. Children at this stage require rule for every situation.

3. *Autonomous Morality or Morality of Cooperation (10 years up)*

This morality has two factors (a) nature of the rule and (b) the intention, (a) The nature of the rule is necessary. People decide to obey because they have internalised the rules and so do not see rules as given to people but to be kept or obeyed by people. The decision to keep the rule is borne out of the fact that it is for the welfare of the society. For instance, as children, they think that telling lies is sin because such a rule exists. But as an adult, he

sees that to tell lies will disrupt the smooth running of the society, (b) For the intention, children take intention or motive into consideration not only physical consideration or consequences. This brings out the relativity of morality-actions are not just good or bad but intentions, motives, reasons and circumstances of the rule or law are brought to bear on the making and application of the rule. Children here can now see reason why Elizabeth, a sick child should be exempted from manual labour. There must be restitution which means returning that which is stolen or wrongly removed.

Punishment should be administered and must be commensurate with offence committed and must be just, directly related to the offence and must aim at correcting an offender. Here morality is considered in relation to the universal principles of goodness.

Education Implications

Every learning and training should start at home. Moral behaviour is not an exception, though the school takes over where the home stops. Teachers, therefore have a very big task of making opportunity available to the children for the acquisition of fundamental moral behaviour through group academic and non-academic activities – such as group project, games, etc.

Societal values should be inculcated in children; such values include obedience, respect for others; honesty, tolerance, etc. This can be done through concerts, drama, plays, story telling.

Teachers should direct them and help them to strive to acquire the spirit of cooperation through group activities. Encourage healthy competition through reinforcing good deeds.

Even though punishment is a negative reinforcer, it could be administered as a last resort. It could still aid in instilling moral behaviour in children.

Teachers should be good models so that children will look upon them, imitate them and so learn the values they have and live out the values.

Psychoanalytic Theory of Moral Development (Sigmund Freud)

Freud's study on moral development came up with

- (a) Psychodynamic which he regarded as internal forces that compel an individual to act or behave in a certain way. The individual may be normal or not. If for instance, a person is an addict, he may not be aware of his actions. He acts because an internal factor is compelling or inducing him to do so.
- (b) Psychoanalytic which as he wrote, deals with experiences of the mind. In a clinical interview, for example, the person is made to say his past experiences and then bring them to bear on the present and this may help to predict the future.
- (c) There is a superior element that helps to check the conflicts within an individual. The superior element is the superego. The superego contains the conscience and the ego ideal.

In moral consideration, we think of the conscience as the internalised standards and people see the manifestations of these internalised standards in behaviour. When people notice the signs of remorse, anxiety, the conscience is at work. These are self critical reactions.

Social Learning Theory of Moral Development

This theory stresses that individuals should act in conformity with the society's values, rules, culture, tradition, conventional rules and societal settings. How do people know that an individual is conforming to the moral standards. If he is living morally, he gets reward or praise, that is, he is reinforced. If he lives otherwise, that is, if he goes against the moral standards, he is punished.

Social learning theory emphasizes that if a person does not conform, he has failed to learn moral standards. The treatment to make him conform is to teach him the moral standards. For the teaching to take place.

- (a) restructure the learning environment so the set standards become clearer and easily understood. So to find out why somebody is not conforming, it is better to refer to the setting from where the person comes.
- (b) follow the processes of stimulus organism response (SOR) learning theories or associationist theories. This learning condition demands that stimuli should be made available in a favourable

environment. For learning to take place learner should make responses to the given stimuli and inferences are made by direct observations of these in their behaviour. This shows that there is no stage at which a person stops learning and so the opportunity which the adults and the young ones have is the same opportunity to learn.

Social learning theories do consider the question of differences between the adult and the young. They do not consider moral development as occurring in stages. Learning is growing and people continue learning. Learning is a continuous process of socialisation and from this, it is evident that people are continuously learning.

Educational Implications of Moral Development

1. The classroom teacher should maintain an atmosphere that should afford children opportunity to be able to put into practice what basic moral value they have acquired and internalised. This can be achieved through group activities like games, carrying out group work or project. In doing this, they will respect one another's rights and also know when to demand honestly for their own rights and privileges.
2. Teachers should be models for the children to emulate. This is because children emulate and sometimes identify with what the teacher does, says or teaches. He should therefore cultivate

such moral behaviour or values like fairness, honesty, truthfulness, respect for other's right, property, feeling and exhibit tolerance for other's actions. These virtues/values can also be acquired through drama and story telling being used by the teacher as a strategy and also as a method of teaching.

3. Reinforcement is a necessary tool for motivating an individual's repeat of desirable behaviour which has been carried out in the past. The teacher should therefore try as much as possible to reinforce desirable behaviour which children display in order to help them continue exhibiting such behaviour and so be able to internalise them. When internalisation takes place, they will be able to display such behaviour whether reinforced or not.
4. Punishment is a negative reinforcer, but can be used to make children learn some moral values. It should however, be sparingly used because sometimes it induces forced morality which children may not value or internalise for use.

CHAPTER SIX

THEORIES OF HUMAN GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

1. Human Growth and Development- theories or principles
2. Development as a product of maturational learning

Human development encompasses more than change. Development is complex and it changes with age. A lot of developmental psychologists have come up with various theories of development. Some of these theories will be discussed in this chapter.

Arnold Gesell

Gesell a predeterminist looks at the development of an infant, how he grows, develops and behaves. He has what he called an onto genetic view of man which has to do with the development of man from embryonic stage of infancy, to childhood, adolescence and full maturity and the changes that take place. He monitored the behaviour of different children during his study, and he found out that there were very many similarities in the way they behaved. According to him, the human growth moves in a spiral form and unfolds from a lower level or stage to a higher one. Each of these levels is interrelated, interdependent and each leads to the development of the next one. As he moves on he goes to a more sophisticated function which changes as

he moves to a higher level, for example, a new born baby cannot do anything but lie down. But as he grows and develops he starts turning his eyes, moving his head and other limbs, kicking them, then he learns to sit and balance. He can then crawl, learn how to stand, walk and finally run. Because he can crawl, stand, walk and finally run he is performing certain functions. These functions are orderly and one child cannot for instance run before he can walk.

Epistemological View of Man – Piaget, Jean

Man has an inheritance to organise himself and his behaviour and relate to other people around him. This need to organise himself starts from the day he was born. Man has to adapt himself to any situation and environment in which he finds himself, for example, living in a poor or rich home, or effects of any type of weather condition. This organisation of man's activities and behaviour determines the intellectual development of man. This type of organisation involves a scheme which is based on a systematic arrangement from a lower level to a higher level of organisation. Lower level involves less complicated functions while higher level involves more complex functions.

What is Intelligence?

This is a concept that is not easy to define. Some psychologists and educators have made attempts at defining intelligence each from his or her own perspective. When people talk of intellectual

development, they are thinking of how man develops in intellectual operation or cognition. It refers to those things people do when they are said to be solving a problem, thinking or learning. Cognitive development starts with the development of perception which refers to the process by which people receive stimuli or information from the environment.

Intelligence, unlike some fixed attributes like height and weight, must be inferred from the behaviour of an individual. To Binet (1916), in intelligence there is a faculty known as judgement, which is otherwise called – good sense, practical sense, initiative, the faculty of adapting oneself to circumstances. The essential activities of intelligence are based on proper judgement, understanding, good reasoning. He also considers that intelligence consisted of comprehension, invention (creativity), direction (a measure of purposiveness and perseverance rather than ability), and censorship (self – censorship which is an aspect of intelligence not included in any other definition. Binet bases his definition on the ability to adjust to new situations. On his own part, Terman defines individual intelligence as ability to carry on abstract thinking. Wechsler defines intelligence as the “aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally and to deal effectively with his environment.” Life must have value and esteem accordingly.

There was a lot of debate as to whether intelligence is purely biological (inherited) or

environment (social) in nature. Some psychologists maintained that it is biological and that environment has no influence on it. Some believe it is environmental. But later, studies show that it is neither of them but rather, that one acts on the other to produce intelligence. Therefore, intelligence is phenotypic in nature, Francis Galton and Jenson supported the interaction of environment and heredity in the question of intelligence.

Intelligence and its Measurement

A number of psychologists have measured intelligence based on their various perspectives and understanding of its meaning. Donald Hebb, a neurologist drew attention to two categories of intelligence. Intelligence A stands for innate potential or inborn capacity for development. This is normally genetic; intelligence B represents the functioning and the ongoing development of the nervous system. This is the phenotype. While A appears to be fixed, B is not fixed. B changes with environment and this suggests that while it is accessible to measurement, intelligence A is not.

Vernon was another psychologist who measured intelligence by introducing intelligence C as a follow up of A and B introduced by Hebb. Intelligence C stands for sampling of intelligence, B using tests. So intelligence can be regarded as what intelligence tests measure.

Sir Francis Galton, who believed that intelligence is hereditary, in 1882 opened the first testing centre in the world where what was called

psychological competence e.g. sensorial acuity, perceptual discrimination etc, were measured.

Alfred Binet studied individual differences of children in France by testing their mental functioning. The study revealed that some children could not cope with normal school work. So he was called upon by French Ministry of Public Instruction to develop a scale of tests that would differentiate between normal and abnormal or retarded children. He noted three aspects of intelligence and these are considered as his definition of intelligence. These are

- that an intelligent person is able to carry on activities without being distracted. He used the word 'direction' to cover this aspect of intelligence.
- the individual that is intelligent is able to adapt means to ends. Here he used the word 'adaptation'.
- he is able to evaluate himself, that is, his behaviour by referring to objective reality and this he called 'autocriticism'.

Later Binet and Simon developed a kind of test to discriminate between normal and retarded or educable and non-educable children. Binet introduced the concept of mental age. Terman, modified the Binet-Simon intelligence test and introduced the term intelligence quotient (I.Q.) to help determine the degree of relation or ratio between mental age to chronological age. His formula for determining one's I.Q is given below

$$\text{I.Q} = \frac{\text{Mental Age (MA)}}{\text{Chronological Age (CA)}} \times \frac{100}{1}$$

If for instance, Okeke is 12 years old and his mental age is 13 years, his I.Q will be

$$\frac{13}{12} \times \frac{100}{1} = 100.33$$

The individual has an average I.Q of 100.33

Other psychologists who tried to measure intelligence include:

Studdard who propounded the Multi-Factor Theory.

Spearman evolved specific factor (S), specific performance and general factor (G) for general performance.

Thurstone was talking about primary mental ability instead of talking of general intelligence.

Guilford divided intelligence into 120 components from which he later developed 75 and they were arranged into four components of cognition, products, contents and behavioural-actions.

Intellectual Development: Jean Piaget

What is intellectual development? When we talk of intellectual development we are thinking of how man develops in intellectual operations or

cognition. Cognitive development starts with the development of perception. Perception refers to the process by which people receive stimuli from the environment.

What are stimuli? These are energies that impinge upon or have noticeable effect on peoples senses.

What are energies? Energies are impressions or information received by the body which enable us to understand the world around us and learn how to react to those impressions or information received.

Our senses are the gateways or doors through which the impressions from the environment are received. People receive these impressions through seeing (eyes) hearing (ears), tasting (through taste receptor), feeling (through skin receptor) or smelling (through the nose). Since the impressions are formed through the gateways of the senses, in perception therefore, the state of the receptor is very important. This in essence determines the differences that are noticed between the real stimulus and real perception of it. For instance, if an ongoing lecture was disturbed and students were asked to give an account of what led to the disruption, each of them would give a different version of the incident. Also at the end of each lecture students will give different accounts of what things they heard. These differences occur as a result of differences in perception and differences in individuals. The quality of the receptor is also part of the difference. A deaf individual will not receive the stimulus from the environment as a normal hearing person will do.

Cognitive development therefore refers to the changes which these mental processes undergo. The mental processes which an adult has gone through is not the same as those which a child has gone through. The way an adult reasons is not the way a child reasons. The thinking of a child is qualitatively different from that of an adult. There are certain manifestations/ characteristics of intellectual development.

- ability to accommodate and master stimuli
- ability to remember events; to deal with symbols particularly the abstract, increase in reasoning ability

Piaget was interested in intellectual development which was as a result of his training in the natural sciences and in epistemology. He developed his cognitive theory by carrying out actual observation of children. From the result of his observation and study, Piaget concluded that intellectual development is the result of the interaction of hereditary and environmental factors. He maintained that as the child develops and constantly interacts with the world in which he lives, knowledge is invented and reinvented. London (1988) states that because Piaget's theory of intellectual development is strongly grounded in biological sciences, he saw cognitive growth as an extension of biological growth which is being governed by the same laws and principles of growth and development.

Piaget was interested in not only knowledge but also in how children come to know and

understand their world. Knowledge is not merely transmitted verbally but must be constructed and reconstructed by the learner. Piaget asserted that for a child to know and construct knowledge of the world, the child must act on objects and it is this action which provides knowledge of those objects (Sigel, 1977). The mind must be active to organise reality and act upon it. Piaget was of the opinion that there must be readiness which emphasises that children cannot learn something until maturation gives them certain prerequisites (Brainerd, 1978). The ability to learn any cognitive content is always related to their stage of intellectual development. Children who are at a certain stage cannot be taught the concepts of a higher stage, Piaget discovered that children think and reason differently at different periods in their lives. He believed that everyone passed through an invariant sequence of four qualitatively different stages. Even though all normal children pass through the stages in exactly the same order, there is variability in the ages at which they attain the four stages.

Piaget evolved four periods of man's development and these are

1. Sensory motor period 0 – 2 years
2. Pre-operational stage 2 – 7 years
3. Concrete operational stage 7 – 11 years
4. Formal operational stage (abstract thinking) 11 years and above.

Period 1: *Sensorimotor stage*

Piaget at the end of his clinical interviews with many children concluded that up to two years, children acquire understanding through the sensory impressions and motor activities. As a result of this, he calls this stage, the sensorimotor stage. At about this time, all the patterns of all the sensory organs are clearly developed. Initially, there is no coordination of actions but later at this stage coordination of actions becomes perfect. He moves his eye and sees things, touches them and then puts them in his mouth. He can perceive the smell of things and feel the touch of anything that he comes into bodily contact with.

Piaget divided this pattern of organisation into sub stages.

Use of reflexes:

1. The characteristic of this substage is the exercise of reflexes by sucking, crying, breathing, waving arms and legs etc. The more he does these things the better he loves them. Through the repetition of actions prompted by these reflexes the child is able to incorporate them. In this case the child is exercising the ready made reflex actions. His learning experiences start by exercising these reflexes:

- a. Primary Circular reactions: The infant repeats some acts involving the body example, finger sucking. The reflexive behaviour at this stage is slowly replaced by

voluntary movement. In the first substage, there is compulsion to act but now he acts voluntarily. He now repeats what he has done automatically. In this way reactions become slowly linked with stimuli. This is the stage of voluntarism. At this point, infants develop schemes primarily by the exploration of their bodies because they cannot move around much.

- b. Secondary Circular Reactions: 4-10 months. This is a continuation of primary circular reactions. Actions are repeated and prolonged to create a state of permanency. At this state it is possible to co-ordinate two or more sensory activities. The child can now see something and grab it. For instance a key is dangled in front of him, he looks at it and stretches out his hand to reach it and finally he grabs the key and puts it into the mouth. All these actions he does purposefully. The child makes use of things around him e.g. books, toys etc. He knows what he is doing. The activities here are goal oriented because the child is now aware of the consequences of his reactions.
- c. Tertiary reactions. At this stage the child has started to move about showing curiosity and he is into everything that attracts him. At this level he is trying to develop his speech. He has some knowledge of cause –

effect relationship (if he puts his finger into a fire, it burns).

He also knows that objects are permanent. As a result of curiosity he sees something and tries to get it and when he cannot, he tries to get others to do it for him and with those he can do, he tries to repeat them often and on.

He tends to drop things and Piaget interprets this action as expressing uncertainty about what should happen to the object if dropped. This is done out of curiosity to see the consequences. As teachers, we make use of children's senses. Here the use of senses predominates because speech has not developed.

- d. Internalisation: This is the internalisation of sensory motor schemata or invention of new ways through mental combinations or increased reflection on sensory motor experiences. This is the stage of mental activities. He is trying to internalise them and he now starts to think about them. He tries to gain mental image which is, being able to remember when he wants to do them. If what he likes is hidden he tries to look for it. The focus of this stage is the internalisation or forming of mental images of those activities he has been performing.

Period 2: Pre-operational stage (2 – 7 years)

Socialised speech and thought develop at about 2-8 years when the child begins to learn to take other people's views into account. At this stage the child becomes capable of understanding that others may have different concepts and that their experiences with objects and situations may be different. Their egocentric speech stems from the fact that they can only think of one thing at a time and this quality influences the way they reason about things. Here he uses language to express his thought. He acquires a lot of concepts-of time, space, number, weight, colour, shape, size, ordering/seriation etc. In other words he can count things, knows the shape of things. His thinking is perceptually based, that is, he thinks only of what he has seen and concludes only on what he has seen.

Major Characteristics of Pre-operational Stage

1. Deferred imitation where the child imitates some objects or activities when the object or activity is no longer present, meaning he has now got the image of them.
2. Symbolic play or pretending – the child can close his eyes pretending to be asleep or pretending to be eating when actually there is no food.
3. Drawing from that in which he receives pleasure similar to that received from symbolic play. This is an intermediate stage between play and mental imagery.

4. Mental images appear which Piaget calls internalised imitation. This means static mental pictures not the ones that are mobile. By static, Piaget means that a pre-operational child reproduces previous objects or events, that is, he does not change them nor does he anticipate change.
5. Language appears and in trying to accommodate he has to arrange experiences logically. This involves a lot of mental processes and internalisation of experiences.

Limitations

1. Centration or Centering – centering on one aspect of operation, event or object, oblivious of other ones.
2. Egocentrism – What the child does or thinks centres on himself- what he saw, what he did or what people will do for him. He cannot put others into consideration.
3. Eventually – the child does not understand the concept of change in things around him.

Period 3: Concrete Operation (7 – 11 years)

At this stage increase in accommodation stimulates a real desire for verification of what is accommodated. Awareness of the processes of perception and increased ability to perceive more accurately enable him to extend his present understanding of things. He experiences increased understanding of the multiple dimensions of objects and events in time and space. He therefore begins to

look at more than one aspect of a problem at a time and is capable of representing in his mind two or more dimensions of the same object. Piaget calls this process decentration – that is, a child no longer centres his attention and mental representation on just one aspect of the problem. He can now solve the conservation of quantity problem.

Decentration – get two glasses of the same size and pour water into them. Then pour the water in one of the glasses into a tall glass and ask the child which one is bigger. He will be able to answer correctly because he is no longer deceived by appearance.

The child has now moved himself out of the centre of his experiences because he can now use the actual measuring sticks rather than self reference. Objects and things tend to be defined by their use. He understands relations among the various concrete operational stages, for instance classification, ordering, number construction, spatial and temporal operations, positions of things as indicated by opposites and prepositions – in, under, on, into. He can sort correctly sticks, pebbles and beans according to kind. He can do simple mathematical operations.

There are certain characteristics that arise as a result of these schema developed at this level. They are:

- (a) classification – the child for instance will sort things by size, colour, shape. Example – get six cardboard sheets of various sizes and shapes.

mix them up and ask him to sort them. He can do this correctly.

- (b) ordering – cut some sticks into various sizes and ask him to sort into sizes. He can do this too
- (c) (i) spatial and (ii) temporal operations (i) thinking of distribution of things in space and of their shapes (ii) thinking about positions of objects – in, under, on, into etc.
- (d) number construction – ability to understand the relationship among numbers
- (e) closure the child now understands that any two operations can combine to form a third operation example $7+2 = 9$, the third operation closes the gap in the two operations so combined. If this is given the name rectangle, it closes the gap in the two operations combined.
- (f) associativity – this implies that for any operation there is an opposite one to cancel it. He first masters the first operation, then learns a second one which cancels the first one. First operation is $2+6 = 8$ and the second one which cancels the first one is $6-2 = 4$; all human adults minus women = men.
- (g) reversibility which is explained as when three operations are combined it does not matter which two are combined first. Which ever way, the answer remains the same. Example $3+(6+5)$ or $(3+6) +5$.

(h) identity is a null operation formed when any operation is combined with its opposite—example $2-2 = 0$, zero is a null operation.

Major limitations are that operations are concrete in nature and oriented towards events in the child's environment.

Piaget Formal Operational Stage (11 years-18-25 years Adolescent period)

According to Piaget (1972), the final and the highest stage is reached at about the age of eleven (at the onset of adolescence) and this stage is called the formal operational stage. His concept of formal operation refers to a mental process or the development of form or structure of thinking, e.g. complex logical reasoning that can take place entirely 'in the head'. He does not necessarily need concrete images to understand things and situations. At this stage, the individual can do abstract reasoning and draw logical conclusions. The fact that he abstracts makes it possible for him to do higher and more intricate functions and can also use concepts. For the first time, he invents systems of beliefs, he can speculate, idealise, make intense arguments about his own opinion, theorise about the world and events. He can hypothesise and generalise. Children between eleven and thirteen years are likely to engage in trial and error behaviour in solving problems. After this, they fully operate abstractly. At this stage formal thoughts he has acquired have begun to act on concrete operations to produce new structures, which are transformed.

Piaget considers the development of formal thoughts or operations having principles or causal influence on the development of adolescent personality. To him structural transformation which occurs at this period is like a centre from which radiate various and more visible modifications which take place at adolescence.

The analysis of formal operational structures reveals at its centre, two cognitive skills.

- (a) being able to differentiate the possible from the real, knowing that which is possible to achieve unlike what is real and unachievable.
- (b) Being able to think deeper and reflect on what he is thinking about.

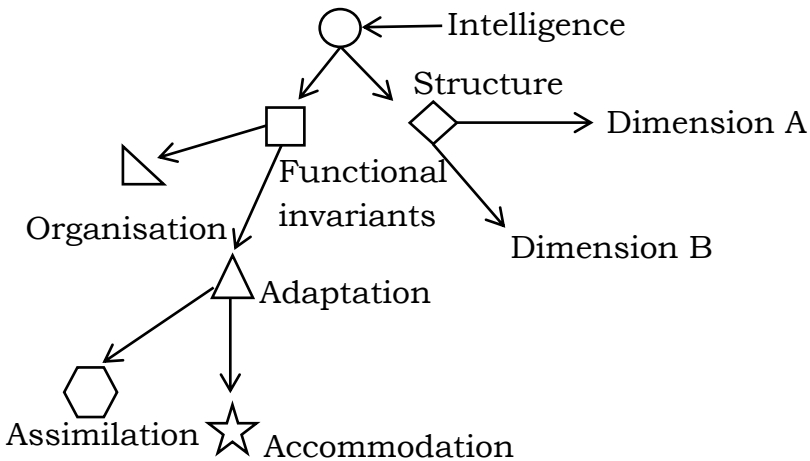
Characteristics of Formal Operation

1. having the potentiality of imaging all that there is or might be;
2. can propound theories and or criticise the present situation because he is capable of conceiving many ways in which he could operate or alternatives that could be used or adopted.
3. can think hypothetically in many ways to discover the real from many possibilities and as a result he discards many ways as hypothetical which may be accepted or rejected; this will enable him to test these possibilities in turn to see which ones are true and which ones are not; this will help

him to draw meaning to the solution of his problem.

4. logical process helps him to do analysis of combination of factors like intelligence.

According to Piaget, intellectual development is a change in the cognitive structure, which changes with age. It can be seen as changes, which come with age in the way people reason, imagine, solve problems, and think. These changes occur in the cognitive structure symbolically shown below



Cognitive Structure (An Aspect of Intelligence)

Structure has two dimensions – A logic and B social or affected in nature.

Dimension A logic, mainly cognitive in nature – ability to reason beyond the immediate present this dimension reveals the two cognitive skills earlier

mentioned in formal operations eg. Thinking about his future, his decisions for it etc.

Dimension B of social (affective) interpersonal relationship of the individual e.g. attitude, discussion of important issues like politics; bothering about what is happening at local and international levels.

From the above symbolic sketch, it is seen that intelligence has two dimensions (a) structures (b) functional invariants;

(a) *Structures*: these are the organised aspect of the individual, which change with age. It is also viewed as organised aspect of intellectual activities, which change with age. Because they are organised, they are stable, coherent and therefore form a unit. Piaget conceptualised intelligence as occurring in stages, which correspond with qualitative changes of structures. It is therefore the structures that define the stages of Piaget's theory of intellectual development. These structures are not just there, they emerge in the course of development. This means that people do not inherit these structures. They develop with environmental experiences. One of the problems of the structures is the understanding of the structural changes. In structure, there are two dimensions of transformation-dimension A and dimension B. earlier discussed.

(b) *Functional invariants*: these are inherited and they remain the same throughout life. People

share these processes in common. They are therefore not different from one person to another. The problem people have with functional invariants is understanding the processes. These processes are subdivided into adaptation and organisation:

- i. Adaptation, according to Piaget is accord of thought with reality, that is, the response people make with the outside environment or when people re-establish equilibrium with the environment. So adaptation can be regarded as the action of equilibrium between assimilation and accommodation. It should therefore be seen as an equilibrium or balance between assimilation and accommodation. Thus intelligence is seen as a mental adaptation to new situations. One's degree of adaptation to one's environment is a measure of one's intelligence.

How does one adapt? This is done through two processes – assimilation and accommodation. When a person encounters a new situation and reacts to it as he has reacted to a similar situation in the past, the person is said to have assimilated that situation. It is regarded as the interpretation of a stimulus. When the person comes to adjust to such new situations or when he comes to terms with such new situations, he is said to have accommodated them.

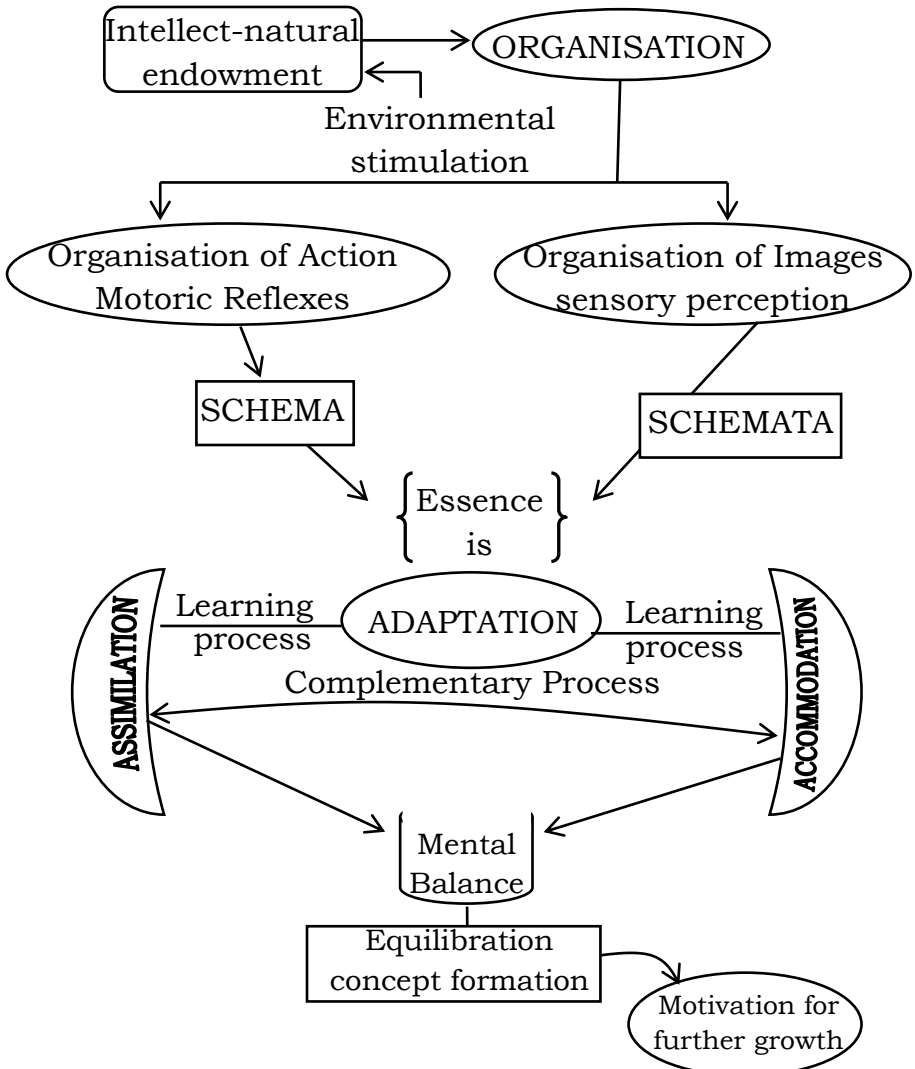
Suppose we compare assimilation and accommodation with food which we eat. Assimilation occurs when the food is taken in by the body or is assimilated in such a way that the food is not vomited. But when the food is used by the body in such a way that it helps to keep the body healthy, then this is accommodation. It is the past experiences or associations that help to determine assimilation and accommodation processes. For instance, when something happens to a person, a fly for instance, perches on him and he just looks at it and gives it its name and does not respond by killing it, then this is assimilation. But the moment he kills the fly as a result of experience or association, then that is accommodation. Assimilation involves the incorporation of new events into pre-existing cognitive structures. Accommodation means that existing structures change to accommodate new information. These two processes, assimilation and accommodation, enable the child to form schema. Equilibration involves the person striking a balance between himself and the environment, between assimilation and accommodation. For Piaget, equilibration is the major factor in explaining why some children advance more quickly in the development of logical intelligence than do others (Lavatelli: 1973).

In a new situation, the individual brings his past associations to bear on the new stimulus and he tries as much as possible to solve the problem. Immediately he gives the problem a name, then this is assimilation. This becomes part of the person's

knowledge. What use does he want to make of the new situations? How does one adjust to them? The process of adjustment is accommodation. By imitating what adults do, an individual has assimilated. When he starts reacting to these actions of adults to make them part of his repertoire of experience, he has accommodated.

- ii. Organisation, this is accord of thought with itself. How does thought accord with itself? This can be done when an individual relates one activity to the one in mind, so that it can reach a state of equilibrium or harmony. This means that organisation is state of the mind to relate one activity with the other so that these activities can be properly located within the mind, and that no confusion arises in the mastery of experience. The interaction of the structures and the functional invariants combine to affect the intelligence of an individual.

Piaget's Cognitive Structure: Anikweze's and Orji's Model



Assimilation and accommodation operate as complementary process that leads to intellectual process.

To organise information or materials, actions performed by people on objects can displace,

connect, combine, take apart (separate) and reassemble them. Organisation of these actions or motoric reflexes, Piaget called schema and the organisation of sensory perceptions he called schemata.

Schema – this is the primary unit of cognitive organisation; other complex behaviour may develop from there.

Schemas – modifiable reflexes or flexible mental structures, not innate in nature but emerge as the individual matures, may contain some aspects of innate reflexes. For instance, sucking is an innate reflex but the turning of head, searching for breast, holding it etc in the course of sucking by the baby, thumb sucking or any material put into the mouth are not innate. For instance, sucking is an innate reflex but the sucking schema consists not only of sucking response but also of turning the head and opening the mouth when touched on the cheek. As time goes on the sucking schema expands to include searching for the breast, holding and pressing the breast, thumb sucking or any other material that go into the mouth in the absence of the breast.

For Piaget, as the child experiences and reacts to its environment there are new integrations of sensory perceptions (schemata) and motor activities (schemas) as integrations go on and incorporated a scheme is modified. Intelligence, to Piaget is the result of an individual's increasing ability to co-ordinate his actions both physical and mental.

Educational Impact of Piaget's Cognitive Theory

1. Children at concrete operational stage should be provided with concrete materials they have to manipulate for better learning and understanding.
2. Pupils at the same level of cognition should be allowed to discuss and interact in such a way that will help them to understand element or matter under discussion.
3. Teacher should allow for individual help and care since it is certain that children in any given class are certain to be developing at different levels of cognitive development.
4. Room or opportunity should be made available to children to study and learn on their own in order to discover the world and things around them.
5. Children should be afforded opportunities to reason out issues and things. This will help them to understand better what they are learning. Teachers in turn will be able to arrange their instruction to suit the levels of cognitive development of each child in their class.

Implications for Education

A Piagetian-inspired curricula emphasise a learner-centred educational philosophy. The teaching methods which most American school children are familiar with – teacher lecturer, demonstrations, audio-visual presentations, teaching machines and programmed instruction – do not fit

in with Piaget's ideas on the acquisition of knowledge. Piaget espoused active discovery learning environments in our schools. Intelligence grows through the twin processes of assimilation and accommodation, therefore, experiences should be planned to allow opportunities for assimilation and accommodation. Children need to explore, to manipulate, to experiment, to question and to search out answers for themselves. Activity is essential. However, this does not mean that children should be allowed to do whatever they want.

So what is the role of the teacher? Teachers should be able to assess the children's present cognitive level; their strengths and weaknesses. Instruction should be individualized as much as possible and children should have opportunities to communicate with one another, to argue and debate issues. Piaget saw teachers as facilitators of knowledge – they are there to guide and stimulate the students. Allow children to make mistakes and learn from them. Learning is much more meaningful if children are allowed to experiment on their own rather than listening to the teacher lecture. The teacher should present children with materials and situations and occasions that allow them to discover new learning. In his book *To Understand is to Invent*, Piaget said the basic principle of active methods can be expressed as follows: “to understand is to discover, or reconstruct by rediscovery, and such conditions must be complied with if in the future individuals are to be formed who are capable of production and creativity and not

simply to repeat". In active learning, the teacher must have confidence in the child's ability to learn on his own. Use of higher order questions which involve analysis. Train children to be creative, to be objective and critical. Do not suppress them but allow them opportunity for expressing themselves. Do not force them to accept your own view rather allow them to express their own views. Sometimes, they may have better ideas than that of the teacher.

Implications for Instructional Technology

Laboratories, workshops and technologies that encourage interactivity such as multimedia, hypermedia and virtual reality fit in with Piagetian thought. Computer software that is strictly drill and practice does not fit in with an active discovery of environment. Drill and memorization practice, often used in language schools, do not encourage creativity or discovery.

Children not only can use multimedia to learn, but they can also use it to communicate their understanding of the subject to those around them. Peer teaching is used as children work together in the making of their projects. Children become active participants instead of passive sponges and the teacher truly takes on the role of facilitator as she gives them guidance in their creations. Hypermedia also allows the children to manipulate their environment as they follow the paths of their choice. Virtual reality has the potential to move education from its reliance on books to experiential learning in naturalistic settings. For example, rather than

reading about an event, the children can participate in the event with simulated persons and/or objects. These technologies supply children with a learning environment that encourages children to initiate and complete their own activities.

Psychosocial Theory of Development: Erik H. Erikson

Erik H. Erikson was a Danish. In the course of his travels and wanderings around Europe, he came across Sigmund Freud and became acquainted with him. He entered psychoanalytic training school and completed his internship. Along the line, he started experiencing some problems using psychoanalytic method in his observation of the Indians, war veterans, normal and abnormal children. As a result he evolved a new theory which centred around the ego of an individual and his culture but which deviates a little from psychoanalytic or psychosexual theory of Freud. He named his new theory – psychosocial theory (with eight stages spanning from infancy to old age) and based his description of development of personality on epigenetic principles.

Erikson's Principles of Human Development

1. This deals with the appearance of organs of the body at specific times which eventually 'combine' to form a child. According to Erikson, the personality develops in a similar way. All things that grow have ground plans out of which grow the parts. Each of the parts

has its own time of maturity until all of them form a functioning whole. This principle shows that all these organs as they appear are interrelated. They give rise to the development of a human personality called *Ego*.

2. Man develops as an organism and realizes the existence of things around him; and he also recognizes the existence of other individuals and so he interacts with people and their environment. At every stage of development there is a crises stage and the individual has to find a balance and reconcile the dichotomies of positive and negative dimensions of social interaction. Epigenetic principles mean that certain organs appear at different times and these combine to form a human being.

Stages of Psychosocial Development

1. 0 – 2 years Trust versus mistrust
2. 2 – 3 years Autonomy versus doubt
3. 4 – 5 years Initiative versus guilt
4. 6 – 11 years Industry versus inferiority
5. 12– 18 years Identify versus role confusion
6. Young adult intimacy versus isolation
7. Middle age Generality versus self absorption
8. Old age Integrity versus despair

Erikson emphasises the dichotomy created usually between the individual child and environment and since the dichotomy is created in every situation it should be in favour of positive

rather than negative. Sometimes, negative dimension, for instance, may be applied.

1. ***Learning Trust Versus Mistrust, 0– 2 years;***

When a new baby is born he is dependent on the environment. He has to be fed, clothed and generally cared for and through this he acquires the perception of those that care for him. He makes social contacts with his environment by crying, smiling and eye movement. When the physical interaction is positive, he feels secure and he trusts the people around him. But if the interaction is negative, he mistrusts the people he associates with. If he is well attended to, he is happy and gains weight. But if he is not well cared for, he becomes unhappy and loses weight, as a result of loss of comfort enjoyed when he was in the womb. In the womb he was in an enclosure, warm, protected and secure. The physical and social environment on the other hand is open, not so secure as the womb and not warm. His first reaction to this is to cry immediately he comes into the world. If he feels so insecure of the environment he exhibits marasma – an extreme withdrawal and extreme retardation of physical growth results. He loses interest in his environment and may not interact positively with the people around him. This is common with children who are reared in orphanages or motherless babies homes. If the individual is able to develop trust, he is in a favourable state to develop into the next stage.

So if the interaction is consistent, continuous and there is sameness of experience, the baby develops a sense of trust. But if the relation is inadequate, inconsistent or negative, mistrust may be aroused in the baby.

2. ***Learning Autonomy Versus Doubt 2- 3 years:*** This is the stage of motor development. The child develops physically and the development is fast. He can sit, crawl around, his eyes are on everything around him and he touches those things. This too is a period of exploration. Before crawling, he can see things without touching them because he cannot get at them. This is an essential period of his growth. He uses all his senses in coordination before he can identify them with labels. Some of the elements could be dangerous and the child should be guided in exploring his environment. Muscular maturation must be encouraged and he must be permitted to do what he is capable of doing at his own pace and in his own way but with judicious supervision by parents. He will develop a sense of autonomy. But if parents are impatient and do too many things for the child, he will doubt his ability to deal with his environment. Furthermore, parents should avoid shaming him for an unaccepted behaviour since this will likely contribute to feelings of self doubts. If he is over-guided then overprotection creeps in and this will make him develop some doubt. He is not sure which way the exploration of his environment should take. But if he gets

only the necessary direction and guidance he will explore his environment safely and get used to things around him. If he is left to explore his surrounding safely, he develops independence and become happy because he is able to find out about things by himself.

3. **Learning Initiative Versus Guilt, 4 – 5 years:** For the first time he is not going to explore things using his own physiological senses because of language factor. He should be given freedom to engage in various activities and be allowed to make use of language to express himself especially his new ideas. This will lead him to initiative. If he is restricted in engaging in activities and if there is failure on the part of parents to answer his questions and respond to his comments, he develops a sense of guilt. Some of his exploration is done through questioning. Why is this here? Who is ringing the bell? Why does mummy always keep the flowers? etc. He can explore things now without being a nuisance. He is doing these things in order to understand why they are so.
 - a. This stage can be problematic for some children because of their incessant questions. Instead of encouraging a child in his bid to explore, understand and make use of his initiative through asking questions, he is shunned. He then begins to feel guilty and feel too that to ask questions is an offence. His questions are to be sincerely answered.

b. The next danger is that if his questions are not answered he can go outside and get his questions answered (whether correctly or wrongly) and the social family interaction is broken.

4. ***Learning Industry Versus Inferiority, 6 – 11 years:*** The tendency at this stage is that all the members of the family are longing for the child to grow up in order to lessen their care for him. There is a rush for him to grow up and longing for him to be independent. At this stage, he will be assigned some work for he is expected to take on some responsibility. Because of his own physiological growth and development, he will like to do some job because he will like to show that he can do the job. But he will not like to be given a big job, because he may not cope with it for a long period of time. If this happens, some parents will begin to criticise him and begin to wonder and at times ask if he is ever useful in the house. If he is over criticised, he develops inferiority complex (feels inferior) and far more timid. If there are limitations placed on his performance of activities and if he is always criticised whenever he goes wrong, he develops inferiority complex. Parents therefore should not over-criticise their children. A baby who is over-protected and largely criticised becomes timid. A child entering school is at a point in development when behaviour is dominated by intellectual curiosity. He learns to win recognition by producing things. He develops a

sense of industry. His danger at this stage lies in a sense of inadequacy and inferiority. He should be encouraged to make and do things, be allowed to finish tasks and praised for trying, so that industry will result. But if his efforts are derided or treated as bothersome, inferiority results. Erikson sees the child as actively engaged in intellectual exploration.

5. ***Learning Identity versus Identity Diffusion (Fidelity)***: During the fifth psychosocial crisis (adolescence, from about 13 or 14 to about 20) the child, now an adolescent, learns how to answer satisfactorily and happily the question of “who am I?” But even the best-adjusted of adolescents experiences some role identity “diffusion”. Most boys and probably most girls experiment with minor delinquency, rebellion flourishes, self-doubts flood the youngster and so on. Erikson believes that during successful early adolescence, mature time perspective is developed, the young person acquires self-certainty as opposed to self-consciousness and self-doubt. He comes to experiment with different – usually constructive – roles rather than adopting a “negative identity” (such as delinquency). He actually anticipates achievement, and achieves rather than being “paralysed” by feeling of inferiority or by an inadequate time perspective. In later adolescence, clear sexual identity – manhood or womanhood – is established. The adolescent seeks leadership (someone to inspire him), and

gradually develops a set of ideals (socially congruent and desirable in the case of the successful adolescent). Erikson believes that, in our culture, adolescence affords a “psychosocial moratorium”, particularly for middle and upper – class American children. They do not yet have to “play for keeps”, but can experiment, trying various roles and thus hopefully find the one most suitable for them.

6. ***Learning Intimacy Versus Isolation (Love):*** The successful young adult, for the first time, can experience true intimacy – the sort of intimacy that makes possible good marriage or a genuine and enduring friendship.
7. ***Learning Generativity Versus Self Absorption (Care):*** In adulthood, the psychosocial crisis demands generativity, both in the sense of marriage and parenthood and in the sense of working productive and creatively.
8. ***Integrity Versus Despair (Wisdom):*** If the other seven psychosocial crisis have been successfully resolved, the mature adult develops the peak of adjustment; integrity. He trusts, he is independent and dares the new. He works hard, for he has found a well-defined role in life, and has developed a self-concept with which he is happy. He can be intimate without strain, guilt, regret or lack of realism; and he is proud of what he creates – his children, his work, or his hobbies. If one or more of the earlier psychosocial crisis have not been resolved, he

may view himself and his life with disgust and despair.

These eight stages of man, or the psychosocial crises are plausible and insightful descriptions of how personality develops but at present they are descriptions only. We possess at best rudimentary and tentative knowledge of just what sort of environment will result, for example, in traits of trust versus distrust, or clear personal identify versus diffusion. Helping the child through the various stages and the positive learning that should accompany them is a complex and difficult task, as any worried parent or teacher knows. Search for the best ways of accomplishing this task accounts for much of the research in the field of child development.

Socialisation then is a learning-teaching process and, when success results the human organism moves from it's infant state of helpless but total egocentricity to its ideal adult state of sensible conformity coupled with independent creativity.

CHAPTER SEVEN

SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Social development means acquiring the ability to behave or act in accordance with the expectations of the society. It is a two-sided process through which children become integrated into the larger society or social community of people. The first side of social development is socialisation which is the process by which children are helped to acquire the values, the standards and knowledge of their society. The second one is social development itself which borders on how personality is formed; that means various ways involved in helping children acquire their distinctive characteristics of thinking, behaving and feeling. To develop socially means that the individual has to learn how to live with various kinds of people and to acquire the ability to mix and live well within the wider society.

Social development begins early in life in form of gregarious behaviour around the third month and at the time babies can differentiate between people and are able to respond to them. At this time their senses of sight and hearing are developing to the point that they are made use of. When this happens, babies are maturationally ready to socialise. Adults are babies' first social contact to whom they make their first responses. Three processes are involved in the socialisation of an individual. Though these processes are separate and distinct they are so interrelated that failure in one may lower the ability

of the individual to socialize. Only very few individuals succeed in the three processes. These processes are:

Learning to Behave in Socially Approved Ways

There are social standards of behaviour that are set by every group. To effectively belong to this group, one is expected not only to acquaint himself with the standards of behaviour but also to conform to the standards. Conformity is a term used to portray a behaviour that seeks to or intends to fulfil group expectations.

Playing Approved Social Roles

Each social group has its own traditional behaviour approved for its members. These social roles are approved for the male, female, for the learner and the teacher.

Development of Social Attitude

For somebody to become socialised, he must like people and social activities to make good social adjustment and be accepted by the group.

Social people are those who are successful in the three processes involved in socialisation. These fit into the group with which they are identified and are in turn accepted by the group. Gregarious people are social people who always want to be with other people and are satisfied when they are with people.

Non-social are people who are not successful in the three processes of socialisation and by

extension in the characteristics that characterize social people.

Unsocial people are non-social people who do not have any idea of what the social group expects and they fall short of social expectations. Social expectations are what the group expects of their children and are defined in terms of developmental tasks or learning experiences. Unsocial people are therefore not accepted and as a result they are forced to spend much of their time in solitude.

Antisocial are the people who are aware of the social expectations but do violate these expectations because of their antagonistic stand or attitudes towards people. The result is that they are neglected and rejected by the social group (Hurlock, 1978).

Social Development During Infancy

Social development begins early in infancy when the child begins to form, think, feel and relate to people. The infant makes five social contacts by means of five signaling and orienting behaviours. These are:

- a. Crying
- b. Gazing
- c. Babbling
- d. Smiling
- e. Imitation

Each type of behaviour appears on its own but as they develop, they become aimed at certain people, meaning they are not generalised.

Crying:

This makes one of the earliest impacts on the environment. It is not a pleasurable or pleasant act to parents or caretakers except perhaps the first cry, which is the only one that is appreciated. Crying serves its own purpose, which is to call the attention of people around. Early crying is not distinguishable, that is, for the mother it is not easy to know why the child is crying – whether he is crying because of hunger or sickness or any other uncomfortable condition or because he is left alone. When a crying child is picked up or carried by an adult and he does not stop crying, he needs some other thing in form of food or comfort. As the child grows older he begins to communicate in specific ways and the mother can distinguish at this time why he is crying. By the end of one year, crying is directed at certain people and it is meant to produce a social response. As crying decreases the other types of behaviour increases. For example, a three-year-old-child decreases crying by 50% more than a one-year-old child.

Gazing

What is gazing? Gazing is looking steadily at somebody or objects for a long time, or long steady look. This is the first behaviour which infants orient themselves with in the world. By it they begin to take in information. It has been found that quite early in life infants can distinguish shapes, sizes and patterns and this they do through gazing. It is also known that they prefer patterns to plain objects and also prefer patterns with bright colours to patterns

with plain or dull colours. By the age of four to five months, babies prefer looking at their mother's face to other people's faces or to other things. This is an indication that the infant is beginning to form a new kind of relationship, which has been on for quite some time perhaps, from the time he was born.

Smiling:

This develops in three stages

- a. Reflexive smiling
- b. Unselective social smiling
- c. Selective social smiling

During the first month of life infants smile spontaneously to some internal states and normally parents or caretakers notice that the smile is mechanical – one minute he will smile and another minute the smile will cease. It is so shallow that it is not natural. The smile might be as a result of some nervous movement. This could be caused by some sort of high pitched sounds perhaps, which the baby notices. Such smiles are fleeting and they disappear as quickly as they come. The infants do not communicate anything with such smiles.

From four to six weeks this type of smile changes dramatically and has more warmth and depth. He smiles broadly with relish and some kind of facial expression. It is social and communicates something. Normally at this age, babies smile at inanimate objects which include fan, shaking objects, that is, ones being carried about by air or moving objects. Smile at this age is more social than

the smile of a one month old baby but it is still unselective.

From five to six months, the baby is able to distinguish faces and actual social smiling sets in, it is not only social it is also selective. In other words, he can smile at familiar faces rather than strange faces. He makes strange gestures when a stranger moves near him and he prefers to be near familiar people.

Babbling:

From about the age of four to six weeks, babies begin to make sounds which are called gargling and cooing and they make these sounds in response to sounds of noises and the sight of a moving face or a moving object. He begins the signal of social interests. This type of sound from two months has a different connotation and it is usually the familiar voice that is more likely to elicit sounds like gargling and cooing. It is on this type of sound that he is going to build up what is called babbling.

As the child babbles, he hears his own sound unlike in smiling and as he hears his own sound, he continues to babble. Babbling continues in different stages and paves the way for language development. From about three to four months distinctive vowel sounds can be distinguished and beginning from about nine months the baby is interested and able to repeat sounds which he or she hears other people make. Babbling also has implications for imitative behaviour. The baby will imitate the sounds made by people around him.

Imitation

This is a social behaviour and people do not imitate by way of sounds only, they also imitate by way of movement made by other people and when such imitation is reinforced more of it continues. When a child, for instance, says 'mama' and the mother responds positively either by repeating what the child says or says some other thing like 'my child', the child will repeat 'mama' again. As long as the response is positive, the child will continue to repeat 'mama'. This shows that the child reacts through reinforcement by the mother or any significant adult around. Imitation enriches the child's social experiences and the attempt by the child to repeat what he hears or sees always leads to many playful and pleasant experiences with parents and caretakers and this is important for child/parent interaction. From the very beginning, imitative behaviour is directed towards selected familiar people and these are the people towards whom the child has developed some specific attachment.

By way of summary, it has been found by research that numerous relationships exist between the amount of stimulation which mothers provide and their infants social responsiveness. In other words, where a mother or a caretaker provides social stimulation, the child is more responsive. Such a child can reach out and make friends, where as non socially responsive babies will look at you nonchalantly and may not make friends easily, (Piaget throws a lot of light on stimulating environment, conducive to help children develop

responsive social behaviour). Mothers who are physically and emotionally responsive to their babies encourage social initiative and active exploration of their environment.

Social Development During Pre-School Years (Pre-gang)

Between the ages of 2-5 years, many of the expressive behaviours acquired in infancy crystallize in individual patterns and the young child begins to develop attitudes, preferences and individual ways of doing things usually during the pre-school years.

During this period, children learn how to make social contacts, how to relate and get along with other people. They also learn to adapt to others and how to cooperate with them during play. Follow-up studies carried out by Allport (1954) and Jones (1965) show that social attitude and behaviour established at this period usually continue with little changes. It is also the time when social contacts established with other children increase, determining in part how their social development will progress.

Comparatively, children who attend nursery schools, day care centres or kindergarten usually make more number of social contacts with their peers and perhaps better adjustment than those who have no experience of pre-school. The reason is that those who have pre-school experience are better socially equipped by both the home and the pre-school for active social contacts than those who

depend only on family members for their social contacts or activities.

As the years progress, the time they spend with adults continue to decrease and they also derive less joy with such contacts. On the other hand, their interests in peer groups or playmates of their own age increase and they enjoy having them around. Because they have desire to be independent they try to put up some resistance toward the authority of the adult. Marshal (1958) in his study reveals that as children advance in years they become more friendly with one another and their tendency towards hostility decreases. Common forms of social behavioural patterns of this period include cooperation, rivalry, generosity, empathy, imitation, attachment, desire for social approval, etc.

However, the father is important during the pre-school years. This is because so far a great deal of the care has been undertaken by the mother. And in some countries, efforts are being made for men to be injected into pre-social programme by introducing male teachers and male helpers. The children at this period are known to require male figures for their satisfactory social requirements. This is for balance within the home since the family consists of both male and female.

The presence of fathers helps girls to develop a positive self concept and it appears that the treatment girls get from their father at this period helps them to perceive how a man should treat a woman. In other words, this constitutes part of her

lesson on relationship between a girl and a boy, a man and a woman.

This period is crucial in concept formation and the totality of the concept formed is what we feel about ourselves and this culminates in everything we hear or see other people do. This helps in developing personality. If the concept so formed is not good, there is a gap and something goes wrong. The father has a duty to help to nurture the girl in forming a good concept and in developing a healthy personality.

Middle Childhood

This covers the elementary school years. Temperamentally, the individual childhood-child is carefree, very active and generally satisfied with his or her lot. If you watch him or her, he is light footed. If he offends he willingly renders apologies. He is very happy, nothing bothers him, he feels satisfied. Perhaps this is the happiest period of the average (childhood) child depending on his experiences which may be favourable or unfavourable. He plays many games, develops skills, generally interacts with peers and other children. This period is known as the 'golden' years of childhood.

Two major events occur at this period

1. entering school which occupies his attention for the next few years. This is a major event and the first major step in divorcing the child of the intimacy which he receives from his home.

2. the second major event of this period is that entering school, helps to take the child away from the family because peers become increasingly important. Peers begin to increase in importance, standard, taste and in everything practically. They become the necessary yardstick by which the child measures everything.

Entering into school gives the child a feeling of importance and maturity. He now enters the 'gang age', when social consciousness develops rapidly. Childhood gang is local and spontaneous. There is no adult approval, but it is a substitute for adult society and what it has not offered them. It forms a shield and relief from adult supervision and their watchful eyes. Gangs are found in good and substandard environment. Gang members are selected because they can do things that others enjoy doing. Some gangs are large and some are relatively small. Gang members used secret names, signals, insignia – caps, shirts, hand bands. The six-year-old child gets excited when he knows he is going to a real school and getting into this role of adulthood, which he is longing for. He is poised for learning and very ready to learn and ready to acquire a large number of skills. In schools, skills are learnt such as reading, writing, calculating, etc. Social skills of relating to others such as peers, teachers, parents, older and younger children are also acquired. They learn all kinds of games, some of them have figure skills and some have physical skills.

This is a great age of skill learning. These skills they pick up with little or no efforts. This is because they have overgrown locomotive inhibition and are away from their parents' watchful eyes. In terms of mental alertness they can learn fast. They have same age, same sex groups and they operate within these groups. During this time their self-concept continues to grow and they compare themselves. They begin to listen to each other. Some are gifted and they are proud of this. At this time, they are crude and straight forward and they call each other by nicknames.

Adult organised groups are formed for the benefit of childhood child. Such groups include Boys' Scout movement, Red Cross, Boy's Brigade as opposed to the groups which they themselves organise. Adults form these groups in order to help teach them certain values which are beneficial to them.

Summary

It seems that looking at children generally, it appears that there are some inborn differences between males and females. It has been observed that males are usually more aggressive on the average and the environmental influences do not offer satisfactory explanation to this aggressive tendency. It is not easy to determine whether it is the environment or any other factor that is responsible for this aggressive behaviour. Boys are also found to have better quantitative, visual and special abilities. Girls on the other hand tend to have superior verbal

ability. Quite apart from these inborn differences between the sexes, the other means by which the sexes acquire sex role identity is by socialisation. How does a girl acquire female sex role identity? This function falls under the ambit of the mother. Through informal approach, most of the time she teaches her daughter what her sex role should be in the home. She shows her what things she has to do, directs her on how to do them. The mother should be her role model in the acquisition of sex role identity. With time, the girl learns to differentiate a female's role from that of the male. On the other hand, the father makes sure that the male child acquires male sex role identity.

It is not easy in this present day and age for a man to perform this crucial function. This is because the father is always in the office. (In the olden days, men would take pains to teach boys what they were supposed to do or what were supposed to be their sex role). In urban centres, sex role for boys is not clear cut because there seems to be no particular role especially meant for them.

Socialisation:

Socialisation is the process which enables the child to take his place in the human society. Through the process, the individual learns the modes of behaviours which enables him to behave the way his society likes. He uses all his sense to imbibe the way that the society accepts. He learns to talk, comport himself and behave in a way that is acceptable to the society. He learns to eat the way the

society does it. For example, in China the Chinese eat with chopsticks and the child has to do so. In Nigeria, people eat foo-foo with hands. Socialisation grooms the individual for the society. It also limits the behaviour which is available to the child. It curtails or tailors the range of behaviour his environment allows him.

Socialisation is usually associated with the learning of language. If an adolescent English girl starts taking lessons in Igbo language, there are certain sounds she will find difficult – sounds like gb, gh, n, gw. But if she is young she has practically all the repertoire of sounds in her and she can learn the language easily. If the sounds are not developed at that early period, they get atrophied, wither and die. This is why the adolescent girl finds it difficult to learn a new language. The society selects the language that is to be spoken in that society. The adolescent English girl has not made use of Igbo sound system early in life and the sounds wither off and die.

We know that young children are explorers, curious and inquisitive. As soon as they can locomote, that is, crawl, toddle, walk, etc, they begin to explore because they are curious. They want to taste, feel, touch, see, hear, that is, using their senses. But as soon as this explorative behaviour is developed, they are inhibited by their parents or caretakers. They are shown where to limit their walking, touching, feeling etc and also what areas of the house they can limit their play. Children are mindful of these things and soon they limit their

exploratory attitude. In some areas, for example, developed countries and enlightened homes, some places are set aside specifically for playing (child proof). There, children can play without inhibition and without hurting themselves. At times, these places are well decorated to attract these children.

1. It is known that if exploratory behaviour is discouraged the child either reacts passively, anxiously or both when there is a novel situation.
2. Research has shown also that when a child who is not encouraged to explore his environment is faced with a peculiar problem, he shows no initiative, or he waits for somebody to solve it for him or he waits for somebody to aid him in solving the problem.
3. Whereas as a child whose exploratory behaviour is reinforced is faced with an unfamiliar problem, he will try everything in his power to solve it. If an unfamiliar box, for instance, without key is placed before him, he will try to solve the problem by trying to open the box using his initiative. But if such a problem faces a child whose exploratory behaviour is not encouraged he will lose interest and may not try to use his initiative in solving the problem or he may look for help.

Factors Influencing Social Development

An individual is made up of genetic or environmental conditions. These two conditions influence his social behaviour and interaction with other people. Some of the influencing factors include the home, school, peer group, societal factors, biological factors. They are therefore both biological and environmental.

Home factors: The home is made up of the family members which comprises the father, mother, children (biological and non-biological) and other significant individuals. Being the first arena for social development, the home becomes crucial for social development of the child, which according to its environment can be enhanced or marred. Personal relationships in the home are important for social adjustment of the child. These relationships occur between parents, between children, between children and their parents and other significant persons (including perhaps grandparents). The ordinal position of the child in the family is crucial and important. Older children or those with siblings widely separated in age or who are of different sexes tend to be more withdrawn when they are with other children. Children with siblings of the same sex as themselves find it difficult to interact with children of the opposite sex, but find it easier to do so with children of the same sex. (Koch 1960). Bossard and Boll (1966), Paluszny and Gibson (1974) confirmed the findings of Koch in their various and independent studies.

The size of the family will affect how much social interaction children might experience at home. An only child gets more attention than is necessary and they expect the same kind of attention outside the home. If the children are well treated their social adjustment tends to be accelerated. The treatment the children receive from their parents are usually traced to parental patterns of authority and child training or rearing methods. Outright autocratic or permissive approaches do not afford children the conducive atmosphere or environment for appropriate social adjustment. It is better to take a middle course in child rearing practices through the use of democratic method, which attempts to make children conform to both family and societal expectations while at the same time they are afforded opportunity and freedom to do things in their own way, using the right judgement without going against the norms and laws of the society. Children should not feel rejected by parents or other members in the home. This may make them turn into themselves and become introverted and or aggressive both inside and outside the home. Accepting, caring and loving parents encourage extroversion in their children. From the foregoing, it is evident that the home is the 'seat of learning' for social skills. Children can enjoy satisfactory social relationships with people outside the home only if they have experienced satisfactory social relationship with the members of the family.

Biological factors: Certain genetic, neurological and biochemical elements are naturally

part of a person's makeup. These elements impinge on the behaviour of the child positively or negatively depending on their actions and reactions in the body. Inherited conditions like sickle cell anaemia, PKU can inhibit a child's social adjustment. Other forms of health problems may include head or brain injury, epilepsy, physical disability, and asthma and these can make any form of social adjustment difficult and the effect is that the child may become aggressive and withdrawn.

School factors: When children leave home for school, teachers act in 'loco-parentis', that is, in place of parents and so have to attend to every need of theirs – social, psychological and emotional. In playing this role, the training styles employed by the teacher has to take cognizance of the role. Like the parents, the teacher has to strike a balance between autocracy and permissiveness by being democratic most of the time. He can however, apply any of the styles when there is any need to do so. The school and classroom environment should be made conducive and comfortable for better social interaction and adjustment. The school should discourage bullying, intimidation, aggression and excessive punishment of younger children by the older ones. The curriculum, instructional technique and the teachers' classroom behaviour should help to facilitate social development and adjustment.

Peer group: Peer group is made up of children about the same age who have the opportunity to congregate often, play, interact and influences one another. They have attachment towards one another

and they do everything possible to conform in order to belong to the group. Socialised peer group relationship teaches children to develop good qualities – to be democratic, to fit their actions and desires into those of the group. It teaches them cooperation, skills to fit into the life of the group, helps to eliminate selfishness and strive for recognition by trying to improve themselves. All these show how peer group membership can lead to improved socialisation. Conversely, the group can socialise its members into antisocial behaviour like truancy, lying, snobbishness, discrimination or rejection of any member, mischief, contempt for rules, laws and regulations and those in authority and at times shifting of loyalty from the home to the group. As they grow older children can eliminate many of these undesirable behaviour.

Societal factors: The child can only live his childhood; to understand it is the province of adult (Vale, 1984). Our society is indeed an adult one which sets the standards of behaviour children are expected to conform. The children's behaviour is judged socially accepted or not in relation to the standards set up by the adult. Adults are supposed to be good models for children in social adjustment but sometimes adults indulge in all sorts of undesirable behaviour like stealing, bribery and corruption, drug abuse and addiction and other such behaviour. Are children expected to imitate and emulate such acts of theirs?

Techniques and Measures of Social Relationships

Man is social and gregarious. He interacts with others in the social environment in which he finds himself. The social interaction should originate first from home and eventually extend beyond the home to neighbourhood and to school. In the school, adjustment to social interaction begins to take place since all of them come from different backgrounds. The imaginative teacher has to be aware of this and try to help them to adjust. There are certain techniques that are used to study the social patterns within the class. The teacher can utilise any of the following techniques in the class.

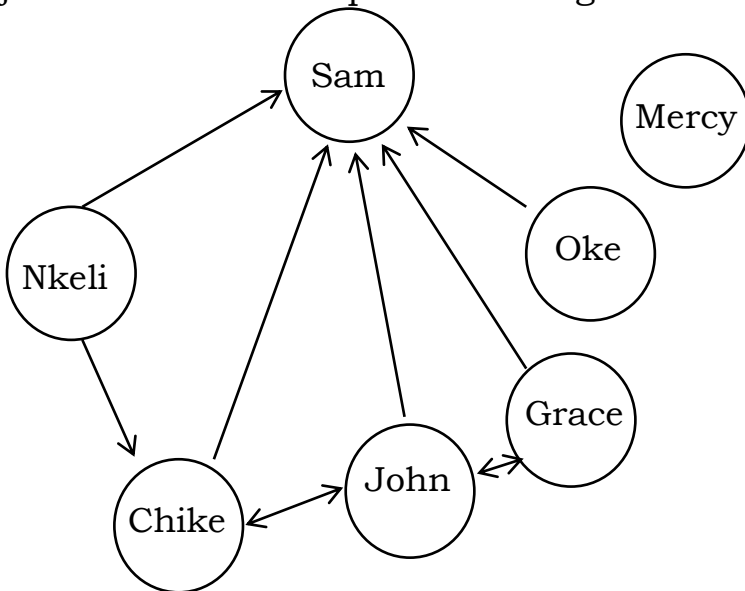
- Sociometry
- Rating scale
- Anecdotal records

Sociometry is the measurement and technique of studying social relationships among children in a class. It can be utilized to discover the most popular child, a reject or a social isolate in the class. A teacher can observe members of the class in order to determine their patterns of social associations, alliances and preferences. To do this, these devices could be used.

1. Teacher asks the children to write out the names of their best friends.
2. Children could be asked to list the names of other children who they like but who may not be their best friends and who they like to play with.

3. They can list those children they do not like and who they cannot play or work with.
4. They can list also those they prefer to work as their class monitor.

After this the teacher can go ahead and assemble and classify these lists and get a sociogram. A sociogram is a simple diagrammatic representation of social behaviour and it can take various forms. At a glance, a teacher can identify the most popular child or an isolate or a child who is a reject. Below is a sample of a sociogram.



→ Unilateral relation

↔ Mutual relation

Sam and Chike are stars

Mary is an isolate

Nkoli is a reject

Adapted from Ugwu (1997)

One of the advantages of the sociogram is that a teacher is able to discover the social behaviour of the class. Specifically it will help him in knowing whom to pair with in certain social tasks in the class. It can also be used to analyse personal characteristics. It has been discovered that children who have high intelligence are said to have high sociometric status. Those children who have physical equipment (whatever you find attractive in a person) have high sociometric status. In summary, the role to which the teacher can put sociometry is helping members of the class to adjust socially and gradually attain social maturation.

Rating Scale: This shows to what extent a particular behaviour or attribute is emitted. It shows the intensity or degree to which the individual was humble or aggressive. There might be a 3 point, 4, 5 or 7 point scale. In 3 point scale using humility as the trait, there might be (a) very humble (b) humble (c) not humble. Rating scale is useful in learning what impression an individual has made on persons with whom he comes into contact with respect to some specified traits. Examples of such traits include honesty, punctuality, aggressiveness. Rating scale is developed and used to evaluate a single trait.

The good thing about a rating scale is that shortly after the behaviour, judgement is given on the spot and interpretation made. It is good in that the behaviour is still fresh.

Conversely, the disadvantage is that somebody who is prejudiced might make a wrong judgement.

In this case, it is better to use one or more persons in order to have a more accurate judgement. Then look at the average or 'inter scorer reliability'. The teacher can use the students provided he gives them information on what to do.

Anecdotal Record: This involves observation and recording events at the same time. It is a record that is used to record factual incidents that happens around the child. It should contain informed, qualitative and actual report about a child's behaviour. To keep this record, the teacher should first select those to observe, establish the setting time and method. He should record as the event is taking place. Interpretation of the data should be done after the recording. To get accurate data, observation of the personality trait should be done in a number of situations.

Educational Implications of Social Development

1. The teacher should try everything possible to help the pupils adjust properly in the school since they come from different social backgrounds.
2. The school should employ the services of guidance counsellors who would help in the social and interpersonal relation, in the formation of self-concept and how the adolescents should develop healthy heterogeneous relationship.

The school should encourage the formation of informal and voluntary organizations like Red Cross.

Girls Guide, Boys Scout, Rotract Club which will aid their healthy social interaction and enhancement.

The school should organise social functions, games, debates, seminars, workshops and talks. This should involve students with various interests, aptitude, socio-economic background and needs in order to afford them the opportunity of interacting with one another and cooperate, adjust and make room for the differences found among them. Excursion should be organised for the students too.

CHAPTER EIGHT

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

The Course of Language Development

What is language? This is verbal and non verbal way of communication between organisms. It applies not only to the way humans communicate but also to how animals communicate; for example, birds singing and sending messages to other birds.

Language is a human being's finest asset (Child 1986). It has been defined as the term denoting the psychological processes which regulate speech. Speech is language behaviour by the articulation of sound patterns used to convey meaning. Learning to speak is a long, complicated and difficult process and can only take place when the child is maturationally ready. Language encompasses all the means of communication in which thoughts and feelings are symbolized so as to make meaning to others. Different forms of communication make up what language is all about and they include writing, speaking, sign language, facial expression, pantomime, art, reading and gestures.

Communication is an interchange of thoughts, feelings, which can be carried out through any form of language including gestures, emotional expressions, speech or written language. For communication to fulfil its function, first the child has to use a form of language understood by people around him with whom he is communicating. Secondly, he must understand the language of the

people communicating with him. People can use gesture or sign. This is gesture language. It consists of movements of limbs or the body which substitutes or supplements speech. As a substitute for speech, gestures take the place of words and convey meaningful movements of the limbs or some parts of the body to others. Gestures as a supplement to speech emphasise the meaning of spoken words.

Speech serves two purposes – personal or egocentric and social or socialised communication. Egocentric communication is characterised by children who behave and talk as if points of behaviour and actions were their own. Such children are unable to appreciate other's point of view. Even at three years, this speech form is still alive in them. Socialised speech is the opposite of egocentric form of speech. It is a form of communication and has to do with such functions as requests, persuasions, providing information and so on. These involve exchange of knowledge, and sharing ideas. Children's conversations include rationalization, justification and disagreement. Socialised speech aids formal learning.

How babies initially acquire language

Influence of sounds which they hear and rehearse and the place of these sounds in language acquisition are still matters of disputes. Can it be said that a baby is a passive or active agent in the process of language acquisition. Babies make sounds from birth in form of cries (when there is discomfort) chuckles, cooing (when they experience

pleasure). Between 6-12 months is the babbling stage which is inherent in human beings. Studies have shown that deaf babies babble.

Even though between 5 and 6 years they engage in social speech, there is still much geocentricism. They talk about what they do, places where they can enter and how strong they are. Speech is a verbal communication among human beings. When we are born we do not speak but gradually we learn to speak. It is not something that comes automatically or suddenly. It is a gradual process.

1st Year of Life: The child learns how to make sounds. Then he learns to use syllable for example 'ma', 'da', 'ta', 'ba'. This starts at around six months at which time he says the first syllable. The fascinating thing about this first syllable is that no matter the language children start with they start with similar syllable and this is understood by everybody all over the world. Some syllables are produced deeper in the first month, for example 'da'. Before his first birth day the child will say his first word which are two syllables; a combination of words, for example 'mama'.

2nd Year Achievement: He can say one or two words from which he can jump to three hundred words on the average and is the limit of the achievement. The child will use not only words but will make his first sentences which are a little bit different from those of adults. This occurs because he combines words

together to make a phrase. He can say – “my cup”, showing a cup standing on the table, or “my milk”, showing the one on the shelf. This is not a full sentence but words combined to communicate with others.

3rd Year of Life: There is an increase in vocabulary from three hundred to one thousand. Sentences grow more complex, and get much longer. Five-six word sentences which are not complete from the grammatical point of view to strangers are made. Mothers and relations are able to understand the child’s sentences.

4th Year Achievement: By the end of the fourth year he can use from one thousand – one thousand seven hundred words showing that the vocabulary still increases. Here sentences are more correct but still childish. He has mastered the language, can speak understandably, can use a lot of words and speak in complete sentences. What he achieves in his fourth year is that he is able to speak in sentences and he is understood by others even though there could be some mistakes. The structure of the language is mastered and this is very important.

5th Year: By the end of the fifth year he can speak about two thousand words but can understand about four thousand of them. Number of words spoken are less than the words understood. So he understands more than he speaks. Between six and seven years, active vocabulary (spoken words) will be

about four thousand words and at the same time the number of (words understood) passive vocabulary, will be reasonably big, being about seven thousand words.

By the tenth year he uses actively about five thousand words and by the fourteenth year he can speak seven thousand words and understand thirty thousand words (passive vocabulary). This is the result of studies carried out in Britain and America and which may relatively change from environment to environment.

Characteristics of Early Speech:

1. All over the world when children begin to learn to speak, certain words are omitted and also some endings are omitted, examples are found in formation of sentences and plural words – dog for dogs; hope for hoped; come here for do come here; these changes are called inflexion which are not fully mastered even at the school age, that is six plus years. They start to master inflexions at the end of the fourth birthday. By third to fourth year they can use plurals, correct pronouns and past tense of verbs and by fifth birthday they can ask questions for instance –“do you want something”?
2. Because of the omission of some words or endings from early children’s speech, the speech is referred to as being telegraphic. This is because children form sentences of about three or four words.

3. They have egocentric speech. They can be heard speaking to themselves aloud whether one is listening or not. Their speech centres around them.

Implications:

By the time children enter school, age six years plus, they can use two thousand words as active vocabulary. They can also express themselves in sentences not only in simple sentences, but in complex sentences. At this age he is able to understand complex verbal instructions. One example is “go to the cupboard, take the book from the shelf and bring it to me”. At their first school year, the use of incomplete sentences begins to decrease and there is also decrease in number of mistakes.

Language Development:

Recent research has established that successful use of language and communication is a cornerstone of childhood mental health. Not only are strong language capabilities critical to the development of such skills as listening and speaking, but they are also fundamental to the acquisition of proficient reading and writing abilities. In turn, children with a variety of speech and language impediments are at increasing risk as their language abilities fall behind those of their peers. Caretaker and baby start to communicate with each other vocally as well as visually during the first months of life. Many, but not all developmental psychologists

believe that this early pattern of mother-infant reciprocity and interchange is the basis on which subsequent language and communication develop. Various theorists have attempted to explain the relations between language and cognitive development (Vygotsky' 1962; Chomsky' 1975, 1986; Bruner, 1971; Luria, 1971), but no single theory has achieved preeminence. While a number of theories address language development from different perspectives, all theories suggest that language development depends on both biological and socio-environmental factors. It is clear that language competence is a critical aspect of children's mental health.

Development in general depends on two factors (a) Hereditary-nature, biological/ (b) Environment-social bases of behaviour-nurture. Like any other aspect of development, language development depends on the two factors above-heredity and environment.

Irrespective of language spoken, nationality, or whether the child can hear or not, language development follows certain patterns and depends partly on biological factors which play important part in the first year of life in the area of language development. But it will not be the same as children grow older, because of the influence of environment. Children reared by different parents in different environments show that their language development tends to be determined by environmental factors. Such children will then start to produce sounds belonging to the language of the area in which they

were reared. Differences between deaf and hearing children will be shown or manifested as they grow. Even though their physical environment seems the same they have different environmental experiences. This is a proof that environment is important in language development. Around the first year, differences will start to show and begin to manifest more. The hearing children will increase in speech while the deaf will decrease in speech or in sound making.

Environment: This involves physical or social environment of a child. For physical development; physical environment is taken into consideration. However in language development, the environment is social and this involves individuals and groups. The first and most important person to the child is the mother since she is the first person to talk to the child and is always around him. How can she affect the child's language development. This depends on how much the child is spoken to. So the more frequent the child is talked to, the quicker the child will be able to learn to speak.

The next one is the quality of the language of the mother. If her language is wrong or simple but correct, all these will affect the quality of the child's language. Other individuals who are near the child – the father, 'nanny', house-help and siblings affect the child. The more frequent and the better the quality of their language, the better the language of the child.

The child has to interact with other members of the family and those outside the family, that is,

strangers. Those in the child's family can understand the child even if he uses gestures and speaks little. But with a stranger he has to speak and express himself fully in order that the stranger can understand. He has to speak more to the stranger than he has to do with the members of his immediate family. Hereditary and environmental factors do not affect language singly. They are constantly interacting and affecting each other. Here is an example: If a child is prepared or ready to learn a language, this shows maturation, making him biologically prepared to speak. If there are two children one living in elaborate code family and the other in a family where members do not speak, the child in the second family will not hear words spoken and so cannot learn how to speak. This shows that there is an interplay of the two-heredity and environment. A child biologically prepared to speak but has no conducive environment, can speak. But a child who has a favourable environment but is not biologically prepared to speak, cannot learn to speak.

The Role of Groups in Language Development

It has been found out that children from middle class families have larger vocabulary and their language development is quicker and ahead of the other children from lower class families. Therefore, social class is a factor in language development because there are differences in language development of various social classes. Children from higher socio-economic families are

superior in language development. They can speak in more sophisticated, longer and more complex sentences using many more vocabularies. This is the opposite of what is observed in lower class families where children speak in simple sentences. Why do these differences occur? It is because language spoken by upper and middle classes is different from that of lower classes. The way upper and middle classes communicate with children and the way the lower class communicate with children is also different. Upper and middle class mode of communication with children is in elaborate code, while lower class uses restricted code. Since children from these two classes have differences in language development, it shows that children from lower class cannot speak complex language and read sophisticated sentences. Suppose a child from the lower class is sent to live with a middle class family with their mode of language, the child will develop the mode of language of the middle class. What this means is that a child from a lower class family transferred to a middle class family will have his language changed. It does not mean, however, that all the children from lower class families will be deficient in language development, because some of these parents may be using elaborate code.

There are always differences in the mode of communication depending on social groups. For example in some developed countries of the world the differences may be found between village parents and urban parents as is found in Poland and other developed countries. Below are some examples:

- 1 a) Elaborate code – Do sit down and try to make less noise, darling
- b) Restricted code – “Sit down and keep quiet”
- 2 a) Elaborate-Please, you are asked to listen attentively and be sure to buy every item in the list, Helen”.
- b) Restricted – “Try and buy all the items! Helen”.

In Nigeria, the difference may not be easily noticed since in most parts the middle class is gradually becoming extinct because of stringent economic conditions and so elaborate or restricted code may not be of much consequence.

In restricted code, language is used to communicate instructions with commands. It does not make for interchange of ideas. Language is limited to the very minimum. In elaborate code language is used to express our minds, interchange of ideas and for discussing issues. The above are differences between the elaborate code and restricted code.

Language and Thought

Do language and thought develop independently or are they interrelated to each other? Early investigators of behavioural phenomenon are convinced that language and thought are the same. These behaviourists believe that when we speak we talk to ourselves. From intellectual development by Piaget, it is learnt that to perform some thinking and without language, a very crude and simple way of thinking is possible. By the second birthday it

cannot be said that language is present. It is just beginning.

- 1) Achievement of object permanence shows the crude and simple way of thinking by children. At this stage the child keeps the image of the object in mind and recalls and looks for it. This takes place in the second year of life.
- 2) From observation of children when they perform non verbal tasks (non-use of words) but employ reasoning or thinking, they perform well. This shows that language and thought can operate separately.
- 3) People through brain damage lose ability to use language. Even though they cannot speak, their ability to reason shown in difficult non-language setting is present. This shows that language and thought can operate separately. It is the contemporary view that the two operate differently.

What is the relationship between language and thought? How does the development of one affect the development of the other?

- 1) **Piaget's View:** Language develops as cognition develops. It means that at the beginning the development of language depends on cognitive development. This occurs at the very beginning and once language is acquired or is in use, it starts affecting cognitive development. They will keep affecting each other throughout the stages of development. This shows that they are interrelated. Language is not the only

factor that affects intellectual development. There are other factors like the quality of life experience or stimulation.

- 2) **J. Bruner's View:** To Bruner language is central for intellectual development. This means that it is important in mental development but he believes that some level of mental ability is necessary for language development. Here he has Piaget's view. Bruner maintained that language affects the way we think and solve problems. For Bruner the relationship is stronger and for Piaget it is weaker. Bruner proposed cultural-context version of interaction theory (1983) which emphasizes the role of adults in shaping the communication environment. He suggested that adults should consider the manner in which they structure the language input to children – a Language Acquisition Support System (LASS) to supplement Chomsky's Language Acquisition Device (LAD).

Teaching Language Skills

There are at least three overlapping stages that are involved in language. These are stated below:

- Reception (listening with understanding)
- Internal symbolization (interpreting, reasoning and concept building)
- Expression (communication by speaking or writing)

Decoding the incoming information or signals into a form that can be easily and readily interpreted takes place between reception and internal symbolization and the result of reasoning is thought to be encoded and converted into a form that helps the person to communicate with others. Teaching and learning of language can be done both within and outside the school, that is, in the home and in the school.

Home Experience:

In the home arena, the first language acquisition environment, different individuals help to teach language to babies. If a child does not hear a language spoken, he or she cannot learn the language. The home as noted above serves as the first avenue for language skills to be taught and learnt. The mother serves as the most important person for this task to be accomplished. This is so for mothers provide explanations and answers to many questions posed by children. This task is accomplished through dialogue or description of many objects children come into contact with through games involving language usage, giving instruction, advice, reading or telling stories.

School Experience

Teaching of language skills primarily takes place at school and it involves three concepts; talking, reading and writing.

Talking is a form of spoken language and the teacher employs it to the full. He does this through description of objects, pictures and concept formation and description. In some countries, there are some prepared concept kits for children in nursery and primary schools and students in secondary schools. These kits serve various purposes ranging from helping them in oral comprehension, making comparisons, helping children in the language of classification, increasing children's oral skills of description and inquiry, (Leeds 1972 in Child 1986).

Reading should be taught to children when they are ready to do so. It is the duty of teachers in schools to teach learners how to read. When learners are presented with a large amount of information to assimilate, the information has to be read many times for them to have an idea of its content and eventually commit it to memory. There are options as to how the information could be read. It could be broken down into parts, so that each part is learnt separately before assembling the parts together into the original information. Again, the information could be read as a whole several times to get the whole picture of the content and try to memorize it. The two options are known as 'whole' (or reading for meaning methods) and 'parts' (or decoding methods) learning and reading. None of the two above, from studies made, could be said to be better than the other, but it has been suggested that each method could be used depending on the mass of information to be read. The important thing is

understanding the content of what is to be read. For decoding methods, the alphabet and phonic approaches are used. For reading for meaning methods, there are 'look-and-say', 'whole word' and 'whole sentence approaches.

While decoding methods have special advantage of making room for systematic teaching through building up of words, in whole reading learners will remember the features of the entire information and associate meaning to them. The function of teachers is to master these methods, understand their pros and cons, their usefulness on learning and reading information. They are of vital importance in teaching children how to read for understanding using either decoding methods, or whole-part methods as appropriate.

Writing is as important as reading. Some people argue that too much concentration and attention are focused on writing. Since most lessons do not end without children being given some written assignments, teachers should appreciate the importance of writing in the academic life of learners and be able to take up this aspect of language development seriously. They should teach learners the art of writing with the audience and functions of written language in focus. Children should also learn to adjust their written work according to the kind of audience or readership the work is meant to serve. The audience may include parents, other children, unknown audience and 'pretend' audience when children are asked by their teachers to write to

fictitious person(s). For the function, it is expressed in three ways

- (a) Transactional function is concerned with interaction between the writer and others through what is written – a language used for informing, advising, persuading and instructing others.
- (b) Expressive mode is central and consists essentially as a means of establishing contact with readers, in which situation we exchange opinions, attitudes, beliefs and immediate preoccupations.
- (c) The poet category is used for self-presentation, expressing the writers feeling poetically or in poetic form (Britton 1971).

Common Speech Defects

Delayed speech is said to occur when a child's vocabulary is smaller than that of his age mates and his pronunciation may be on a more infantile level.

Defective speech refers to inaccurate speech which varies qualitatively from the norm for the age and usually contains more number of errors. The term 'defective' is applied to defects in pronunciation. Most speech defects can be categorized into three groups-

- Defects in word meanings which is association of the wrong meaning with a word, especially with words that sound alike even though they have different spellings. E.g 'rain' and 'rein', 'spot' and 'sport' sound alike but have different spellings

and meanings. Such errors interfere with communication.

- Defects in pronunciation is the second common speech defect and is due to faulty learning and can be relatively easy to correct. Factors responsible for these defects include malformation of some parts of speech mechanism such as teeth, palate, lips or jaws, imperfect hearing, partial paralysis of the tongue and lips as in cerebral palsy. Under this condition, defective speech cannot be easily corrected. The errors of 'baby talk' generally come from faulty learning which results from crude perceptions of words and not necessarily inability to pronounce the basic words. Errors in pronunciation produce embarrassment, shame, fear and inadequacy in children. These may likely increase or aggravate their pronunciation errors.
- Defects in sentence structure which is the third common category of speech defects is grammatical errors. Any child no matter the background can make many grammatical mistakes. Studies show that children from lower socio-economic background who are used to hearing patterns of incorrect speech in families tend to make more mistakes in grammar than their counterparts from higher socio-economic groups. These errors are found in sentence structure in the use of proverbs, pronouns and verb tenses. Both parents and teachers should endeavour to appropriately correct these

mistakes to avoid children being damaged psychologically through incorrect thinking, unfavourable social impressions, unfavourable self-evaluation, and habitual patterns of speech. (Child 1986).

Speech Disorders:

This is a term that refers to a serious defect in pronunciation. The defects may occur at any time in one's life but are more likely to develop during preschool years when children are trying to master the task of learning how to speak. The difference between speech defects and speech disorders is that speech disorders are not caused by faulty learning but

- (a) as a result of some defects in vocal mechanism or by some persistent emotional problems and
- (b) they cannot be corrected by learning proper and correct pronunciation but by removing the cause of the disorder. Some factors are responsible for speech disorders which are especially common in families.
 - Either or both parents suffer from neurosis,
 - There is poor child-parent relationship,
 - There is a dominant mother and submissive father.
 - The mother ignores the child, or is exceptionally possessive or damaging, or sets excessively high levels of aspiration for the child.

These often result in dependency, destructiveness, restless sleep, temper tantrums,

negativism, timidity and food finickiness; all of which suggest speech disorders as a part of poor adjustment syndrome. (Hurlock 1978).

Speech Disorders in Children

- (a) Lipping (letter sound substitution) is usually caused by deformation of the jaw, lips or teeth. Some common substitutions include 'th' for S or Z as in thimble, thimble, thank etc. There is a tendency to cling to infantile speech.
- (b) Slurring is indistinct speech due to the fact that the jaw, lips of the tongue are inactive, caused by paralysis of the vocal organs, lack of development of the musculature of the tongue or by emotional upset or excitement. Slurring is most common in preschool years before speech becomes a habit.
- (c) Stuttering, another kind of speech disorder occurs as a hesitant, repetitious speech accompanied by spasms of the muscles of the throat and diaphragm. It is caused by a breathing disturbance which is as a result of partial or total incoordination of the speech muscles. It is usually followed by stammering, a dead lock of speech in which the speaker is unable to produce sound, until he is able to do so when the muscular tension is released and a flood of words begins to pour out. Stuttering starts at the age of 2½ to 3½ years and decreases as the child makes better adjustments but increases again when the child starts school.

- (d) Cluttering is a rapid and confused speech, an exaggeration of the errors of speech made by normal people. It is often mistaken for stuttering. It occurs in children whose motor control and speech development are delayed. Unlike stutterers, cluterers can improve their speech if they are mindful of or pay attention to what they have in mind to say.

Bilingualism

Bilingualism is the ability to use two languages. A true bilingual child is very much at home in a foreign country as he is in his own mother tongue. He is able to speak, read and write both languages with equal facility. For some children bilingualism is a serious obstacle to learning to speak correctly. Few children are truly bilingual. Most of them are more adept in the use of one language than in the other. Many combinations of bilingualism imply that children may be able to understand and use both languages equally well, or be able to speak both well but write only one. There may be the presence of 'bilingual dominance' in which a person uses two languages but uses one much better than the other. Or there may also be the presence of 'bilingual balance' where he uses both language equally well including speaking, reading and writing (if he is literate, Nwachukwu, 1995).

Effects of Bilingualism on Language Development

- If a child learns two languages simultaneously he must have to learn two different words for every object he names and for every thought he wants to express and must learn to pronounce the same letters or letter combinations differently. These tasks often pose problems as there might be conflict between the two.
- If a second language is begun after the child has become proficient in the use of the first one, any problem in pronunciation, grammar and word associations will be confusing. Having become accustomed to pronouncing letters or their combinations in a certain way, he may find it difficult to pronounce them in a different way.
- If the dominant language used by a child is different from the one used by the children with whom he associates in the school, he cannot communicate well. When the accent is also different, he feels inferior, different and conspicuous. A good example is a child who imitates the accent of his foreign parent.
- Learning two languages at a time may produce the following –
 - (a) delayed speech development in both languages,
 - (b) vocabulary size, length of sentences and construction are likely to suffer.

Educational Implications of Language Development in General

(How teachers can use the knowledge of language development and sequence of language development)

- 1) Teachers should be able to evaluate and teach children in the class in terms of language development, in terms of their age, that is, whether they are within the age limit, or whether they are above or below the age limit in the language being taught in the class.
- 2) Teachers are supposed to be aware of what type of language development that is expected of children at a certain age, that is, they have to make sure that the age is appropriate for the language being developed in the child.
- 3) Teachers should also know the level of the language of children and so adjust their language according to what the children can understand, that is, according to the level of their understanding.

Factors Influencing Language Development: Their Implications

The factors are maturation and social environment.

- a) Maturation. From the knowledge of intellectual development by Piaget, we know at what age formal operation starts and before this age children have no knowledge of abstract concepts like justice, peace, love and so do not

use such words. Since maturation proceeds in stages, it is important that teachers should observe this maturational principle in their classrooms. They should therefore start from simple to complex and from concrete to abstract.

- b) Social environment includes family and social class and these are important. Teachers should consider the family and the social class of children and use this knowledge in the class. They have to make parents aware of how important it is to talk to their children. Teachers cannot change the child's background and they have to identify children that are below the average in language development either as a result of the family or the social class. Children learn language by speaking, listening, reading and writing. Teachers should develop these skills in children. They have to
- i. Prepare work or assignments for children
 - ii. Teach children how to listen with understanding
 - iii. Encourage them to speak through stories, discussions, describing things, asking very short questions and receiving very short answers, (not yes or no ones, but the ones that require elaboration and oral expressions).

Educational Implications of Language and Thought Relationship

One important thing to teachers is that language and thoughts are related. Teachers cannot promote language development without developing thought and *vice versa*. It is easier to develop language than mental development. By bringing language development to a higher level, teachers can expect that they will bring mental development or thinking to a higher level. This is Bruner's idea in his theory of language and thought. Teachers as part of social environment listen to children speak and make mistakes like 'go' instead of 'went', 'eat' instead or 'ate' and so on. It is not necessary to correct every mistake and it is not conducive to quicken language development. This may suppress the rate of language development. Teachers should be flexible with corrections and correct within the context of what children mean, that is if you know what they mean. Teachers can ask questions to ascertain and understand what children mean.

CHAPTER NINE

EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

- 1) Nature of Emotions
- 2) Types of Emotions

What is emotion (nature of emotions): Emotion is part of us. People emote, that is, people express emotions. The word emotion is derived from the Latin word *emovere* which means to 'move', to 'stir', to 'mix'. When any reaction accompanies the satisfaction or frustration of a need, it is said to be an emotional experience. Most often emotion refers to a generalized disturbance or stirring up of the organism, that is, animal or man, with the characteristic conscious behavioural, physiological concomitance. There are three aspects here; (conscious, behavioural and physiological) to consider.

- 1) **Physiological Aspect:** Which has to do with autonomic nervous system brings about involuntary responses or reactions which prepare the body in case of emergency. For example you can detect one who is angry, fearful, joyful or elated etc. Autonomic nervous system brings about changes in heart beat, increase in respiration and blood flow. It prepares the body for action. The action can be

to run away from an impending danger or to prepare the body to fight out the danger.

- 2) **Behavioural Aspect:** We express our emotions in form of behaviour. If there is fear or danger we run away, provoked we fight it out, if we are happy we play with or sing to friends. Often times we find or exhibit these expressions on our faces, showing smiling, angry or worried faces.
- 3) **Conscious (cognitive, thinking) Aspect:** Sometimes we are aware of the thinking we do that keeps us angry, worried or happy. But at times we do not even know that we are angry, happy or worried. Majority of our emotions are aroused (come about) through our thinking process, the way we interpret our thoughts. This means that through interpretation of our thoughts or what we see, we arouse our emotions either in a positive or negative form, which means that this makes us happy or angry depending on the negative/positive interpretation given. Emotions are outward expressions of inner feelings which are aroused by one's own behaviour or that of others. Emotions lead to behaviour towards oneself or towards others (Durojaiye 1976). It is also used to designate inclinations (or motives) moods (or frames of mind) agitations (or commotions) and feelings. Inclinations, moods and agitations are propensities and not acts of states. Feelings which are described as thrills, tensions, pangs, shocks, throbs,

prickings, chills, qualms etc are occurrences. People report states of mind or mood as agitated, distracted, upset, anxious, shocked, surprised startled, excited or irritated. When we refer to moods we refer to people as depressed, happy, restless or down, blue, sad, grief stricken, despondent etc for low energy sadness.

Types of Emotions

Pleasure or Pain: This can originate from our senses or our thinking. Emotions of joy and sorrow, fear and anger basically originate also from our thinking. Other types of emotions include pride and shame, guilt and remorse which originate from the individual; hate and love are interpersonal emotions because they occur between two or more people (things); love for sister, parents, book reading for example because they occur or happen. Out of these emotions four are primary emotions and they are:

- a) happiness (joy)
- b) sorrow
- c) fear
- d) danger

They are also called evaluative emotions because of how people express appreciation or otherwise about piece of object or human being, etc, for example, art work, painting, music, brother, sister etc. The type of appreciation depends on the way we feel inside about the objects or persons, for

instance, the extend of fear and individual expresses about a particular object or a situation or a person.

Development of emotions

How are emotions developed from infancy to adulthood.

Infancy (first three months) emotions are not specifically defined at this period. Emotions and excitement are not differentiated. The infant cannot discriminate between happiness and sorrow. At three months emotional differentiations begin. He can differentiate between positive and negative emotions. He expresses joy when emotion is positive and fear when emotion is negative.

Later, joy, happiness, love differentiate into affection for adult and later for children. These emotions become more and more specific, for instance smiling. During the first year, there appears to be three stages of smiling.

1. Spontaneous smiling which comes about during the early weeks of birth. This smiling comes about by high pitched noise but most often no specific stimuli make him smile. Even gas from his stomach makes him smile.
2. None selective social smile: (eight weeks of birth). This type of smile is elicited by so many stimuli (not by any stimulus in particular) He is strongly stimulated by the face of a human being especially that of the mother (or the substitute mother). Here anything (stimulus) can make him smile.
3. Selective social smile: (six months of birth). The child has selective social smile only for

faces he is familiar with and not for strangers. From smiling to familiar faces he will progressively smile to other people as he grows. Attachment, which is an emotional bond between mother and her infant child begins to develop at about seven months. Formation of strong attachment is a general characteristic for children of about 12 months unless they are raised in a very harmful circumstance. Once the attachment takes place, it serves to provide a sense of security and help them determine how to explore their environment. For secure and healthy attachment to be made, it must involve attentive, consistent and sensitive care giving. If care giving is abusive, neglectful and inconsistent, it leads to insecure attachment. Children themselves sometimes contribute to the nature of attachment that results between them and care givers. Those who are aggressive and handicapped in communicating with their care givers, or who are easily upset when they are interrupted in their ongoing activity may experience problem in forming secure attachment. There is extensive development of attachment from two years of age and beyond.

Four Major Emotions

When talking about development of emotions in children, there are four major ones. These are emotions of love, fear, anger and hate.

How These Major Emotions Develop

Love: The most important of these emotions is love. Love or affection may be defined as an emotional reaction directed towards a person, animal or thing. It indicates warm regards, friendliness, sympathy or helpfulness and it may take a physical or verbal form (Hurlock 1978).

Harlow an American carried out a lot of researches with rhesus monkeys. He studied monkey affection a lot and has derived five affectional systems in order of appearances.

These systems are:

- 1) maternal love
- 2) infant love
- 3) peer or age mate love
- 4) heterosexual love (love between man and woman)
- 5) paternal love

Harlow a psychologist who studied maternal love using monkeys discovered that the infant monkey develops maternal love before it develops infant love. This means that infant monkey has to love his mother first and the mother monkey will love it in return. This infant love for the mother has to develop and then follows the peer love. Monkeys love to cling together because of contact, comfort and love. Genetic tendency to attach to the mother is inborn and this is done by clinging. The attachment and infant love achieve two goals.

First it makes sure that infant love, peer love, heterosexual love and paternal love will be developed after mother love has been developed. Secondly

through mother love the infant feels secure and can explore and can go out to play with other peers. The mother also becomes independent of the infant who goes out to play with the peers.

How Human Love Develops

Even though we are not alike for there are different patterns of human life, there must be mother love and infant love, otherwise peer love and heterosexual love may not develop well or not at all. Through play with peers he develops a sense of trust and security. Mother love also gives trust and security to the child. The whole personality of the child is in the hands of the mother.

Paternal love – How it develops

For paternal love to develop the father must be there and this comes about through the mother –It is the heterosexual love between mother and father that brings the child into existence. The father has to be a model so that the child will love him. There must be father figure in the house for father-child love to develop. If there is no father in the home so many adverse consequences may crop up.

Anger: Any type of stimulus which frustrates an individual may elicit or bring about anger. Anger is a strong feeling one has when something happens that one thinks is bad and unfair.

- 1) Block – somebody or something standing physically on a persons way or that of the child

so that an objective is difficult to achieve. For example blocking a child from eating, playing reading, taking up something or to go to mummy etc. Social block like West African Examination Council (WAEC), Joint Admission and Matriculation Board (JAMB) are institutions standing in the way of an individual in gaining admission into a university or obtaining WASC result. Another social block is personal inadequacy, real or imagined. This emanates from the individual himself.

- 2) Conflicts can bring about a hell of frustration and eventually anger. Conflict in this context is a situation in which there are opposing ideas opinions, feelings or wishes. It could be with or among persons or internal in an individual.
- 3) Aggression – physical attack from a child who is aggressive can cause anger. It can be a displaced aggression – fighting somebody who is not responsible for the offence. Aggression is a feeling of anger and hatred or physical attack that may result in threatening or violent behaviour.

When anger is directed towards oneself probably out of frustration in life, it is the most dangerous type of anger because it can lead to a bad end, for instance suicide. But self anger could be good in some ways. It may point to someone's fault or misdirection and he may get annoyed or angry and then correct himself.

Development of Anger

Anger is seen very early in life around three months. Around six months it is clearly seen especially when the child is exploring his environment. For example, if he is crawling and anything stands in his way he gets frustrated and he starts crying, kicking, attacking the object or the person and he can become aggressive. Around five years the expression of anger shows on his face and it can be easily detected.

Control of Anger

We can choose any method which can be used to separate the eliciting stimulus or the target of aggression before the anger reaches a peak or climax. So try to find a way of separating the target of aggression – you can keep quiet, keep busy with one job or another or go for a walk, or take physical exercises, or you can sing, breathe in and out, take a sip of water and so on. For children, it is better to remove the cause of anger or to remove the child from the cause of anger.

Fear: Fear is a reaction to something that is beyond one's control. It is an unpleasant emotional feeling, or tension which is aroused because one realizes his incapability of warding off an impending danger. An organism in fear tends to flee or escape from the threatening object. Fear begets worry borne out of feelings of insecurity causing a serious maladjustment. If the fear and worry become too

intense, the individual may lose contact with reality. Fear is the most difficult of the emotions to be controlled. It is the one that seems to do much damage to psychological development. A child who has learnt to fear dog, if that fear is reinforced, the fear for dog may be increased and this may apply to other objects.

Infant Fear: In infancy, fear is caused by unexpected, strange and loud noise, sound, objects, animals and faces. It can also be caused by loss of support, falling from a short distance, whimpering and crying. If he is unduly sheltered at home, fear of the unknown, for example of strangers may result. From birth to two months the child's fear is noticed in the form of startled behaviour. As the child matures cognitively other types of fears develop. Around six to eight months stranger anxiety emerges which makes the child see a stranger and begins to cry. The child develops separation anxiety which comes around 12 to 18 months. As a result of this the child starts crying when the mother is leaving or going somewhere. Up to the age of two years children are frightened if startled. During early childhood (3 to 5 years) he has developed all types of fears – fear for dark places, masquerades, animals, insects etc. All these, the child learns by conditioning fears which, may be extinguished or carried over to middle childhood.

Fear, other than in sudden and unexpected situations is a learned reaction. The child is conditioned to fear certain things. To prove this a

psychologist J.B. Watson demonstrated that fear is learned. He used a child of eleven months called Albert – a very cheerful boy. He got him to play with a white rat and Watson after sometime tried to frighten the rat with noise from an object. The rat would run away each time he did this and Albert became frightened and he began to fear the rat and a lot of frustration was caused. Later, to make Albert unlearn the emotion of fear, he stationed him at a reasonable distance and kept him busy with sweets (food). He then tried to play with the rat and Albert kept on watching them. After a time he started moving nearer to Watson and the rat. He continued playing with the rat until Albert grew over his fear of the rat. He began to touch the rat and eventually he learnt not to fear the rat.

Causes of Fear in Children

- a) unexpected and strange sounds
- b) darkness
- c) objects
- d) animals
- e) loss of support
- f) fear of falling down, etc.

Control of Fear

Ways of controlling fear

1. Counter conditioning or desensitization, that is, unlearning the fear that has already been learnt. This will be a gradual process. To use this method – refer to J.B. Watson, Albert and the rat.

2. Modeling procedures: This is where the subject observes or watches another person interacting with the feared object. Using J.B. Watson's experiment as a modeling procedure, Albert is the subject, Watson becomes the model and the rat is the feared object. In this procedure Albert (subject) watches Watson (model) play with the rat (the feared object). Other examples of feared objects are spiders, praying mantis, dogs, snakes, a bearded man. If a subject sees the model playing with the feared object, he will at first be skeptical but eventually he will start interacting with the object. He will first go near it then touch it and the fear is countered.
3. Sometimes mothers use verbal approach to counteract fears in their children. Here they are appealing to the children's intellect. But it does not work as fast, effective and as successful as modeling procedure.

Emotion and Motivation

Emotional and motivational processes are closely related but there are however some differences. Motives are dependent upon physiological changes. They direct us toward a goal or action. Emotions on the other hand seem to be more dependent on various stimuli, what effects they have personally on the individual and how the individual reacts to them. A person who is normal is not given periodically to outbursts of anger, rage, love, aggression without provocation. There must be

circumstances leading to the display of these emotions.

Motives have habitual patterns of satisfaction. For instance thirst, hunger and sex are satisfied by learning patterns of behaviour which become more habitual as one matures into adulthood. Emotions do not direct our behaviour to a specific goal or action. People tend not to have habitual ways of coping with situations in a stereotyped manner in the event of loss of loved one, inheriting a fortune or sudden meeting of a python in the bush. They however tell us whether an event is positive (pleasurable) or negative (unpleasurable). Emotional behaviour is easily disorganised especially in very serious and more acute states of rage, terror, extreme grief. On the other hand motives are well organised, goal directed and shows a level of urge to action commensurate with the set goal.

Emotion and Schooling

Children find it difficult to adjust to school life and activities especially the first timers. Most children especially from five to six years experience sadness, anxiety, restlessness, lack of appetite and sleep disturbance and sometimes loss of weight because of the tension of adjusting to the transition from home to school. Children who go to nursery school adjust more easily and better than those who do not.

Certain factors make emotional demands on children. These include:

- Constant attendance to school regardless of how children feel, their intellectual ability, social requirements, insistence on regularity and punctuality, demand for discipline and respect for authority.
- Requirement for success at all levels of education, the issue of timetable, routine and programme, accommodation of other children from various backgrounds.
- There are various tension situations attached to schooling and they include tensions arising from conflict within the individual – between his own desires, his prejudices and intolerance of his surrounding etc.

The school therefore is an important formulating force in the growth and development of children. Children should be treated with extra care, love, understanding and sympathy by all those whose responsibility it is to provide education, in order to enhance growth and development.

Emotion and Learning

Children attend school to acquire formal learning. It is therefore necessary that proper arrangement be made so that children will be emotionally disposed to learning. Though there must be some degree of tension and emotional involvement for learning to take place, these should not be in excess. It is the duty of the teacher to control the amount of tension and emotional involvement in children through his classroom behaviour or activities. He should possess a pleasant

disposition, prepare his lesson and the accessories that go to make the lesson understood and deliver the lesson properly, taking care of the differences among children. The teacher should not label a child, should not use satire or sarcasm, or ridicule a child, or make excessive use of physical or corporal punishment. Any form of punishment should be meted out in moderation, otherwise classroom may become tensed up, frustration, fear and hatred may be developed for the teacher as well as the subjects he teaches. This may result in failure on the part of the children. In this situation, learning, to children may not be regarded as worthwhile and this may lead to lack of interest in some or all the subjects taught by the teacher. They may develop tendency towards truancy, lateness to school and other forms of deviant behaviour.

The teacher has to understand that emotion spreads from one child to another. If a child in the class feels hurt, others in the class may sympathise with the particular child by being apprehensive, afraid and quiet. They may cease to pay attention to the teacher. Sometimes children generalise what happens in one learning situation in the class to other learning situations in the class. This may have adverse effect on some children in all the subjects taught in the class or through out their school career. Teachers are therefore required to be careful about what kinds of emotions they arouse in children and how they go about doing it.

CHAPTER TEN

PHYSICAL AND MOTOR DEVELOPMENT

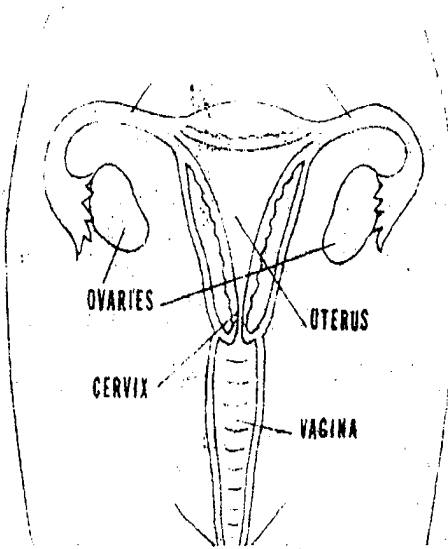


Fig. (A)

The Female Reproductive Organs

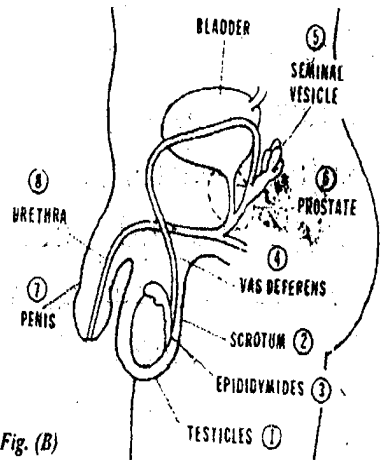


Fig. (B)

The Male Reproductive Organs

The Female Reproductive Organs

The female reproductive system comprises two major groups, the external genital organs or vulva and an internal group of organs.

The Vulva

The vulva is made up of the major and minor lips, clitoris and the Bartholins gland. They cannot be identified in the diagram because they are internal organs.

The Ovaries

The ovaries are equipped with all the eggs required for the woman's reproductive functions right from birth. The functions of the ovaries are (a) production of the ova (eggs) and (b) secretion of the female sex hormones.

The Fallopian Tubes

These are a pair of muscular, hollow channels about 3 – 10cm, shooting out like arms from both sides of the top of the womb and extending to the sides towards the ovaries. They cap the ovary with finger-like ends (fimbriae) which serve the purpose of catching the egg when it comes out of the ovary (that is, ovulation).

Fertilization usually occurs within the middle and outer third of the tube. The tube helps the survival of the fertilised egg, till it reaches the uterus during a 6-10 day journey.

The Womb or Uterus

This is the child bearing organ, usually the size of an average pear (for a womb that has not conceived), about 8cm in length and 5cm in breadth. It is a muscular organ that lies between urinary bladder in front and the rectum behind. The upper part of the body of the womb above the offshoot of the fallopian tubes is called the fundus, the lower part is called the cervix (or neck) and opens into the vagina.

The Cervix

The lower part of the body of the womb called the cervix or neck of the womb opens into the vagina.

The Vagina

The vagina, a muscular tube of about 10cm has the ability to stretch to a considerable extent. It has 3 major functions during mating, during menstruation and as birth canal for the child.

The Male Sex Organs

The Scrotum: This is the bag of dark and loose skin hanging behind the penis. The scrotum contains the two testicles separated by a fibrous wall that can be seen as a vertical line at the centre of the scrotum.

The Testicles

The testicles or testes are the two main male sex organs shaped like small eggs. The left one is usually slightly bigger than the right one and also at a lower level. This is normal. Testes can be hidden in which case medical care or surgery is required early in the child's life. A person with retention of both testicles when adult, will remain sterile – inability to have children.

The Penis

This is a cylindrical organ located at the junction of the thighs. It is made of 2 parts – the body or shaft and a smooth part shaped like helmet.

Prenatal development

Prenatal period is divided into three:

(1) ***Period of Ovum (Zygote 0-2 weeks)***: It is estimated that once every twenty eight days an ovum is released in one of a woman's two ovaries. The egg which is produced moves down to the oviduct (fallopian tube) toward the uterus. If sperm is ejaculated to the uterus and the sperm enters the egg, the surface is changed so that another sperm cannot enter. When the sperm penetrates the egg, the nuclei of the two cells merge to form a new cell which contains twenty three pairs of chromosomes, one pair from the father and the other pair from the mother. At this point the sex and heredity of the new organism are determined. The germ cells are produced by the process of reduction/division which is known as meiosis. When these two cells unite to form a fertilised egg of forty six chromosomes, mitosis begins. Mitosis is a process of cell division and this leads to cell multiplication. As cell division continues, villi, finger-like extensions begin to develop and amnion, a sac filled with fluid in which the developing organism will float also begins to form. The organism or the zygote is free until it attaches itself to the uterus wall or placenta.

(2) ***Embryonic Period***: 3-8 weeks after conception

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(a) By the third week, placenta and umbilical cord are formed through the villi multiplication and interlocking with the tissues of the uterus.

Before this time the fertilised egg is sustained by its own yolk. At this period it is nourished by its mother and as a result, the organism is referred to as the embryo.

- (b) This is an extremely crucial period and there is rapid cell differentiation of their functions eg. eyes, hand, etc. At this time, there is morning sickness and the pregnant woman may not have the appetite for food. The consequence is for her to fall back on her reserve. She should feed well.
- (c) Critical nature of embryonic development: As the process of cell division continues, the embryo begins to differentiate into three layers
- i. The endoderm (inner layer) which will develop to form lungs, liver and intestines
 - ii. Mesoderm (middle layer) muscles, bones, circulatory and excretory system will form from this layer
 - iii. Ectoderm (outer layer) from which will develop the skin, nails, hair, teeth and the nervous system.

By the third week after conception, the heart of the embryo begins to beat. By the eight week, the embryo now about an inch, begins to assume more or less a human form. Most of the organs also appear at this time. Perhaps the most important point of this period is the twenty eight week of conception at which point the fetus may be viable (capable of life), of being given birth to. However, if a baby is born prematurely, he must be cared for, for

a period of time in an incubator which serves as substitute uterus. Weight at birth is a key factor in the adaptability of the premature infants, the lighter the child at birth, the greater the likelihood of being susceptible to infection and a slower rate of development.

- (3) **Fetus:** 8th week to delivery. This is a period of development and elaboration. At the end of nine months a healthy xx or xy baby is born. Pre-natal influences are especially important in the first trimester and to the fifth month.

FACTORS AFFECTING PRENATAL DEVELOPMENT

Effect of Micro Organisms

1. **Infectious Diseases:** It is now clearly established that if a pregnant mother contracts certain infectious diseases during pregnancy, abnormalities may develop in the fetus. The disease mostly known is rubella (German measles) caused by rubella virus. If this disease affects the fertilised egg in the first trimester of pregnancy the fetus will develop a hole in the heart or cataract. Organs being developed that are affected are the cardiac region and the eye. There is also mental deficiency. Other diseases include syphilis, gonorrhoea, polio, influenza and mumps, whooping cough, malaria, hepatitis, cholera etc. Unclean environment tends to cause pregnant

mothers to be infected by some of the diseases. Some of these diseases can cause a pregnant mother to give birth to crippled, deaf, blind and mentally retarded child.

2. **Cytomegalovirus:** This is a sexually transmitted micro organism and if care is not taken depending on how long it lasts, the child could subsequently suffer from mental retardation.
3. **Radiation:** Excessive heat is injurious and very high fever can cause retardation of some of the cells during the 1st trimester of pregnancy. No trained doctor recommends x-ray during this period because it retards the growth of some cells and kills the organs that are growing fast – the brain, the heart, and there may be problems in the spinal cord. Even after the first five months, no x-ray should be allowed. The x-ray radiation may destroy the cells of certain organs and may result in disabilities and or mental retardation.

Physical Force: Falling down or thorough beating from the husband or any other person during the first trimester. The chances are that the mother might lose the baby through miscarriage or give birth to a premature baby.

Chemical Agents: These are known to produce effects on the fetus, neonate or child. These include: analgesics, androgen and estrogen, antithyroid

drugs, anti-hypertensives, anticonvulsives etc. These chemicals are problematic and they either cause fetal death or they destroy limbs – no legs but stumps, no hand but stunted limbs. Some are born badly malformed.

Alcoholism and Smoking can or may affect babies in the womb. Alcohol does not directly affect the genes but prevents the fetus from acquiring nutrients from the placenta hence the babies so born are small and have less weight. Such babies have fetal alcoholic syndrome (FAS). These babies are mentally retarded and have deformed faces. Alcohol prevents them from getting the essential protein from the body.

Poor Nutrition: This occurs if the necessary food nutrients are not taken. The result is mental retardation, weak and lean fetus.

Blood Incompatibility: If the blood of both parents are incompatible, this results in miscarriage, still birth or mental retardation. This is because human red blood cells carry a group of genetically determined antigens and are said to be rhesus positive (Rh⁺), a factor so named because it is found in all rhesus monkeys. Those who do not carry this are said to be rhesus negative (Rh). When a father's genetic factor is Rh⁺ and the mother's Rh, there may be complications because the fetus may have Rh⁺ and needs the mother's Rh for nourishment. Any interaction between these genetic factors leads to the

development of antibodies which attack the red blood corpuscles in the blood. This condition may lead to anaemia and jaundice in the newly born if the infant has Rh⁺ and the mother is Rh.

Maternal Age: Early or late marriage results in some kinds of problems. On the average, mothers not up to eighteen to twenty years encounter more problems. They experience toxemia of pregnancy, prolonged labour and weight gain and they have tendency towards low birth weight babies more than older women. On the other hand a woman who has her first pregnancy when she is over thirty five years of age seem to have less energy to go through the stress and rigors of pregnancy and child birth. They tend to have such risks as toxemia, hypertensive diseases, complications like uterine inertia, pelvic disproportion, higher incidence of abortion, malposition of fetus and infants with chromosomal abnormalities eg Down's syndrome, fetal malformations. (Nwachukwu, 1995).

Emotional Factor: Sentang (1941) states that if a woman experiences extreme or continued anxiety and unhappiness during pregnancy, there is a possibility that there would be glandular changes associated with emotions and this may alter her blood chemistry. When this occurs, the development of the fetus may be affected, particularly if emotional reactions are extreme within few weeks after conception. Maternal tension and anxiety during pregnancy may lead to colicky behaviour in infants.

Prenatal stress may also cause weight loss and cleft-palate.

Position of the Fetus: Approximately nine months after conception, the fetus which formed from a single barely visible cell has grown into a full recognizable human being ready to be given birth to. The normal position of the fetus is that it has its legs tucked up and crossed. Just before birth some fetuses assume a head-down position, with the chin close to the chest and this makes it easy for the fetus to pass through the vagina. However a fetus may assume a head-up position (breech-presentation) or even an oblique position (transverse lie). Breech and transverse positions present problems during delivery and may cause some deformities if the delivery process is not well handled.

Natural and Surgical Birth Processes: Natural birth process takes place when labour comes up, takes its course and the pregnant woman delivers her baby naturally with little or no problem. Even if there is a problem, it is well taken care of to the point that the woman delivers without artificial aid. But sometimes this does not work out well. The exact causes of the onset of labour are unknown but it is apparently triggered by hormonal changes as well as reactions of the uterus when it has been stretched to a maximum point. The average time for first-born babies is fourteen hours. But sometimes a woman's labour may be so prolonged that she becomes so weak along with her fetus. When this is

the case obstetricians use a specially designed instrument known as forceps to aid such delivery. Forceps is an instrument which is used to grip the unborn baby's head and help pull the child through the pelvis. The use of forceps may sometimes present problems to the fetus in the course of delivery. If the mother's pelvis is oddly shaped or small in nature or the head of the fetus is large or if the uterine contractions are weak or absent or if the fetus does not assume a head-down and chin to chest position etc, delivery may be complicated or prolonged. If this happens the obstetrician may resort to caesarian section. (Decosta, 1966)

Conception: The Three Trimesters

When the embryo implants in the endometrium inner lining of the womb or uterus, it starts to form the placenta. A human placenta attains the size of a dinner plate. The placenta serves as the site of transfer of nutrients and wastes between the maternal and fetal blood, and when large enough, it secretes hormones to maintain the endometrium, thus the pregnancy. Keep in mind that the two blood supplied do not come into contact with each other, but chemicals can be passed back and forth.

In the first trimester (the first three months) of pregnancy, most organogenesis, (i.e. development of body organs) occurs. The baby's heart starts beating at about four weeks (when the mother's first period is about two weeks late and she's beginning to suspect she might be pregnant). Because so much

critical growth and development takes place in the first few weeks, before she even knows she is pregnant, it is very important that she be well nourished (including vitamin supplements if needed, especially folic acid to prevent neural tube defects) before she even tries to get pregnant. By the end of the eighth week (when her second period is two weeks overdue) all of the major body structures and organs of an adult are present in at least rudimentary form, so the embryo is now called a fetus. The rest of the time during pregnancy is mostly just growth. Note that because of organogenesis, the first trimester is the time when the growing baby is the most sensitive to adverse effects of drugs like alcohol, tobacco and caffeine; viruses like German measles and lack of necessary nutrients such as folacin. During the first trimester, the placenta secretes human chorionic gonadotropin HCG to maintain the corpus luteum which continues to secrete the estrogen for production of male hormone and especially progesterone for regulation of menstruation and pregnancy and it is needed to maintain the endometrium. The cervical plug forms to protect the growing baby from any “foreign invader”, and the woman’s breasts begin to enlarge in preparation for lactation or nursing. The level of HCG is so high in the blood that some is excreted in the urine. Most pregnancy tests look for the presence of HCG in urine. As the sex organs begin to develop, the embryo starts with rudimentary forms of both male and female systems, and only one set continues to develop while the other atrophies. Also the initial

development of external genitalia is similar and it can be difficult to tell the sex of a baby early at this point.

In the second trimester growth continues. The baby is very active and eventually these movements can be felt by the mother. The baby can hear by the fourth month, and when born recognizes not only mom's voice, but also dad's voice (if he is around) and/or any other frequently-heard, familiar sounds, perhaps including things like any musical instruments the mother plays, etc. During this trimester, HCG production declines and the corpus luteum stops producing progesterone as it deteriorates. As this is happening, the placenta takes over and begins to secrete progesterone itself to maintain the endometrium.

The third trimester is a time of rapid growth. The baby tends to move less just because the uterus has become so crowded. Estrogen levels in the mother's blood reach their highest in the last weeks of pregnancy and as this increases, it triggers the formation of oxytocin receptors in the uterus. Late in pregnancy, fetal cells produce increasing amounts of oxytocin, another hormone, as does the pituitary. Oxytocin is a powerful smooth muscle stimulant, and due to the receptors which have formed in the uterus, causes uterine contractions. The high estrogen levels also stimulate the placenta to make prostaglandins (similar to those that cause "cramps") that also stimulate contractions. The hormonal induction of labour is a positive feedback loop. Oxytocin and the prostaglandins cause uterine

contractions, that, in turn, stimulate the release of more oxytocin and prostaglandins. This is partially due to pressure of the baby's head against the cervix that dilates both the cervix and acts on the cervical nerve endings to stimulate the production of oxytocin, which causes stronger contractions that cause the baby's head to be pressed more strongly against the cervix, etc.

there are three stages in the birth process, namely:

1. The *dilation of the cervix*, which lasts from the onset of labor until the cervix reaches its full diameter of about 10cm and is the longest stage, often lasting 6 to 12 hours or longer
2. The *expulsion stage*, the time (about 20 minutes to 1 hour) from full dilation until delivery, during which strong contractions about 1 min each occur every 2 to 3 minutes and the mother feels an increasing urge to push until the baby is forced down, into the vagina, and out, and
3. The *delivery of the placenta* which usually occurs within 15 minutes of the delivery of the baby.

After the baby is born, the umbilical cord is clamped and cut, often before the placenta is delivered. When the baby is born, much of his/her blood is still circulating in the placenta, and as (s)he begins to breath that blood is naturally brought back into the body, aided by the pulsating of the umbilical

cord. For optimum health of the baby, it is important that as much of the baby's blood as possible be out of the placenta and into the baby's body before the cord is cut, thus the person doing this should wait until the cord stops pulsating before clamping and cutting it. Many medical staff try to rush through this procedure and cut the cord too soon.

After birth, decreasing progesterone and estrogen and increasing oxytocin help reduce the uterus to its normal size. It has been found that laying the baby on the mother's abdomen immediately after birth will stimulate the production of oxytocin, helping to shrink the uterus faster. The baby's sucking on the mother's nipples stimulates nerve endings that also stimulate the production of oxytocin. So immediate postpartum nursing can also help return uterus to proper size.

The hormone, oxytocin and prolactin trigger the production of milk. While these are present initially in quantities sufficient to begin lactation, the baby's sucking triggers further release of these hormones, in yet another positive feedback loop. At first, colostrums is produced. This nutrient (rich hormones) substance contains lots of antibodies, etc. important to the baby's health for the first few days and it is very important that the baby has the benefit of this nutrition. Also nursing is important in the bonding process, and for that reason, too, it is very important to let a baby nurse immediately after birth. There is evidence that human babies imprint on the smell of their mothers' nipples. Instinctively

when a newborn is first trying to nurse, (s)he will turn his/her mouth toward anything that brushes his/her cheek. Frequently, in hospital setting, well-meaning nurses trying to “help” can actually distract and confuse the baby by touching the baby’s face, thus making it harder for the baby to find the nipple. In contrast, brushing the baby’s cheek with the nipple will cause the baby to turn toward it. About 2 to 3 days after birth, the mother’s real milk will begin to be produced. This is a specially-designed food source that exactly matches the nutritional needs of a baby. Thus every effort should be made to make use of mother’s milk rather than artificial substitutes which often are nutritionally lacking.

Approximate Timetable of Gestation Period (month by month)

This presents a detailed overview of human development from the time the sperm is united with the ovum until birth. Prenatal development is divided into three trimester. During the first two months the developing human is referred to as an embryo. The embryo has three layers from which all body organs develop: (a) the ectoderm, (b) the mesoderm and (c) the endoderm. During the second trimester, the developing human is referred to as a fetus. During the third trimester, the individual is a baby which if born prematurely could survive with extra support. Premature births prior to the third trimester are less likely to survive, even with extraordinary medical care in a neonatal intensive care unit.

FIRST TRIMESTER

First Month

Fertilization, descent of ovum from tube to uterus. Early cell division and formation of embryonic disc from which new organism will develop. Early formation of three layers of cells:

- (1) the ectoderm, from which sense organs and nervous system will develop
- (2) the mesoderm, from which circulatory, skeletal and muscular systems will develop.
- (3) the ecdoderm, from which digestive and some glandular systems will develop. Special layer of cells formed in the uterus which will become the placenta and through which nutritive substances will be carried to the new organism and waste products carried away.

Special layer of cells forms the amnion or water-sac, which will surround the developing embryo except at umbilical cord. Heart tube forms and begins to pulsate and force blood to circulate through blood vessels in embryonic disc. Nervous system begins to arise, first in form of neural groove. Development of intestinal tract, lungs, liver and kidneys begins. By end of one month, the embryo is about one-fourth inch long, curled into a crescent, with small nubbins on sides of body indicating incipient arms and legs.

Second Month

Embryo increases in size to about 1½ inches. Bones and muscles begin to round out contours of

body. Face and neck develop and begin to give features of a human appearance. Forehead very prominent, reflecting precocious development of the brain in comparison to the rest of the body. Limb buds elongate. Muscles and cartilage develop. Sex organs begin to form.

Third Month

Beginning of fetal period. Sexual differentiation continues, with male sexual organs showing more rapid development and the female remaining more neutral. Buds for all 20 temporary teeth laid down. Vocal cords appear, digestive system shows activity. Stomach cells begin to secrete fluid, liver pours bile into intestine. Kidneys begin functioning, with urine gradually seeping into amniotic fluid. Other waste products passed through placenta into mother's blood. Bones and muscles continue to develop and by the end of third month spontaneous movements of arms, legs, shoulders and fingers are possible.

SECOND TRIMESTER

Fourth Month

Lower parts of body show relatively accelerated rate, so that head size decrease from one-half to one-fourth of body size. back straightens, hands and feet are well-formed. Skin appears dark red, owing to coursing of blood showing through thin skin and wrinkles, owing to absence of underlying fat. Finger closure is possible. Reflexes become more active as muscular maturation continues. Fetus begins to stir

and to thrust out arms and legs in movements readily perceived by the mother.

Fifth Month

Skin structures begin to attain final form. Sweat and sebaceous glands are formed and function. Skin derivatives also appear – hair, nails on fingers and toes. Bony axis becomes quite straight and much spontaneous activity occurs. Fetus is lean and wrinkled, about one foot long and weighs about one pound.

Sixth Month

Eyelids which have been fused shut since third month, reopen; eyes are completely formed. Taste buds appear on tongue and in mouth and are, in fact, more abundant than in the infant or adult.

THIRD TRIMESTER

Seventh Month

Organism capable of independent life from this time on. Cerebral hemispheres cover almost the entire brain. Seven-month fetus can emit a variety of specialized responses. Generally it is about 32 cm long and weighs about 2.8kg.

Eight and Ninth Month

During this time, finishing touches are being put on the various organs and functional capacities. Fat is formed rapidly over the entire body, smoothening out the wrinkled skin and rounding out

body contours. Dull red colour of skin fades so that a fair pigmentation of skin is usually very slight in all races. Activity is usually great and he can change his position within the somewhat crowded uterus. Periods of activity will alternate with periods of quiescence. Fetal organs step up their activity. Fetal heart rate becomes quite rapid. Digestive organs continue to expel more waste products, leading to the formation of a fetal stool, called the meconium, which is expelled shortly after birth. Violent uterine contractions begin, though milder ones have been tolerated earlier, and the fetus is eventually expelled from the womb into an independent physiological existence.

Physical Development

Physical development influences behaviour as it helps to determine what the child can do. A well developed child for his age will run, play and compete with his peers in sports. Good physical development influences one's attitude towards oneself and others. Physical growth is not regular, it comes in cycles known as periods which are orderly and predictable.

Motor development has to do with the way a child moves various parts of his body. The movements are seen in the area of sitting, walking, running, grasping of things, throwing etc. Studies have shown that African and indeed third world infants are more precocious than infants of more advanced countries. Motor development seems to occur in the area of the head, the trunk, arm and

hands and the legs and feet, that is, from head to toe. There is no marked gender difference in motor development during the early years. If both boys and girls are given equal training and opportunity to practice, cultural and religious practices may pave way for some differences as children move into pre-primary school period. The differences become more manifest as children advance in years and grow older.

From most theories studied, it is found that physiological development forms the basis of development in other forms of human functioning like emotional, social, language and cognitive development. The major theories on motivation and interest are quite necessary for learning. For instance, Maslow (1943) propounds that the provision of basic needs are important for an individual to satisfy his physiological needs. It is important to understand these basic physiological needs of a child which are quite fundamental for proper and all inclusive development of the child.

Physical Development and Nutrition

We are all quite aware that when a child is born he has all the organs but in miniature forms. Nutrition helps the child to grow and develop these organs. The quality of food is not really ascertained, but this can be seen when we look at a child who is well fed.

As the child grows, nutrition becomes more important and significant. Nutrition is however important at every stage. What should be taken into

consideration is the nutritional value of the food and not the quantity of food taken. Necessary minerals, protein, vitamins, carbohydrate should be taken into the blood system to promote physical growth. Adequate intake of elements in the food will aid the physical development of the child to determine the type of skeletal system the child will form. Ossification (hardening of bones) is important in whatever stage of physical development. Nutrition and nutrients also help in proper physical development.

Physical Development and Socio-Economic Status/intellectual Status

The income level of an individual determines the type of life he is living. This might affect the child's way of life too. There is the tendency to think that children from high socio-economic homes are more intelligent than those whose parents have low income. This could be a mere assumption. However, it is the nutritional aspect that matters in physical and intellectual development of an individual child. If a child is well fed he is going to develop both physically and mentally. Nutrition is very important in the first three years which is one of the critical periods in a child's development. The brain requires good food nutrients for it to develop properly otherwise mental defects which were not there at birth may manifest. There is a lot of public outcry about malnutrition and its resultant effect which is kwashiorkor. Some other physical defects or abnormalities may occur as a result of malnutrition

and these include ricket, marasma etc. A child from a high socio-economic home has more chances of having the necessary food nutrients while a child from a poor home may have little or none at all. But the fact that one is from a high socio-economic background and so will be of or show a high intellectual development is mere assumption. This does not follow always.

Physical Development and Other Areas of Development

Most of the studies relate positive correlation between physical aspect of an individual and his mental, social, emotional and moral development. A child's emotional state relates to his physical health and intellectual capacity. This relationship is far more perceptible in children than in adults.

Physical Development and Personal Traits

There is a tendency to see clearly the child who is big and strong as the type of individual he is going to develop into. He is looked at as one who is going to become a bully or one who will go forward and assume leadership role. This is quite unlike the child, who is small, wary and who is always timid and shy. In this case, it is presumed that he cannot assume a leadership role and that instead, he would prefer to follow others even though he may be intelligent. Sometimes these things do not work out as presumed and surprises may come up in the way

individuals behave, their personal traits notwithstanding.

Physical Development as a function of Neural Development

Neural development connects all parts of the body. Physical development is closely related to the neurological structure which is very important for the physical and motor development.

When a baby is seven months in the womb, he has got the neurological development which will enable him to function outside the womb. That is why the seven month gestation period is critical to a child's survival outside the womb. This is because it is the time limit when the neurological organs are developed.

After the child is born we have a period of sharp physical growth and this is because of the accelerated growth in the neurological system of the child. From one to four months, he grows remarkably and the growth becomes gradual as he grows from one stage to another. The sharpest growth comes during the first two years. The child continues to grow at a more gradual pace. From ten years, there is fast and sharp neurological growth and this is accompanied by a sharp physical development. These changes are quite different in almost every stage of child development. These differences are:

Differences in early childhood

Differences in middle childhood

Differences in late childhood

Differences in physical development between the genders

Understanding the Nature of Physical Growth and Motor Development

There are a lot of concepts in our culture and custom which are based on physical development of an individual. Our relationship with a child depends on whether the child is timid, bright, curious, eager, pugnacious, pleasant, etc and this relationship is based on the particular child's physical development. Once we notice any of the above traits we always expect the child to continue in that way. For example, we expect a timid child to be forever timid or a curious child to remain curious forever, etc. A lot of these concepts are also cultivated as the child develops.

There are placid babies (who are calm, quiet, content, always asleep, even if they are hungry and they do not worry, etc. Some are born very active (sharp, troublesome, restless, cries often). Active babies do not sleep all that soundly and they wake up at every little noise. Right from that initial period, relations begin to wonder whether he is going to be intelligent or dull.

If active parents get an active child, they will enjoy him and give him every necessary encouragement. But if active parents get a placid child, they are really worried and will begin to wonder if the child is healthy. They think that the child should be more active and will try really to

influence him. At times, they succeed in making him active.

If quiet parents get an active child, they become worried at his restlessness – they may complain that he does not sleep, does not rest and at times the parents may take him to a doctor. Generally, they resent these physical activities of the child and will try to influence him. Perhaps through cultivation he becomes placid. But if quiet parents get a placid child they will enjoy him and again give him all the necessary encouragement.

When children get to exploratory stage this attitude (active or placid) is going to be with them and they will grow up with it. Pattern and nature of physical development of the child is there before he is born but this can also be cultivated. An active child if not helped and encouraged will have his activities dampened. This is because each time he is active the parents or care givers may rebukes him and he begins to think that he is doing something wrong. But a placid child if helped and encouraged may become an active child.

The type of physical and motor development the child has is very important to the cultural and social attitude people are going to develop towards him. A child with physical defects does not receive good cultural and social attitude from people. People do not develop a pleasant cultural and social attitude even towards a sick child. The cultural and social attitude people have towards able bodied and healthy children is different from that given to physically defective and sickly ones.

Various Stages of Physical Development for Various Ages

1. Neonatal
2. Infancy
3. Childhood
 - Early childhood
 - Middle childhood
4. Adolescence or late childhood. Within adolescence there are
 - Pre-adolescence
 - Adolescence
 - Late adolescence

Neonatal Period: The new born baby or neonate's body structure is not proportionate. The normal birth weight is about 3.5kg. The head especially is not proportionate to the other parts of the body. The bones are flexible, quite soft and so not strong to carry the structure. The chest circumference at birth is about 20cm; that of the head is about 17cm. The following tend to occur at this period; *adaptation to extra uterine environment *reflex responses * rapid brain development *expression of basic emotions. Importance of care giving is emphasized here.

Infancy: During infancy, different parts of the body grow at different rates until body proportions become more like that of an adult. Infancy is a very short period in the life of a child, but it is important because it is basic and forms the foundation on which other periods are built. It forms the basic structure of other periods. At this time, there are

growth changes in body size (height and weight) and they are remarkably noticed.

- There are three directions of growth in infancy
- a. From head to toe: An infant grows from head to toe, which means that the head is where the physical development starts. The development of the head precedes that of the neck and the neck develops before the chest and so on. He develops the ability to carry and hold his head and not to wobble it, to coordinate the use of his eyes, etc. From the head he goes on to controlling the other parts of his body.
 - b. From centre to the periphery: This means that the child grows from the centre to outside. Here development starts from the central part of the body – the upper hand, the middle and to the use of fingers. Because of this direction of growth, he is able to coordinate the large muscles of the body which leads to the movement of other parts of the body. The child has to sit before he can crawl, walk, run. As he develops he can grab things using the tip of his fingers. This is as a result of development of fine muscle control.
 - c. From mass to specific: This direction enables the child to coordinate the eye and hand movement. He develops the ability to see something, take it and hold it firmly and not drop it. He also develops the ability to use his hand flexibly. Children see things in

mass forms before narrowing them down to specific objects and that is why he scribbles bold and circular objects until he is able to write specific things.

Pre-school stage: As he gets to pre-school, there is rapid growth and development but not as rapid as in infancy. The physical changes that take place at this period mainly solidify the changes that have already taken place. He has to control the weight he has gained and to coordinate the muscle gained. Evidence of muscle control and use is seen in toilet training and the child sitting on a chair without falling.

Childhood

Childhood is divided into two:

Early childhood: This is the first time the child has to go outside, that is, going to mix with people other than immediate members of his family. He develops fine muscles in addition to large muscles. At this stage the body grows in size and also in strength. There are changes in the shape of the body, the most prominent being the development of sexual difference. He is now capable of doing so many things like carrying a bag to the bedroom from the sitting room, carrying of water in a small container on the head, etc As a result of growth, he now has control over his limbs and muscles and he increases in physical skills. But fatigue characterises this stage. Kindergarten programmes should be limited, because he is now capable of overuse of fine

muscles in writing, carrying something or even playing games or reading. This is the age of discovery, curiosity, inventiveness and of developing socio-cultural patterns of behaviour. Parents find this period easy since many child rearing tasks like toilet training, independence and self caring have been mastered. He can now tolerate separation, adjust to changes and can put up with compromises. He now learns sex differences and sex approved behaviours. There is eye fatigue and so the writing should be simple and bold. Sleep is needed to reduce the activities of the fine muscles.

Middle childhood: Characteristics. At this stage, a lot of ossification, that is, thickening of bones takes place. These bones are built up and they become sturdy to be able to be involved in the activities of the child. Bones easily break at this period and may join up in a deformed way. By six years of age the child has gained about 50% of his first year weight. His height remains steady with an annual increase of about 6.5 to 7.5 cm and this is seen in the elongation of legs. Most systems of the body are mature and stable and can conveniently adjust to minor changes and stress. Development at this period has slowed but has steady growth and maturation with few physical and emotional stresses. He can influence or be influenced by the school, peers, and has opportunity to interact. This is gang age period. He acquires mastery of skills which are required for successful living in his cultural setting.

Helping Your Child's Physical Development

Babies and young children learn primarily through movement and their senses, how to deal with gravity, to keep their balance, to move their body through space, about time and sequence of events.

A child's growth is a continuous process, a gradual sequencing from one stage of physical and motor development to another – “each child sits before he stands; he babbles before he talks” (Gesell 1928). It's a marvelous process to watch and a marvelous opportunity for parents to foster and implement important periods of growth.

At School

In reality, the responsibility of the parents is twofold. Not only should proper emphasis be placed on movement and exercise in the home but whenever possible the school's approach to physical education should be monitored. A good physical education programme in elementary school ideally will offer three or four periods a week of 45-60 minutes' duration. The programme need not necessarily be highly structure and should certainly not be highly competitive. Movement is the key, and that can include simple activities (running in place, jumping jacks) and games. The physical education program should progress developmentally from grade to grade and should be designed to offer maximum benefits to every child, no matter how small or late-maturing.

A word of caution: parents must be careful of physical conditions that might limit a child's movements and participation. Most schools ask for their records and that a medical report be on file at the school, but it is the parent's responsibility to see that the report is accurate and up-to-date and that everyone in the school who needs to be aware of the report knows about it.

In the Community

For youngsters who are interested in competitive sports, almost every community offers after-school and summer sports such as soccer, baseball, and football. But these highly organized activities can promote stress if emphasis is placed on winning rather than just enjoying the game. An observant parent can usually quickly tell if the child is paying a high emotional price rather than just having fun. And it should be noted that in some highly organised sports, the youngsters spend more time standing around and watching than actually participating.

The local Young Men Christian Association (YMCA) and Young Women Christian Association (YWCA), and some other similar organizations usually offer well-rounded programmes that include fitness exercises and swimming. The fitness program may consist of carefully structured aerobics and the swimming programmes are usually designed for individual mastery rather than competition.

At Home

Parents are enormously busy people. Perhaps both parents work outside the family; perhaps there are several children in the family with differing needs and demands; perhaps it is a one-parent family. The activities that follow are offered with precisely those situations in mind. They are simple, inexpensive, enjoyable, and, can be adapted for groups (the whole family and/or friends) as well as for individual youngsters.

Simple Motor Activities

Keep a simple record of your child's physical development. Every year on his birthday, write down his weight and height. Find a convenient wall space, place a ruler on the child's head, draw a line and date it. Children love to watch how much they have grown. While your child is standing in place, have him count the number of times he can go up and down on his toes.

Set aside time in the family schedule for a family walk, perhaps just 15 minutes or a Saturday afternoon leisurely hike for an hour or more depending on the youngster's age and stamina. A family walk is a great way for parents and siblings to interact and chat-something that is often difficult to fit into the busy lifestyles of the nuclear family. Walks can also provide an in-depth look at changes in Mother Nature and the community during different seasons of the year.

And then there are the very simple motor activities: hopping, jumping, skipping, and climbing.

All are important in a child's growth patterns. Each call upon various muscle groups to require extensive use.

Remember hopscotch? All that is needed is a piece of chalk and a couple of pebbles. If parents will recall their own childhood, they may tap into some games that were fun and that, without knowing it, build strong bones and muscles.

Try rolling – on a level place or on a hill. Inside, outside. How many different ways can the child roll? Arms outstretched, arms at sides, one arm stretched the other to the side, slow rolls, fast rolls etc.

Head and neck exercises. Turn head side to side, down and up, while standing, sitting, lying on the back and on the stomach.

Have the child walk across a fallen log or along a similar object. Have him repeat the walk, holding a bulky object in one hand, then the other hand, over his head. Repeat going backwards and sideways.

Row a boat on dry land. The child must calculate which boat to use in order to turn a specific direction. (The parent will have to figure this out first).

Water activities for pool, lake or rub (be prepared to get splashed!). Hold a ball and ask the child to hit it with his hands (right and left), elbows, knees, feet, etc. If swimming lessons are available, enroll your youngster. The earlier, the better.

Just tossing a ball from parent to child is excellent for eye-hand coordination as well as large muscles. Don't let the activity get boring. Vary it by

asking the child to kick the ball (using alternate feet) or batting it (with alternate hands). Ball size is important. It should be large enough for a success experience and small enough for a challenging experience.

Don't forget bean bags-quite a different experience from throwing or catching a ball. Let the child toss and catch it himself – standing, sitting, lying down, alternate hands. Can he catch it on the top of his hand, his shoulder, His knees, His foot?

Differing chairs. The child sits down and gets up from chairs and stools of varying heights, descending and standing up slowly and without using his hands. The lower the chair, the more difficult the task.

Kangaroo hop. Have the child hold something (for example, a beanbag – or if you want to make it difficult, an apple or an orange) between his knees, then jump with feet together either frontwards, backwards or sideways.

Save your large bleach bottles. With the bottoms cut off, they make nice scoops for catching games, using tight objects such as a whiffle ball or beanbag

Wheelbarrow. Hold the child's legs while he "walks", with his hands along a market route.

Find a place where the child can see his shadow. Then see how creative you can be in directing, his activities: "Make your shadow tall, short, wide, thin, make it jump, stand on one foot, touch its feet", etc.

Most of the activities that have been described can, for the most part, be done inside or out. It is important that they be done in a spirit of good fun and recreation. Once they become a chore, the child, either subtly or overtly, will decrease his effort and the sought after physical development will diminish. The secret probably lies in offering a variety of activities with an attitude of good cheer. And there may be a bonus – parents may discover that they, too, are in better shape!

Motor Development

Motor development has to do with the coordination and movement of various parts of the body. It depends mainly on maturation and learning. The movement of the body involves skills like sitting, crawling, walking, running, jumping, talking etc. Since maturation is an essential element in performing these skills, no matter the kind of intensive training given to a child, he cannot perform until he matures. A child cannot crawl if he is not ripe or mature to do so, neither can he walk if he has not attained maturity. But improvement in the performance of the skills can occur through learning/practice. It has been observed through research that African children are more precocious than the children in more advanced countries. This is as a result of care given them in terms of physical contact between the African mother and child and cultural practices promoting body movement. For instance, there is “okpole”, a

traditional wooden instrument for aiding any child that is late in walking.

Factors Affecting Motor Development

1. *Weaning:* This occurs when breastfeeding mothers stop breast feeding an infant permanently, when a baby is adjudged old enough to stop feeding on breast milk weaning may result to physical and psychological detachment and these may have adverse effects on the child's motor development.
2. *Nutrition:* can affect a child's motor development positively while lack of sufficient nutritional food will not help to improve a child's motor development. It is good for children (infants included) to feed properly so that their bones will grow stronger and be able to withstand various movements the child makes as he grows and develops. Children should be given opportunity to make movements without much restriction especially through lapping or back-strapping. The movement will enable them to explore their environment, develop their sense of curiosity and also make use of various parts of the body.

Diseases: There are some deadly diseases that can attack a child and impede his motor development. These include measles, poliomyelitis, whooping

cough, diphtheria, cholera, tuberculosis etc: They can also retard the child's development in the area of motor activities.

Play-pen: This is an accommodation made available in the house for children to play. Some simple game equipment or tools are made available to children. with these they play and develop their motor skills and activities.

CHAPTER ELEVEN

PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

Personality

There are as many conceptions of personality as there are individuals trying to define them; from the mystical, verbiage to detailed descriptions of social acts. Personality in the Nigeria context means somebody that is respected, an influential person, a rich person; ways one carries oneself, well built physique and well dressed individual. It refers also to one speaking with force, one who has vigour, good health and leadership quality. There are three aspects of personality.

The first aspect is action which is concerned with how a person acts. Some personalities are called emotional, others are referred to as calm, intellectual etc. Thus personality is defined as the sum total of a person's action, pattern or behavioural aspect. The second aspect is referred to as social, which refers to stimulus effect a person has on other people. This aspect is the sum total of all those things about a person that affect other people. It describes the characteristic effect a person has on others. That Okeke has a good personality ordinarily means that he has favourable effect on others. The last one looks into cause and why and what makes a person behave in social or unsocial ways and which make people react accordingly (Carrison, 1965).

All the three aspects are important but cannot alone describe personality. Our effects on others, their effect on us, of things and events in our life, our deepest thoughts, feelings and attitudes are all interesting and important aspects of our personalities. But personality is all of these and more.

The Meaning of Personality

It is what is called personality that makes a person, “personal” and unlike any other human being. It adds a note of uniqueness and worth to the dignity of his inherited nature. Personality is the whole man. Its components involve man’s inherited aptitudes or capabilities, all his past learnings or experiences, the integration and synthesis of these factors into characteristic behaviour patterns, his ideals, values and expectations, Carrison (1965) explained that generically, personality involves intelligence, emotions, motivation, learning, memory, thinking and perception. He maintained that organically, the whole is more than the sum of its parts and so many cross-relationships involved in organic combination of living, interacting parts might produce very small differences that can produce very great effects. He also posited that the synthesis of psychological factors into a personality, living and dynamic, as it is, is not a mere assemblage of components. The whole personality becomes something quite different from the psychological factors composing it. It is very necessary to note that

personality cannot be understood from the mere study of its component parts alone.

- (a) *Personality is unique:* No two personalities are alike, not even those of identical twins. But they can be similar in one or more aspects. Individuals are unique in themselves
- (b) *It is a product of its own functioning:* Today's function of a personality will depend partially on its functioning the previous day. Accumulated experiences of today's responses will influence how it will function tomorrow. Personality is constantly in the process of becoming, each person developing through the slow process of day-to-day learning and acting in various situations and roles.

Personality is viewed theoretically in two ways.

1. Origin of personality
2. Classification of personality

The two above are necessary to enable people understand what is meant by personality.

Origin of Personality

Personality is said to derive from a Greek word, *prosopon* (*persona*) which originally denoted the theatrical mask, first used in Greek drama. The appearance of the personality is looked at as presented to people. From this idea of referred to the mask, personality is used to refer to somebody's social values, that is, the totality of the responses which people make to other people. The word

personality seems to be derived from the Romans too. With reference to Roman law, a person defined as an adult male citizen had many rights, privileges which were denied women, children and foreigners. So personality has been used to define an entity of great value.

Personality also derives from the Latin word 'persona' which means 'mask'. This theatrical technique was later adopted by the Romans who took personality to mean 'as one appears to others' and not as one really is (Hurlock, 1978). In the Roman theatre, the actors are referred to as 'personae dramatis'. These actors carry out role on the stage. So another reference to personality is the role one plays in life. Thus the actor disguised by the mask becomes known through his actions and speech. What is seen is the mask not the man behind the mask.

Classification of Personality

The nature of personality may be better understood by looking into some of the labels used in categorizing or classifying personality. These classifications are in theoretical forms. The first theoretical classification is that of a Greek physician known as Hippocrates. In his medical practice he described four categories or types of labels which were used to refer to individual's personality known as temperament. These four labels are as follows: choleric, melancholic, sanguine, and phlegmatic. He used the terms to refer to characteristics of human behaviour, that is personality. He emphasized that

these attributes of personality were determined by four body humours. These labels, body humours and personality characteristics are shown below

Label	Body Humour (or Bile)	Personality characteristics (temperament)
Choleric	Yellow bile	Irritable, active, quick to anger, egocentric
Melancholic	Black bile	Depressed, slow, pessimistic, suspicious
Sanguine	Blood bile	Optimistic, active, easy going
Phlegmatic	Phlem bile	Calm, temperamental sluggish

Since the time of Hippocrates, psychologists applied other types of labels in referring to personality. For example, Sheldon who explored the relationship between types of body build and personality came up with three basic body builds. He noted that body build affects personality. The categorizations are as follows-

1. Endomorph (viscerotonic) → this individual has round body → is affectionate and is a lover of comfort
2. Mesomorph (sematotonic) → has hard muscular body → and is aggressive, assertive, energetic

3. Ectomorph (cerebrotonic) → is delicate, lean physique, → a lover of privacy, and mental activities

Jung classified personalities within extrovertism and introvertism. Some critics have argued that the individual's personality is too complex to be pigeon holed or to be assigned to one category or another, for people are not completely introverts or extroverts. There must be people who are midway between the two categories.

Such critics talk in terms of traits rather than types. When in everyday language we talk of some one being aggressive, friendly, honest, we are attributing him with certain personality traits. Gordon Allport, a psychologist worked on personality and referred to 18,000 traits in describing personality. These constructs are used in describing blends of physique, appearance, ways of behaviour, interest, attitude and other behaviours.

Definitions of personality

The task of describing and defining the total organisation of humans is very complex (Child, 1986) and this may be one of the reasons why psychologists have no one generally accepted definition of personality. However, attempts shall be made here to define and discuss personality as put up by some psychologists.

Eysenck (1964) defined personality as "the more or less stable and enduring organisation of a person's character, temperament, intellect and

physique which determines his unique adjustment to the environment. This definition is somehow comprehensive because it has tried to distinguish a number of attributes, which help in the description of people's personality.

Temperaments are inherent dispositions, which underlie personality. They are physiological from birth, for instance, how excited, unstable and placid an individual is may be traced to variations in endocrinal gland secretions due to response to different environmental conditions. Temperament is closely related to emotional dispositions, which vary from person to person.

Character may be said to be man's personality in action. It is evaluative in nature and is used to refer to such traits as honesty, persistence, obedience, self-control, tolerance, sense of justice, etc. These are qualities that are referred to as socially accepted. Certain aspects of one's character can also be referred to as socially unacceptable.

Another psychologist who tried to unravel the problem of defining personality was Gordon Allport. After going through the literature for the meaning of personality, he came up with six varieties, which are pertinent to the ways in which personality theorists conceive their topics. His varieties of definitions see personality as;

- (a) External appearance; that is, it is referred to as one's stimulus value for others;
- (b) Some total of one's attributes, thus referring to the totality of attributes that make up the person's personality. Others are;

- (c) Integrative,
- (d) Hierarchical,
- (e) Adjustive and
- (f) Distinctive definitions,

Each of these varieties defines personality in different settings in which man is seen to operate. To the author none seems more important and none can suffice to the exclusion of others.

Theories of Personality

Just as there is no single definition of personality, there is no single comprehensive theory of personality and there has not been any agreement that personality can be adequately measured or described with any method yet developed.

The Self

1. Some theorists refer to the entire personality as (self), that is, personality means self. For them the two are used interchangeably.
2. Some others use it in the sense of Freud's ego which is an agency or something that carries out certain functions. In this sense, self is seen as process.
3. Self actualization theories name that which is actualized as self. Self actualization means that actualization is not automatic, it comes up in the process of development. The process is the use of self as potential, meaning that itself

- actualization is dormant but later comes up to life.
4. The term self is also used when reference is made to the social roles which one assumes, for instance many roles one plays as a student, mother, father. So self is discussed as role in this perspective.
 5. Certain theorists talk of one's self concept. Here they use it to mean the person's perception and conception of himself. That is, using self as portrait, meaning that the individual is portraying himself. Theorists who use self as portrait or who use the word self concept want to refer to the core of self-consistent organisation of ideas that are the individual's personality, or those ideas which he thinks relate to himself. In this sense – self is regarded as the nucleus of personality. For instance, Lucky, a psychologist postulated the theory of personality in which he regarded self concept as the nucleus around which the other ideas revolve and that is the person's conception of what he means, who he is, what he can do, and how he fits into the world.

Perspectives of Self Concept

William James is one of the fathers of psychology. In his analysis of self, he talked about the empirical self, that is, the ME. The ME consists of:

1. The material self, that is, your possessions.
2. The social self, that is, your friends and acquaintances
3. The spiritual self, that is, man's inner subjective being, his psychic facilities or disposition taken concretely

Perhaps the concept of self is better explained by Carl Rogers, who is one of those regarded as the humanistic psychologists. Roger's treatment of self brought clearly into light the involvement of self in personality. He saw the components of personality as being made up of two basal elements;

- The organism, and
- The self

He defined organism as the centre of experience, that is, everything that is going on within a person at any moment in time. The totality of experience of an individual is what he called the "phenomenal field" and that is a person's unique outlook or frame of reference. This means that all of us have various phenomenal fields but one thing common to us is organism and self. This phenomenal field he said is made up of two parts;

1. The conscious experience
2. The unconscious experience

He went further to look at the word 'self' as the concept of 'I', Me, Myself. This self, Rogers said is made up of two parts;

1. The real self is one's awareness of himself or herself as he or she works, plays or does anything.

2. The ideal self is what one would like to be. While real self is what one is feeling, thinking and how one is behaving, the ideal self is how one would like to feel, think and act. The ideal self has been shown to be valuable in determining the relationship between how the child sees himself and what he thinks he should be like.

He talked about confusion between the real self and the ideal self. When the individual does not meet his expectations he does something to compensate. Rogers believed that insight into self-real or ideal is necessary for personality development and change. To him, change is deliberate in the sense that the environment in which a person finds himself, he has to adapt to. It is the ideal self that is adaptable to situations. Hence Rogers noted that the individual strives constantly to develop and expand. This means that self is not fixed but has to depend on the demands of the environment. Motivation is focused on the striving to achieve one's goal of self-growth or self-actualisation. Four conditions are necessary for the achievement of these goals.

1. Perception of the choices (opportunities) available to the individual and the key here is awareness of the opportunities available to the individual in his environment. Man can perceive opportunities available in his environment if he has developed personality that can help him do that.

2. Clear cut description and full understanding of choices, common expressions of what he called a person's symbolization. The first one is talking of environment but the second one is interpreting the environment. Awareness of the environment makes an individual sensitive to the environment. Interpreting the environment involves putting it into action.
3. Love and respect for others. Man is a social being. He needs love and understanding without which he cannot survive. In the home, school and in various institutions people have to feel that they have worth, that they are wanted, loved and respected by the people in the environment. This helps them to feel the sense of belongingness.
4. The individual must have self regard or respect and have faith in himself. This is known as self confidence. The individual needs himself and expects other people to respect him as well.
 - i. When do people say that somebody has self actualized?
 - ii. What is the goal of self actualization? In other words, what is the goal of personality development?
 - iii. What is people's idea of ideal personality?

Normal personality must be flexible to take in, understand and organize experiences which are consistent with self. So self concept is a dynamic organisation of characteristic qualities. Flexibility involves integration, analysis etc, taking in and

understanding personality. It is not static, but changes to accommodate experiences. But unlike personality, self concept is a picture of those qualities as seen by the individual himself not as seen by others. Self refers to what a person really is. Self concept refers to what he thinks of himself, a person's picture of himself or what he feels he is. Self concept emerges in the course of development – it is not just there from birth. The individual acquires it in the course of growth and when acquired it affects growth and development.

Influences which Shape Self Concept

1. Some people grow according to the 'nick names' assigned to them or which they deliberately assign to themselves
2. Some people give names to their children and they begin to behave that way
3. What pictures do people paint of their children? These pictures also influence them.
4. Modeling/identification: When parents constantly tell their children what they are, they think probably they will not do well and so start looking outside the four walls of a school or home. Whatever name your child is called he behaves that way. Igbo names are very meaningful. In most cases children, and even parents use them as a frame of behaviour.

The Psychoanalytic Theory

Fraud, was born on May 6, 1857 in Freiberg, Moravia, in what is now known as Czechoslovakia. Four years later his parents moved to Vienna with him. He was a brilliant person. He entered the medical school of the University of Vienna in 1873 and graduated after eight years. He eventually entered into private practice and became a private clinical neurologist in 1881, specializing in the treatment of nervous disorders, hypnosis and by suggestions. He was influenced by J.M. Chariot, H. M. Liebault and A.A. Bernheim.

At the age of 41, that was in 1897, he creatively developed the core of his personality theory, which was drawn from his own experiences and memories. He then finally brought it into empirical level by working with patients, looking into their childhood experiences and memories. In 1909, he received his first international recognition. He was awarded an honorary doctorate degree at Clark University, Massachusetts, United States of America, where he was invited to give a series of lectures.

He had series of problems especially with the Nazis that came to power in Germany in 1933. They burnt his books along with those of the enemies of the state. When Nazis occupied Austria, his home was repeatedly invaded and his daughter Ann was arrested. As a result of these problems, he left for London. He wrote a lot of books, and revised the basic tenets of his psychoanalysis. This revision started with *The Interpretation of Dreams*, in 1900

to *Outline of Psychoanalysis* published in 1940 after his death.

Freud's View of Human Nature

Freud believed that man is controlled and determined by irrational forces, unconscious motivation, biological and instinctual drives and certain psychological events during the first five years of life (Uba, 1987). Instincts are central to his theory and are the basic driving or motivating forces of all human behaviour. They are a form of transformed physiological energy that help to channel or refuse to channel the body's needs to the wishes of the mind. When the body is in need, it experiences tension, stress, anxiety and pressure. Freud grouped these instincts into two – life instincts and death instincts.

Life instincts (Eros) which purpose is to serve as a means of survival of the individual and humankind through seeking for satisfaction of the needs of food, water, air and sex. The psychic energy manifested by life instincts is called *libido*. They are oriented toward growth, development and creativity. Libidinal energy can be attached to or invested in an object and this he called *cathesis*. He included all pleasurable acts and avoidance of pain in the area of libido.

Death instincts which are known as *thanatos* account for man's aggressive drive, which compels him to destroy, conquer and also kill. It is in opposition to life instincts. He saw life as a process of coping continuously with how to satisfy his

instincts – sexual and aggressive drives and at the same time conform to the rules of the society without much suffering of personal shame and guilt.

Structure of Personality

For Freud, the personality is considered under the three constructs of the mind, namely; the conscious, the preconscious and the unconscious. The conscious consists of all that we are aware of in ourselves and our environment. He viewed the conscious as a small and limited aspect of our personality, since a small proportion of our thought, sensations, memories are present in our conscious awareness at any point in time. As a result of this, he indicated the unconscious as the larger area containing all the events, desires, thought, wishes, impulses that have been repressed, censored, or pushed from the conscious. Man's driving power behind his behaviour lies here and it is the storehouse of the forces man cannot see or control. In between conscious and unconscious, Freud evolved the preconscious mind housing all memories, perceptions, thoughts and all other experiences we are not consciously aware of at the moment but which can easily be brought into consciousness. If the memory or experience is pleasant, it can be allowed to remain in the conscious awareness, otherwise it will be repressed back into the unconsciousness where it must have to remain.

In 1923, Freud abandoned his earlier notion of the forces of the mind and came up with another

three basic personality structure of the id, the ego and the superego.

The Id

The id functions by primary process and its only purpose is to obtain pleasure. It is biological and so present at birth. The id is the largest component of mental organisation and represents the source of instinctual energy of biological determined needs. While it operates on pleasure principle, it is animalistic. It remains basic throughout life, never matures and it remains illogical, amoral and its only driving force or consideration is to satisfy its instinctual needs of sexual drive and aggression. In trying to avoid pain and obtain pleasure, it uses

(a) Reflex actions

(b) Primary process in order to reduce tension.

While id uses primary process to form mental images of an object in order to discharge tension, the secondary process thought which operate on rational bases evolved to help reduce tension. Man must act to reduce tension, but not through mental images as id does. When an adult becomes hungry, for instance, he looks for food to eat because mental images will never solve the problem. A young person who is growing has to use his powers of perception, recognition, memory, judgement as used by adults to satisfy his or her needs (Uba 1987).

The id has a reservoir of energy which Freud called libido, a vital source of motivation and it contains sexual and life instincts. All drives and instincts are traceable to the id and they focus on the

alleviation of hunger, pain, search for pleasure and continuous need to reduce tension, which comes up as a result of its constant need for need-gratification. The id is the 'beast' in man. It is the repository of unacceptable thoughts, that represents man's baser nature. It manifests itself irrationally, illogically and it is without moral or ethics or values. Its demand is blind, selfish, pleasure seeking, pleasure loving and impulsive. The id confronted with reality produces what Freud called the ego. The id uses identification process to find from the environment, things that fit its mind's image that will satisfy its need. This identification process separates the id from the ego.

The Ego

The ego is the organised part of the id and is termed the 'executive' and the seat of rational thinking. The ego is physiological in nature. It develops out of id to guide the id impulses and so function in accordance with the reality principles. Since it is the executive, it controls, governs and regulates the personality, it exercises censorship, and any behaviour viewed with displeasure is either modified, criticized or rejected entirely. A very important function of the ego is to find satisfaction for the needs of the id but it does so in a proper time, mood and in a proper place and without going against the rules of the superego. In addition to governing the id and its impulses, the ego controls and directs the superego.

The Superego

The superego is social in nature. It is the agency that internalizes the parental influences and ideals of the society through early childhood experiences. The superego is equivalent to conscience and represents the introjected morality and the value of the society. It strive for perfection. It is the moral or judicial branch of personality. Just like the id, the superego does not admit any compromise in respect of its demands. It is an inbuilt control mechanism whose function mainly is to control the primitive impulses and excesses of the id. The superego, according to Freud is made up of two sub-systems, the conscience and the ego ideal.

The conscience is best described as made up of the moral values and judgements taught the child by his parents especially those rules that tell a person when he is doing wrong. It is also seen as that part of the superego, which represents what an individual believes he should not do. When an individual is isolated from the morals of the society, the conscience is still the powerful determinant of his action. The ego ideal in contrast to the conscience consists of those values and attitudes taught by the parents that indicate what is right. It is the part of superego that represents things that the individual believes he would like to do. These controlling function of the superego takes place largely in the unconscious part of the mind and so is not in the individual's awareness. Since it represents the ideal in the individual, it strives for perfection. Thus, Leak and Christopher (1982) write that the

superego functions largely in the unconscious, instilling altruistic behaviour in the person, thereby making him develop rigid morality if it were not monitored and influenced as the infant develops.

Any individual that is dominated by id impulses, acts impulsively and if someone is dominated by the actions of the superego, he tends to be too moralistic. If these two situations occur, the ego comes to do its job of keeping the individual from these two extremes. The ego therefore, mediate between the wild impulses of the id and the perfection seeking function of the superego, sometimes siding the id and sometimes the superego, depending on the circumstances in order to resolve the conflict between the id and the superego. This helps in maintaining a balance between the immaturity of the id and the violent reprisals of the superego. Brener in 1974 summarised the activities of the superego thus:- “its function is essentially that of ‘conscience’, which approves or disapproves behaviour, wishes; observes issues, self, critically and then administers self-punishment or not; demands repentance for wrong doing or rewards the self with self praise and self love”.

The Dynamics of Personality Development

The three components of personality proposed by Freud are the id, ego and superego. Freud believed that the energy for working together of the three components is the instinctual energy, which he called libido and it is also the energy for motivation. In the normal person, life instincts are controlled by

the ego. Freud regards the ego as the servant of life because life instincts are controlled by it. Death instincts are controlled by the superego making it the servant of death forces.

Conflicts

The major source of personality conflict is the opposition to life forces and that is what he called sexuality imposed by the body; and the opposition to death forces, which are in form of aggression, violence, etc imposed by society. All of them – sexuality, aggression, violence, etc are instinctual manifestations and have a common core which is called libido. Restrictions are imposed in the individual (by the body) and by the society but there should be freedom for human beings. This continuous interaction and clash between the id impulses seeking release and the inhibition imposed by the superego breed conflicts.

Because society frequently condemns and punishes various expressions and forms of sexuality and aggression, it becomes necessary for the ego to disguise or hide such impulses. In the process it may either transform or mask the instincts so as to escape punishment by the superego, while still satisfying the need, or it may deny the impulse altogether. Sometimes these efforts are deliberate and sometimes unconscious.

Defence Mechanism

Defence mechanisms or adjustive mechanisms are the means which the ego uses to adjust to the

social environment. Ego defence mechanisms as they are also called help the individual to cope with anxiety (which is a state of uncomfortable tension which an individual is forced to reduce) and defend the wounded ego. This anxiety develops out of a conflict between the id, ego, and the superego over the control of available psychic energy. It warns the ego of an impending danger and appropriate action must be taken immediately otherwise the ego may be overthrown. When the ego cannot control the anxiety in a rational manner, it then looks for other unreliable means known as ego defence mechanisms. When defence mechanisms dominate individuals, they set up obstacles that do not allow for rational solution of problems. On the other hand, sometimes they aid people to do satisfactory adjustment as they learn more realistic ways of problem solving. When the mechanisms are no longer needed they are allowed to fade as people eventually learn how to face their problems realistically and rationally. The defence mechanisms as postulated by Freud are as follows:

Repression means that we push dangerous or unpleasant thoughts, experiences or impulses out of the conscious into the unconscious. It is also seen as an unconscious stifling of thoughts, wishes, memories or ideas that may be threatening or damaging to the ego or that are in general likely to produce anxiety. If the need to deny the thoughts, experiences or impulses is mild, people simply suppress them, that is, they are taken out of the conscious into the pre-conscious where they remain

just below the threshold of awareness. The threshold of awareness is the boundary between the conscious and the unconscious. *Repression* is therefore the conscious act of trying to forget something unpleasant.

Compensation is covering up ones weaknesses by emphasizing some desirable traits or making up for inadequacies in one area while manifesting seriously the other areas. This shows when an individual replaces one means of expressing a motive by some other less direct means. But in this case one is replacing it with one more desired by society. Examples include, if an individual cannot achieve a task in one way, he may want to achieve it in another way. The white people and their love of dogs – shifting of their love from man to animal and this is valid in their culture. People excel in sports sometimes because they cannot make up academically.

Identification: You see people identifying with somebody who excel in one thing or another – children identify with teachers or prominent people like Chike Obi, Shehu Shagari, Zik or people in some other ways admired by the society. In order to come to terms with his personality he assumes the personality of the person he identifies with. This is an unconscious back-tracking either in memory or behaviour. At times children identify with parents, with their siblings. In identification there is admiration and they want to identify with the person they admire. In identification, people will acquire

such mannerisms and experiences that will contribute to their total personality development.

Regression:- occurs when an individual uses behaviour more characteristic of an earlier age. For example, crying – an adult is not expected to cry. Regression involves a less mature behaviour or responses mainly at a lower level.

Sublimation:- occurs when an original desire is not fulfilled. Sublimation is the redirection of ones activities into similar activities. This is very much like compensation. For instance, students who want to be doctors and fail may sublimate their enthusiasm by other paramedical fields; nursing or physiotherapy, etc.

Projection:- occurs when there is a tendency to project ones faults or wishes into others. You have a fault and may deny yourself that fault and assume it is another person who has it. In this case personality is trying to come to terms with itself by projecting an individual's faults to other people, that is, seeing his faults in other people and so assumes it is those people that are responsible for the ills of the society.

Rationalization: This is called sour grape syndrome. It is a mechanism of finding false or half-truth explanation for behaviour. It enables a person to shift the responsibility of his failure to other people. It begins very early in life. For instance, a child who fails an examination may shift the reason for his failure on the teacher's inability to teach well, or that the teacher hates him.

From Coleman in Uba (1987), the following mechanisms are taken:

Denial of reality	Protecting self from unpleasant reality by refusal to perceive it.
Fantasy	Gratifying frustrated desires in imaginary achievements.
Introjection	Incorporating external values and standards into ego structure so that the individual is not at their mercy as external threats.
Reaction-formation	Preventing dangerous desires from being expressed by exaggerating opposed attitudes and types of behaviour and using them as 'barriers'.
Displacement	Discharging pent-up feelings, usually of hostility, on objects less dangerous than those which initially aroused the emotion.
Emotional insulation	Withdrawing into passivity to protect self from hurt.
Isolation	Cutting off affective charge from hurtful situations or separating incompatible attitudes by logic-tight compartments.

Mechanisms

As class teachers, how do we apply or relate these to the classroom situation?

- (1) I think Freud's gifts to psychologists and teachers are drawing attention to the child's affiliative relationship with parents, brothers, siblings, etc

- (2) Drawing attention to the existence and potency of infantile sexuality – oral, anal, phallic
- (3) The possible unconscious nature of a great deal of human nature residing in the ‘id’
- (4) The continuum between normal and neurotic behaviour is only of degree
- (5) The endurance of early childhood experiences in development

What is drawn here is to help teachers see the significant development of the theory with a view to helping them to answer the question above and apply them.

Psychosexual Stages of Development

The individual according to this theory has a certain amount of psychic energy or libido. In any normal development, the individual goes through stages. The libido is invested first in a kind of activity or another. But due to frustration, the individual is reluctant and unable to move to another stage. The individual may get fixated at one level of development or another. This is noticed more in adult behaviour. Freud believed that the adult personality is shaped and solidly made manifest by the fifth year of life. For Freud, the sexual instinct in infancy is associated with the manipulation of various parts of the body for pleasure. The areas of such satisfaction termed erogenous zones are the mouth, anus, genitals. Each is associated with primary drive - hunger,

elimination, sex and each in turn becomes the central focus of the child's activity.

Oral Stage 0-1 Years: The baby makes his first contact with the world through his mouth and he derives his most intensive pleasure from eating and sucking. Eating involves stimulation of the lips and other areas around the mouth. Sucking the mother's breast serves and satisfies as food and pleasure. Two methods of activity which the baby indulges in are oral incorporation and oral aggression. Oral incorporative behaviour occurs first and through this he enjoys pleasurable stimulation of the mouth. Oral aggressive behaviour starts when the infant begins to cut teeth. The eruption of teeth gives him pain. Biting is visibly noticed and this may be the reason why sometimes he bites the mother's nipples when sucking breast. He can bite his lips also.

An infant that experiences fixation at oral incorporative behaviour level grows up into an adult that exhibits too much oral need like eating, talking, kissing, chewing, drinking, smoking and so on. An infant may also get fixated at oral aggressive level and the result may be the infant growing into an adult that manifests hostility, aggression, gossip and detraction to other people.

Some problems arise at this stage of development. One is the problem of relationship between the infant and the mother. If the relationship is too cordial and comfortable, the infant may then fixate. As an adult, he could be a wholly dependent personality. The other problem is

the opposite of the first one, if the mother-infant relationship and interaction makes the infant experience insecurity, resulting in anxiety, frustration and keeping the infant always on edge, Freud, like Erikson, felt that if, however, at this stage, the child feels unloved, rejected, unwanted, he finds it difficult to accept himself. When he grows up he learns to mistrust the world and people. In later life, he may tend towards undesirable behaviour like jealousy, aggression and may seek for attention. The libido expresses itself as an oral drive. This stage ends when mothers wean the infant.

Anal Stage 2-3 years: This is the second stage and it is the one in which the anal (from anus) zone comes to be of major significance in the formation of personality traits. Here he derives pleasures from the process of elimination which at first (first few months) occurs automatically without the baby being aware of its occurrence or reoccurrence. Later, he becomes aware of it and takes pleasure from such bowel elimination and movements. The method of toilet training adopted by the parents for the child goes a long way in the formation of healthy or abnormal personality traits. If they adopt a very strict method the child becomes extravagant in bowel elimination and discharges faeces at anyplace and at anytime. The child registers his displeasure and anger in this careless manner. If the child eventually adopts this kind of behaviour and frequently uses it as a way of reducing frustration and anxiety, he develops an anal aggressive

personality. this may be the basis for aggressive tendency in adult life such as sadism, hostility, temper tantrums, destructiveness, etc.

But if the parents pay too much attention on bowel movements of their child through praise anytime he eliminates faeces, the child views this activity as very important. This may be the basis for creative and productive tendency in some children. Experiences of this period may have effect on adult's later life. For Freud, the following three correlated traits may emerge in adult life as a result of children's toilet training experiences.

- Parsimony - stinginess, undue economy
- Pedanting - over valuing, too concerned with details or rules especially when learning or teaching
- petulance - unreasonably important, irritable, bad temper especially when one cannot get what one wants or desires

These are believed that result from difficulties encountered during this stage.

Phallic Stage 3 – 5 years: This stage signifies the stage at which the child shifts his attention from the anal to the erogenous zone. He begins to show signs of sexuality as he derives pleasure from stimulation of his genital areas. This sign of increased genital pleasure is made evident because children of both sexes (gender) begin to fantasize and masturbate and

sometimes in form of desire for contact with the parents of opposite sex. This desire or feeling is also threatening that sometimes there comes the unconscious idea to the child to replace or kill the parent of the same sex.

Freud is believed to have woven his concept of Oedipus complex around the conflict within the child about his feelings towards parents of the same sex. The name of this story is taken from the Greek myth described in the play Oedipus Rex.

In this story, young Oedipus kills his father and marries his mother, because he did not know who they were at the time. Bappoport (1972) explained the whole story of Oedipus Rex. He suggested that first Oedipus sees the mother as a sex object to whom he has sexual attachment. He however sees the father as a sexual rival, powerful, threatening and as one who possesses ultimate power to castrate. Caught up with the desire for his mother and fear of his father's power at the same time, he develops fears about his penis. Freud calls this kind of fear castration anxiety and this is what is at the basis of his action and life at this stage. When Oedipus notices the absence of penis in girls, he now realizes the reality of castration and then replaces the desire for his mother with other desirable feelings, especially what Freud calls identification. As a result, he 'takes in' or incorporates some of his fathers' qualities and it is this 'inner father' including his values and moral judgement that form part of the child's super ego or

conscience that Freud terms 'heir of the Oedipus complex' (Uba, 1995).

Freud had another concept (opposite of Oedipus complex) for girls which he calls the Electra complex. For Hall (1954), this complex has its origin in Greek mythology too. In this play, Electra persuaded her brother to kill their mother and the mother's lover both of whom killed Electra's father. Her initial love was towards her mother which at this stage, she now transfers to her father. When she discovers the absence of a penis in her she develops negative feelings toward her mother. This condition and feeling Freud calls penis envy which is the counterpart of castration anxiety. Later the girl begins to identify with the mother when she starts to resolve the complex she has towards her mother. She now takes in some of her mother's behaviour and just as Oedipus does towards the father, Electra represses her love for father.

Successful resolution of Oedipus complex and Electra complex, with identification of appropriate parent results in the development of healthy personality. The family members will try and help to create a conducive home environment to complete successfully the identification process. When mothers become too strong and powerful in the family than fathers, a problem is created for the boy who may not fear his father to motivate him to strong identification of his father. The result is that the boy displays a kind of 'I do not care' attitude because the male phallic personality acquired now sinks deeper in the boy. At the same time, the female

phallic personality exaggerates the female in the girl and she uses her talents, charms and every trait she can muster to conquer men and have them do her wishes.

Latency Period:- is a period in which direct sexuality is observed. The energies of the child are directed to the process of socialisation. He is interested in sex-typed activities and is likely to react to members of the opposite sex negatively. Male child tends to identify with the father and the same with female child and mother. Again here, the male child resolves his oedipal relations with the mother and sublimates his affection for his mother and turns to identify with his father. At puberty, the homosexual pattern of interest re-emerges and the individual reaches the adult or genital phase.

Genital Stage:- In this stage, there are hormonal changes and also changes in the genital organs. Sexual urge is awakened because of puberty and the adolescent is now getting interested in peers of the opposite sex. He experiments with sex. At this point, he starts to assume adult responsibilities. Not every person matures to the point of maintaining mature heterosexual relationship especially if there has been any fixation in any of the earlier stages. Conformity is still expected from the adolescent especially to cope with the sanctions and taboos woven around sexual expression. As he moves into fully mature adulthood, he frees himself from parental control, gains independence and acquires the ability to

develop intimate relationship. He now becomes interested in others and what concerns them, as he moves from narcissism to being altruistic. Working and loving as well as deriving satisfaction from them become so highly important. For Freud, what kind of adult an individual develops into is a function of early years of life which determines that person's adult personality. Each of these stages has the potential for breeding anxiety, frustration, threats and conflicts. Freud believes a person can overcome these problems through ego defence mechanism especially through identification and sublimation.

Freud's Views of Mental Health

Mental health is the ability to adjust satisfactorily to the various strains of the environment people meet in life – strains from behaviour of people, objects including physical structures and facilities like water, electricity, schools, roads, and strains from laws and rules of the society. Freud views mentally healthy people as having two characteristics. The first one is that they have deep, warm affectionate relationship with other people without being dependent on them (depending on others will not enhance the relationship, rather it may render it impossible). Secondly, healthy people must have a choice of activities to engage in, but in doing this, they have to engage in activities, which they find meaningful. They must devote themselves to work and pursue these activities effectively. They must endeavour to be as successful in it as they can be.

The Humanistic Theory of Personality Development

Carl Rogers is regarded as the best-known humanistic theorist. His *Personality Theory* (1959) reflects concern with human welfare and his deep conviction that humanity is basically 'good', forward – moving and trust worthy. He believes that if man is allowed to grow and develop freely, the result will be self actualized, full functioning individuals. In such a case, write Sue et al, (1986) the self concept of the individual and the actualizing tendency will be congruent. However, society frequently imposes conditions of worth on its members. These conditions are standards by which people determine their worth and are transmitted via conditional positive regard. That is, significant others (parents, peers, friends, spouse, etc.) in a person's life accept some but not all of that person's actions, feelings and attitudes. The person's self concept becomes defined as having worth only when others approve. Sue et al continue that this situation forces the person to develop a distorted self concept which is incongruent or inconsistent with his or her self actualizing potential, inhibiting that person to be self actualized.

A state of disharmony or incongruency is said to exist between his self concept (as determined by others). This state of incongruence can result in stress, anxiety, and conflict because the child is trying to become what others wish him to

become even though their wish is at odds with what he wants to be.

Rogers believes that fully functioning people have been allowed to grow toward their potential. The environment most suited for this growth is called unconditional positive regard.

There is something common to these theorists which is that they adopted humanistic approach to personality and they emphasize the person interacting with his environment as the focus of personality study.

They also emphasize the inevitable tendency of human beings to desire and seek to achieve life goals. Two things are important here, and that is a person who lives and the type of environment he lives in. Our experiences in life affect us. The concept of mutual interaction involves a person acting on something and something acting on him. Through this then he learns. This person has a goal which he visualises, strives to achieve the goals and so achieves self actualization.

Dynamics of Personality

The theory revolves around the self in line with self actualization, self maintenance, self enhancement and experiences all based in phenomenological field and congruence. The basic principle is the establishment of self structure and the experience that one has about oneself. It then means that Rogers stresses the importance of the individual who determines his own fate.

According to him, each individual has a potential for self actualization through a set of guiding principles, the potential of which is present in man from childhood. The potential is like seeds which are always present but always in need of water. The individual must be aware of it. Individuals strive to achieve self growth under the following conditions:

- a. The choices available must be perceived clearly. If the individual is unaware of these choices, self growth is hindered.
- b. The choices must be clearly symbolized. The person must not only be aware of alternatives but he must also have clear cut description and understanding of the choices.
- c. The person must be respected and loved by others.
- d. The person must respect and have faith in himself and his abilities to achieve his goals.

The above are four criteria for self growth.

What are the personality dynamics? What are the factors or causes of personality development. According to Rogers, the goals of personality development are self actualization but he has no fixed developmental stages through which man must pass. Rather, he sees man as he continually strives to develop self. The person has a number of experiences which he incorporates into his frame of reference if they are appropriate to him. In doing so, he forms a self which may be outgoing or private, friendly or unfriendly. Because of this continual

striving, he talks of development as a way between the way he sees himself or his experiences and his actual social and interpersonal relationship. The major development of dynamics of personality is the way he relates to others in connection with himself. For him, all development is a stream of continuous growth which occurs because of two things:

1. Our inherent tendency towards self growth
2. Our social and personal experience.

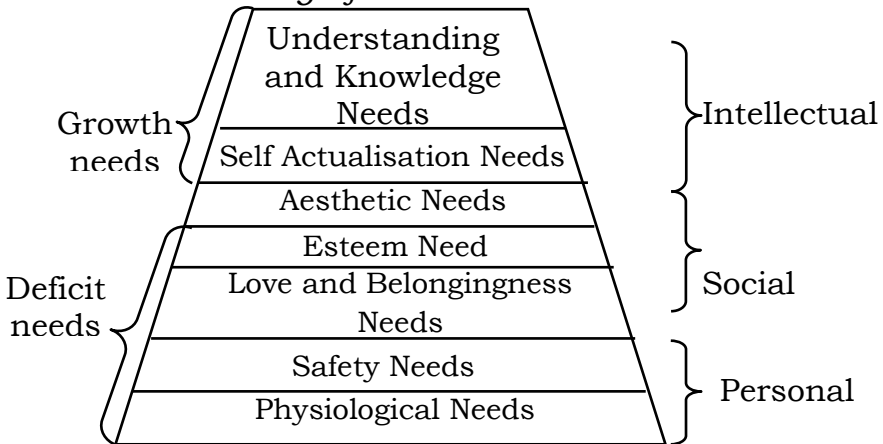
A developing and reasonably mature person must have value consistent with his behaviour. He must be aware also of his feelings, attitudes and impulses. If the four criteria for self growth which have been noted earlier are met then the person will be more aware of himself and come to understand alternative behaviour. He will think more flexibly and this would lead to greater creativity and productivity when he is confronted with a problem to solve. In short, the normal person grows more tolerant, flexible, and more creative as he matures.

Abraham Maslow

Maslow is a contributor to the humanistic theory too. He believes that the mind and the body work as a unified person, a gestalt or a single organised whole. His argument is that when something happens to a single part of the body the whole is affected. So for the understanding of personality, the whole body must be taken into account. He argued about one overriding human drive-self actualization.

Abraham Maslow believes that man can work out a better world for mankind as well as for himself. He described human being as 'wanting animal' (Nwachukwu 1995). He based his theory on the notion that man is innately good, that the ultimate goal of man's efforts is fulfillment, growth and happiness. He postulated that for every person there is a hierarchy of needs each of which must be met before the next assume control of behaviour.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs



He categorized the needs in the system into two – deficit needs and growth needs.

Deficit needs are physiological needs; safety, love and belongingness and esteem needs. Growth needs refer to self actualization.

In the cascade or hierarchy of human needs, in between esteem needs and self actualization are found a group of needs called aesthetic needs which manifest in strong attraction towards beauty, being decent and orderly in life, desire for and admiration

of beautiful things. For instance, investing in beautiful and flamboyant, colourful well-decorated property, houses, cars, etc. You do not have to think of man as having drives, which he has to satisfy but he talks of order of needs. These needs are:

1. *Physiological needs*: These are biological in nature and they include satisfaction of hunger, rest, sleep, etc. These needs are the most potent of all others and yet the least significant in self actualization. If these are deprived, other needs will fail to appear. When an individual is deprived of these needs he does something to satisfy them (motivation). To get children complete their assignment deprive them of their freedom. These needs are personal. Sexual behaviour though biological in nature, it is social because it leads to parenthood and procreation.
2. *Safety Needs*: When physiological needs are successfully satisfied, safety needs become a dominant force in the personality of an individual. Many are concerned with avoidance of pain, protection, order and security. People feel the need for structure, law and order and to be under some one's direction. Those who cannot get beyond safety needs are so concerned about them—they hoard money, purchase buildings, land and invest. This is used to make up for future safety.

For small children the needs are very important because they are physically incapable of controlling their environment. They should be protected from harmful experiences, and reared in structured environment, free from any physical harm. Parents should develop courage in their children to meet environmental events and challenges.

3. *Belongingness and love needs:* These emphasise the basic physiological nature of human beings to identify with group life – making yourself an intimate member of the society and being accepted by others. They need a familiar environment such as family. The needs involve warm, caring, loving and satisfying relationship with others.
4. *Esteem needs:* There are two groups (a) Self esteem relating to needs for self respect, self regards, self evaluation, achievement, adequacy, confidence and independence. (b) relating to respect from others, reputation, attention, status, appreciation, social success and fame. The need for self evaluation occurs in those who are comfortably situated and quite secure in the satisfaction of lower needs. Another type of esteem needs is the need for the individual to feel superior to others. This is gratified by purchasing of valuable material objects such as cars and clothes which he

may quickly dispose of and purchase new ones in order to still maintain a favourable image of himself.

5. *Self actualization needs*: The highest needs are those for self fulfillment; the needs to become relatively independent from the demands of the environment and to become what a person wants to become. It means to fulfill one's individual nature in all its aspects. For instance one who is talented in music experiences tension if he does not attain perfection in it. The most important aspect of self actualization is freedom from both cultural and self imposed restrains. At the top of the cascade of human needs by Maslow are the needs to understand and acquire knowledge as an extension of self actualization.

Characteristics of Self Actualisers (Maslow)

1. Greater acceptance of self and others
2. Greater spontaneity of reality
3. Superior perception of reality
4. Increase in problem centering
5. Greater capacity for detachment and desire for privacy
6. More autonomy and resistance to enculturation
7. Greater appreciation and richer emotional reaction
8. Higher frequencies of peak experiences

9. Greater identification in the human specie
10. Changed interpersonal relations
11. More democratic character structure
12. Greater creativeness
13. Certain changes in the value system

A normal person functions well in the society. An abnormal person withdraws into himself. He does not function well in the society. In a psychotic person, there is a departure from normal. A little thing will compel the neurotic to go psychotic. Maslow has what is called peak of experiences as an altered state of consciousness. This means rapturous feeling, tension, peace or quietude, which a normal person is supposed to experience. In other words, the normal person is capable of deriving more joy from the process of living than the abnormal person.

Behaviour Leading to Self actualization

Experience life as a child does, with full absorption and concentration.

Try something new rather than sticking to secure and safe ways.

Listen to your own feelings in evaluating experience rather than to the voice of tradition or authority or the majority.

Be honest; avoid pretences or “game playing”.

Be prepared to be unpopular if your views do not coincide with those of most people.

Assume responsibility.

Work hard at whatever you decide to do.

Try to identify your defences and have the courage to give them up.

Maslow's view of Mental Health

- (a) There must be effective perception of reality, implying that a healthy person should not distort what is clear.
 - (b) There must be acceptance of self and others
 - (c) Spontaneity is important– healthy individuals do not impose masks on themselves, they must be themselves and express their inner feelings.
 - (d) They should not be afraid to show or express their feelings towards other people, know themselves and accept themselves as such.
 - (e) They must possess ability to work and dedicate themselves to some chosen tasks.
- Maslow in Nwachukwu (1995).

Maslow means that people have to do those things or work in those areas in which they are more suited for. They will choose the job or work that will be beneficial to them and others. That is, the job that will help them develop their potentials, what they believe is important and useful to them.

Trait Theories of Personality Development

Traits mean some enduring attributes of an individual that are conspicuously and repeatedly manifested in a variety of ways. These traits could distinguish the behaviour of one person from another.

There is the belief that the human tendencies can be classified, measured and evaluated. Those who subscribed to these emphasise scientific and objective analysis of behaviour. For any work to be scientific a large sample of it can be verified and quantified. Freud did not go through these processes but through his contact with people he was able to propound psycho-analytic theory.

The statistical summaries of such measurement of a group of people are called factor or trait dimensions of personality. In such theories an individual's personality is described and summarized by a series of member trait representing his position on the basic trait dimension. The trait value possessed by a person is assumed to be a relatively permanent characteristics of that individual which will be manifested by him in most life's situations. In temporary situations, when any of the traits is provoked and manifested, if such a trait exhibited becomes consistent then it becomes a permanent one.

R.B. Cattel

This is one of the scholars who subscribed to trait theory of personality development. Raymon Bernard Cattel was born in Staffordshire, England in 1905. He received his primary, secondary and tertiary education all in England. He obtained his Ph.D in psychology under Spearman from the University of London in 1929. He lectured in various universities and later assumed administrative job that gave him opportunity to acquire a wealth of

experience and interest. One of his prominent achievement was the founding of the Society for Multivariable Experimental Psychology in 1960 of which he became its first president. His trait personality theory was influenced by Spearman's work who in 1904 formulated the idea of factor analysis; and that of Thurston also in factor analysis.

The Nature of Personality

Cattell is not an easy writer. His system of construct which he employed to describe the nature of personality was complex in nature. He believes that before a detailed definition of personality would be made, the author or the theorist must have a full specification of the concepts that the theorist wished to employ in the study of behaviour. As a result of this, he gives the following general definition of personality.

Personality is that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation. The goal of psychological research in personality is thus to establish laws about what different people will do in all kinds of social and general environmental situations. Personality is concerned with all the behaviour of an individual, both overt and under the skin. (Cattell, 1950)

According to Hall and Lindzey (1978), Cattell views personality as a complex and differentiated structure of traits. To him, a trait is a 'mental structure' or an inference that is made from an observed behaviour of an organism to account for regularity or consistency in this behaviour.

There may be as many as 18,000 traits which distinguish among human characteristics or what we call his personality. These 18,000 characteristics or traits of personality, were propounded by G. Allport which Cattell made use of and later reduced to 35 trait clusters. Among the traits are:

1. Confident, sensitive, outgoing, warm, humble, practical, aggressive, liberal, tense, aloof, meek, jealous, happy, tolerant, organised, intelligent, doubtful, uninhibited, critical.
2. Serious, anxious, perceptive, compulsive, religious, friendly, angry, passionate, good-natured, adventurous, suspicious, optimistic, depressed, conforming, pleasant, emotional, reliable, honest, understanding.
3. Independent, calm, moralistic, frank, smooth, democratic, resourceful, excitable, energetic, hostile, frustrated, kind, interesting, touchy, boastful, talented, pushy and funny.

Cattell classified the traits in several ways and one of the several ways is the distinction which he made between ability, temperament and dynamic traits.

Another way is the grouping of traits in terms of number of people who possess them. Thus a common trait has much the same form for everyone, and people differ from one another only in terms of the strength or the degree of the traits.

The third way is classification by levels from genotype to phenotype and from source traits to surface traits.

Lastly, he grouped traits according to the observation made which he used to measure them.

Structure of Personality

On the basis of these classifications, he arrived at the structure of personality. This brings to focus the following:

Surface/Source Traits

He found that the list of personality traits can be reduced to about thirty-five which he called thirty-five trait clusters and these include dimensions such as:

calm	aggressive
optimistic	pessimistic
relaxed	tensed
honest	dishonest
affectionate	cold
reliable	suspicious

These types of traits appear to describe actions of people and they are in Cattell's mind, more of manifestation of personality than the basic dimensions of personality itself. These he calls

surface traits. Surface traits are the superficial and detectable patterns of behaviour which have their origin in source traits. He also found that certain surface traits tend to correlate in a way that might reflect more basic determinants of behaviour. Thus he found that sixteen account for more statistical relationship that emerge between source and surface traits. These sixteen dimensions are called source traits (which are at the root of observed behaviour) to signify their fundamental role in personality.

He said that all human performances and actions derive ultimately from a person's position or value on the sixteen source traits. He devised his tests from source traits which he called sixteen Personality Factor Tests (PFT).

Classes of Traits

Cattell categorized the traits of personality along more substantive psychological dimensions into ability, temperament and dynamic types.

Ability Traits

These refer to the cognitive or what are ordinarily called knowledge competence (skill). Attempts have to be made to break them down further into several abilities which vary widely within and between individuals. Examples include reading ability, manipulative skills, etc.

Temperament Traits

These are expressive of affects, emotions and sentiments such as anger, fear, joy and love. They

are also concerned with other constitutional aspects of responses such as speed, energy, etc.

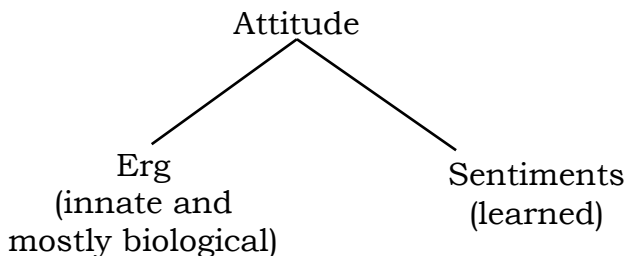
Dynamic Traits

These are traits that instigate or propel an individual to go into action that will push him towards goal achievement. They are traits of motivation, interest, drive and motive.

His Personality Dynamics and Development

Dynamics of Personality

A key concept in Cattell's trait theory is attitude and this conveys the notion of how interested or motivated a person is to do or have a particular thing. For him, attitude means motive. For Cattell attitudes are the manifest dynamic variables, the observed expression of underlying dynamic structure. From a series of research studies he concluded that attitude could be divided into two classes.



- a. Ergs – a constitutional dynamic source trait
- b. Sentiments

- Ergs:** The ergs are innate and mostly directly related to biological drives such as sex, taste, hunger, rest and sleep, etc. Cattell defines an erg as an innate psychophysical disposition which enables a person who possesses it to react to certain classes of objects more readily than others and to experience a specific emotion in regard to them (Hall & Lindzey, 1978)
- Sentiments:** These are learned attitudes and the two basic sources of such learning are (a) the family (b) the school

In Cattell's theory, there is another attitude which overrules and controls the dynamic operations of other attitudes including the ergs. These he calls self sentiments. He emphasizes two major sources of influence on the development of personality and these he calls (a) heredity (b) environment (c) a mixture of both.

These two sources of influence above refer to nature and nurture and he went further to assess the relative influence of nature on environment and vice versa. He discovers that the correlations between heredity and environment were negative. Thus, this strengthens the belief he held that heredity and environment can separately influence the development of personality. This emphasis on nature or nurture is not new in psychology. What is new is his analysis of learning processes and their contributions to personality development. The

environment has its impact on the individual through learning. He goes further to divide learning process along the dimensions of complexity.

(1) Classical Conditioning

The simplest is classical conditioning which is important in matching emotional responses to environmental cues. It is a largely passive, associative process. It may influence personality in a variety of ways but especially in the area of anxiety. For instance, the state of fear that accompanies the pain and shock of serious accidents can be associated with the joy or pain in driving a car or motorcycle. A burnt child dreads the fire. He emphasizes that this is not useful except in the area of anxiety which is a neurotic behaviour that can be learnt through classical conditioning.

(2) Reward Learning

The next dimension is reward learning. This is a more active form likely to be associated with instrumental or operant response. Example, learning through reward, some students learn to pursue degrees and obtain them. The praises of their parents, friends and relations serve as rewards. More important to the development of personality either classical or reward learning, is what Cattell calls integration learning which is essentially a more elaborate form of instrumental learning. It occurs when a person learns a behaviour or a series of behaviour which will satisfy a variety of motives. Theoretically, integration learning may satisfy the

personality as a whole and we might think of behaviour changes that lead to the achievement of life long goals as instances of integration learning.

The Role of Learning in Personality Formation

The process of directing, formation and guiding this 'self-directed' growth is called education. It goes or reaches beyond the intellectual development to that of the entire personality or the whole person. Ruskin calls this guidance 'painful, continual and difficult, to be done by kindness, by watching, by warning, by precepts and by praise, but above all – by example.

The normal personality is formed by learning, primarily in a favourable atmosphere or climate or environment, which is made up of things, people or situations. But the dynamic nature of the mind in personality integration cannot be overlooked. Early in life and all through life, a person learns through imitation and this is called role identification, which starts with the mother and father. Identification continues from infancy to adulthood. Learning through identification is sometimes called spontaneous learning, another type of associative learning which is associated with pleasure or unpleasant, emotional or feeling tones.

Personality is continuously learned both consciously and unconsciously in gradual increments which shape the whole man.

environment builds. The inherited characteristics and predispositions include height, skin pigmentation (fair, dark, albinism), intelligence, weight, eye and hair colour, blood group and type, sickle cell among others.

Environmental Factors: These factors are social in nature. It is known that heredity forms the basis and attributes that help in the development of personality characteristics but these do not solely do the determination alone since the child's interaction with the environment contributes to personality development. If the environment is good, cordial, conducive, it is therefore favourable and it will enhance whatever traits good or bad an individual has inherited. But if the environment is not favourable, the tendency is the retardation of favourable traits and worsening of the note-so-good traits. The environment is the social milieu in which man who is also a social being is born and in which he operates. Man's interaction with the agencies in the environment affects his personality development. These agencies include, the home, the school, peer group, the church, the community.

The home is made up of the father, mother, siblings and other significant individual members of the family who play vital role in the formation and development of personality of an individual. Homes can be favourable and rich, it can be aggressive hostile and poor. Any of the types of homes can enhance or retard one's personality development. Any child who lives in an aggressive, rejecting home

grows up aggressive because he has no experience of love and he becomes submissive, insecure, nervous, hostile and sad. Over protection and over indulgence produce a withdrawn, jealous, over dependent, over demanding individual who expects every demand of his to be met. Autocratic or domineering home, home with defective discipline, all produce unhealthy personality patterns – poor adjustment, neurotic, delinquent, dependent, jealous, careless and aggressive individuals.

The school is made up of the teachers, other workers, students or pupil and structures. Both teachers and other workers influence the individual's personality either positively or negatively. The personal and professional qualities of the staff, their background characteristics are brought to be on the students' personality development. The teachers classroom behaviour, their style of leadership and the relationship between them and the students touch also on the personality development of students. Students are also shaped by the rules, regulations and life in the school. They also affect one another's personality favourably or unfavourably.

The church, community and the peer groups are also important in determining the personality of an individual, one way or the other. All the environmental factors are culture bound and they help in the transmission of the culture from one generation to another.

Even though the individual's personality is determined by biological and environmental factors,

there are some tasks he has to perform for full development of his personality.

There are growth related tasks and these are the aspects of tasks and everlasting challenges of living with one's own parents, peers and others. Therefore, there is the task of learning to live with one's own body and everything else that makes up one's own person. There is the element of task of learning to communicate satisfactorily with other persons. The individual depending on his gender still has the task of learning feminine or male role. All these tasks have their implications for personality patterns.

The personality has to organise his own structure. This means that the individual organizes perceptually that which he attends to in his environment. The people and things that affect and influence him and which he in turn affect and influence, have to be organised in his mind's eyes so that he will be able to cope with them. This experience of coping with living and interacting with his environment, brings the need for self awareness to the fore. Self awareness means interpreting the world around an individual and his relationship with it. His experience begins to thrust upon him an awareness that he is a separate entity from others, to distinguish between me and not me and make discoveries that foster self perception and these include learning.

- a. That he has a name
- b. That certain things belong to him, to be distinguished from those of others.

- c. That he is held responsible for his own behaviour
- d. Being aware of choices and opportunities available to him in the environment.

CHAPTER TWELVE

ADOLESCENT PSYCHOLOGY

Definition

Adolescence derives from *adolescere* and when defined means “to grow into maturity”. This shows adolescence as a process rather than a stage or period. Process is more dynamic and also continuous. It goes on imperceptibly. It is a critical period of human development. Those who see it as a developmental approach attach specific stages or periods in order to define adolescence. These stages are pre-adolescence, middle adolescence and late adolescence. Pre-adolescence or pubescence generally begins by the period of about two years preceding puberty. There are physical changes that take place this time and they usher in sexual maturity. It is characterized by the physical growth spurt.

Puberty is from a latin word *pubertas*, which means “age of manhood”. It is signalled by certain sexual maturity when there is hormonal and growth process. It marks when the reproductive organs begin to function and the appearance of secondary sex characteristics. Late adolescence is less definite. It lasts till physical growth is relatively complete. The physical growth may last until 19-20 years on the average.

Defined chronologically, that is defining adolescence in terms of age brackets, experts periodise it using the terms explained above. For

example, the age bracket of pre-adolescence is between 10-12 years, that of early adolescence is from 13-16 years and late adolescence lasts from 17-19 and sometimes up to 21 years (Maduka, 1982). The problem with periodisation is that no two individuals are the same. There are wide variations among individuals. A person may wear adolescent physical features but have the mind of a child. Late adolescence is when sexual urge is almost dormant for at this point an adolescent is more interested in the exploration of his environment. It is also when to give him a sense of direction socially.

In countries where life is properly organised, the law establishes who an adult is and who is not an adult. The law indicates when one should drink alcohol, when and who to have driving license, when to marry etc. Socially, the girls particularly are allowed by their mothers to make up; sons or daughters are advised when to date or when to go steady, when to attend night parties; and the father allows the son to use his car, etc. By doing this, these sensitive areas are taken care of by parents. But sometimes, some adolescents may think that their parents are interfering and there may be problem. In Nigeria, how do parents handle the adolescent in relation to the above areas?

Adolescence is a critical period of human development that is manifested at the biological, psychological and social levels of integration (Nwachukwu, 1995). Biologically, its onset is signalled by the acceleration of physiological growth and the beginning of secondary physical

development (secondary sex characteristics). At the psychological level, it is marked by acceleration of cognitive growth and personality formation. These two continue to change at a slower rate during adulthood. Socially, it is a period of intensified preparation for taking up adult role and it ends when the individual is accorded an adult prerogative. Time and nature of its termination differs greatly from society to society. Even though adolescence is defined in terms of the three levels above, it is to be noted that life is simultaneous and interactive. All the level manifest at the same time.

Adolescence, as a time period may be defined in several ways. In terms of physical development, an individual's adolescent period may be said to have begun at the time that he or she shows the first signs of making the transition to sexual maturity and to have ended when physical growth has ceased or almost ceased at about age 17 or 18. The period may also be defined in terms of social responses, beginning with the increase interest in the opposite sex that usually accompanies sexual maturity and ending with the attainment of social and financial independence from parents. Although the beginning of the adolescent period is not defined in legal terms, the ending of it is. A person is legally an adult in some respects at age 18, legally adult in all respects at age 21 in America and Britain for example.

The view is that adolescence begins when signs of sexual maturity begin to occur in both physical and social development and ends when the

individual has assumed adult roles and is accepted in most ways as an adult by his reference group – those persons towards whom he refers his behaviour for approval. Adolescence as a stage of life is not a universal phenomenon, and it is historically recent in origin. The Greeks and Romans did not view it as a separate stage, except for that short (one-to two-year) period when the actual physical change from sexual immaturity to sexual maturity occurred. The Roman Emperor Claudius was believed by all of his relatives in the Claudian and Julian families to be downright dull and slow at developing. Yet Claudius was married at 12 and a high priest at 13. This jump straight from childhood into adulthood is typical of classical cultures, and of the way of life in the middle ages and Renaissance as well. Aries (1962) notes that in the 1300s and 1400s, boys even five-year olds, went to school armed, and often had to take off their swords before they were allowed to attend classes.

Age was not a criterion in deciding what the individual should be taught, thus at Caen, France, in 1677, pupils in the primary grade ranged in age from nine to 17, and those in the highest grade ranged from 12 to 20 (Aries, 1962). Cultures were not age graded. For both those who went to school and those who did not, the age of seven was considered to be the age of adulthood in most of Western culture. After seven a person was legally responsible for his crimes, and could be hanged if the offence warranted it. After this age children went to work if they were of the working class, and all

children were free to take part in all of the activities of adult society. Young children working in mines and mills in England and the United States in the 1800s must be viewed in this context. Even today, adolescence as a social phenomenon is often absent in entire cultures. Within hunting cultures, childhood ends by age eight, and within agrarian culture by age 10 to 12 (Landis, 1945). It is only in present-day industrial culture that the period we call adolescence is an extension of childhood dependency.

Who is an Adolescent?

An adolescent is a person who has outgrown the social status of a child but has not been accorded the social and mature privileges of an adult. He is no longer a child but not yet a man. In some cultures, maturity of an individual is defined in terms of the role he plays. Even within one culture there are some variations of who an adolescent is.

In Nigeria defining who an adolescent is poses some difficulty, because it cannot be said specifically who he is in terms of the role he performs. This problem is manifested more in urban centres than in rural areas. In rural areas, his role is more precise and there is delineation of what he is expected to do by the rural culture in which he lives. Ask a man who lives in the heart of any urban centre what role he expects his son to play as an adolescent, he may not have any specific answer to give. Even when the physical and physiological characteristics are evident in the adolescent, adults sometimes are in a

dilemma of actually where to place the individual. That is why sometimes, he is branded an adult and sometimes a child.

In many cultures including Nigeria, the socio-economic background of families help either to accelerate or extend the period of adolescence. For instance, in developed countries where upper and lower classes are operational, the lower class people accord adult role to an adolescent because he is expected to be helping the family by bringing home some money. This shows he or she is working to augment the family income. This condition is true in Nigeria, where in poor families an adolescent is pushed into menial jobs to help hold the already overstretched family income in place. He may be expected to start paying school fees for younger sibling(s). In wealthy families in America, England and France, the adolescent enjoys his adolescence which extends to the appropriate time which the law allows. In Nigeria, the extension is relatively abnormal. Even at 25 years and perhaps up to 30 years once the individual is not employed, no specific role is assigned to him. He does not earn money and so he remains in the parent's home, eating off them and he expects them to be taking care of him. While his counterpart that is employed is expected to play specific role which includes helping parents, getting married and starting off his own family.

In various cultures, the transition from childhood to adolescence is clearly marked with puberty rites like teeth filing, fattening, tattooing, etc.

These help to guide or guard the behaviour of an adolescent. He will know that he is expected to behave in consonance with his age and status, otherwise sanctions in form of derogative songs and ostracism by the group are meted out to him. Each culture provides experience specifically set as part of the training and expectations of the adolescent. The group that has attained the status of adolescence may have a dance, uniform and the members perform in the village square. People attend these ceremonies. Parents are always proud of their adolescent sons and daughters if they perform well in such occasions.

Rationale for Studying Adolescent Psychology

Psychology is a behavioural science. It scientifically studies human behaviour. The study of human behaviour is done in order to understand behaviour, to predict behaviour and to control behaviour. An adolescent is a human being passing through a developmental phase from infancy and moving towards adulthood. His experiences are many and varied, sometimes favourable and at times traumatic.

The study will help the society, the parents, various governments and religious bodies and even the adolescent himself to put adolescence in its proper perspective and so help the adolescent to understand himself, his rights, privileges, what is expected of him and how to conduct himself as an adolescent. To Ofordile (2002) it is good to study the adolescent “to understand him more and more and

proffer recommendations on how best to nurture the adolescent patiently to maturity”. Pope Benedict XVI (2006) sees the need for understanding the adolescent and prays, “that young people who are searching for the sense of life may be understood, respected and accompanied with patience and love in their journey to maturity. Adolescence is studied

- (a) to understand their developmental characteristics and problems
- (b) to help them maintain good mental health
- (c) to adjust to the mental health maintained
- (d) to help them to direct their curiosity to the appropriate areas

When adolescents are nurtured patiently in the area of physical, social, moral, intellectual and emotional development, they will mature into confident individuals and be able to face the future confidently and the society will be better for it.

Perspectives and Conclusions about Adolescence

The adolescent is blamed for everything that happens in a society ranging from increase in crime, violence, suicide, cultism and political upheaval to the breakdown of traditional, familial and religious values (Ofordile, 2002).

In 1994, John Paul II describes who an adolescent is and informs us that the youth is in search of answers to some basic questions with respect to the meaning of life and how he can

concretely succeed in living this life. The Pope has touched on the primary issues of adolescence.

Many studies have been carried out in the area of adolescence and the results of the studies have thrown some light on their perception of who an adolescent is. Hall (1904) who carried out the first scientific study of adolescence came out with the result that it is a period of storm and stress as a result of accelerated growth caused by hormonal discharge into the blood. Mead's (1961) study proves that adolescence is relatively conflict-free and there is smooth transition from childhood to adulthood. Freud (1973), in his psychoanalytic study of adolescence, views the period as full of stress which is caused by the presence of hormones injected into the blood stream. The conflict between the id, ego and superego may induce some stress in the adolescent too. Erikson (1963) shows that adolescence is a period of ego identity, when the individual is searching for self. If he succeeds he sees time in the correct perspective, has self esteem becomes a role experimenter, leader/ followership seen correctly, and has sound ideological commitments.

Adolescence and Identity

The growing and developing youths, faced with this physiological revolution within them, and with tangible adult tasks ahead of them, are now primarily concerned with what they appear to be in the eyes of others as compared with what they feel they are, and with the question of how to connect the

roles and skills cultivated earlier with the occupational prototypes of the day.

The danger of this stage is role confusion. To keep themselves together they temporarily over-identify, (to the point of apparent complete loss of identity), with the heroes of cliques and crowds. This initiates the stage of “falling in love”, which is by no means entirely, or even primarily, a sexual matter – except where the mores demand it. To a considerable extent, adolescent love is an attempt to arrive at a definition of one’s identity by projecting one’s different ego image on another and by seeing it thus reflected and gradually clarified. This is why so much of young love is conversation (Erikson, 1963).

Body Change and the Self Concept

The self concept consists of an individual’s evaluation of various aspects of the self and his ideas about himself. For most psychologists, one element of the self concept consists of social roles. Another major aspect of the self concept is the development of the body image – an individual’s awareness of and acceptance of his physical self.

It is rare for an adolescent to accept his physical self. Something is always wrong-height, weight, degree of physical maturity, pimples, hair, or a multitude of other possible subjective defects which become central concerns and lead frequently to self-rejection. The physical self remains constant across a wide variety of situations that may involve very varied role demands, so that a consistent body image is generally a cause of behaviour consistency.

Role demands change rapidly in adolescence, and so does the body image during this period of rapid physical development, thus both of them, major elements of the self concept, dispose an adolescent to variable and inconsistent behaviour.

Sooner or later, each of them does come to terms with his physical self, and thereby acquires a consistent physical self identity. Usually, too, he comes to have a more positive attitude toward his physical self – perhaps because he gets used to his own physical being.

At 12 to 20 years, the person should be either in secondary school or pursuing a vocation or career or even marriage. The end of this period marks the beginning of adulthood. He can conveniently move into the next stage of intimacy versus isolation. But if the adolescent fails to achieve his ego identity, he experiences role confusion, time confusion, role fixation, work paralysis, authority confusion, value confusion and he becomes self conscious. Erikson says that adolescence is a critical period when he is expected to achieve certain tasks. Failure to do this presents some problems. He becomes a rolling stone and depends more on the directions of his parents or relations.

Harvighurst (1952) believes that the adolescent stage is a critical period in which one is expected to fulfil certain developmental tasks mapped out for each stage of development. Harvighurst views adolescence as a normal natural period of development since maturity is achieved through self discovery. His tasks are as follows:

- Accepting one's physic and accepting a feminine or masculine role.
- Achieving new and more mature relations with age mates of both sexes.
- Becoming emotionally independent of parents and other adults.
- Achieving assurance of economic independence.
- Selecting and preparing for occupation
- Developing intellectual skills and concepts necessary for civic competence.
- Deriving and achieving socially responsible behaviour.
- Preparing for marriage and family life.
- Building conscious values in harmony with adequate scientific world picture.
- Learning to play appropriate role.

The completion of these tasks might be taken as an indication that adulthood and maturity have been achieved. The most important task of the adolescent is finding himself and learning what to do with this new self. Through trial and error he eventually finds his place and proceeds towards adulthood.

Otto and Otto regard the period of adolescence as a period of storm and stress. Is this stress the characteristic of the adolescents or is it the condition of the environment— austerly measure or are they doing this because of what is internal in them, or do people condemn them for what is not their fault? The society should not always see the adolescent from the negative side and should not always blame

them when things go wrong. The ever-changing system is responsible for the behaviour of the adolescent –films, TV programmes etc which result in their mode of dressing and behaviour.

Values

The culture, as mediated by the parents and adults for the most part, conveys a set of values to each of its new members. Many of these values are not fully articulated and seldomly are verbalised by those adults holding them, yet they are conveyed in subtle and pervasive ways to the young persons. Whatever values are conveyed to the young person seems to be accepted without question for a time. In adolescence, however, perhaps as part of the quest for identity, the young person faces squarely the task of developing a set of personal values. Adolescence is a decisive period for the fate of personal morality. The youngster must accomplish two major tasks- consolidate his pattern of internal controls and move toward new values.

- In the first case, the adolescent must learn to meet and live with heightened impulses. He must find a balance between desire and constraint which will allow enough to each side.
- In the second case, the youngster must construct an individual moral philosophy, a system of values and moral conduct which, however tacit, is his own in the sense that it is

not a simple copy of what he has been told to believe.

With increasing independence from parents, the adolescent can no longer accept ready-made values he has received from them. Reasons and explanations that may have been sufficient at one time are no longer adequate. The adolescent frequently discovers that his parents do not always “tell it like it is”. The adolescent’s careful observation of adults, parents, teachers, community and national leaders, reveals flaws where previously he saw none. The adolescent’s achievement of autonomy involves a certain amount of friction between him and his parents, and some of their frictions centre around attitudes and values. Thus, today’s college student may not be required to make certain decisions that an independent self-supporting 17 year old made 30 years ago. Secondly there appears to be an important sex difference into establishment of inner controls (Douvan and Adelson, 1966) ...“Moral development in girls moves from a rather passive, childlike acceptance of parental authority to an identification with the point of view of that authority. The “transitional period of defiance seems characteristic of adolescent boys but not of girls. The adolescent’s increased intellectual development accounts also for his concern with values and beliefs. It permits him to deal with such abstractions as ‘truths’, ‘beauty’, ‘immortality’, ‘justice’ and ‘equality’. He develops a sense of perspective.

The adolescent's intellectual capacity permits him to examine the basis for beliefs and attitudes, his changing status in relation to what adults require that he does. The adolescent's wider and more diverse experiences, both social and intellectual, also prompt him to examine his own set of values. Exposure to values and beliefs different from, and at times in contradiction with those he has learned at home cause the adolescent to make comparisons, contrasts and evaluative judgment interactions and discussions with peers from different racial, religious and social class background and these frequently stimulate the kinds of researching questions to which adults have no answers. G. Stanley-Hall (1882) and his colleagues (e.g. Starbuck, 1889) believe that religious conversion was an almost necessary part of adolescence. This belief was supported by an examination of the records of itinerant evangelists, which showed a high frequency of adolescent conversions.

Rokeach (1968) has described a value system as a hierarchically arranged set of values in order of importance. Consciously or otherwise, each individual establishes priorities in terms of those behaviours, attitudes and goals that are of importance and of significance to him. Racial attitudes are learned. The primary basis for this learning is the home. The prejudices of the parents reflect the particular ethnic, social-class and geographical group with which the adolescent identifies. Later, conformity to prevailing peer group attitudes influences specific attitudes held by the

adolescent. While no sharp changes in racial attitudes are apparent throughout adolescence, there is evidence for some increase during adolescence in stereotyped thinking with regard to racial and religious groups (McNeil, 1960). That such attitudes remain relatively stable during this age period suggests that they are well established by late childhood or early adolescence.

Several implications for education can be drawn from the above discussion. Schools must attempt to provide the kinds of experiences for each child that will give him a feeling of self-worth and of self-acceptance, so that projection of blame and of negative characteristics will not be necessary. Secondly, schools can stimulate the kind of careful thinking that dispels irrational prejudice and restrictive stereotypes. Needless to say, the example set by the teacher is of great importance.

Cultural Concepts of Adolescence

There are various theories that discuss the concepts of adolescence. These theories conceptualise adolescence from various perspectives ranging from cultural, periodisation, etc. Although these theories appear established, they may mislead people if certain in-built problems arising from conceptualisation are not taken into consideration.

1. To develop some conceptual tools has been slow and tedious because it is not easy to invent adequate means to show social reality in its totality. This is because people do not see things in their total concreteness, but only

certain aspects of them, that is, those people can abstract with the use of cultural symbols. A renowned psychologist used this aphorism to describe how people see and abstract things: “first we look, then we name and only then do we see”. This is to say that people do not respond to stimuli but their definition of the stimuli.

2. What is regarded as knowledge and understanding depend on how these definitions are arrived at. If we look at the notion of relationism which states that truth is not necessarily fixed but premised on the historical and situational context in which it is found. Some cross-cultural studies have shown how repeatedly our involvement and narrowed cultural frame of reference partly institutionalise our own distortions of the truth. Hall (1959) says “culture hides much more than it reveals, and strangely enough, what it hides, it hides most effectively from its own participants”. So when we describe any particular adolescent behaviour as “ambivalent”, it directs us towards psychoanalytic conception of adolescence.
3. What we see or choose not to see depends on the concepts available to us. These are packaged ready and they are available in many and varied forms. A set of concepts may direct us to recognise anti-establishment, the generation gap, and contradicting cultural values. Another set may call our attention to

ambivalence, dependency, psycho-sexual conflicts, and resurging oedipal conflicts. Yet another may lead us to go searching for anomie in the social system, status deprivations and role confusion.

It would however be more realistic to find a better arrangement – that is a more realistic do-it-yourself kit made and tailored to the solution of or to account for the particular behaviour in question. This is what the professional should strive for – ability to find and apply the most workable combination of concepts made to solve a particular problem on hand. No matter how good the professional is he cannot work successfully with a limited inventory of narrowly-focused concepts and theories. The richer therefore, the repertoire of conceptual tools used by the professional, the more likely it will be for him to discover the combination that will be successful for understanding and dealing with particular problems.

Social Concept of Adolescence

Social approach focuses on the social and cultural determinants which in a sense create the adolescent condition. In this view, social structure and culture join to induce adolescence which essentially is an experience of passing through an unstructured and ill-defined phase that lies between childhood and adulthood.

Two factors are responsible for the gap or void in the social structure:

1. a finely established division of labour with its complex technical status structure, and
2. the failure of the cultural system to provide worthwhile ideology which will give strong identity and purposeful feeling to the adolescent.

Because the adolescent cannot determine himself in the social structure it gives rise to the emotional instability and general turbulence (Roszak, 1968).

For May (1965), the developmental tasks to be achieved by the adolescent within the society's unstructured framework include;

1. efforts to come to terms with society by getting an education, job, starting a family;
2. to come to terms with oneself in developing an identity and individual talents, and
3. to come to terms with life as a whole by acquiring a moral code and general religious beliefs. Harvighurst (1952) listed well-known essential developmental tasks which more specifically pointed towards skills, knowledge and attitude which must be mastered by the growing adolescent to avoid maladjustment and social disapproval in future years.

Growth of human beings involves specific stages of infancy, childhood, adolescence and adulthood which culminates into old age. There are various sub-divisions of these stages. These stages and their sub-divisions are generally accepted. Based on these stages, adolescence is bound to occur since it is included in one of the stages.

However, there are cultural perspectives about what adolescence is in terms of human development and what an individual is expected to achieve.

According to Ann Sieg, the stage of adolescence is not a stage that is necessary to human development, but is a mere cultural phenomenon, necessary perhaps to a culture but it is not found in all cultures.

There is much confusion as to who an adolescent is or what adolescence is. Because of the intense concern of the society about what the stage of adolescence is in response to the social, psychological problems that arise from it which disturbs the society, it is a better and more practical way to study adolescence from the point of view of its being a social problem. It has been generally regarded as a social problem rather than as a natural stage of physiological development.

Yet many definitions of adolescence relate to it as a stage of psychological development rather than a social problem. According to Sieg, none of the present definitions of adolescence does more than defining the boundaries of adolescence without explanation. They do not define adolescence in terms of behaviour which is presently causing confusion in the society and a great deal of research in the area. For this reason, Sieg suggests the following definition as the basis for a consistent approach to the study of adolescence.

Adolescence is the period of development in human beings that begins when an individual feels that adult privileges are due him which are

not being accorded to him, and that ends when the full power and social status of the adult are accorded to the individual by the society.

This definition eliminates some characteristics, which were thought to be factors relating to the stage of adolescence:

1. relationship between adolescence and puberty which, though, two of them occur at the same time, puberty is not the cause of adolescence;
2. adolescent period is not a universal occurrence so it is expected that there are cultures where there are no occurrence of adolescent disturbances;
3. the age of the individual, though it can indicate, is not relevant

The above definition indicates that the presence of adolescence depends solely on the perception of the individual as to the rights he has and those he ought to have. These rights can be acquired in a number of areas – in the family, in a psychological sense, rights in the social sense, in a legal sense – (e.g., to vote and be voted for, driving a car). The limitation of the above definition is centred on the manner of behaviour which is the result of his perception of his society. Examples, the Irish male who does not achieve full status until 35 years or more. The Negro in the USA whether teenage or adult does not acquire full status except in his immediate sub-culture. The Manus male (Mead,

1935) does not indulge in adolescent behaviour until he is 18 years.

Certain societies have refused to fit themselves into definitions of adolescence.

(a) Arapesh society in New Guinea – from 13 years after a short training, males are initiated into puberty rites and they get married to six or seven year old girls. From that period they have to solely fend for their wives until they are old enough (until menarche) to live permanently with their husbands. Here age as a factor (in definition is eliminated and so adolescence as a stage is non-existent). There are no adolescent problems.

(b) Nyakyusa village (age-graded) where there is an extended period between puberty and adult status and there seems to be no adolescent problems. This results from the fact that the change from childhood to adulthood is not abrupt. The change is regulated and predictable. The adolescents live together according to age groups with full knowledge that at a particular time the adults will hand the government to them. This marks the attainment of adult status by the young men. Though the process of marriage takes a long time, they marry around twenty years.

In Manus society, puberty occurs with no visible upset because there is a kind of in-built

relaxed atmosphere. Males get married at 18 years and at this point, they lose their freedom, autonomy and almost all rights until they become economically viable and independent to fend for their families. This phase lasts for about 15 years during which they are trained to be humble and meek and at the same time to be sulky and resent certain training types. At this time too, they do everything possible to gain economic independence, acquire land and so gain full adult status in their society. In this culture, adolescence occurs from the time of marriage at 18 years to about 35 years.

In Ireland, there is extended adolescent period in which the men achieve adult status only when they own land. The reason is that land is scarce and only the first son has the right of inheritance. The younger sons remain without full adult status until they can own land by a rare chance or they join the priesthood, as a second chance to adulthood. As a result, males of 35 years may not be accorded adult status and they rebel as typical adolescents do. In Ireland there is prolonged adolescence.

With the definition by Sieg, the Negro male in the USA is perceived to be in a state of permanent adolescence because he is never accorded full adult status unlike their white counterparts who enjoy adult rights from about 18 years. This complete lack of power frustrates him, makes him rebellious, irresponsible, tend towards crime and sexual excesses and establishment of sub-cultures. The above are the characteristics of American white adolescents especially the juvenile delinquents,

which because of permanent state of adolescence the Negro males no matter the age tend to exhibit these traits/characteristic of white juveniles. The whites do not resent the term 'old boy' which the Negro males hate to be called.

In a simple society, the direct relationship between the adolescent's frustration of need and his reaction toward this frustration is prominent. In a more complex society, the manifestation of the need frustration is not easily noticed. There are many major categories of manifestation.

1. It is the basic need to attain full power and recognised adult social status. But when these are delayed for a short period after puberty, the alternative – the symbols of power will suffice – for example, cars, money, sexual freedom etc, are the symbols in Western culture.
2. When there is no hope of ever having the full power or acceptance as an adult, the power- seekers among the adolescents may resign from society and create sub-cultures of their own that will give them power status at their level. Examples of such sub-cultures include the passive Negroes, the New York street gangs, the Hippies. These power seekers hide under the cloak of "lowering the rights serves the ego".
3. The third group lies in between the first group – those who accept symbols in lieu of full power and adult status and those who will resign from the society. This group

comprises those who latently possess those things valued by the society but are not able to have them and so show their contempt through attacking those same values in the society. This is a destructive group such as – the juvenile delinquents who are acting in defiance to the social rules and they are identified for their “disregard for people’s and public property, reckless living for the moment, paucity (small amount) of experience and emotional superficiality, lack of basic principles and lack of sense of responsibility” (Fyvel, 1961)

4. Through studies in the area of philosophy of social groups, a fourth group has emerged in opposition to social majority. The philosophy of the members of this group is, “I do not want society’s so-called valued things, not because I cannot have them but simply because they are valueless.

This last group maintains a certain calmness and it is not noticed that there is frustration in the adolescence. They see themselves as not being owed/ denied certain powers which they do not have, since their power is already partly possessed by virtue of the fact that they are in close community with those of similar age group who have similar beliefs. This group of young people may be approaching a condition that is characteristic of lack of adolescence.

Goethal, G.W. on Adolescence

Goethal addressed himself on two differing issues. These he called “theoretical regularities”.

The first theoretical regularity is the regularity of differentiation. By this he means that in all societies there comes a time in the life cycle of the human being when he or she is recognised as no longer a child but not yet an adult. This differentiation occurs in varying ways. For instance, there are psychological and physiological changes during puberty. Biological changes in body structure move the adolescents away from childhood and the newness of these changes still keeps them from being in the world of adults. Some others (anthropologists) believe that these changes occur but they focus their attention on variables. When adults view these changes they accord the young ones a different status accomplished through the rite of passage. There is an initiation rite which is important because it is a rite of differentiation.

Concept of reciprocity – This connotes that both the parents and the young adolescent reciprocally agree that change has occurred and so the rite of initiation is arranged for the adolescents to go through. This rite will move the child into adolescence.

Regularity of authority. This is viewed not only from the issue of the old over the young, but about who has the authority and the question of who takes the initiative in the differentiation process. Who is responsible for the contract of reciprocity? Is it the parents that will first welcome the young into the

adult world or is it the adolescent who demands that admission? However, all societies have mechanisms for determining appropriate sex role, the acceptable sexual mores of those biologically mature but not yet economically responsible.

Patterns of Adolescent Experience

These patterns are woven around differentiation and reciprocity and they are:

1. Geethal named the first one – adolescence by age grade. This is found in primitive and rural societies. In this first pattern the young are supervised through various schools and rituals until they are fit to be admitted into adult world. The training shows differentiation and admission shows reciprocity.
2. The second pattern dramatises a “particular moment” in an individual’s life as being the time he ceases to be a child and now begins to be an adult. It is a kind of initiation rite which symbolically plucks the young man from the world of women and plunges him into the world of men.
3. For this third pattern, Erikson has suggested the need for psychosocial moratorium as part of adolescent experience. This means a time when the young and their parents agree to a period of non-commitment during which decisions about such matters as one’s social role, one’s occupation and one’s friendships and

intimacies can be approached without the tension both of them experience. For example, Mead has shown that the Samoan adolescent is permitted a time of freedom before the assumption of family responsibilities. Nyakyusa in Africa requires their adolescent to move away completely from adult world, formulate their own ideas about themselves and when they feel they can act like an adult return to the village.

Goethal is suggesting that certain universal problems have to be faced, for instance, the problems of differentiation, reciprocity and authority and that as these problems are faced one tends to become an adult by age grading, by initiation or by experience of moratorium.

Suggestions for Regenerating the Image of the Adolescent

1. To look at the adolescent as a person who is fully engaged in the process of clarifying and developing his identity. They need to be helped in this direction, to explore new ideas, concepts, and changes in order to achieve self actualisation.
2. The adolescent symbolises the human potential actively committed to self realisation. He knows that he has the potentials to shoot to whatever level and so he has the future in his hands. Encourage him to settle for the very best.

3. The adolescent brings in new ideas which he wants the adults (parents) to share and he expects them to accept these new ideas. He acts as catalysts through questions. He really wants to know how, when and why, the cause/effect of something.
4. He represents a force for social and institutional regeneration. He is an astute or keen critic of our social or institutional structures. He asks penetrating questions, raises fundamental issues, expresses new ideas, and shows integrity and commitment to values. He rebels when the institutions are disorganised and by extension he too becomes disorganised.
5. The adolescent represents the wave of the future and by this he is calling attention to his dress pattern, hair style, music, dance which the adults do not like but later get used to and tolerate.

Smith and Coleman observe that the youth develop their own culture from adult culture which they are forced to conform to. The youth culture controls their behaviour. Youth culture dominates youth behaviour in those areas most important to peer relation. It teaches and approves norms of sexual intimacy that are tabooed by adult norms.

Smith and Coleman identify two fundamental characteristics of the youth culture:

1. Solidarity (conformity)
2. Concealment of behaviour (secrecy)

These help to support the culture. The two institutions that support the youth culture are

1. Dating: an occasion when a person arranges to meet someone he likes/loves in a romantic way. To have a romantic/love relationship with someone.

Gains from Dating

- a. Laying foundation for married life
 - b. Helping to make useful choices for the adolescent and partner
 - c. Making compromises – overlooking faults of others.
2. The clique: this is an important sentiment binding group whose relationship is based on norms and strong affectionalities. It protects its members from adult authorities and sanctions. Secrecy is an important factor.

Conflict Areas Between Adolescents and Adults

These are crucial areas where adults (parents) and adolescents have sharp disagreements. Somewhere along the line, some of the conflict areas may be resolved. These conflict areas include (American situation):

1. Censoring of youth culture
2. Dating
3. Use of dad's car
4. Self fulfilling prophesy

5. Conformity among the youth concerning their culture
6. Secrecy of adolescent culture
7. Over-indulgence
8. Making choices for them
9. Situation/type of home
10. Biological birth value
11. Rapid social change
12. Alienation and anomie
13. Conflict of status
14. Competition and conflict of authority
15. Accommodation – no one is to be treated with partiality (Maduka, 1982)

How do parents in Nigeria view the above conflict areas? Even though the conflict areas are observed to be the situation in America, the experience in Nigeria shows that most of the conflict areas are applicable. They happen here too. The problem involved is that neither the adolescent nor the adult is ready most times to study the situation and see the need to understand and adjust.

Characteristics of Development During Adolescence

Development is qualitative in nature and it implies an increasingly progressive maturing and organisation of personality and character. Areas of development include:

- social development
- physical development
- intellectual development

- emotional development
- moral development

Social Development

This has to do with interpersonal relationship of the adolescent and other individuals and groups. He affiliates himself with his peers and has very firm ties and bonds with them. He conforms to their mode of behaviour and their social pressures. He attaches great importance to their opinions and attitudes, standards and principles. This conformity may sometimes go bizarre especially in dressing, appearance, speech, sexual life, manners, music, in order to adjust to peer group behaviour. Adjustment provides means for achieving personal security, self worth and self esteem. In early adolescence the form of peer groups is the 'crowd' and within the group there are 'cliques' which are small, selective, restricted, impenetrable and closely knitted. Heterosexual relationship is prominently noticed. Social groupings include

1. Chums: inseparable and confidants, imitate each other in almost everything – dressing, music, heterosexual relation;
 2. Cliques: small and exclusive, gives feelings of security, friendship, more devoted to clique value than to family values, render assistance in times of need.
 3. Crowds: groups of several cliques having the same interests, encourage loyalty, getting along with the members of the opposite sex.
- Nwachukwu (1995)

At this stage, the individual is in search of personal identity for he wants to be on his own. He no longer wants to seek identity from his parents but seeks after social independence. The adolescent is expected to have a different outlook from that of his middle childhood. The expectation of the significant people in his life like parents and other members of the family tend to encourage this independence by allowing them to exercise the independence which they were not allowed before. At this point, they are allowed to go out and probably may stay later than before. They can be allowed the use of the family car or to bring their friends home especially those of the opposite sex, since there is an amount of increased social privileges.

Both the parents and the adolescent express a feeling of ambivalence on the question of independence. Ambivalence on the part of parents is expressed when they wish their children to be independent and at the same time wishing they are not. As their children grow up, parents are growing older. In the course of time, the children will all leave and parents are left alone and lonely in the house. Parents express joy and sadness when this reality is manifesting before them. This is the state of ambivalence, signifying parents wanting their children to grow up and at the same time wanting the opposite.

On the part of the adolescent, ambivalence manifests itself when he faces a state of uncertainty. He wants to become independent and at the same time he wants to be dependent because he realises it

is not easy to become an adult which may involve making his own difficult decisions unlike before when parents made decisions for him.

He faces parental patterns of authority which may give pleasant, harmonious and encouraging experience or may not. If the parents are democratic in the exercise of authority in the home, they encourage the adolescent to take part in decision making in the home and is also allowed some level of freedom. If the parents are permissive ones, they give complete freedom to the adolescent to do what he wants to do, where and when to do it. He is in control of what to wear, where to go, when to go and when to come back. There is little or no supervision and control on the part of parents. But if the parents exercise autocratic control over the adolescent, he may revolt against his parents' rigid attitudes towards them. Of these three, the best is the democratic pattern, but it is good to use the other two when occasions call for them. It is better to use the democratic pattern but none can be used to the exclusion of others.

An adolescent wants to belong to his group and do things the way the members do. This longing to belong is the search for personal identity, search for the group which he can identify with. This is seen in their way of dressing, walking, playing music and other ways of doing different things. He now begins to take interest in the members of the opposite sex. This is known as heterosexual interest which comes up in later adolescence. This is natural because it is a demonstration of being grown up. Parents expect it

to occur and if it does not, then something has gone wrong.

The Meaning and Evidence of Social Maturation

Perhaps one of the most glaring features of social maturation is the ability to make and keep friends. To be effective in social relationship, the individual must acquire some social skills which would help him to deal with people beautifully with understanding. This means that each person has to be conscious of other people's interests, feelings, their growth and be supportive of other people's feelings and personal worth. In crucial situations, social maturation is evidenced by what is called poise, courtesy and a well controlled temper even under severe pressure or in a situation of emergency. The index of social maturity is loss of egocentricity. As the child matures, he loses self centredness and becomes nurturant – his interest focuses on other people's feelings and he begins to take their views.

Physical Development

Adolescence ushers in a lot of changes in both sexes in relation to physical development. These changes are as a result of hormonal activity. Growth and change are noticed more this time than at any other period in people's life span.

Physical Changes in Adolescence

It should be recognised that although adolescence is a period of rather rapid physical change, there is still a clearly discernible continuity between a given individual's physical development in childhood and his development in adolescence. Persons who are tall as children tend to be tall at adolescence and adulthood (Shuttle-Worth, 1939). Body types (ectomorph, mesomorph, endomorph) remain relatively constant over time (Sheldon, Stevens and Tucker, 1940). The pre-adolescent growth spurt is the first harbinger of the changes that occur in the individual during adolescence. Rapidity of growth results from complex interactions of various endocrine glands. The growth of genital organs with associated changes in glandular secretions, slows and ultimately halts growth. The individual undergoing the changes that lead from sexual immaturity to sexual maturity is said to be in the pubertal stage of development. It is extremely difficult to say exactly when a person has become sexually mature (has passed through the age of puberty) but a number of different indices are used. These are discussed below.

General Indices of Development: Each person, before becoming completely mature, is at a number of ages at any given moment in time. We usually think of our age as our chronological age (CA), but the person who is chronologically 13 may be more or less than 13 according to a number of other measures. The person of CA 13 might have a mental age (MA) of 15 or, for that matter, of MA of 6 or 8

depending on what age group he is nearest in terms of intellectual functioning. In the same fashion, this 13-year old may be a number of different ages in terms of physical development. Some 13 year olds are almost fully adult in various kinds of physical development, while others are children who have not yet become pubescent. Probably the most frequently used index of physiological maturity is skeletal age. The number of bones present in the body (about 270 at birth, 250 at puberty, and 206 at adulthood) varies as bones form and later fuse together. While this change in absolute number goes on, individual bones change from cartilage and osteoblasts (areas within the incipient bone from which ossification proceeds) to bone. These changes in number of bones and in ossification of given bones are orderly and sequential, so that by determining where an individual is in this developmental sequence, his skeletal age is also determined.

If a 13 year old is skeletally 11 years and 1 month old, we know with a high degree of certainty that puberty will be quite late as compared with agemates and that growth in height will continue for a longer period of time.

Olson (1949) has proposed that we assess an individual's developmental status by making use of a number of ages – mental age, reading age, height age, weight age, dental age and skeletal age. He suggests that these ages usually run together (e.g. a person of CA 15 usually is about 15 years old on these other indices of age) but that a look at deviations across these various ages is of value.

Sexual Indices of Development: A number of different criteria exist for the determination of the sex or gender of any person. The different criteria for sexual identity described by Hampson and Hampson (1961) are: chromosomal sex, gonadal sex, hormonal sex, sex of internal organs, sex of external organs, assigned sex (sex of rearing), and psychological sex (gender role).

Sexual Changes in Girls: A number of changes occur as sexual maturity is reached by girls. For example, breast development can be classified into one of a number of stages, ranging from the 'bud' – an enlargement and protrusion of the nipple, to the fully mature breast – and changes in amount and type of body hair can be chronologically ordered. However, the most frequently used measure of sexual maturity for girls is whether they have reached menarche, the age of first menstruation, or whether they have not. Differences in age of menarche within any one generation are large, and have considerable impact on the personality and social adjustment of those who are most deviant from the mean. Parents complain that dating, dancing, interest in the other sex, and the wearing of more mature clothing and of cosmetics is beginning earlier now than before.

Sexual Changes in Boys: There is no such single useful marker as menarche in the investigation of sexual maturity in males. The Crampton criteria (Crampton, 1908a, 1908b) most frequently are used to place males along a continuum of sexual development. These criteria

have to do with the maturity of the pubic hairs and involve three major stages; unpigmented (prepubescent), pigmented but straight (pubescent) and pigmented and kinky (post-pubescent). There is no one-to-one correspondence between stages of development according to the Crampton criteria and the ability to produce spermatozoa, so that the exact age at which the average male reaches sexual maturity cannot be stated with accuracy, because of differences in the area of maturation.

Physical changes in the adolescents are noticed as follows (Uba, 1982)

Girls	Boys
<p>Girls exhibit the following characteristics</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - depositing of fat on the hip - skin gets smooth, becomes more rounded and more beautiful - breast and the body size develop - the pelvis widens, gets rounded and beautiful contours peculiar to girls begin to show - hair begins to appear at the armpits, pubic region and sometimes on the 	<p>Males show the following characteristics</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - appearance of pigmented hair in the armpit, pubic region, face and other areas - change in voice and elongation of limbs - appearance of Adam's apple - external genitals begin a period of rapid growth - average age of the onset of

<p>hands and legs</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - first menstruation “menarche” may appear - girls mature at 12.50 – 13.50 - breasts start budding at puberty and fully mature between 18 and 19 years - primary sex characteristics have rapid growth – vagina, ovary, etc - girls achieve puberty at 13 years. 	<p>puberty is between 13-14 years</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - primary sex characteristics – penis and testes grow rapidly between 17-19 years - boys achieve puberty at 15 years
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Primary sex characteristics are the organs (internal and external) which are responsible for reproduction. Secondary sex characteristics are those that distinguish male from female. These have no direct contribution toward reproduction. These include development of breasts, round shape for girls, broad shoulders for boys etc. Within both sexes there are variations in their rate of growth and development and from one individual to another. Girls mature sexually earlier on the average than boys.

Intellectual Development

To deal with intellectual development, Piaget's formal operations will be our reference point. He came out with the result after his research that during formal operations, an adolescent can discuss intelligently, given his own opinion and he has choice to accept or reject other people's opinion. He can think in abstraction, hypothesize, present logical and systematic arguments and can do comparisons of things, events and ideas. He is able to take a stand on an issue and be ready to defend it. He can question the why and how of an event or action. He thinks about his identify. His career and plans for the future including marriage. The skills below made possible the universal personality characteristics to develop.

Orientation towards the future

Preoccupation with a life span

Orientation toward ideology

Criticism of established institutions

Commitment to future changes

Contemplation: mysticism and romantic love

Social values: humanity, freedom justice, nationality etc (Nwachukwu 1995).

Moral Development

From pre-adolescent years, the individual develops the concept of what is wrong and what is right. Conformity is a must in order to be accepted by his peers. During adolescence he has achieved some values and mores in the areas of personal and

social obligations and privileges in the context of those of others. At this period, he internalizes the orientation he has acquired and develops his own moral principles and values, to guide him. The value and cultures of the adolescent differ from those of the authority. They value justice.

Emotional Development

People express various emotions in the form of alarm, despair, joy, pity, grief, fear, anger, love, hatred, sadness, happiness etc. This shows that emotion can be expressed either in a negative or positive sense. Emotion occurs when people are satisfied with or frustrated in the achievement of a need desire, etc.

At this period, according to Nwachukwu (1995) the adolescent expresses love to another of the opposite sex. They now learn to transfer love from same sex to the opposite sex (heterosexual relationship) and they act in so many ways to express or show this – the boys tease the girls, pull their hair, follow them around, hang at street corner waiting for them, act as sort of guards for them, and shield their girls from other boys. They can attack and fight any boy that tries to play funny around their lover. The loved girls feel popular and may respond to the approaches of the boys in varied ways. Close to the end of adolescence, they now begin to narrow their choice of girls; meaning that they select from the range of female lovers they have. The selection may eventually lead to marriage.

PROBLEM AREAS OF ADOLESCENCE

These may involve delinquency and crime, and sometimes some psychological problems. It has been observed that both biological and environmental influences may be responsible for these problems.

- Excess passion and sensuality (Shakespeare in Merchant of Venice).
- Irrational, hasty, hot blooded behaviour (Romeo and Juliet)
- Cultism,
- Suicide,
- Schizophrenia a kind of psychosis characterized by the break down of integrated personality, withdrawal from reality, emotional disturbance, distortion of thoughts and behaviour.
 - (a) Neurosis affects the behaviour less. Only part of his personality is affected.
 - (b) Psychosis is a mental illness more serious than neurosis. It is a severe personality disorder and there is complete loss of contact with reality.
- Conflict-ridden life;
- Drugs and substance use;
- Homosexuality/lesbianism. Homosexuality is an abnormal situation where two males express sexual relationship to each other. It is situational. Lesbianism is the opposite of homosexuality. Unlike homosexuals, lesbians have choice and call still approach an opposite sex.

- Alcohol and cigarette'
- Anorexia Nervosa is a condition in which the individual finds most food inedible or revolting. Found mostly in female adolescents.

WHAT MAKES TEENS TICK

Dr. Jay Giedd is the chief of brain imaging in the child psychiatry branch at the National Institute of Mental Health. He started out investigating the developmental origins of attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder and autism, but soon he discovered that so little was known about how the brain is supposed to develop. He also discovered that it was impossible to figure out where things might be going wrong.

Before Giedd started his imaging studies, scientists and doctors in neurological and other institutions believe that by the time the child reached the age of twelve, the brain was largely a finished product. Giedd conclude that not only was the brain full grown in size but that Piaget's formal operation, the highest level of cognitive development emerges at twelve years. In the past there were initiation rites performed by children after which they were sent to start learning trades at the onset of puberty. Some theorists therefore concluded from this that the idea of adolescence was an artificial construct, a phenomenon invented in the post-Industrial Revolution years.

Do teens really tick? Yes, the brain and its contents are responsible for this. Many known American scientists believe that by the age of 12

years, the brain is largely a finished product and full grown in size. This corresponds to Piaget's formal operation – 12 years and above. From Times (2004) it is learnt that Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) studies detected some physiological changes which may account for emotional outbursts, reckless risk taking and rule breaking, impassioned pursuit of sex, drugs, rock 'n' roll etc. Some experts believe that the structural changes seen at adolescence may explain the timing of such major mental illnesses such as schizophrenia and bipolar disorders. These diseases typically begin in adolescence and contribute to high rate of teen suicide acts.

It has been the belief of psychologists that "raging hormones" have been solely responsible for the wild conduct of the adolescent. Another responsible factor has emerged: - paucity of the cognitive controls needed for mature behaviour. Most brain development follow a set pattern with change-following cues found in the genes. There are other more subtler changes in grey matter reflecting experience and environment. The brain, more than any other organ is where experience becomes flesh. The ferment in the teenage brain is as a result of its slow growth process over the course of childhood.

By 6 years, the brain is 90% 95% of its adult size. Humans achieve their maximum brain-cell density between the third and sixth month of gestation. During the final months before birth, the brain undergoes pruning to eliminate unnecessary brain cells. Autism is believed to occur as a result of insufficient abnormal prenatal pruning. Giedd

discovered that a second wave of proliferation and pruning that occurs later in childhood and the critical part of this second wave which affects man's highest mental functions occurs during late adolescence.

Scientists believe that pruning is guided by genetic or use-it-enclose-it principle. Edelman in Times (2004) has described that process as "neural Darwinism" – survival of the fittest (synapses). Our hobby or how we spend our time may be critical. It is learnt from research that those who practice piano have their neurons quickly thickened in the brain region that controls the fingers. Cab drivers who memorise all the city streets usually have large hippocampus, a structure involved in memory.

No matter how brain turns out, brain development proceeds in stages, generally,

- (a) from back to front. Some regions at the back of the brain reach maturity earliest through proliferation and pruning and the regions mediate direct contact with the environment by controlling such sensory functions as vision, hearing, touching and spatial processing,
- (b) areas that coordinate those functions: are the parts of the brain that help light switch in his room even if the room is dark,
- (c) frontal cortex – the very last part of the brain to be pruned and shaped to its adult dimensions. The frontal cortex is the home of the so-called executive functions which are planning, setting priorities, organising

thoughts, suppressing impulses, weighing the consequences of one's actions.

When the brain switches from proliferation to pruning, there is hormonal assault which the body experiences. Both hormonal rage and puberty occur at the same time since two of them are linked. But, however, development must take place whether puberty comes early or not. Psychologists have since attributed the turmoil and unpredictability of adolescent behaviour to biochemical unslaught. At puberty the ovaries and testes start to pour estrogene and testosterone into the blood stream, spurring the development of the reproductive system and other characteristic of the period. At this time too, the adrenal glands begin to circulate and they are extremely active in the brain. They also regulate mood and excitability. The sex hormones are especially active in the brain's emotional centre- the limbic system and this creates a tinderbox of emotions says (Dahl in Times 2004). Dahl says that adolescents are looking for experiences where they can create intense feelings. He concludes that there is hormone-brain relationship contributing to the appetite for thrills, strong sensations and excitement.

Steinberg in Times (2004) emphasizes that the parts of the brain responsible for sensation seeking manifest greatly around the time of puberty. But the parts for exercising judgement are still at their maturing level throughout the course of adolescence. So there is this time gap between when things impel

kids toward taking risks early in adolescence and when things that allow people to think before they act come on line. “It is like turning on the engine of a car without a skilled driver at the wheel, Steinberg concludes.

Apart from peer pressure, attraction to novelty and their overwhelming interest in loosening sexual inhibitions, researchers have raised the possibility that rapid changes in dopamine – rich areas of the brain-may be another contributory factor in making teens vulnerable to the stimulating and addictive effects of drugs and alcohol. Dopamine is the brain chemical that is involved in motivation and in bringing about reinforcing behaviour. It is very much in abundance. Giedd concludes that the best estimate for when the brain is truly mature is 25 years, the age at which one can rent a car in the USA. So because of the nature of the brain of the adolescent, a second look can be taken on death penalty which is sometimes applied to juveniles. It might be much better and more useful to help them to make up for what their brain still lacks by providing structures, organising their time, guiding them through tough decisions (even when they resist) and applying those time tested parental virtues of patience and love.

CHAPTER THIRTEEN

SPECIAL EDUCATION

Introduction

Special education is education within the frame work of general education which is put in place for those who are impaired, disabled, exceptional or handicapped. The arrangement for special education differs from general education because special education makes use of specialised teachers, methods, equipments and strategies for those children with disabilities. The special arrangement made is because the children are diverse or heterogeneous, have differences in the way they operate and sometimes there are similarities. Taking note of the differences and of similarities in the way they perform certain tasks, will help in the use of appropriate curriculum for them.

Special education needs is identified as needs of all children and young persons which arise from disabilities or learning difficulties or problems. As a result of this, education providers will have to find ways of educating those children who are faced with serious learning difficulties.

The National Policy on Education (NPE) section 10 of 2004 classifies those children who have special needs into three main groups

- (a) Children with disabilities
- (b) Children of migrant workers
- (c) Children who are gifted and talented

Focus is going to be on (a) above. The people that may indicate or nominate those with special education needs are the parents, the teachers, doctors, school counsellors and the peer group.

Concepts in Special Education

Impairment is a kind of block or impediment placed against an individual as he functions in his environment. In impairment there is loss of parts of the body or systems of the body that do not work at all.

Exceptionality: This is a term used to identify patterns of strengths and needs common to group of strengths. These strengths and needs may be cognitive, emotional, behavioural, medical, social and physical. Children with exceptionality may have school services depending on the degree of severity. A child who has exceptionality has some area of functioning in which he or she is significantly different from an established norm. Exceptionality ranges from an extreme mental disability to those who are gifted, creative or talented.

Exceptional children are those who deviate from the normal ones, from what is supposed to be the normal or average of their group. Exceptionality or the deviation may fall on either side – that is, exceptional children may be significantly below or significantly above average in the various aspects of human growth and development. Such children are therefore exceptionally inferior or superior to the normal children in all areas of development. They need special care and education for their proper

adjustment and maximum utilization of their abilities.

Crow and Crow (1973) defined 'exceptional' as applied to a trait or to a person possessing the trait if the extent of deviation from normal possession of trait is so great that because of it the individual warrants or receives special attention from his fellows and his behaviour, responses and activities are thereby affected.

Telford and Sawrey (1977) refer to the term exceptional children as those children who deviate from the normal in physical, mental, emotional or social characteristics to such a degree that they require special social and educational services to develop to their maximum capacity. The above definitions may help us to draw the following conclusions as to the nature and characteristics of exceptional children

- Exceptional children are quite deviant, distinct and different from the average or normal children.
- Their deviation from the normal or average may fall on either side: negative (-) or positive (+) in any dimension or aspect of their personality like physical, mental, social, emotional and moral etc.
- However, the differentiation and deviation from the normal or average with respect to possession of a particular trait (making one exceptional) must be so great that on account of it (i) he may experience unusual or peculiar problems regarding his adjustment to the self and the environment and (ii) may also require

special type of upbringing, care and education for his adjustment, proper growth and development as well as for nurturing of capabilities.

Learners with Disabilities

No two children are exactly alike in their ways of learning and behaving in their activities and preferences, in their skills and motivation. Learners are supposed to be taken care of in their individual differences since schools cannot practically and affectively meet the precise needs of every student. Grouping according to exceptionalities/disabilities such as learning or vision loss; orthopaedic disabilities, mental disability emotional or behavioural disorders; learning disabilities that restrict their ability to participate in the general school programme without special assistance. Some learners are endowed with outstanding talents that make it difficult for the general classroom teacher to meet their unique needs without assistance.

To receive special education services, a student must have one of a small number of the above categories of disabilities or disorders. The labels used above such as specific 'learning disabilities', 'mental retardation and 'orthopaedic impairments cover a wide varieties of problems. Labels sometimes stick to the extent that 'change' becomes difficult and can eventually become handicaps for the student. Therefore education and teachers should not use labels in such a way that they dehumanise stigmatise and segregate them socially from their peers or encourages discrimination against them in

any form. (Hehir 2007 in Slavin 2009). “Learners with disabilities are used to describe individuals whose physical, mental or behavioural performances is so different from the norm positive or negative that additional or extra services are needed or required to meet the individuals’ needs.

Language of Referring to people with Disabilities

Our language and choices of vocabulary, terminology used in respect of referring to the above named people should convey respect for them. In doing this Smith, (2001) has two principles.

- a. In addressing/describing each person, call the name refer or use his first, name e.g. Ifeanyi, is a student with a learning disability – not a learning disabled student. He is a student first and foremost, his learning disability is secondary
- b. Do not make the individual equal to the disability – he has other characteristics of which disability is one of them.

In physical dimension, there are children who have unusual physical abilities and capacities in the area of height, weight, physical strength and stamina on the positive side and on the negative side, physical disabilities and handicaps - orthopedically challenged. In the mental dimensions there are intellectual geniuses on the positive side and educationally slow learners, backward and mentally retarded (disabled) children on the negative side.

Handicap: A handicap is defined as a condition, barrier or block imposed by the environment or the self. It is a functional limitation that interferes with a persons mental, physical or sensory abilities (Slavin 2009).

Disability is physiological in nature. It restricts an individual to the point that he lacks the ability to perform activities within the normal range. He has restricted functioning ability (Lesi, 2011) Some types of disability are: hearing and visual impairments, mental disability, down syndrome or trysomy 21, attention deficit/hyperactive disorder, autism, cerebral palsy etc.

Historical Perspectives

There were two major categories. These are the African perspectives and the educational philosophical contemporary perspectives.

African Perspectives

In the African perspectives, the people could not explain at the time why some children would be born disabled or develop disability as development progresses. So the children who had one form of disability or the other were left at home, abandoned, isolated, uncared for and there was no academic provision for them. There was this notion that these disabilities were as a result of supernatural powers, curses or punishment as consequences for their sins against their deity. Therefore there was no provision even for the native medical treatment. Pregnant women were not allowed to see them in order to avoid giving birth to such babies. Sometimes some of these disabled babes were killed

or abandoned in the 'evil forest' and so such women were not allowed to go there for any reason. If there was opportunity some of such babies were sold probably for rituals.

The practices or perspectives were traditional in nature and were carried out as a result of ignorance and traditional religious believes. How do we see these practices and the practitioners in this present age. They were not informed and had no idea what caused these conditions, what they were and how to cope with them. The people thought that they could not perform any kind of task, therefore there was no need for them to live. For the society and even parents and relations it was too much to cope with their normal children and then the added burden of the handicapped and the disabled.

Philosophical Period: It was in philosophical period that the idea of educating children with disabilities came up. It was not quite recent. The idea of making education available to the children was brought about mostly through protests, agitations and awareness creation from parents. The parents expected that the children should be cared for and educated by the society while the society thought it the responsibility of the parents to care for their children. But already the parents were being weighed down by the burden of looking after their normal children. And so they simultaneously pressurised the government for action. As a result of this pressure, governments of many western nations promulgated laws in respect of the disabled and also tried to enforce them. As a result of this, there came up the social welfare scheme. Even at this point,

parents were not satisfied because there was no educational arrangement for the children. Eventually special schools were provided for them. Through the activities of the disabled in schools, it was found that the children could perform certain functions and skills. Thus, began the journey of special education. The outcome of special education was various tests that were put in place by psychologists in order to ascertain the level, especially, of their intellectual disability. These psychologists include:

Binet – Classification of mental disability and with Simon developed a test on intelligence quotient.

Spearman – evolved specific factor (s) for specific performance and general factor (G) for general performance.

Piaget – propounded a theory on intellectual development that has four stages. For him, the highest stage is formal operations.

The results of the tests showed that the disabled children can perform certain functions including those of cognitive and that they can be developed. They themselves became interested in learning and the society became interested in training them. So it was as a result of parental pressures that special education came into being.

The Nigerian perspectives

In the very early part of the 19th and up to 20th century, such children suffered untold hardships until people began to understand their plight. It was

at this point that attention was directed towards their needs.

Sudan United Mission (SUM) was said to be the first to introduce this kind of education in the early 20th century when it established homes for freed slaves as well as leprosy settlements.

In March 1953 SUM founded the Gindiri School for Blind children in Plateau State area. It was residential in nature and the curriculum was the general one. Some of the blind gained admission into regular secondary schools and did well academically. David Forbes, a teacher in Northern Nigeria, in 1909 began educating those who were visually impaired, probably to help in teaching religion.

Forshey in 1983 established home for thousands of people who were visually impaired in Kano. He established classes for them between 1939 and 1940. It has ceased to exist. This later formed the nucleus of the Kano school for the Blind.

Other missions included CMS (Church Missionary Society),

Baptist Mission, Catholic Arch. of Lagos,

CMS/Salvation Army established school for the blind in Oji River in 1958. It lasted till 1970 when the government of the then East Central State took over the school.

Mrs West of Baptist Mission from USA established a school for the visually impaired in Ogbomosho, which was opened on July 2 1960.

On November 10, 1962 the then Western Region of Nigeria opened a centre, first of its kind in the West. The school was a step towards making the visually

impaired, socially and economically independent and to face challenges and possibilities that came their way. In the school, they learned farming techniques, making of crafts, baskets, cushions and mattresses. The centre had primary school section and their learners were able to proceed to secondary and tertiary institutions.

The Catholic Arch - Diocese of Lagos established Pacelli School for the visually (blind) impaired on June 16th, 1962 in Surulere, Lagos, it was entrusted to Irish sisters until 1981. It is regarded as the most outstanding school of its kind. Primary school curriculum was being followed with Braille reading and writing, typing and mobility training, music for recreation and possible income generating avenues. The school had high standard from primary to secondary schools and the children could move to tertiary institutions.

We have so far dealt with visual impairment or visually disabled. Now let us look at the institutions for hearing impairment. In 1974, Miss Allison, a retired social worker and a few others in the Ministries of Health and Education established school for those that had hearing impairment. According to Adedogbe's report the school formed the nucleus of Yaba Methodist Church. By 1961 there were 5 classes for hearing impaired children.

Dr. Andrew J. Foster was a learning impaired educator. Following on his success in Ghana, he set up mission schools for the deaf in 1960 and in 1975 he founded other schools for such children in Kaduna and Nsukka. These were closed down in 1967. After the war that of Nsukka merged with that

of government and his mission school merged with what is now Ibadan school for the deaf in Sango area of the town. From his base at Ibadan, he extended his pioneering work by training the hard of hearing as clergymen and classroom instructors who were later used to expand educational services to the hearing in Nigeria and beyond. In 1965 Mrs. Oyesola opened a school for the young deaf in Ibadan.

Today there are so many of such schools all over Nigeria. In the area of intellectual or multiple disabilities, there are as follows

- a. Government own residential institutions.
- b. Those owned by well meaning individuals.

Such schools are (i) Children's Developmental Centre set up in 1996 to provide services for children and young adults with developmental disabilities. Focus is on a holistic multidisciplinary approach. At the site of the school, you find skill acquisition programmes, runs catering services, candle making services managed by the therapists and the students. It has 3 other centres in three states of the Federation and it has continued to train educational health and social personnel for capacity building. (ii) Down syndrome foundation of Nigeria found by Mrs. Rose Mordi in 2001 to provide focused instruction for such children. This is located at 43 Adegoke Street. It operates a unique curriculum. (Axiom Learning, 2012)

Current National and International Initiatives in Special Education

From the history of special education many initiatives have been tried in the bid to help address the needs of these children. Currently, there has been more awareness created about children with disabilities. The result of these initiatives is that a lot of countries are trying to put in place certain initiatives that will help such people to have access to good education, better living and so become useful to themselves, their families and their countries. Nigeria has been part of initiating these programmes along with international communities. In Nigeria all constitutional arrangements including the 1999 Constitution have maintained that the philosophy of education in the country is that education is the right of every child irrespective of religion, status, race or disability.

This also has been enshrined in the National Policy on Education (NPE) over the years, up to 2004. The Education of children with disabilities is also taken care of in the NPE. Its objectives include:

- (a) Making concrete the plan for equalising educational opportunities for all children irrespective of their disabilities
- (b) Giving them such education that will help them contribute to the development of Nigeria.
- (c) Providing opportunities for those children who are gifted, creative or talented to develop their potentials.
- (d) Putting in place appropriate curriculum for all types of disabilities. For Nigeria to achieve the above, it has to collaborate with ministers of

education at both federal and state levels, non-governmental organisations. At the international level, the following are involved UNICEF, UNDP, UNESCO, WHO. This kind of education should be free and should have provision made for inclusive education or integration into public schools especially with U.B.E. scheme.

Nigeria acknowledges that the right of the child, youth, adult, including the disabled to education is universal. As a result of the above, she became a signatory to many international protocols seeking to uphold the right of every child to education and good quality life. This philosophy is enshrined in the convention on the Rights of the Child in 1989. Some internationally acclaimed declarations include: World Declaration for Education for all (1990), the Standard Rules on the equalisation of opportunities for persons with disabilities (1993) the UNESCO Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action (1994) and the Dakar framework for Action (2002), all of which will help to achieve 'Education for All' by 2015 (Axiom Learning, 2012)

Another initiative is Community Based Rehabilitation (CBR). Guidelines which were launched in Abuja Nigeria in 2012 aimed at promoting mainstreaming and empowerment for people with disability and their family. It also seeks to achieve rehabilitation, reduce poverty and to provide the inclusion of such people in their communities. The next initiative is Millennium Development Goals. These goals are nine of which UBE is one. CBR is linked to these goals through the UBE which is goal number two. Universal Basic

Education was inaugurated in Nigeria in 1999. It was enacted as a law in 2004 by the Federal Government. UBE provides for the 1st nine years of basic education and the remaining three years of senior secondary. It is free and compulsory for every Nigerian child.

Special Education categories are as follows – the blind, the deaf and dumb, mentally retarded deviants, the gifted, learning disabled, physically impaired, speech disorder, social behaviour problems, emotional disturbance. These labels can be grouped and regrouped. New and more accepted labels are now replacing some of the categories above which seem rather derogatory. For instance, blindness is known currently as visual impairment and so on. The new labels will be used in describing each category. Other categorisations include:

- a. Physical disabilities involving
 1. Visual impairment
 2. Hearing
 3. Moving impairment has under it cerebral palsy, poliomyelitis and epilepsy.
 4. Intellectual or mental disability
 5. Learning or developmental disability
 6. Giftedness
 7. Emotional disability including Down syndrome and autism
 8. Speech and language disorder

World Health Organisation (WHO) Classifications

WHO has classified disabilities into six categories

- Fits and seizures (convulsion)
- Difficulty in speech and hearing (communication)

- Difficulties in learning (mental disability, learning disability)
- Difficulties in vision (visual impairment)
- Difficulties in moving (motor or physical disabilities)
- Peculiar behaviour (may include emotional problem, mental illness (Axiom Learning 2012) categories)

Types of Physical challenges (Disabilities)

- Visual impairment
 - Hearing impairment
 - Moving disability
- d.a) Cerebral palsy
- Poliomyelitis
 - Epilepsy
 - Speech handicap or impairment

These are those children who suffer from such defects and deformity of their bone muscles or joints that may interfere with their normal function and adjustment to the general and specific demands of their environment to the extent of requiring special measures for their wellbeing, adjustment and educational progress.

The physically challenged children are those who suffer in terms of:

- a) Performing their daily business
- b) Seeking their social and emotional adjustment and
- c) Realizing their educational and developmental needs on account of the deficiencies, defects and impairments in their physical organs. As a result such children need special care,

attention and educational efforts from their parents, families, schools and society.

Visual Impairment: Visual impairment is any visual condition that inhibits an individual's ability to complete the activities of everyday life successfully. For a person to be categorized as a blind person, he must have visual acuity of 20/200 or less or he has a field of vision that is restricted to 20° or less. Most of our experiences come through the use of sight.

Those who suffer from vision loss or impairment have defects of the eyes to the degree that it makes them impaired in terms of their visual ability and perception. This impairment presents a continuum – poor vision or defective vision to no perception of light at all. However vision loss is broadly divided into two:

- (a) Partially sighted/functional blindness
- (b) Total blindness.

Partial sightedness stands for those children whose vision is not completely lost and so have partial perception of objects seen.

Low vision is a server visual impairment not limited to low vision. Low vision applies to those who cannot read something from a normal viewing distance even with the aid of eye glass or contact lenses.

Legally blind stands for the persons having visual acuity less than 20/200 in the better eye or a very limited field of vision.

Total blindness refers to a condition suffered by persons who have no vision at all, that is, no

perception at all of objects seen or touched and can learn through braille machine or other non visual media only. Their sense of sight is completely lost.

Causes of visual impairment

Among these include:

- Genetic causes

Environmental causes. These can occur in 3 periods

- a) Prenatal period – various chromosomal syndrome etc.
- b) Perinatal period – manner of child birth
- c) Postnatal period – accident, poor food intake etc. Explanations to the above causes are contained in pages 53 – 66 and 209-216 of this book.

Education of the visually impaired

- i) They should be sent to special boarding schools for the blind in order to benefit educationally
- ii) To be handled by special teachers using special methods, techniques and skills
- iii) Use of braille machines. In the use of Braille and computer there are assistive technology mechanisms put in place so that the visually impaired can access information. He must however be trained in the use of the adaptive equipment, devices and methods of operating them. These devices among others include –

Braille note takers are electronic note taking devices that can be connected to a printer, or braille embosser to produce a printed or brailled copy.

Optical character reader – this converts printed texts in full on a computer which can be translated into audible speech or braille with appropriate equipment on software.

Electronic braille writer produces and translates braille into text or synthetic speech

Talking calculators calculate with voice output.

Adaptations of Computer

- i. Braille translation software and equipment: converts braille into prints and prints in braille.
- ii. Braille printer: connects to a computer and embossers braille on paper
- iii. Screen reader: converts text on a computer screen to audible speech
- iv. Screen enlargement software: increases the size of text and images on a computer screen.
- v. Refreshable braille display converts text on computer to braille by an output device connected to the computer.

There is the need for them to adjust to the physical and social world around them and arouse their interest towards learning. They should be trained to be independent in terms of carrying out their day to day activities and be helped to make necessary movements through the use of sticks and other senses apart from the sight; they can be provided with guides if it becomes necessary. (Axiom Learning, 2012)

They are trained to carryout different types of co-curricular activities with the help of special programmes and equipment used in these schools. They can be trained in craft activities and vocational

works which are varying in nature so that they can be self employed or be employed either in public or private sector.

Education of children with low vision/partial blindness

- a) Corrective measure for their sight impairment
- b) Never to be loaded with unnecessary reading, writing, drawing, painting or art work, and geometrical construction.
- c) To be seated at the front line of class seats and proper arrangement of chalk board and proper lighting of the class.

Other measures

- a) Individual attention
- b) Teacher to be loud in speaking out what is written on the chalkboard
- c) Proper and adequate use of teaching aids both print and electronic ones
- d) Equipping them with extra vision equipment like band lens, magnifying glasses.
- e) Bold letters on chalkboards and bold lettered books.

Hearing loss or Audio impairment

Hearing is one of our five senses which gives us access to sounds in our surrounding. When hearing impairment is not nominated early in life, language and communication skills will be at risk.

Those who have hearing loss suffer from a wide range of hearing problems which include deafness (partial and total) and this makes them disabled in utilizing their hearing organs for

receiving and exchanging information with others. Exchange of information is very basic for it is the key component of any knowledge acquiring process and subsequent adjustment to ones environment. A person can be partially deaf or totally deaf in terms of physiological or medical language.

Conductive hearing losses are caused by diseases or obstructions in the outer or middle ear and they are usually all avenues of hearing evenly. They do not cause sever hearing losses. Hearing aid and or medical or surgical help can be good for for those affected.

Sensorineural hearing losses result from delicate sensory hair cells of the inner ear or the nerves that supply them. The range of the loss is from mild to profound. Even with amplification the person may not receive information/sound well, but in distorted form, in which case, the use of hearing aid may not be successful.

Mix hearing loss which combines conductive and sensorineural losses showing that both the outer, middle or inner ear has problems.

A central hearing loss which results from damage or impairment to the nerves of the nuclei of the central nervous system affecting either the pathway to the brain or the brain itself.

Hearing impairment is classified broadly into two:

- a. **Total deafness:** deafness stands for the state or condition that prevents the individual from receiving sound in all or most of its forms. The sense of hearing is completely lost which may or

may not relate directly to the auditory organs or can occur as a result of the general weakening of, and deficiencies suffered by the body.

- b. **Partially deaf** (hard of hearing) – in this condition, the partially deaf can generally respond to auditory stimuli, including speech and so can benefit from experiences associated with the sense of hearing.

Hearing loss which does not affect a person's intellectual capacity or ability to learn can be caused or can occur at any time or point in one's life on account of bodily diseases, consequences and side effects of drugs/medicines used for their cure. They require special education.

This is possible with patients who suffer from cancer, brain fever, brain tumour, typhoid, whooping cough, mumps, malaria, encephalitis. Over dose of drugs like streptomycin, quinine, side effects or after effects of skin diseases, diseases of the throat and nose, chicken pox are small pox, found to be potent causes of hearing loss. Abnormal growth or pathological changes in the hearing organs located in the ear, auditory nerves and parts of the brain responsible for auditory perception.

Signs of hearing impaired

Such children may display the following

May not respond consistently to sounds even to their names

Ask for repetition of words, instruction and sentences

Turn up the volume of radio or television

Always watching the lips of speakers

Keep silence sometimes

Causes of hearing impairment

There are two of them

Acquired hearing impairment – this means that the problem occurred after the individual has been born. This may be as a result of other factors like illness, injury. For example – ear infections like otitis media which is fluid built up at the back of the eardrum and childhood diseases.

Congenital causes which come as a result of family history of hearing loss, rubella, blood incompatibility of couples (Rh factor) maternal diabetes or toxicity, Down syndrome and other syndromes may be factors for hearing loss (Axiom hearing, 2012).

Education and Adjustment of Hearing Impaired Children

There should be proper planning for the education and adjustment of

- a) Those children who are totally deaf
- b) Those children who are partially deaf

Children who suffer from total hearing loss differ from those who are normal in terms of their needs and adjustment and so the following may be done for them

- a) Use of sense of hearing must be avoided totally
- b) They experience hurdles in their daily living and find it difficult even to go through their day-to-day life activities. As a result they face many physical, social and psychological maladjustment and security problems.
- c) Their case becomes even more difficult when they are dumb. In this situation it is even more

difficult to operate or even to call for help or assistance when in danger.

The conditions above make it imperative to make special provision for them in terms of education and adjustment which may come as follows:

- i) Training in special means and methods of visual communication modes and the use of sign language, finger spelling and cued speech are the most crucial means of communication.
- ii) Use of other senses comes handy – sight, touch and taste. Mostly special provision is made in their curriculum to make them learn vocabulary, grammar, word order, idiomatic expressions and other aspects of verbal communication.
- iii) All curricular and co-curricular activities should be organized in such a way as to help them in their education and adjustment by utilization of other senses besides hearing. Allow and encourage them to develop their inner abilities to be good artists, cartoonists, writer fashion designers, architects, scientists and craftsmen etc.
- iv) Vocational training/education should be made a compulsory part of their curriculum
- v) Computer and information technology and services should be made accessible to them to facilitate their learning programme. For the use of phones-text information and messages are the only option for the deaf.

Education and Adjustment of the partially deaf:

Dealing with this group of children is relatively simpler than dealing with those who are completely deaf. Little effort is required to meet their education and adjustment needs of these children. Below are among important arrangements that are necessary for their academic success and adjustment in life.

- i. First and foremost, help them to acquire and make use of hearing aid – selected according to the degree of hearing loss.
- ii. Give them psychological (jack up) so that they do not feel inferior on account of their hearing impediment.
- iii. They should be encouraged by both teachers and audiologists to make use of their residual hearing to the utmost degree they could.
- iv. Teachers, parents and children should be trained in the correct way of communication to aid education and adjustment of these children. Both oral means (include speech, and lip reading and residual hearing) and manual means or communication (sign and finger spelling) have to be combined.
- v. They should be encouraged to form the habit of listening to the sound of low frequency and intensity with the services of radio, tape recorder, DVD, VCR, television and computer assisted multimedia presentation in order to help them learn like normal school children.
- vi. For hearing impairments of psychogenic origin, qualified counsellors, psychologists and psychotherapists may be utilized for providing necessary assistance to the affected children to

get rid of the maladaptive behaviour and symptoms of hearing impairment

In the class the teacher has to

- Make favourable sitting arrangement (front seat and closer to the teacher)
- Use of films, videos with captions and instructional process
- Employing amplification system
- Making use of interpreters by students who use manual communication
- Appropriate guidance and counseling services to be provided especially for proper adjustment

Mental Disability (or Retardation)

Students with Mental Disability

Mental retardation is a condition characterised by significant limitations both in intellectual functioning and in adaptive behaviour as expressed in conceptual, social and practical adaptive skills. It originates before ages 18 (AAMR 2003). The student who is mentally retarded has low scores on tests of intelligence, finds it difficult to maintain the standards of personal independence and social responsibility expected of his age. The intellectual impairment and difficulty in adaptation manifests between birth and 18 years. Mental retardation is seen by many advocacy groups as having negative connotations. Intellectual disability or developmental disability are newer terms that are becoming far more accepted than mental retardation.

These are children who suffer from retarded, subnormal growth and development of their brain, affecting their intellectual capabilities to the extent

that they feel handicapped in their adaptation to the environment and thus require special care and provision for their welfare and development of their capacities.

What is Intellectual Disability

This type of condition can also be known as mental disability, feeble mindedness, mental handicap, mental deficiency, mental sub-normal or mental sub-average. No matter the terminology used, these children with this kind of condition possess mild range condition which is between 50 and 70.

Mental disability stands for a special type of psychological disorder associated with the arrest of or incomplete development of one's brain, beginning usually at birth and leading to a diminution of intellectual powers relative to his chronological age. A child in this type of condition does not pick the normal speed expected from the children of that very chronological age and they therefore lag behind and become handicapped in performing expected, normal, intellectual function. Other popular definitions include:

- Page (1973) perceives intellectual disability as a condition of sub-normal mental development present at birth or early childhood and is characterised mainly by limited intelligence and social inadequacy.
- American Association of Mental Deficiency (AAMD) (1973) refers to intellectual disability as a significantly sub-average intellectual ability functioning concurrently with deficits in adaptive behaviour and manifested during the developmental

period. Issues in adaptive behaviour may include difficulties with conceptual skills, social skills, practical skills. Those who are intellectually disabled often exhibit deficits in self-determination skills as well as such areas as choice making, problem solving and goal setting. For British Medical Deficiency Act (1981) mental disability is a condition of arrested or incomplete development of mind existing before the age of 18 years, whether arising from inherent causes or induced by diseases or injury.

Analysing the above definitions it is seen that:

- Mental disability or mental deficiency is a condition or state of the illness.
- It is not a disease or illness
- It has to do with sub-normal development of the brain
- It relates as well to inadequate adjustment with the environment
- The deficiency maybe observed at birth or in early childhood.
- It may be caused by inherent (biological or congenital) and external or environmental factors.

Classifications of Mental Disability (American Association of Mental Retardation (AAMR))

AAMR 1983 categorization according to the level of IQ.

- a. 50 – 55 – 70 – 75 – mild disability
- b. 35 – 40 – 50 – 55 – moderate “
- c. 20 – 25 – 35 – 40 – sever “
- d. 20 – 25 – profound “ (Luckasson et al, 1992)

The above is criticised and challenged by some professionals with the belief that emphasis in the present day special education is that all people can learn and that education and training cannot be clearly differentiated (Smith et al, 2008) of all the known classification of those that are mentally retarded, the one commonly used is that of AAMD. Below is the classification produced by:

	Stanford Binet	Wechsler scales
Profound	Under 20	Under 25
Sever	20 – 35	25 – 39
Moderate	36 – 51	40 – 54
Mild	52 – 67	55 – 69

Currently the classifications highlighted the capabilities of mentally disabled individuals in two main areas:

- a. Intellectual functioning and adaptive skills.
- b. Those categorised on the basis of support they need (Smith, 2001)

There is evidence that 50% of all cases of mental disability could have been prevented by:

- Improving the pre-natal care,
- Proper nutrition
- Preventing accidents, diseases and poisons e.g. Lead
- Provision of safe, supportive and stimulating environments in early childhood (Smith and Luckasson, 1995)

Characteristics of Levels of Mental Disability

Mild Disability

- As adults, their intellectual development compares with that of average 10 years old child and their social adjustment with that of an adolescent. This shows that such people manifest.
- Signs of delayed development early in life as a result they learn to talk, walk, feed or toilet train a year later than average.
- Exhibit, immature behaviour leading to poor control over impulses, lack judgement, cannot anticipate consequences of actions taken, sexual behaviour unpredictable even with full development of sexual organs.
- Show little or no organic pathology and requires little supervision
- Considered educable –with early diagnosis, parental care and special classes.

Moderately Mentally Disabled – These children

- Attain intellectual level as that of a six year old at adulthood.
- Physically clumsy, experience incomplete motor co-ordination and present affable vacuous personality
- Are trainable instead of ‘educable
- Show signs of retardation very early in life in almost all areas of development, unable to carry out any work requiring originality, abstract thinking or be consistently attentive.
- With early diagnosis, adequate parental care training and support, most of these moderately

disabled individuals can achieve considerable independence generally in life.

Sever Mental Retardation

Nearly 3.5 of those who are severally mentally retarded (mostly children and adolescents) are found in this category.

- They never attain intellectual level greater than that of an average 4 year-old child
- High mortality rate because of diseases
- Grossly retarded in areas of speech, sensory defects and motor disability
- Have very little interest in their surroundings, or master basic skills like feeding, dressing, bowel and bladder control.
- Neither 'educable' nor trainable and remain dependent through out life – need to be institutionalised
- May with proper care and early treatment and specialized training, they are able to manage their own physical well-being and also in doing other menial jobs.

Profoundly Mentally Disabled

- Are about 1.5% of the total mentally disabled persons.
- Characterised by most sever mental disability
- Do not attain intellectual level greater than that of two year-old individual in their adult life.
- Severally deficient intellectual capabilities and adaptive behaviour.
- Symptoms noticed are retarded growth, physical deformity, pathology of the central nervous

- system, autism, severe speech disturbances, motor in-coordination, deafness, convulsion seizures
- Cannot protect themselves from any danger or manage their affairs or satisfy their physical needs.
 - Life span is short because of low resistance
 - Depends completely on others and must be taken care of and supervised just like infants.
 - Have to be institutionalised

Causes of Mental Disability

It is not easy to agree on some standard causes for mental retardation that can apply universally to all cases of mental retardation.

Mental retardation is an individual problem and should be treated as unique for each case. However, there are factors operative at various periods of human development (from conception to death) that can be responsible for mental retardation.

- Factors operative at conception
- Factor operative inside the womb
- Factors operative at the time of delivery – perinatal
- Factors operative after birth (from birth to death) – post-natal.

Preventive Measures

Environment and heredity are part of the factors responsible for mental retardation. Environmental factors can be controlled but hereditary factors are impossible to deal with.

Remedial Measures

- Not curable

- Attempt can be made to train and or educate them in order to be useful to themselves and to the society by:
 - a. Making parents aware of the correct state of the disability
 - b. Persuading them to send such children to special schools for mentally disabled children.

Teaching Adaptive Behaviour

This points below maybe profitable in helping students who have mental disability to acquire adaptive behaviour

- Coping with the demands of school in the area of attending to learning tasks, organising work, following directions, managing time and asking questions.
- Developing interpersonal relationships, learning to work with others in cooperative manner, using socially accepted language, responding appropriately to teacher direction.
- Developing language skills;- understanding directions, communicating needs and wants, expressing ideas, listening attentively etc.
- Socio emotional development – seeking social participation, relationship and interactions, being motivated.
- The classroom teacher has to adopt the measures below in order to help the disabled children in classroom learning.
- Teach one concept or activity component at a time

- Teach one step at a time
- Teach students in small groups or one on one, if possible
- Create multiple opportunities to practice skills in a number of different skills
- Use physical and verbal promptings to guide correct responses. Praise correct response as reinforcement.

Teach by demonstrating, using concrete objects – pictures, real objects, providing projects to work on, giving them tasks opportunity to initiate a task/project and complete it.

The Gifted and Creative

Giftedness has been defined almost entirely in terms of superior intelligence quotient (IQ) or demonstrated ability, such as outstanding performance in mathematics or chess, but now it compasses students with superior abilities in a wide range of activities including arts (Qiszewski – kubilus 2003) in Slavin (2009) Carr (2003) has the same definitions as (Qlszewski – kubilus 2003). Most of the children/students so categorized or labelled have IQ above 130. Approximately, 3 – 5 percent of students are considered gifted or talented. (Heller, Monks, Sternberg and Subotck) (2000).

- Harvihaust (1958) defined talented of gifted child as one who shows consistently remarkable performance in any worth while line of endeavour. Pasricha (1964) saw the gifted child as one who exhibits superiority in general intelligence or one who is in possession of special abilities of high order in the field which

are not necessarily associated with high intelligence quotient.

Giftedness can be found in the following areas:

- Music, dance, drama, painting, sculpture, writing and other creative arts
- Mechanical work
- Social, leadership and human relationship
- Creative, scientific experimentation and exploration
- Physical activities like games, sports and gymnastics
- It is not necessary or essential that a gifted child has to possess a very high IQ showing his superiority in general intelligence over his peers
- When proper attention and opportunity have been given to such a child he can contribute something remarkable to the welfare of his community, nation or humanity in general.

Characteristics of Gifted, Talented and Creative Children

Children who are intellectually gifted typically have strong motivation (Dai, Moon and Fieldhusen 1998): (Gottfried and Gottfried 2004).

- They are larger, stronger and better coordinated than other children and better adjusted and more emotionally stable adults. (Terman and Oden 1959). Such children have very high self concepts even though they can suffer from perfectionism.
- They learn rapidly and easily, use a great deal of common sense and practical knowledge, reason

things out, think clearly, comprehend meanings. These children retain what is heard or read without much drill, has a large vocabulary which he uses easily and accurately. They easily perform difficult mental tasks, do some academic work one or two years in advance, are original in thinking and like innovation and novelty.

- Keenly observant, respond quickly, at alert almost all the time. These children ask many questions sometimes higher order ones and have a wide range of interests.
- There are wide varieties of gifted children depending on the specific areas of giftedness. This means that not all of them possess general intelligence. Some of them exhibit special abilities or talents in one or more of the areas. Therefore, not all of them can be identified by intelligence tests but also others through aptitude tests, interest inventory, anecdotal records, opinions and reports of friends, teachers and family members. Self report or self analysis can also help in identifying these latent gifts in children. So teachers should provide opportunities for self-expression and self actualisation. Overall behavioural assessment can be carried out through personality tests and sociometric techniques. A good and wise teacher should do everything possible to detect and recognize those gifted.

Education of the Gifted Children

Gifted children should be helped so that their giftedness is maximised. This should be done so that they do not drift towards negative direction.

Below are some plans put forward by different educationists:

- i. Separate schools
- ii. Ability grouping or separate class
- iii. Acceleration or double promotion
- iv. Enrichment programmes

Separate Schools – In these schools, gifted children are provided with adequate facilities in order to help them develop their specific potentialities. This arrangement is criticised on the ground that such segregation is undemocratic and breeds superiority complex. The students of this arrangement develop aristocratic attitude and this may help to widen the gap between the gifted and non gifted.

Ability grouping/Separate class: This is another kind of segregation within the same school. This has the same shortfall as the first arrangement. Students are divided on the basis of ability. It involves huge expenditure for very few students without much results. Each individual is gifted in his own unique area and does not mean that he may possess a superior intelligence. The gifted or talented children may be so in a particular area and may be one or two percent of the total population of their classmates.

Acceleration or double promotion: Skipping class for instance, a gifted child in JSS1 can be accelerated to JSS3 class.

Enrichment Programmes

Enriching the environment has to do with providing all the school resource materials in the form of library materials, textbooks, laboratory equipment adequate learning experiences and creating opportunities for self and individual studies. Enrichment can be made for gifted or very bright children, it can be put in place also for dull children. While the bright ones can cope with studying and experimenting using effectively the equipment and materials with or without supervision, by touching/feeling, manipulating objects, testing, perceiving and hearing, the deficient ones may be able to improve academically and in other areas in the enriched school and classroom environment.

Moving Impairment: Cerebral Palsy (CP) is a neurological disorder. This is a condition (not a disease) which can be caused by an injury to the brain. It does occur during pregnancy, during birth and shortly after birth. It does not progress as years go by and the damage to the brain does not change with increase in age. Movement may become more difficult as the individual advances in age.

Characteristics

The individual may show some of the physical impairments including mental and learning disabilities. Just like mental disability, cerebral palsy can be mild, moderate and severe and can

attack any part of the body or even the entire body as a whole. Cerebral palsy has three main types:

- a. Spastic CP in which movement is difficult and stiff especially in the use of legs, arms and back
- b. Athetoid CP which affects the movement of the entire body
- c. Ataxic CP makes an individual unsteady and he has also tendency to lose his balance. Like all moving impairment, CP can be classified according to the parts of the body that are affected. These are;
 - i. Diplegia involves the legs and those living with it can use walker to learn how to walk and braces on their legs
 - ii. Hemiplegia affects half part of the body.
 - iii. Quadriplegia is the most sever and all extremities are involve including facial muscles. These use wheel chairs (Axiom, Learning 2012).

Classroom implication/strategies which the teacher can use

- Employing therapy
- Communication devises which are inform of pictures, symbols, letters or words which can be attached to communication boards.
- Computer programmes operated by simple switch pads or keyboard adaptations
- Work with parents
- Make classroom lessons practical to help them practice and manipulate things. Initiative is necessary here.

- Understand the individual child's needs and capabilities
- Make use of other professionals

Epilepsy (Seizural Disorders)

This is a physical condition that occurs when there is a sudden, brief change in how the brain works. As a result of abnormal brain waves, a person's consciousness, movement or actions may be altered or changed for a short time. These changes are called epileptic seizures. Autistic and cerebral palsy children may experience seizures. They have psychological problems and so the teacher has to let them consult the school guidance counsellor.

People can have seizures without being epileptic, for instance infants and toddlers can experience seizures as a result of high fever. Other types of seizures not classified as epilepsy are

- Imbalance of body fluid
- Chemicals in the body system
- Alcohol that has overtaken a person's system
- Drug withdrawal, that is when an individual decides to stop intake of drugs especially the hard ones.

A single seizure may not mean that a person has epilepsy

- Seizures can be "general" – that means that all cells of the brain are involved e.g convulsion with complete loss of consciousness and then, the other one that involves people who develop a period of 'fixed starting'
- Partial seizures occur when the brain cells are not working properly and are limited to one part

of the brain. This may cause periods of altered consciousness and automatic behaviour. Examples are repeated bottoning and unbottoning of shirt. Medication should be made available for those who have infrequent occurrence. Epileptic people need special education services.

Teachers Involvement (Role)

Since students that experience seizures or epilepsy should be eligible for special education, teachers should therefore develop plans for appropriate services. Such students may experience learning disability also.

In case of epilepsy or any kind of seizure do not interfere with the seizure, stay, observe and collect and document the experience

Ease the student on the floor and clear the area

Be there until the end

Place something soft on under the head to avoid head injuries.

- Because learning is affected or interfered with (fixed starting) there is the possibility of the missing parts of what is taught and so needs the teacher who has to observe and document these episodes and follow up accordingly.
- Depending on the type of seizure and the frequency of occurrence there maybe need for additional assistance to keep up with other class mates. The additional assistance can be in the adaptation of classroom instruction, first aid instruction and seizure which are management made available to the students, teachers, counsellors, in written form

- Teachers and other staff in the school should be informed about the child's condition, possible effects of medication and what to do in case of seizures in the classroom. Parents and teachers can hold discussions about the child especially at the beginning of the school year.
- School staff and the family can work together thus:
 - Monitor the effectiveness of medication/side effects
 - Inform the doctor if there is any change in the physical or intellectual skills
 - Observation from both parties will be put down in order to help in discussion with the medical personnel.
- The epileptics have to deal with their psychological and social problem aspects of their condition. Most of the time people view the epileptics wrongly, out of fear of seizures, uncertainty of occurrence and loss of control during seizures.

The epileptic children can be helped to accept their epilepsy and school has to provide epilepsy education programme for both students and teachers including how to recognise it when it is about to occur and first aid information.

- For more benefits on the part of the children, the school and family will have to work together.

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