

B.ED. SPL. EDUCATION

INTERVENTION AND TEACHING STRATEGIES



SES HI-03



MADHYA PRADESH BHOJ (OPEN) UNIVERSITY

INTERVENTION AND TEACHING STRATEGIES

B.Ed. Spl. Ed

(SES HI 03)

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Bachelor of Special Education

B.Ed. Spl. Ed.

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**Madhya Pradesh Bhoj (Open) University
&**



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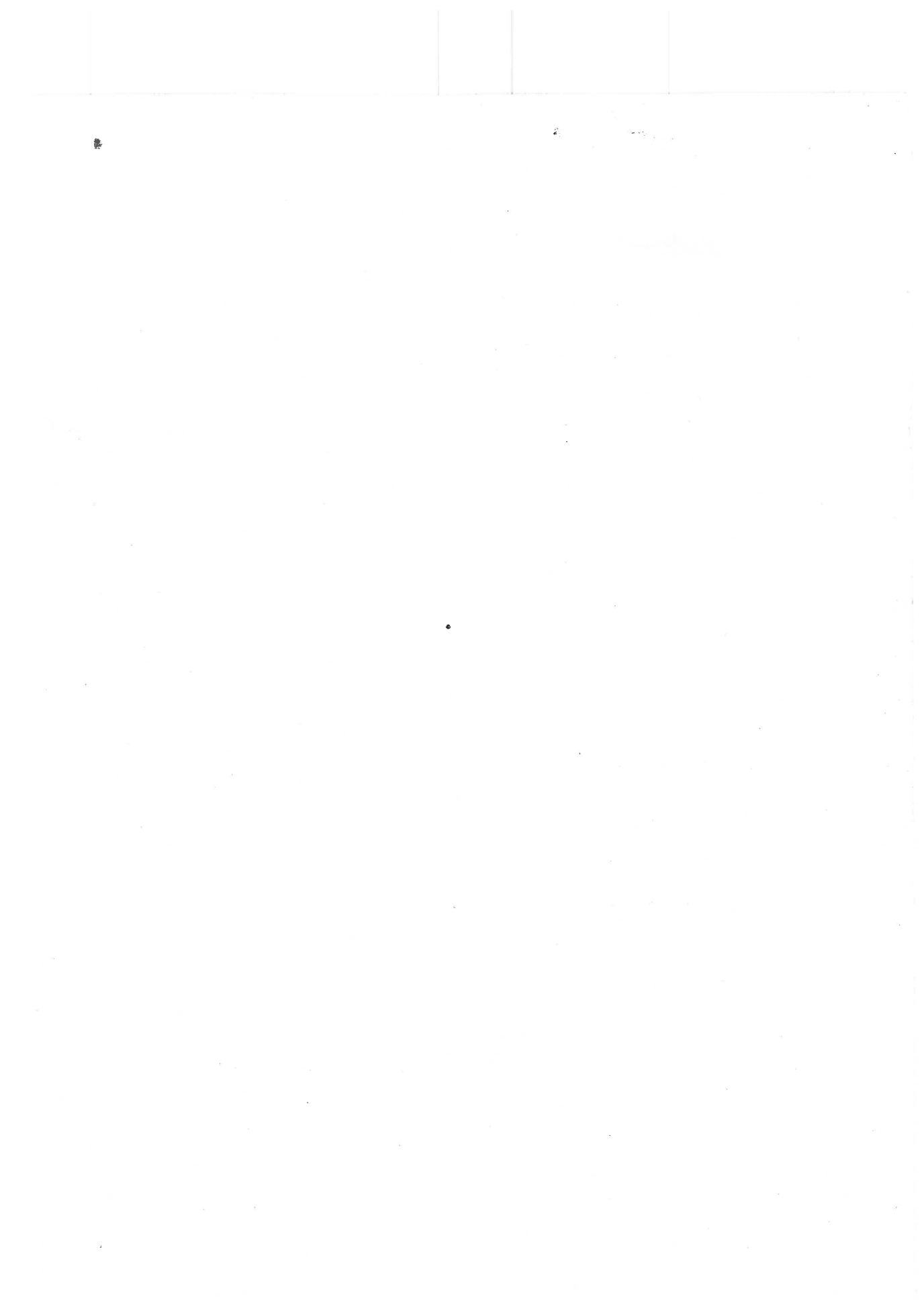
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BLOCK I : INTERVENTION AND TEACHING STRATEGIES

INTRODUCTION

The education of a truly severe to profound prelingually hearing impaired child is incredibly complex and difficult. Moreover the progress of the child is so slow that only a teacher who has a strong belief in his/her educational position and practices will be able to teach day after day and achieve desired results.

This paper 3 and the units in it are devoted to the methodologies that can be and are being employed for the purpose. Also the methods described can be seen to adhere to the guidelines provided by the comparatively new concept of 'Systems Approach' described below.

'Systems Approach' is a kind of instructional technique belonging to Educational Technology. It is a problem-solving method of analyzing the educational process and making it more effective. System is a process taken as a whole incorporating all its aspects and parts namely, pupils, teachers, curriculum content, instructional material, and strategy, physical environment and the evaluation of instructional objectives. It is essentially a systematic way of identifying goals of any system and scientifically working out different steps to move towards these goals suggesting models for application.

The approach includes the following steps:

- i. an analysis of the existing situation,
- ii. setting up goals for the desired situation,

- iii. defining mechanisms to evaluate the achievement of goals,
- iv. generating alternative goals,
- v. choosing the best possible solution through cost benefit analysis,
- vi. detailing the design of the system,
- vii. outlining the monitoring mechanism for the system,
- viii. working out the solution.

As you read through the units in this and the next two blocks, you will notice that the authors have made an effort, as far as possible, to cover most of the important aspects of the 'Systems Approach'. There may seem to be a repetition of certain techniques described in different units. But you will also notice that the subject matter and the language level tackled are at an increasingly higher level. Also it must be remembered, that considering the complex nature of the problems of language acquisition faced by deaf children, certain techniques such as language teaching and cognitive development through 'Conversation method' and 'directed /contrived experiences', 'global approach' etc. will have to be used in teaching almost till the end of the primary level, i.e. till the child has got a fairly good command over the basics of language.

Finally, it is important to remember that there are no short cuts to success in this field of education of the deaf. One has to, with utmost perseverance, go about the task very systematically and diligently to lead the child towards progress particularly when he has the brain potential for it.

UNIT – 1 : PARENT-INFANT PROGRAMMES FOR CHILDREN WITH HI: OVERVIEW, NEED, REQUIREMENTS AND PLAN OF ACTION.

STRUCTURE

- 1.1 Introduction**
- 1.2 Objectives**
- 1.3 Importance of Early Intervention for the Successful Mainstreaming of Hearing-Impaired Children.**
 - 1.3.1 Habit of Listening
 - 1.3.2 Face Directedness
 - 1.3.3 Capitalizing on “Critical Age”
 - 1.3.4 Synchronous Development
- 1.4 Developing a Listening Attitude**
- 1.5 Hierarchy of Listening Skills Using the Auditory Verbal Approach**
 - 1.5.1 Listening Skills to be Developed : Sound Awareness
 - 1.5.2 Listening Skills to be Developed : Sentence Level
 - 1.5.3 Listening Skills to be Developed : Discourse Level
- 1.6. Mother-Child Inter-Action**
 - 1.6.1 Characteristics of Motherese
- 1.7 The First Year at Pre-School**
 - 1.7.1 Pre-Requisite for Pre-School

- 1.7.2 Goals for the First Year at Pre-School
- 1.7.3 Goals for Language and Cognition
- 1.7.4 Goals for Number-Readiness
- 1.7.5 Goals for Listening
- 1.7.6 Goals for Fine Motor Control
- 1.7.7 Goals for Gross Motor Control
- 1.8 An Introduction to the Maternal Reflective Method as the Source of Developing Language in Deaf Children**
 - 1.8.1 Readiness for Conversation
 - 1.8.2 Conversation and Reading Readiness
 - 1.8.3 Conversation and Pre-Number Concepts
- 1.9 Story Telling with Young Hearing Impaired Children**
- 1.10 Outings for Young Hearing Impaired Children**
- 1.11 Directed 'Activities for Young' Hearing Impaired Children**
- 1.12 Conclusion**
- 1.13 Self Study**
- 1.14 Assignments**
- 1.15 Points for discussion and clarification**
- 1.16 Reference**
- 1.17 Suggested Readings**
- 1.18 APPENDIX 1**

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Early intervention refers to the audiological, educational and counselling work begun with hearing impaired infants and their parents. The term “hearing impaired infant” is used specifically to refer to babies below 12 months who are born with a sensori-neural hearing loss. This chapter has been written with its focus on profoundly deaf infants and young children. The term “deaf” is used later to refer to babies and children of normal intelligence who have a bi-lateral profound hearing loss.

1.2 OBJECTIVES

After going through this Unit, the teacher trainee will be able to:

- Understand fully the need for early intervention in the rehabilitation of hearing impaired children.
- Appreciate how critical and appropriate an early intervention is in the development of a hearing impaired child.
- Give an overview of an effective early intervention programme.
- State in detail the sub-skills that need to be inculcated in their young hearing impaired pupils.
- Describe as many classroom examples as possible which should enable them to effectively apply Auditory Verbal Techniques.
- Give an overview of the curriculum to be followed with hearing impaired children below 3 years.
- State the principles behind the development of ‘Heart-to-Heart Conversation’ as laid down by Fr. Van Uden.

- Understand the value of early listening and conversational skills in the subsequent development of hearing impaired children.

1.3 IMPORTANCE OF EARLY INTERVENTION FOR THE SUCCESSFUL MAINSTREAMING OF HEARING-IMPAIRED CHILDREN.

1.3.1 Habit Of Listening

Early training inculcates the habit of listening in deaf babies. This is imperative for the production of intelligible speech, as the hearing impaired child slowly learns to make use of the incomplete auditory input he receives through his hearing aids, to approximate the speech patterns of the society to which he belongs.

1.3.2 Face Directedness

Early intervention capitalizes on the natural tendency of all infants to watch the face of the speaker. This is crucial to the subsequent development of lip-reading ability.

1.3.3 Capitalising on “Critical age”

Timely intervention allows children to learn skills at an age at which they are, neurologically ready to acquire them, as a substantial amount of learning occurs in the first few years of life, when linkages in the child’s neurological system are being established.

1.3.4 Synchronous Development

Children learn because they develop simultaneously, in mutually reinforcing directions. Early intervention preserves this synchrony and prevents possible deviant behaviour patterns.

Hearing children acquire language and speech through audition. It is the easiest most natural pathway and ensures developmental synchrony in growing children. With early and appropriate intervention deaf babies can also be trained to use audition as their main modality of acquiring language and speech.

1.4 DEVELOPING A LISTENING ATTITUDE

Developing listening skills in young children pre-supposes on going and systematic audiological management. This implies that appropriate and functioning amplification devices are recommended and used everyday. Audiologists must work closely with parents to train them to be effective trouble-shooters of hearing-aids. Serious malfunctioning of hearing aids needs to be immediately addressed by audiologists.

It is not uncommon for parents to inculcate a habit of listening in their two – year old hearing-impaired toddlers. In order to do this it is crucial that parents be trained to view listening as an on-going process and to develop the ability to practice meaningful and age appropriate listening games throughout the day - e.g. when playing with a thirteen month old baby who has already been fitted with hearing-aids, one of the first sound awareness tasks introduced is the warbling /a a a/ of an aeroplane. Listening, especially in the early days involves repetition (without causing boredom) and structure. Children need to be given large chunks of auditory information to listen to initially (e.g. Give me the car that goes pee peep) and over time and with practice this information is made more and more subtle (e.g. Give me the car).

In order for hearing-impaired children to enjoy listening and to incorporate auditory behaviour into their lives, it is important that parents and professionals structure the listening task to ensure success. Every effort that the young hearing-impaired child makes to communicate or vocalize must be consistently

and abundantly encouraged. At this stage, educators and parents should expect only approximations and must not over correct the child's speech or demand perfect imitation. Every child must be allowed to grow at his own pace so as to realize his potential.

1.5 HIERACHY OF LISTENINGS KILLS USING THE AUDITORY VERBAL APPROACH.

The ultimate aim of any auditory verbal programme is to encourage children with a profound hearing loss to acquire and process speech and language through audition. This pre-supposes quiet listening conditions both at home and at school. It is crucial that centres for early intervention sound-treat their therapy rooms with basic sound absorbent materials such as acoustic tiles on the walls, linoleum for the floors and felt lining for their tabletops. Heavy drapes or curtains and carpeting also help dampen sound, but must be cleaned regularly and maintained.

Listening lessons must be individualized and structured so that children gradually learn to make subtler and subtler acoustic differences, after they have been given plentiful and fun listening opportunities.

1.5.1. LISTENING SKILLS TO BE DEVELOPED : SOUND AWARENESS

In order to become aware of sound, the following listening skills need to be developed

- **Detection of arrange of meaningful sounds across the speech spectrum in stimulus-response activities.**

A whole range of vehicles, animals and birds provide endless joyful listening opportunities for the hearing-impaired toddlers. Educators and parents need to remember to speak in a melodious voice so that the / bh^b bh^b bh^b / of the boat is as interesting to listen to as the /brr..../ of a scooter. Speech must act as the signal for an event. Hence it is crucial to use speech stimulus as a cue to the actual object. For example: a child listening to the /trbruk trbruk/ of a horse must indicate; (however subtly) that he has heard the auditory cue, and will later try to imitate the sound presented, before the related toy is brought into his field of vision and he is allowed to play with it.

Games such as these pre-suppose that the child has learnt turn-taking for which a third person (parents are the ideal partners) is needed to be used as a model; for the one making the sound cannot be the one to respond.

- **Detection of a range of sounds, across the speech spectrum at an increased distance**

Once the hearing impaired baby has begun to respond to a set of speech stimuli, the same should be given at an increased distance from the child. This distance should be monitored and evaluated every week. e.g. when playing with a cow, a lion and a monkey in which an eighteen month old baby moves the related animal in response to its appropriate call from a distance of 1 foot, the distance may be increased to 1 ½ feet and the same game repeated.

- **Production of sound in stimulus response activities**

The little, new listener must be encouraged to play inter active games in which speech triggers fun. E.g. the aeroplane lights up only when/after the child says a-a-a or the swinging monkey jumps only when the hearing impaired child says “up, down”. The child needs to be encouraged to vocalize before the toy moves/lights up or before he has his turn.

Parents need to be convinced of the need to adopt **listening as an on-going mode of inter-acting** with their hearing-impaired babies throughout all their waking hours and to consistently and immediately reward his vocalizations. e.g. Every time parents need to call attention to their baby they must call out to him by name, watching his reaction until they come into his field of vision. They need to make a note of the distance at which their baby hears his name being called, each week.

Through the day, parents need to be given plenty of ideas on how to use listening when playing with, feeding and bathing their babies and on how to sing their babies to sleep.

They must be trained to speak in a well-inflected voice so as to make listening interesting for their baby. Infants raised in this stimulating auditory environment will eventually become good listeners and grow up to develop early, clear speech.

1.5.2 Listening Skills To Be Developed : Sentence Level

As the young hearing-impaired child develops better and better sound awareness, he should be introduced to sequentially graded discrimination at the sentence level. Some of these listening tasks as recommended by Dr. Sylvia Romanik are discussed below:

- **Identifying familiar stereotypic phrases or sentences :**

The young hearing impaired listener will at first use context to help himself understand simple instructions such as “Wave goodbye” or “wash your hands” but will soon understand, repeat and carry out instructions even if they are out of context.

- **Recalling two, three, four or more critical elements in a message:**

In order to encourage the young listener it is advisable to begin with closed sets with known, limited options and build to open sets.

For example: “Put your blue pants in the bucket.” Later these commands may become more complex.

For example: When cooking, the mother could instruct her child accordingly “Take the tomatoes out of the fridge and wash them”.

- **Answering questions about a picture, a book, a set of pictures or objects:**

The choice of picture can be coordinated with the topic of heart-to-heart conversation. Questions asked about the picture in the book may be simple to begin with, with large clear illustrations (e.g. Show me a ---- for a two year old or “show me the big/small ---- “or “show me a red flower” for a two and a half years old. Eventually these questions develop into open-ended questions for example “what is this picture about?” As the young listener’s listening and comprehension skills improve, the question/ command must become more and more complex. For example “show me ---- and----.” and then later “Give me the ----- but not the-----”

1.5.3 LISTENING SKILLS TO BE DEVELOPED : DISCOURSE LEVEL

Dr. Sylvia Romanik recommends that discourse level listening skills be dovetailed appropriately with the sentence level skills, rather than be developed in isolation. Some of these skills as outlined by Dr. Romanik are given below :

Identifying nursery rhymes

The beginning listener should be given a closed set option eventually moving on to complete the rhyme, having heard the first line. Eventually, he should be able to correct “mistakes” made (deliberately) by the educator. Some early action rhymes that provoke an enthusiastic response are given below:

- a) Round and round the garden like a teddy bear

One step, two steps, tickly over there.

- b) Open, shut them; open shut them

Give a little clap

Open, shut them; open shut them

Lay, them in your lap

- c) Roly-poly roly-poly

Up, up, up

Roly-poly roly-poly

Down, down, down

(Repeat with in, in, in / out, out, out)

- **Story re-telling:**

Early stories are best rooted in each individual child’s first- hand experience.

Short stories based on a topic of heart-to- heart conversation (e.g. Papa repairs

Fatima's cycle as given below) or events of the child's every day routine (e.g. Waking up and getting ready) provide the core for several interesting stories.

Some examples are given below, related illustrations being given in the appendix :

1. Uh, oh ! What a big snake.
Mummy, I'm scared.
Come on (name of child), let's run. (Picture in the Appendix at end of the unit.)

2. Oh my God ! Fatima's cycle broke.
Papa, please repair my cycle
Thank you papa.

3. Pss Pss !
Chop, chop, The lady cut my hair. (Picture in the Appendix at end of the unit.)
Wow ! That looks so cute!

(The teacher may draw illustrations to accompany her stories. As far as possible, she should show the child or person wearing a hearing aid with a wire if necessary.)

The listening programme grows with the child so that he eventually extends his vocabulary and linguistic fluency, auditorily, rather than having to be specifically taught each word or concept. Cognition must be incorporated into all listening games and activities (For example: Games such as Peek a boo and simple hide -n- seek help develop "object-permanence") so that hearing impaired children grow into alert, thinking adults.

1.6 MOTHER – CHILD INTER-ACTION

Mothers of babies with normal hearing who are less than a year old talk continuously to their infants, as though they understand every word that is being said to them. Yet the same mother when informed that her baby may have a hearing loss falls silent or limits her conversation to the bare minimum of information needed to be conveyed.

It is important to study healthy mother child interaction so that it may serve as a model for intervention with hearing impaired babies.

1.6.1 Characteristics of Motherese

Mother-child interaction is characterized by certain common characteristics, irrespective of the language being spoken, “Motherese” is typified by the following characteristics:

- **Verbalization of shared experiences:**

The mother verbalizes almost everything that she does near her hearing baby. For example, when giving her baby a bath, the mother’s commentary describes her actions exhaustively:

“Now let’s rub you tummy.”. It is no wonder that toddlers whose mothers converse with them thus, develop a detailed awareness of their body-scheme and have a good sense of balance.

- **Seizing and playing the double part:**

The hearing infant is as yet without speech and has very little language, expresses himself largely through gestures. The mother however, continues to talk to the baby making herself understood by the situation.

Fr. Van Uden gives the classic example of how whenever the infant

makes some unintelligible sounds, the mother immediately approaches his cradle. The infant starts to move arms and legs furiously, half-crying, half-smiling. His mother understands his body language, seizes his idea/thought and immediately clothes it in age appropriate language, asking "Are you hungry ?" . Without hesitating, she answers her question, as the child would have done had he had verbal language. "Oh yes, you are so very hungry!" and then adds her own reaction, cooing, "Come here my darling!" This example highlights how the mother spontaneously plays the double part, speaking on behalf of her baby and for herself, repeatedly through the day.

This seizing behaviour and playing the double part is the model from which the Material Reflective Method draws its heart-to-heart conversation, discussed later in this chapters Mothers and teachers of young deaf children must be trained to seize and play the double part effectively, so that the natural course of language and speech development flourishes.

- **Speech Melody and the length of Utterance :**

Mothers of hearing infants tend to speak in very melodious well-inflected voices to their infants, with frequent repetition. Mothers of hearing children between 18 months and 4.0 years speak in sentences that are on average one or two syllables longer than their child's mean length of utterance (MLU). **This spontaneous adjustment in the length of utterance ensures that the child's speech memory is appropriately trained and does not get over-loaded.** The strong melody of these utterances further capture and hold the infant's attention and interest.

Mothers of hearing infants speak with a slightly slower tempo than they otherwise use and always ensure that they use correct language forms. As a

result, the baby is constantly receiving a correctly encoded signal, which gets systematically imprinted in their memory. Mothers of young hearing-impaired babies must be trained to follow this natural developmental model, so that their child's speech memory is appropriately trained.

1.7 THE FIRST YEAR AT PRE-SCHOOL (2;6 YEARS – 3;6 YEARS.)

Entering pre-school / pre primary class is a big step for all children who at 30 months of age, have spent most of their little lives at home and with mother. The hearing-impaired pre-schooler is no exception, even if he has attended an early – intervention programme prior to pre-school.

Pre-school can be a happy transition towards increasing independence. Educators need to be aware of each child's developmental level, so that an **individualized education programme (IEP)** be followed for each child. The first year of pre-school is an extension of home. The young pre-schooler must be encouraged to play with different equipment (both outdoor and indoor) and in different media (sand-play / water-play / playing with clay and play-doh / experimenting with finger-play) so that he learns from the feedback that his senses afford him.

The curriculum for the first year at pre-school should be framed as would a curriculum for hearing pre-schoolers, with special inputs for language and listening. All "work" should be informal through play and yet be diagnostic, with ample opportunities for the children to explore materials and experience situations directly. Children should be encouraged to draw their own conclusions, being steered by adults only as needed. For example, we washed

doll's clothes because they were dirty. We put the wet clothes out in the sun and after some time they were dry!

1.7.1 Pre-Requisites for Entry into Pre-School

It is assumed by this author that the 30-month-old hearing-impaired child who enters pre-school has attended an early intervention programme. If he has not, the material presented earlier will have to be taught before the child can proceed. In order for the hearing-impaired infant to be ready to attend pre-school he should have the following basic skills:

- i) He should have developed a listening attitude.
- ii) He should recognize a few familiar environmental sounds e.g. The sound of a mixer / the doorbell / the ring of the telephone.
- iii) He should be beginning to make several sound-word associations. e.g. The cat says "miau" / The duck says "quack quack" / The ball goes bounce, bounce, bounce.
- iv) He should be vocalizing plentifully, using his voice to call attention, with the first words emerging.

It is further assumed that the hearing-impaired entrant is appropriately fitted with hearing – aids and wears them for all his waking hours.

1.7.2 Goals for the First Year at Pre-School

The curricular goals outlined below are broad guidelines for teacher working in a special pre-school programme, attended by only hearing-impaired children.

LANGUAGE AND COGNITION:

The period between 2;6 to 3;6 years is crucial to the hearing-impaired preschooler's subsequent linguistic fluency. Teachers and parents must not merely work to significantly increase vocabulary but must focus on developing comprehension for connected language so as to fuel the preschooler's emerging imagination. This linkage between language and thought is the foundation for abstract thinking and must be established in the first year of pre-school. Teachers and parents must facilitate this feeder system by ensuring an appropriate and enriched language programme. It is not enough to be a passive listener to the hearing-impaired pre-schooler however impressive his vocabulary may be. For example the parent / teacher of the young hearing-impaired preschooler who says "sweet, sweet" at the sight of a sweet jar should not give him that sweet without eliciting the sentence pattern "Give me a sweet". The parent/teacher can further help him by asking "Do you want the pink sweet or the yellow sweet" and wait for the child to verbally indicate his choice. Similarly, when the child is struggling to carry a large pail full of sand, it is not enough for the teacher to merely offer, "Let me help you." Instead, apply the seizing method and react 'shall I help you with that pail of sand?' when the child nods, encourage him to verbalize it with "yes" to which the teacher should react "Ooh ! It's so heavy!"

1.7.3 Specific Goals for Language and Cognition

i. Expansion of current vocabulary level to include topics of universal interest.

For example: The existing category of 'Vehicles' may be expanded to include 'helicopters / fire-engines / ambulances / and dump-trucks.' Boys will enjoy

expanding their knowledge of 'a car' with details of the major parts of the car. Other topics may include :

The beach / Parts of the body in greater detail / The doctor / Shopping and the market / Food and how foods taste / Animals, Birds and Insects, / Members of the family, / The barber.

ii. Development of imagination:

The first year at pre-school (2;6 to 3;6 years) is an ideal stage to fuel the child's emerging imagination. Play corners or Dramatic Play areas equipped with costumes of familiar community helpers allow the pre-schooler opportunities to use spoken language to control his imaginary companions. Whether he is dressed as Papa leaving for work or the local bhel-puri vendor, he is encouraged to apply meaningfully all the language that has been fed into him. In addition, he learns social and linguistic skills like turn taking when buying vegetables at the market centre along with his other hearing impaired friends.

iii. Colour Concepts;

- a. Colour names beginning with primary colours. These should be linked to each child's home environment. For example "red" is not merely associated with a traffic light but also to the colour of mamma's bindi.
- b. Sorting by colour (begin with 2 colours).

iv. Play with Blocks:

Building blocks and empty cartoons or cardboard boxes to which a pull-along string is tied provide excellent stimulation for construction. Allow pre-schoolers to build their own spaces and construct their own creations,

without attempting to label or identify what has been built. Playtime with blocks can also be used to develop the child's spatial sense, as well as for comprehension and memory of colour and number.

v. Reading Books:

Large picture books with pictures that provoke questions and stimulate conversation are an excellent source of generating age appropriate language. Parents should be encouraged to spend some time each day reading simple storybooks to their child. These books should have a story line that the child can understand, with large pictures that depict the details of the story as it unfolds. Reading books provide an excellent opportunity to introduce closed-set listening.

1.7.4 Number Readiness Skills

The sandpit and water-play area provide plentiful opportunities to develop many concepts that are fundamental to subsequent number concepts. The first year at pre-school must allow children to understand and discover the meaning of the following concepts:

- i. big and small
- ii. wet and dry
- iii. up and down / on and off
- iv. heavy and light
- v. full and empty
- vi. fat and thin
- vii. few and many
- viii. number values one, two and three

ix loud and soft

x soft and hard

xi Shapes: Begin with the circle. Children must be lead to perceive the circles in their immediate environment, for example shirt buttons are circles as are chapatis.

1.7.5 Listening Skills

The listening attitude that the pre-schooler has just developed must start being more and more finely tuned. Teachers and parents are best advised to provide the pre-schooler with large chunks of acoustic information.

Listening skills need to be developed systematically and sequentially as follows:

i. Sound – word associations.

For example : The dog says bow – bow.

 The boat goes bhub- bhub.

 The top goes round and round and round.

ii. Comprehension of simple commands.

For example: Wave ‘bye – bye’.

 Shut the door.

 Wash your hands.

iii. Expansions of Orectic language that help the hearing-impaired pre-schooler verbalize his feelings.

For example: Oh my God!

 I love you!

What a mess!

Uh-oh! – fell down

iv. Item – selection:

Initially the pre-schooler is given additional acoustic information with associated sounds, which are gradually filtered out.

For example : “Give me the train that goes Koo-Koo” once easily comprehended should be reduced to “Give me/show me the train.”

v. Comprehension of early prepositions.

For example: “Put the ball on/under the table..

vi. Selection of two units

For example : Give me your bag and shoes.

These objectives are in accordance with the auditory Development Curriculum followed by the St.Gabriel’s School for hearing – impaired children in Australia.

1.7.6 Fine Motor Control

These are developed by allowing the child plentiful and varied experiences with different media. Some of these skills have been listed below:

i. Pouring from one container to another.

- allow for different liquids and also sand
- begin with large mouthed containers and graduate to smaller, slimmer containers.
- Control the flow of liquid by pouring up to a pre-marked level.

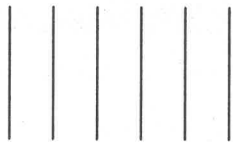
ii. Activities that need co-ordination between the wrist fingers and palm.

For example: Picking up lumps of sugar and large grained dals one at a time/peeling and sticking/using an ink dropper / unscrewing lids, turning knobs/unwrapping paper .

iii. Scribbling with chalk and thick crayons

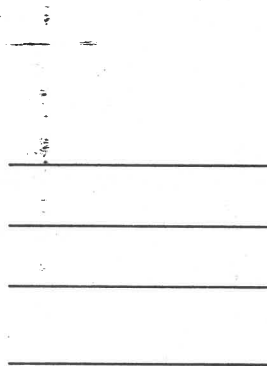
The 30 – 36 months old child loves to scribble with chalk and crayons. This is ideal preparation for later writing skills and should be encouraged through play.

For example: Games designed to increase the length of utterance can capitalize on the child's interest in imitating vertical and horizontal strokes thus.

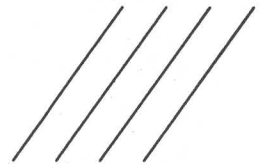


/ ba – ba – ba – ba /

wi /



- u -



/ wi – wi –

Teachers should be aware of these developmental milestones so that they may encourage the appropriate skills through games and play.

1.7.7 Gross Motor Control

The 2:0 to 3:0 year old child is constantly on the move. Teachers should observe their children at play to ensure that their motoric development is age-appropriate. Practising those skills in which there may be some delay can always bridge marked lapses.

As far as possible, teachers should capitalize on the children's intrinsic interest and use this to stimulate listening and speech production. For example children between the ages of 25-29 months love to be chased. Teachers can invest several games to elicit babbling: the child is encouraged to babble ba-ba-ba / while chasing his mother and to say / Boo / when he catches her.

The beginning pre-schooler should be allowed to spend time on the play-ground each day so that he may go down slides, swing on swings and jump off the lowest rung of the jungle gym. The 3;0 year old pre-schooler who loves to try out new types of movements is ready to gallop like a horse babbling / tabruk tabruk / . or / giddy up giddy up/ .

The first year at pre-school is crucial in the language development of a hearing impaired child. Teachers and parents can transform it into a thoroughly enjoyable and memorable year for the child and propel him towards fluent speech.

1.8 AN INTRODUCTION TO THE MATERNAL REFLECTIVE METHOD AS THE SOURCE OF DEVELOPING LANGUAGE IN DEAF CHILDREN.

The Maternal Reflective Method is an attitude to developing language in profoundly deaf children. It has been formulated by Fr, Van Uden and focuses primarily on

developing oral language but is just as effective with Braille and fingerspelling. The term “Maternal” refers to the attitude of the teacher who begins to converse with an as yet languageless hearing-impaired child as would any mother with her infant. The characteristic features of this discourse have already been discussed in the section entitled “Motherse”. The term “Reflective” places great emphasis on the need for the child to discover the structure of language on his own and the teacher’s role in guiding his discovery so that he can make more and correct generalizations.

e.g. A five year old child who says “many many bussss (“instead of “many, many buses”) may be grammatically incorrect but he is showing his awareness of the need to use a plural marker. Through the reflective way of working the teacher does not correct his mistake but instead guides him to discover the plural rule (with exceptions) for himself.

The Maternal Reflective Method draws on Conversation as its sole source of generating language. “Conversation” is the spontaneous exchange of ideas / thoughts between children. This total reliance on “conversation” is abundantly justified by the fact that “conversation” embodies the entire structure of a language; Questions, statements, commands and assertions, In addition, conversation develops empathy (i.e. sensitivity to people, objects and events outside of ourselves) broadening the child’s social field and making him less egocentric. Research shows that it is ultimately conversation that is most crucial to the development of language.

In order for a classroom conversation to be a valuable contribution to the hearing impaired child’s language development, it must be child-centered. This means that the conversation must be based on an idea that originated from the child, either verbally or by gesture. The most effective way to enter into conversation with a young hearing-impaired child is to centre it around a shared experience or interest that took place in “the here and now, “ e.g. A dead fly generated the following lively conversation in a class of three and a half year olds:

Nilufer : Look ! The fly is sleeping.

Miss S : No, it's dead.

Nobin : Oh my God !

The fact that the event took place in the presence of all the children ensured that all of them understood the topic of discussion and could contribute meaningfully to it. If a **shared experience** is ignored, children often end up talking about something that concerns each one of them individually, making discourse disjointed and meaningless.

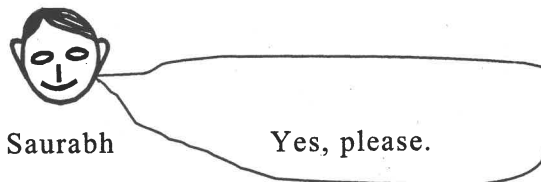
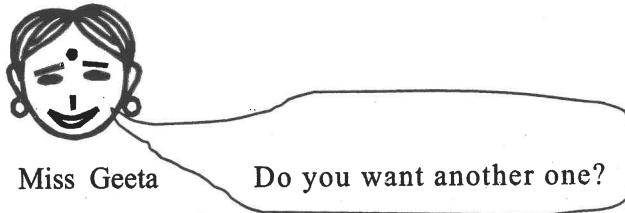
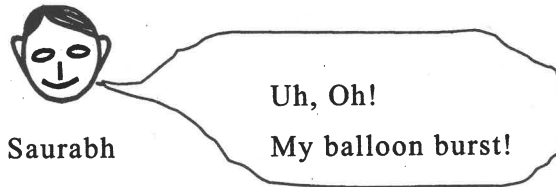
1.8.1 Readiness for Conversation

Once a hearing-impaired child begins to use his voice constantly to express himself, begins to ask spontaneous questions (e.g. "Where's Mama?" When he notices Mother's absence),. begins to react to situations verbally (e.g, child agitatedly gestures and vocalizes " b^un b^" for "The balloon burst."), ... may be considered ready for conversation.

The teacher must be able to correctly interpret the child's thoughts for which she must be very familiar with the child's family and his daily routine. If she is not, she risks imposing a sentence on the child instead of verbalizing his idea or feelings. Like a mother, the teacher seizes the child's thought and expands on that contribution, age-appropriately. e.g. In the above example of the agitated three and a half year old, teacher may have said, "Uh, oh! My balloon burst ! ". Having seized the young child's idea and verbalized it, the teacher plays the double role and reacts to the child's utterance appropriately. e.g. The teacher may have asked the child "Do you want another one? " or " Were you scared?" in an effort to console the agitated child.

This exchange is immediately visualized on the blackboard in speech balloons so as to deposit this language in the child's memory.

e.g.



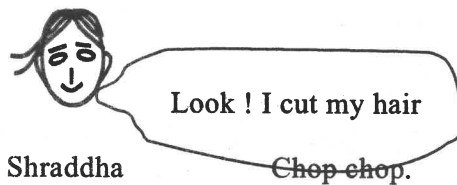
(Show the child wearing a hearing aid.)

The picture on the top right hand corner is a theme picture to remind the child what the conversation was about. Theme pictures should not be literal but should strive to trigger the child's memory to recall the entire conversation.

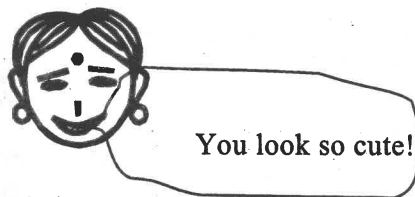
This conversation as visualized on the blackboard is immediately written in the child's conversation book. Later he reads it aloud phrase by phrase after the

teacher. It is crucial to keep the phrase intact, as it is an important means of developing long-term memory. Children, who are trained to read word-for-word, become in Fr. Van Uden's opinion "word readers" and find it difficult to understand the overall meaning of the sentence or texts.

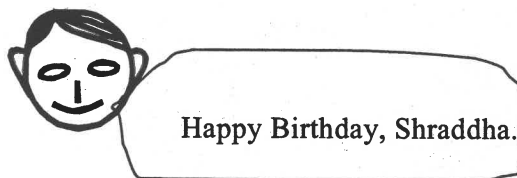
Some examples of visualized conversation with three year old profoundly deaf children are given below:



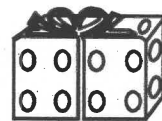
Shraddha

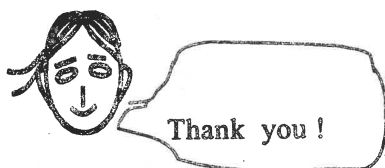


Miss S



Hamid





Shraddha

Once the child has read aloud this conversation by repeating it after the adult phrase by phrase several times, he may be asked simple oral questions on the topic.

1.5.4 Examples of Oral Questions on Visualized Conversations

- Conversation 1.
- i. Whose birthday was it ? (mine)
 - ii. What did Hamid give you ? (a gift or a present)
- Conversation 2.
- i. Who cut her hair ? (Shraddha)
 - ii. What did you use to cut your hair ? (scissors)

Thus, hearing-impaired children come to fluent oral conversation by beginning with heart-to-heart conversation.

1.8.2 Conversation and Reading Readiness

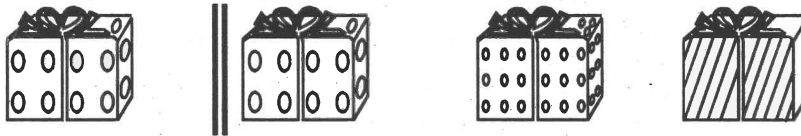
The language generated from the weekly or fortnightly heart- to-heart conversation should be used as a base for developing reading readiness in hearing-impaired pre-schoolers.

Some examples are given below, based on the earlier conversations on a birthday and a haircut:

- i. Which one is the same ?



The last example of scissors assumes that the child can tell visual difference in direction or position. The differences need to be graded, so that they become more and more subtle as the hearing – impaired pre-schooler develops better visual discrimination skills. In the example below, the only difference is that of design in the wrapped gift. These differences in design too, can become more



and more subtle.

It is assumed that all reading readiness exercises are done auditorily. The instruction is given auditorily (e.g. "Show me the same one" or "Which one is the same?") and so also is any correction (For example : "Do you think that's the same? Look carefully and tell me." or "No, I want you to sort by color.")

The reading readiness programme needs to be sequential and tailored to incorporate the individual pre-schooler's receptive vocabulary.

1.8.3 Conversation and Pre-Number Concepts

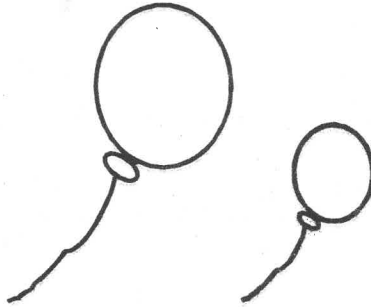
Hearing-impaired toddlers should be exposed to the language of numbers as early as their hearing friends. So much of everyday conversation in families revolves around number concepts, (e.g. "Would you like some more jam?) and the hearing-impaired toddler should be immersed in this enriched language input too. As discussed earlier, the daily bath routine provides an excellent opportunity to train the infant's body scheme and to expose him to early number concepts. For example, when bathing the child, mothers can use numbers spontaneously. "Come let me dry your legs. Look, you have two legs. Give me one leg and I'll dry that and then give me your other leg".

Parents and teachers should train themselves to capitalize on the many everyday activities that provide the foundation for the language of comparison and numbers. It is not uncommon to see hearing-impaired toddlers struggle to walk in their parents' shoes. Mothers should immediately seize such opportunities to use relative concepts, such as "Uh, oh ! Mama's shoe is too big. Look! Your shoe is smaller. Be careful that you don't fall ! Hearing-impaired toddlers at two and half years of age will soak up these concepts quickly if provided with plentiful and meaningful experiences. These may later be applied to formal worksheets on "Which is bigger / smaller" as the child grows older.

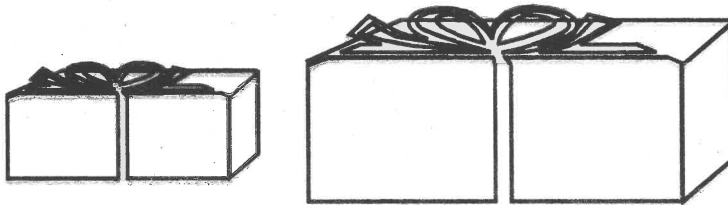
Heart-to-heart conversations if skillfully utilized can provide the foundation for the development of pre-number concepts. The conversations on a birthday and a

haircut, given earlier may lead to the following pre-number concepts being taught.

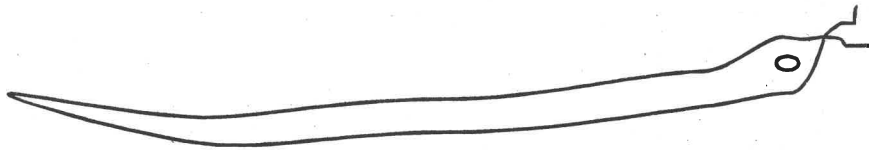
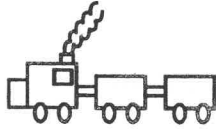
i. Colour the big balloon red.



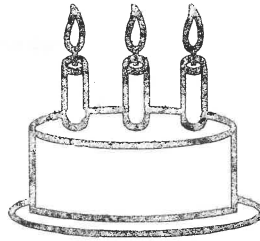
ii. Colour the small gift yellow.



iii Circle those that are long.



iv. How many candles are there on this cake ?



It is not long before the hearing impaired three year old begins to demand “two sweets” as a reward for a good day’s work being done. Number concepts and the related world of comparison should be incorporated informally into rhymes, pretend play, mealtimes and stories. The story of “Three Billy Goats Gruff” provides a delightful and informal opportunity to understand and use relative terms such as “bigger” and “smaller”.

The hearing-impaired preschooler quickly absorbs language that is meaningful to him and that is rooted in first-hand experience. The language programme in the nursery year must capitalize on this natural learning preference.

The nursery year provides the foundations for later more advanced skills. The language programme must draw from the child’s developmental readiness through age appropriate stories, directed activities and outings.

1.9 STORY TELLING WITH YOUNG H. I. CHILDREN

Story-time provides an excellent opportunity for listening. Seated on his parents’ or teacher’s lap, the hearing-impaired pre-schooler learns to listen as the auditory signal precedes the visual signal (i.e. the picture). The early books that the preschooler encounters should have large, clear, colourful illustrations, which depict situations and show action so as to generate plentiful conversation. The story line in these early books should be simple and should pertain to something that the child has experienced himself. Repetitive language helps fix

the target language pattern in the pre-schooler's memory as is evident from books such as "Buzz ... zz said the bee". Parents and educators should use conversational and orrectic language when narrating stories, as the pre-schooler from the context readily understands this.

1.10 OUTINGS FOR YOUNG HEARING IMPAIRED CHILDREN

Pre-schoolers learn by doing. Outings that are co-ordinated with the topic of heart-to-heart conversation provide excellent opportunities to fix language in the hearing impaired child's memory through meaningful experience. For example, the conversation on a repaired cycle provides of opportune moment to visit the mechanic's workshop. Vocabulary and language related to the mechanic will be quickly absorbed whereas it would present a challenge if it were to be taught objectively.

It is important that the accompanying adults prepare hearing-impaired preschoolers for such outings, so that verbal language acts as a signal for an event.

This helps the preschooler develop anticipation and with it predictability, all of which eventually create security. Parents and teachers should be trained to hang "We have gone out" cards with an accompanying illustration of boarding the school bus and to replace them with "We are back in school / home" duly illustrated, on their return. Systematic preparation for meaningful events encourages hearing-impaired pre-schoolers to question and develop curiosity.

1.11 DIRECTED ACTIVITIES FOR YOUNG H. I. CHILDREN

Parents and educators may choose to focus the week's vocabulary and language targets on a meaningful activity that can be done in the **here and now**. These "directed activities" are directed by the adult towards an event that the pre-schooler's participate in together. Hence, the language supplied is a commentary on the event and becomes self-explanatory. These provide excellent opportunities for orrectic language (e.g. "Yummy ! I like ice-cream" in a directed activity on making ice-cream or "Uh-Oh! The ice-cream has melted.") and should incorporate an interesting turn of events. For example the family's pet dog eating the jelly that the child made provides an amusing twist!

These anecdotes should be summarized in well-illustrated three- picture sequence stories, to be used for individual listening. It is customary to use the present continuous tense with these pictures – sequences.

1.12 CONCLUSION

Every preschooler's day is packed with plentiful and stimulating language opportunities. Parents and educators who seize these ordinary opportunities can make each day special for their hearing-impaired pre schoolers. Provide your hearing impaired youngster with the gift of transforming each day so that he may share it with his hearing friends.

1.13 SELF – STUDY

II. Indicate whether the following statements are True or False. If false correct the statements.

1. Children who are 18 months old and have been diagnosed as having a hearing loss must wait until they are older to be taught language and speech.
 2. When beginning to develop a listening attitude in very young children, it is best to begin with large chunks of acoustic information.
 3. Profoundly deaf children cannot be expected to develop good listening skills.
- III. Describe how you would develop a listening attitude in an 18-month-old baby, diagnosed as having a hearing loss. List five activities that you would suggest to parents of an 18-month-old hearing impaired child, to develop early listening skills in that child.
- IV. A 2½-year-old profoundly deaf child comes excitedly up to you, gesturing that he fell down. He keeps repeating “fe aun”.
- a) Write a heart-to-heart conversation that you could have with this child on the above topic.
 - b) Outline the follow-up you would plan to ensure that the child develops oral language on this topic.
- IV. Outline how you would lead a 2½-year-old profoundly deaf child to develop the concept of “big” and “small”

1.14 ASSIGNMENTS

1. Make a set of 3 picture-sequences for each of the following topics to be used with a 3 year old child :

- a) A child's daily routine
- b) An outing with parents
- c) A rainy day

Write out the sentence accompanying each picture.

- 2. Design a set of teaching-aids to introduce the sounds of vehicles and animals to a 18 month old profoundly deaf baby.
- 3. Outline in detail games / activities to teach the concepts "big" and "small" to young profoundly deaf children.

1.15 POINTS FOR DISCUSSION/CLARIFICATION

After going through the unit you may like to have further discussion on some points and clarification on other. Note down those points below :

1.15.1 Points for Discussion

1.15.2 Points for Clarification

1.16 REFERENCES

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9. Listening games for Littles.

UNIT – 1 : APPENDIX

The pictures in these two stories are jumbled. Children may be asked to put/arrange these in proper sequences

1.



2.



UNIT 2:PRE-SCHOOL TRAINING PROGRAMMES: OVERVIEW, NEED, REQUIREMENTS AND PLAN OF ACTION.

STRUCTURE

- 2.1 Introduction**
- 2.2 Objectives**
- 2.3 Philosophy of a Preprimary Programme**
- 2.4 Broad goals of a Preprimary Programme**
- 2.5 Language Goals**
- 2.6 Areas in the Preprimary Curriculum**
 - 2.6.1 Physical Growth and Development
 - 2.6.2 Growth of Communication Skills
 - 2.6.3 Intellectual and Creative Growth and Development
 - 2.6.4 Social and Emotional growth and Development
- 2.7 Teaching Principles and Techniques**
 - 2.7.1 Know the Child
 - 2.7.2 Collecting Materials
 - 2.7.3 Shaping Learning – Providing a Good Climate for Learning
 - 2.7.4 Motivation
 - 2.7.5 Repetition

- 2.7.6 Incidental Learning
- 2.7.7 Questioning Techniques
- 2.7.8 Parents as Partners
- 2.8 Curriculum Guide**
 - 2.8.1 An Integrated Language Arts Programme
 - 2.8.2 Units in Content Areas
- 2.9 Instructional or Unit Planning**
 - 2.9.1 Unit Planning
 - 2.9.2 Related Vocabulary and Structures
- 2.10 Providing Language Learning Experiences**
 - 2.10.1 Individual and Class News and Conversations
 - 2.10.2 Story Telling and Dramatization
 - 2.10.3 Field Trips and Excursions
 - 2.10.4 Direct Experiences and Joint Activities
 - 2.10.5 Use of Pictures
 - 2.10.6 Other Activities
- 2.11 Evaluation and Records**
- 2.12 Sample Units**
 - 2.12.1 Rain and Water
 - 2.12.2 Transport
- 2.13 Design for an Ideal Preprimary Programme**
 - 2.13.1 Outdoor Play Area

- 2.13.2 Indoor Area
- 2.13.3 Language Area
- 2.13.4 Speech and Music Area

2.14 Summary

2.15 Self Study

2.16 Assignments

2.17 Points for discussion/clarification

2.18 References

2.19 Appendix

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The early years in a child's life, namely the first 6-7 years, are the optimal for the development of communication, language and cognition. It is a time of great joy and exploration. It is the time when maximum and most rapid growth takes place in the human system.

During this span of time infinite number of neurological pathways are being established and linked in the brain. The brain is developing fast and the child has the ability to assimilate and absorb at a phenomenal rate. This development depends largely on the quality of interaction between the child and his/her immediate environment namely parents, family and teachers.

Many hearing impaired children, particularly from towns and villages, may have to be admitted in the pre-primary class when they are already 4 or 5 years of age and have not attended any early intervention programme. The pre school programme described in this unit is expected to cater to the needs of such children too, and the child may take 4 to 5 years to complete the programme successfully.

2.2 OBJECTIVES

On completion of this unit the student will be able to

- Discuss the importance of an integrated language arts programme in the education of young deaf children
- Discuss the importance of incidental learning with examples
- Discuss different question forms and questioning techniques
- Discuss the importance of parent participation for the success of a preprimary programme
- Discuss the importance of repeated meaningful repetitions giving examples
- Explain the importance of providing meaningful natural language and show through examples how it can best be achieved
- Discuss general goals of a preprimary programme
- Explain the specific pragmatic goals in the programme
- Enumerate the different units in content areas
- Develop units based on content areas to meet preprimary goals
- Prepare reading material and other material appropriate to the age and needs of the child.

2.3 PHILOSOPHY OF A PREPRIMARY PROGRAMME

Most early childhood programmes follow the philosophy -

“When I see and hear, I learn;
When I do, I understand.”

The child’s intellectual, emotional, social and moral potentials are carefully cultivated and guided in a developmentally appropriate learning environment, which fosters the growth of the whole child.

The child, even a deaf child, is viewed as an active learner, a capable, intelligent and powerful individual who is an active participant in the development of knowledge and skills. The teacher and parent are facilitators or mediators and the environment serves as the powerful third dimension.

2.4 BROAD GOALS OR OBJECTIVES OF A PREPRIMARY PROGRAMME

- The goal of an educational programme for any child, normal, deaf, visually impaired, mentally challenged, physically challenged or otherwise is having him/her reach his full potential so he may function as a contributing member of society.
- The education of deaf children is not significantly different in this respect although the quality, quantity and time required for learning may vary.
- The goals of any early childhood programme are to provide a firm foundation for further academic learning or school readiness.
- Fluency in oral language and communication, reading, writing, spelling and arithmetic are the prerequisites for academic success. The firm foundation for all these is laid down in a preschool or early education programme. These are further consolidated at the primary level.

Children have to

- Learn how to become independent in many of their self help skills
- Begin to learn social skills allowing them to work, learn and play with their peers
- Build on their language skills and knowledge and concepts of the world around them.

They explore the world around them, connecting science, social studies, math and literacy subjects at their level of intellectual maturity and ability and experiential opportunities.

2.5 LANGUAGE GOALS

One of the crucial goals of a preschool language programme is the development of basic, meaningful functional language upon which further educational development can be based. In actual terms it means that the deaf child has to learn basic pragmatic skills which will enable him to communicate with others by conversing with them along with developing his morphological, phonological, syntactic and semantic abilities. Pragmatics is the social and interactional use of language – i.e. real life communication. Language for the deaf child must be able to be used by him for :

- **Informing** - Suraj will not come to school today.
- **Describing** - Ram's bag is blue, mine is red.
- **Obtaining information** - What have you got in that bag ?
- **Requesting** - Please
- **Protesting** - I don't like coffee.
- **Commenting** - Meena's dress is nice.
- **Denying** - I did not break that glass.
- **Acknowledging** - Yes, I have received the box of chocolates.
- **Summoning attention** - Look here, the puppy is asleep.

2.6 AREAS IN A PREPRIMARY CURRICULUM

There is one important point that has to be borne in mind by the teachers and parents of the deaf children; - **AT all times, any activity, any experience of the child, any lesson, has to be considered as an opportunity to provide language, and the event has to be accompanied**

or immediately followed by language usage – oral, and/or written, and/or signs for all words used simultaneously with speech. The language should be appropriate to his level of language ability. The examples are given in this unit wherever possible.

2.6.1 Physical Growth and Development

A - Motor Skills

Development of gross-motor coordination or large muscles

- All outdoor play equipment such as swings, slides, seesaws, jungle gym
- Operating vehicles, cars, scooters, cycles, manipulative toys and games
- Running, jumping, climbing, throwing, catching, swimming, yoga etc.
- Large indoor equipment such as planks, blocks etc.

Development of fine-motor coordination or small muscles

- Cutting, pasting, etc.
- Painting and crayoning, colouring, drawing
- Handling spoon, fork, etc.
- Buttoning and zipping, and tying, lacing, hooking
- Sand and water play, pouring, piling

The language that the child should learn from these activities could be :

- **Nouns** – all the naming words that can used with these activities such as, slide, swing, bat , ball; names of common vehicles, colours, articles like shirt, button, shoes, spoon, plate, sand, water, etc.
- **Verbs** - such as run, jump, play, cut, hold, catch, draw, pour, push, pull, take, give, spill, etc.
- **Adjectives and adverbs** - appropriate to the situation and activity.

B - Preacademic skills

- Visual Skills
- Auditory Skills
- Tactile Skills
- Temporal Sequencing Skills
- Body Awareness

B.1 Visual Skills

These will include ability to visually perceive, recognize, discriminate, sequence, visually recall and retain stimuli, etc. and are described by use of words such as big, small, same, different, far, near behind, in front of, here, there, dirty beautiful, half, full, whole, round square, on, up, down, above, below, copy, draw, keep, etc.

B.2 Auditory Skills

- Auditory Reception – ability to receive sound input
- Auditory Localization – ability to recognize direction where sound originates
- Auditory Discrimination – ability to note similarities and differences between sounds, words, however subtle, using the auditory mode alone
- Auditory Analyzing – ability to perceive the order in which sound comes
- Auditory – Vocal Association – ability to relate concepts presented orally and react to them vocally
- Auditory Sequential Memory and Recall – ability to recall and retain auditory stimuli presented, in correct sequential order
- Auditory Synthesizing – ability to synthesize separate parts of a word and pronounce it using only auditory clues
- Auditory Closure – ability to identify objects from an incomplete presentation

- Auditory Rhythm and Sequencing – ability to perceive and imitate auditory rhythms and sequences
- Auditory – Visual Integration – ability to integrate auditory and visual stimuli

B.3 Tactile Skills

- Ability to perceive and integrate stimuli received through kinesthetic, motor and tactile-cutaneous (haptic) channels expressed through words like soft, rough, hard, etc.

B.4 Temporal Sequencing Skills

- Ability to place events, pictures, diagrams, patterns in temporal order. Valuable language work is involved – first, second, last, first, next, later, before, after, middle etc.

B.5 Body Awareness

- Laterality – awareness of two sides of the body
- Directionality – ability to know left from right away from the body

(For details of activities to develop pre-reading skills refer to the block on reading.)

2.6.2 Growth of Communication Skills

Development of language (See following pages)

- development of oral language
- pre-reading and pre-writing skills
- beginnings of phonics teaching
- development and introduction to the written word

Development of Speech and Speech Reading

- speech training
- auditory training
- speech reading

2.6.3 Intellectual and Creative Growth and Development

Creative and Content Areas :-

- Art and Craft and 3-D Play :
Using clay, play dough, paints, finger-paints, crayons, pencils, scissors, paper, glue, blocks.
- Dramatic Play :
Dressing up, dramatizing stories, housekeeping corner, lets pretend
- Music and Rhythm :
Games, dances, songs, poems, rise of rhythm and other instruments (band activities)
- Math Skills (See following pages)
- Science Skills
- Social Studies Skills

2.6.4 Social and Emotional Growth and Development

- Learning self-help skills and caring for himself,
- Learning, sharing and cooperation,
- Handling feelings of aggression, anger, fear, hostility, loneliness,
- Developing a positive self concept – feelings of adequacy and belonging to his peer group and adults,
- Learning to work singly and in groups,
- Developing empathy for others,
- Developing a routine in terms of punctuality, arrival, dismissal, outdoor routines, rules and regulations.

2.7 TEACHING PRINCIPLES AND TECHNIQUES – A DESIGN FOR DOING AND LEARNING

2.7.1 Know the Child

The teacher is responsible for the academic achievements and welfare of children during school hours. To do this effectively it is imperative for the teacher to know each child in his/her class. This means having a complete and thorough knowledge of the child, his home environment, his strengths and his weaknesses. This can only be gleaned through careful documenting of case histories and observation and informal testing. Detailed records have to be kept in each area. Specific assessments of language levels, assets and deficits in perceptual skills have to be documented and followed up when preparing a programme. **This is also applicable for IEP –Individualized educational programme.**

The multidimensional curriculum is designed to assist the teacher in her efforts to develop all pre-academic skills among the children.

2.7.2 Collecting Materials – Teacher Made Materials

It is important to make sure that the programme has adequate material for children to explore so as to develop all perceptual skills mentioned earlier. In addition to teacher made games and readily available material, simple things can be collected, stored and used as the basis for a number of games.

2.7.2 Learning – Providing a Good Climate for Learning

A child's ability to reason and solve problems develops as he matures, but his inadequate environment and or language skills (as in the case of a deaf child) may slow him down.

Teachers and parents have the responsibility to help children achieve and maintain their learning rate.

It is important to provide a classroom climate that is right for optimal learning. An important requisite for the child is **freedom from fear and freedom to make mistakes without punishment** or threat of

punishment. Anxiety has to be minimized if maximum learning is to take place. Learning comes best from doing something purposeful and worthwhile. In effect the teacher must arrange the environment to exploit the child's interests and natural curiosity.

Teachers of deaf children find themselves continually in the position of having to point out errors in the language and speech of their pupils. It is very important that correction takes place in a non-threatening way, e.g. pat or say 'well....' if the child is wrong and then gently the teacher herself in a complete sentence may give the correct answer.

Children learn best from being successful. It is therefore important to teach and correct so that the child can experience the maximum success – i.e. make the steps for learning and success, small and achievable so they can lead up to a task or skill successfully completed.

Another example could be suppose a profoundly deaf child age 6-7 years comes to school late one rainy day and says not very intelligibly, "No rickshaw. I wet. Mummy car." There are enough differences from normal sentence patterns for several language and speech lessons. It would however be wise not to attempt to correct all errors at one go. The teacher must remember that a child can best process one error at a time especially if repetition is required to bring it from short-term memory into spontaneous usage. It is best to start correction of language structures and then superimpose correct speech on it.

The teacher could probably rephrase the child's message in correct structures in a conversational approach and also comment on the situation with "I'm glad you're here now. Its been raining hard. Are you wet now? You better get into some dry clothes. I guess the rickshaw got stuck. Can you say "I got wet " or "It is raining" or "I came in the car". If the child manages that correctly the teacher can say "Now your sentence is good. I'll help you with the speech later."

The child was corrected in a relaxed atmosphere and not frustrated with too much correction. Later she can attend to further corrections and also in the class expand on the idea of rain, wetness, getting stuck etc. and write short stories based on these.

2.7.4 Motivation

Performance occurs because of a need or inducement to perform i.e. motivation.

- Extrinsic Rewards – adults are motivated to work for direct rewards – money, praise etc. We assume that children also want something tangible – a gold star, points, praise, tokens etc. These however have to be judiciously used so as not to cause dependence.

- Intrinsic rewards – As the child grows motivation from within is built upon sequential successes; tiny steps forward each day towards a distant goal. This leads to inner satisfaction and inducement to try next step.

How do we do this –

- Provide more opportunities for success rather than failure. Begin an assignment at his functional level and stop just short of his tolerance level
- Use a sandwich method of teaching – failure between two successes. Begin with what he can do, go to the next step and if he fails, go to the first step where the child met success. Always end with success.
- Let the child do independently what he is able to accomplish on his own and prop or support the difficult step and phase out the support as competence develops.
- The teacher who presents **tiny steps each day towards a difficult goal** will find her children demonstrating the value of intrinsic reward. Giant steps are meant only for a limited number of children and those left behind soon lose interest and become diffident as they find success elusive.

2.7.5 Repetitions

Repetition of a stimulus is a basic tenet of learning.

A child learns only after constant repetition in meaningful situations. The artful teacher has to contrive situations so as to constantly reinforce previously learned language and concepts so that they are consolidated and internalized. Drills have to be disguised as games and activities so as to be effective.

2.7.6 Incidental Learning

Incidental learning occurs throughout the day without previous planning from situations that arise spontaneously. A good teacher must grab all situations of incidental learning and turn them into meaningful conversation and language lessons.

Eg. On discovering a spider's web in the classroom :

The teacher can take time aside to teach about the spider, his legs, his web, insects and their 6 legs, other animals and thus expand children's knowledge.

Sample language :

Oh look! What is this?

This is a spider.

The spider is in a web.

The spider lives in the web.

Where do you live?

There is a fly in the web too.

The spider caught the fly.

The spider will eat the fly.

Look at the body.

Isn't it hairy?

Can you count the legs?

That's right Sachin; the spider has 8 legs.

How many legs do we have?

We have only 2 legs.

Have you seen a snake?

How many legs does a snake have?

How many legs does a dog have?

How many legs does a mosquito have?

Let's walk like a spider.

Let's slither like a snake

The teacher should have pictures of a snake, a dog, and a mosquito ready with her.

A book can be made to keep track of incidental occurrences, which can be referred to. Material for these can be from news, events etc. that the children experience or comment or ask about.

2.7.7 Questioning Techniques

The ability to understand, ask and answer questions is a goal which parents and teachers hope the deaf child will reach as early as possible. The deaf child who has learned to understand correctly, answer, and ask a question has come a long way – he is then using speech as a social activity and is nearing the stage when speech can be used to influence those around him.

Questions and answers cause confusion in many deaf children, especially when the need to use them in social situation arises. Foundation to tackle this has to be laid in the early preschool years. Parents and teachers have to constantly ask questions. **In the beginning, the adult has to do both the asking and the answering.** Simple questions involving who, what and where arise many times during the day. The child has to be helped to see the relationship between the question and answer.

E.g. Oh look! Who has come!

What is that?

That is a blue car./a red cycle.

Who is in the car?

Brinda is in the car / on the cycle.

That is Brinda's car / cycle.

Where is the car / cycle ?

The car is under the tree.

Brinda parked the car under the tree.

Later it could even include 'Why'.

The child may go through a stage of imitating both question and answer before he recognizes the relationship between the question and answer. It may take a little time for the child to realize that when he is asked 'What colour is the _____?', the answer is normally red, blue, green etc. or that every time the speaker says 'Who is that?' a person is referred to. Through constant exposure the child realizes that one person asks a question and another responds.

It takes a long time for children to acquire the knowledge and language that enables him to ask and answer questions even of the simplest variety.

- Work with nouns provides opportunities for 'What is that?' 'Who is that?'
- With adjectives 'What colour?'
- With prepositions 'Where?'
- Number work gives opportunity to teach 'how much, how many, how _____?'
- Stories give opportunities for 'What happened?' 'When?' 'How?' 'Why?'
- Question games provide enjoyable ways of learning question forms.

2.7.8 Parents as Partners in the Communication Team

Learning is a continuous, on going activity. Language learning takes place through all the waking hours of the day. Active parent participation in the preschool programme is essential if it is to be a

success. Work done during school hours has to be reinforced and expanded through varied repetitions and experiences outside the classroom. It is here that parent participation is vital. Parents have to be made active partners in their child's education – a mediator to learning – an integral part of the communication team. Group conferences, individual conferences, observations, demonstrations, all help to teach and work with their child.

2.8 CURRICULUM GUIDE

2.8.1 An Integrated Language Arts Programme

Language is not only the objective in mind for all deaf children, but also its means. All activities are language experiences. Language and every aspect of a child's life are interrelated and the goal of a preprimary education programme is to teach language as naturally as possible to deaf children in much the same way as hearing children learn.

Language and curriculum are intrinsically linked. It is not possible to have one without the other. Language has to be drawn not only from the everyday life experiences but also from **content areas** like science and social studies and presented through meaningful experiences. Only then can language become relevant to the child and easily assimilated and internalized. **Content areas have to be the source of both receptive and expressive language development** – i.e. vocabulary, syntax, speech, and speech reading and auditory training material.

Language is best developed and stabilized through a need, interest and experience based integrated language arts programme or curriculum.

2.8,2 Units in Content Areas

SCIENCE

Parts of our body
relationships

Our sense organs

Care of our body

Growth of our body

- Foods we eat
neighbourhood, i.e. park, market,
- Clothes we wear
station, etc.
- Animals – wild
 - farm and pet
 - water
 - insects
and entertainment
 - birds

- Plants

- Weather and Seasons
- Water
- Air
- The earth
- The sky and the Universe
- Machines, Force and Matter
- Transport

SOCIAL STUDIES

- Ourselves – our body

The self

The family and social

Our environment

- home

- school

-

hospital,

Our emotions

Our country

Our world

Recreation or games

Our helpers

Our festivals

- Living and Non-living Things

Complimentary Units – Math Concepts

The words that will come under the complimentary units can be used with all the topics mentioned above.

- Shape and Form
- Number
- Size, length, area
- Weight, volume
- Time
- Classification and Categorization of Sets
- Comparatives
- Spatial Relations
- Beginnings of Addition and Subtraction

The list of topics may initially appear intimidating, but actually it is the level of content that you present that is important. For example, the topic '**The sky and the universe**' – the teacher may just say, 'See the clouds in the sky. I cannot see the Sun. Can you ?' She can help the children to draw the sky with different things in it. Let the children use their imagination. Then she can talk about each child's picture.

Another example could be of the unit on '**The family and social relationships**'.

Children love to talk about their family members and they feel happy when the teacher talks about their family. With young H.I. children below 5/6 years of age, the conversation will have to be with the use of photographs. But with children above that (when in many cases the parents are not able to provide a family photograph) the teacher can draw family pictures with stick figures as shown in the Appendix pages 1 & 2

at the end of this unit. The information about the no. of persons in the family, their names, the relationships, their ages etc. can be obtained from the parents. The teacher can draw a picture of her family too.

The conversation / write-up on it could be something like –

- | | |
|--|---------------------|
| • This is Minoo's family .
family. | This is Mohan's |
| • There are 6 persons in Minoo's family.
in his family. | There are 6 persons |
| • Minoo has 1 sister and one brother.
and 1 baby brother. | Mohan has 2 sisters |
| • Her sister's name is Neeta.
walk as yet. | The baby cannot |

and so on.....

When ever opportunity arises their ages can be written below the pictures. All the photographs / pictures can be placed on a big chart paper and displayed on the soft board. Through the conversations about these, the children can understand the concept of family – their own and others -, and learn to answer questions like 'who is this?', 'how many?', 'how old is --- ?', etc. This can also be linked later to the Unit on Animals by showing pictures of a dog's family, a lion's family, and so on. The opportunity to use the **possessive case 'Mohan's', dog's**, can be seen here. Comparing the information in the pictures will help them to understand a lot of things and comprehend and understand the related language used by the teacher.

(Line drawing pictures that can be drawn by the teacher are given as examples in the Appendix to this unit on 2 pages.)

INSTRUCTIONAL PLANNING

Subjects and units are chosen so as to cover vocabulary and structures (phrases, sentences, questions) for daily communication needs and cognitive growth. Use must be made of events occurring at home and at school. These experiences are exceedingly important for cognitive development. **The teacher has to constantly restructure and represent these experiences in linguistic terms so as to develop language and enable the child to think in terms of words.** It is very important therefore to have an instructional plan or unit plan so that learning experiences maybe systematically arranged and planned and ample scope is provided for repetition.

2.8.2 Instructional or Unit Planning Includes

- Choosing a relevant topic
- Clarifying and stating related concepts and facts which are to be developed
- Selection of different activities providing for constant repetition of target vocabulary in meaningful situations
- Selecting vocabulary tentatively with modifications made if necessary during the teaching process
- Selecting language structures to be used and reinforced
- Selection and statement of specific question form
- Planning evaluation

2.8.3 Related Vocabulary and Structures

Vocabulary and structures, which are the spontaneous natural language appropriate to the given situation, are to be developed. Vocabulary has to be stabilized through a large number of direct experiences, news, activities, games, etc. which provide for **constant repetition**. Language structures are developed through repetition of phrases, commands, statements, questions and answers, negations, etc.

The list given below is by no means exhaustive. It is only an indication of appropriate language. Eg.

- **Expressions or Orectic Language.**

Hi, Hello!

Wait a minute

Stop that

Okay

That's fine

Never mind

Please... Thank you

Lets go

Ouch

Poor thing

Its lovely/awesome/beautiful

That's awful/terrible/wonderful/great

Show me

I'm sorry

Goodbye; Bye bye

Hurry up

What fun

How exciting

Well done

Oh my god

Wow

What a mess

How nice / wonderful / sad

Don't be silly

Wait a minute

Nice to see you

• **Language through statements, commands and questions**

Hello _____.(name)

Goodbye

_____. (name)

We're early. Jigar is late/absent/sick.

Please wait.

I'm done. / tired.

I've finished

Its hot

Sit down

Please move.

Come here

Walk, don't run.

Wait for me

Lets go

Its my turn

(Its) Time for lunch - to go home.

Put away the blocks.

Bring out the crayons. /scissors /gum
room.

Lets sweep the

Switch on the fan.

Switch off the lights

Put on your hearing aid
hearing aid.

Turn/take off your

Hang up your bottle.

Put your bag down.

Find _____ . (name)

_____.(name)

Go for speech.

Its my turn

May we have _____ ?

_____ ?

Where is your _____ ?

fell)?

What is this/that?

What's the matter?

going?

What's in the _____ ?

these?

Take off your shoes.

Jasubhai is here.

Call

Wash your hands

May I _____ ?

Where _____ is

Who _____ (came,

What happened?

Where are we

How many are

2.10 PROVIDING LANGUAGE LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Exposing the deaf child to language and communication is the all-pervading aim of the preschool teacher, for it is through the use of language that the deaf child matures normally and happily. The teacher must remember that the deaf child must be given many opportunities for using and practicing language, while the hearing child automatically through his ears finds his own. Deaf children need a skillful teacher – one who can saturate them with appropriate language and supply their need for it. **At the same time, the teacher must wary of not going too fast in giving new language and adding too many new language principles before the children have had sufficient practice to become familiar with those already presented.** It must also be reiterated that if language is to be used spontaneously it must be **live and meaningful** to the child. It must be **need oriented**. Then and then alone will it be internalized and spontaneously used in his daily life.

2.10.1 Individual and Class News and Conversations

News of interesting events that have happened to any child should be discussed and written in simple sentences with simple illustrations. This can form a repository for developing reading skills.

Eg.

- Hetal has a new pink dress.
- Her daddy bought it yesterday.
- Jigar has a bandage on his knee.
- He fell off his bicycle.

- Rahul is sick. We're sorry.
- Divya is sick. Poor thing.
- Hurry up. Get better. Come to school.

- It rained and rained yesterday.
- There was water everywhere.
- We couldn't come to school.

- We saw a terrible accident.
- The car was smashed.
- It was awful!

- Tomorrow is my birthday.
- I will have a birthday party.

Children can find the **date on calendars** and it should be written on top of the news article. With the help of parents, encourage them to tell about the events at home. Cough these in appropriate words and sentences for them.

This sharing of happenings is a very important part of language work and should be part of the daily programme. It should not however become routine in fashion, rather it should be a real conversation and the sharing of ideas and thought in which all are interested.

2.10.2 Story Telling and Dramatization

The picture cards / props should be kept ready for the story. After telling and explaining the story with the help of these, each child should get a chance to arrange the picture cards in correct sequence.

The sentence strips can be matched to the pictures and used for auditory training, speech reading and speech.

The preposition 'under' should be reinforced, consolidated and contrasted with 'over'.

The concepts of big and small, outside and inside should be reinforced.

The story can be dramatized first by the teacher and then by the children.

e.g. A Very Hungry Caterpillar

- Pictures :**
1. **An egg on the leaf of a tree.**
 2. The sun comes out and a caterpillar on the leaf coming out of the egg.
 3. Caterpillar looking for food.
 4. Caterpillar eating one apple.
 5. Caterpillar eating two mangoes.
 6. Caterpillar eating three bananas.
 7. Caterpillar eating four oranges.
 8. Caterpillar eating five chickoos.
 9. Caterpillar becomes very big and fat.
 10. Caterpillar makes a cocoon.
 11. Caterpillar comes out as a butterfly.

Narration and Written Strips

1. An egg is on a leaf.
2. A caterpillar comes out of the egg. The caterpillar is very hungry.
3. The caterpillar eats one apple.
4. The caterpillar eats two mangoes.
5. The caterpillar eats three bananas
6. The caterpillar eats four oranges.
7. The caterpillar eats five chickoos.
8. The caterpillar is very big and fat. The caterpillar is not hungry.
9. The caterpillar builds a house. The house is a cocoon.
10. He sleeps for many days.
11. The caterpillar comes out. He is a beautiful butterfly.

The story can be used with fewer pictures for younger children. It teaches the concepts of growth and change in insects, numbers up to 5, names of fruits.

Children can dramatize it – crawl like caterpillars, fly like butterflies.

For older children it can be changed to

- On Monday he ate one apple.
- On Tuesday he ate two mangoes.

This teaches the days of the week as well.

e.g. A Visit To the Doctor

Pictures : 1. **Mala and her mother sitting in a doctor's waiting room.**

2. Mala on the scales
3. Doctor listening to Mala's heart.
4. Doctor looking into Mala's mouth.
5. Doctor looking into Mala's ears.
6. Mala with thermometer in her mouth.
7. Doctor waving goodbye.
8. Mala and mother waving goodbye.

Narration and Written Patterns

1. Mala and her mother went to the doctor.
2. The nurse weighed Mala.
3. The doctor listened to Mala's heart.
4. The doctor looked in her mouth.
5. The doctor looked in her ears.
6. The nurse took her temperature.
7. The doctor said "You are fine. Goodbye."
8. Mala said, "Goodbye doctor. Thank You." Mala and her mother went home.

Pictures 2,3 and 6 maybe removed for younger children. Vocabulary can be stressed according to age. This can be tied up to the health lesson and care of the body. It can be easily enacted in class.

2.10.3 Field trips and excursions

Work must be done before a field trip so that children are familiarized with the appropriate vocabulary and sentence structures. This is then followed up after the field trip with an experience chart adequately illustrated.

A VISIT TO THE ZOO

- We went to the zoo on Tuesday.
- We saw many animals.
- We saw monkeys.
- We saw deer.
- We saw lions.
- We saw tigers.
- We saw many beautiful birds.
- We had an elephant ride.
- We all had icecream.
- We had a lot of fun.

The complexity of the language and number of sentences in the experience chart will depend on the age of the children. The chart is used for reading, speech reading, and auditory training. Flash cards with important words are used for matching. The sentences are generated and written as a group activity after the event. Questions would include 'Where did we go on Tuesday?' 'When did we go to the zoo?' 'What did we see?' 'Which animals had long tails?' 'What were the monkeys doing?' 'Which animals were orange

with black stripes?' 'What animal did we ride?' 'What did we eat?' 'Which animal had big ears and a trunk?'

Further chart work could be done with older children.

- The elephant had a big trunk.
- The lion had long hair.
- The monkeys had long tails.
- The tigers had orange stripes.
- The leopard had spots.
- The crocodile had sharp teeth.

Direct experiences and Joint Activities

Like cooking, playing dolls – dressing and bathing dolls, different games and projects.

Making Lemon Squash

- We made lemon squash.
- Hetal cut 4 lemons.
- Jigar squeezed the lemons.
- Mina put in some sugar.
- Guddi put in some salt.
- Rahul poured the water.
- Divya stirred the lemon squash.
- We all drank the lemon squash.
- It was delicious.

Another chart could be :

- The lemons were sour.
- The sugar was sweet.

- The salt was salty.
- The water was cold.
- The lemon squash was delicious.

Following a group experience, the children and teacher discuss the activity, and the teacher helps them describe it. When the language and sequence are well established, the teacher writes the sentences on a chart and strips. These are then used for lip-reading, speech and reading.

2.10.5 Use of Pictures

Pictures can be the source of an immense amount of language work. Much auditory training and lip-reading can be accomplished by talking about various people, things and events in the picture or stories suggested by the pictures can be told. Pictures provide a large number of opportunities for making deductions, finding situational clues, making inferences as to feelings and conversation and description of characters and situations depicted, guessing what preceded the action in the picture and anticipating what may follow. This is of great value in training a child to think things through and in increasing his verbal concepts. E.g. A picture of a young boy/girl looking very sad or crying, sitting alone under a tree or on a bench with a broken toy (doll, aero plane etc) lying next to him and another child running away.

This picture could be used to elicit thoughts and language about feelings and emotions.

- What do you think has happened?
- How is the child feeling?
- Why is the boy sad?
- What makes you happy/sad?
- What can we do to make him happy?

This could also be the springboard to discuss all kinds of emotions – anger, fright, etc.

These sort of exercises not only develop language and verbal concepts but are also important in helping children grow up as loving, caring and responsible human beings.

Pictures used should be at the interest level of the children. In the beginning they should be rather obvious and as time goes on pictures should increase in complexity and become less evident and allow for more inferences. They could become more open ended and allow for different kinds of interpretations and inferences.

Other Activities

Many art and craft activities, math activities, outdoor and indoor games, sand play, water play, guessing games, duty charts, scrapbooks, daily routine activities including mealtimes, parties,, role playing visitors to the classroom etc. provide ample opportunities to develop language.

There are countless opportunities for language growth in a preprimary programme. Deaf children should not be limited in the development of language because of the limiting approach to teaching it on the part of their teachers. **Resourcefulness, imagination and creativity** are qualities essential in the teacher to **maintain an atmosphere conducive to language growth**. The teacher should make using of language so much a part of herself and the children in her class that they will accept it as naturally as will a hearing child. Children should consider it a vital necessity to communication and to happy interesting contacts with other children and adults.

One aspect that has to be **constantly borne in mind is the need for repetition**. Repetition has to take place to reinforce previously learned language. There again it must be in meaningful, real situations if the transfer to spontaneous use has to occur. **Language taught in meaningless drills alone will remain in meaningless drills**. The child maybe able to fill in all the blanks, supply all missing words, but may never use this language in his everyday life as he has never seen it in live action and has no use for it beyond keeping his teacher happy. In general, reinforcement of language should be in a more informal manner with more emphasis on the use of language rather than on the exercise. There should be meaning to the lesson and children should be as interested in what they are saying as they are in how they are saying it. **The teacher could benefit by asking herself "Will what I am doing here have a carry over outside this classroom? Is the child going to need this work? Is it helping him to grow mentally?"**

Teachers need to constantly check and evaluate both themselves and what their children are learning.

2.11 EVALUATION AND RECORDS

Pertinent and regular recording of planned, specific, language learning situations for each child, of the child's response to these situations, of how he carries out general and specific tasks and of the parent's participation is an important part of any ongoing preschool programme for deaf children. Records can be a reliable means of following and evaluating objectively the progress of each child over a period of time.

The kind and format of records may vary greatly depending on the situation. Developmental profiles help in giving us a general level and description of the child in all areas. These may include

- Description of the child in experienced situation
- Description of the child as to Specific Developmental Tasks (visual, auditory, tactile, kinesthetic, motor, social, emotional)
- Parents' Participation
- Home situation
- Interviews

In addition to the foregoing information teachers should have records of the child's progress in language development. Specific language reports done at regular time intervals would have to include details of areas of development as follows :

- Receptive language being developed and already developed
- Evidence of language understanding (receptive through auditory/visual/manual modelity or a mixture of these/reading
- Expressive Language being developed and already developed
- Use and quality of Voice
- Speech Usage
- Usage with signs/finger spelling/cues
- Use of writing

- General awareness of sound, specific auditory responses to gross sounds, music, voice, spoken words, differentiation of sounds and discrimination of words and sentences.

Reports help the teacher know the level of each child that she is responsible for so that she can effectively plan for each individual child within her class.

2.12 SAMPLE UNITS

2.12.1 Basic Sample Unit on Water and Rain

The academic year normally starts in the monsoon. Lot of news and conversation spontaneously occurs about the rain and weather and situations arising from it during this time. The teacher can effectively expand experiences which arise from conversations during this period.

Basic Concepts - The teacher could use a chart with pictures and sentences on it for older children

- Rain is water.
- It falls from the clouds in the sky.
- We wear a raincoat and cap and rain boots to keep ourselves dry. / We carry an umbrella.
- The sky turns dark.
- Sometimes there is lightning and thunder.
- Sometimes there is a rainbow.
- There maybe heavy rain and strong winds.
- If it rains a lot there maybe a flood.

Activities

Go out into the rain.

Wear raincoats, umbrellas.

Look at the puddles and soggy mud.

Smell the fresh earth.

Notice the clean, fresh trees and leaves.

Look at the clouds, thunder, lightning, and rainbow. Feel the wind.

See the animals special to monsoon – earthworms, snails, centipedes and millipedes, frogs and tadpoles.

Have all children bring out their rainwear. Try each other's on. Discuss the colours and feel of the rainwear. Show how it doesn't get wet with water as contrasted to our regular clothes.

Eg. Of Charts

- (1) - Hetal has a red raincoat.
Rahul has a blue raincoat.
- Guddi has a green raincoat.
- Brinda has a yellow umbrella.
- Or
- Mohan's raincoat is black.
- Hetal's raincoat is red.
- Rahul's raincoat is blue.

Questions

- (1) What colour is Rahul's raincoat?
Who has a _____ raincoat?
Who has an umbrella?
Who does not have a raincoat?
Who has a big raincoat?
- (2) We went out in the rain.
We jumped in the puddles.
We wore our raincoats.
We saw earthworms.
We saw lightning.
We saw black clouds.
We did not get wet.
Rahul fell into the puddle.

He was a mess!

Rahul became wet.

- Make a weather chart. Discuss and draw in the kind of weather everyday – sunny, cloudy, windy, rainy.
- Draw and paint rain pictures.
- Make a rain collage.
- Draw a rainbow and see the colours.
- Discuss rain pictures.
- Matching activities picture – picture, picture – word, picture – sentence
- Stories

e.g. Pictures mounted on mount board :

1. Maya with her new raincoat, cap and boots.
2. Maya wearing her rainwear and going home after school with her mother.
3. Maya and mother (with umbrella) walking to their house.
4. A car going into a puddle and splashing dirty water on Maya.
5. Sad Maya reaching home.
6. Maya and mummy washing Maya's raincoat.
7. Maya and raincoat clean. Maya is happy.

Narration

1. Maya has a new raincoat. It is red. Maya has new boots. They are red.
2. Maya is wearing her raincoat and boots. Mummy has an umbrella.
3. Maya and mummy are going home.
4. Maya's raincoat is dirty.
5. Maya is sad.
6. Maya and mummy are washing the raincoat.
7. The raincoat is clean. Maya is clean. Maya is happy.

- **Poems**

1. Rain Rain go away.

2. Incy

Wincy Spider

Come again another day.

We all want to play.

- **Prewriting Skills**

The target Language i.e. vocabulary and sentence patterns should be written down by the teacher in her lesson plan and , as far as possible, charts or large size notebooks with words etc. written in it, could be used for revision work with the children.

Evaluation:

Child's comprehension of word function should be revised and tested along with vocabulary at receptive and expressive levels in all modalities – speech reading, reading, matching, writing, signs etc. Simple one word – 2 word answers to specific questions are to be formulated –

- Who did something?
- Who has something?
- What is this?
- What does _____ have etc.

Strategies for reteaching :

If the children are not responding as per the teacher's expectations then her plans and strategies for reteaching should also be mentioned in the lesson plan.

2.12.2 Unit on Transport

Concepts and Facts

1. There are different kinds of vehicles which move from place to place.
There are cars, buses, trucks, bicycles, motorcycles, scooters, trains, ships, boats and aeroplanes. There are bullock carts, camel carts and horse carts.
2. Vehicles move in different ways.
Cars, Buses, trucks, Bicycles, Scooters, Motorcycles move on the road.
Trains move on tracks.
Boats and ships move in water.
Aero planes fly in the sky.
Animals pull bullock carts and camel carts.
3. Vehicles move at different speeds.
Aero planes move fast.

Bullock carts move slowly.

4. Vehicles are of different sizes.

Bicycles are small.

Cars are bigger.

Aero planes are the biggest.

Objectives

1. To expose children to basic sentences.
2. To expose children to common question forms, commands and statements.
3. To create awareness of pronouns, possessives, negatives, conjunctions and direct discourse.
4. To develop specific vocabulary, phrases, sentences and concepts.
5. To develop pre-reading skills using teacher made materials – including left and right.

Target Vocabulary and Structures

According to the maturity level and school age of the child/children, the target vocabulary should be planned for nouns, verbs, adjectives, question words etc. Sentence structures to include statements, full questions, instructions, should be mentioned.

Games and Activities

1. Using pictures, photographs and toys give the names of different kinds of vehicles. Discuss colour, shape, form, wheels, and absence of wheel; fly them, drive them, and act like each of them.
Match flashcards - written patterns to pictures. Use full sentences and phrases.
2. Using dolls, pictures, photographs and toys show how different people go to different places using different modes.

Chart: Divya comes to school by rickshaw.
Daddy goes to office by scooter.
Mala comes to school by bicycle.
Mummy goes to market by car.

Questions : Who and How and

Does _____ come to school by _____? Yes and

No

3. Field trips to airport, train station, ride in a bus/train
Preparation for the visit may be through a story using 5-6 pictures and toys and dramatization.
- Watch traffic lights and dramatize.

Traffic Lights

We watched traffic lights.
The red light says STOP.
The green light says GO.

Use instruction and phrases like stop, go, turn left, right. Be a policeman and direct traffic.

Activities :

- Make cars out of cardboard cartons.
- Build a city with blocks and move traffic.
- Teach safety rules here about where to walk, cross roads etc.
- Build cars, aeroplanes, boats etc. with cardboard, matchboxes, paper, clay.
- Paint, draw etc.
- Make a collage
- Lets pretend games of being cars, trains. Make sounds like each. Respond to auditory signals of stop, go, turn right, left, its going fast, slow, could also use toys for these.
- Take car up a hill and down and let voice go up and down
- Discriminate between different sounds vehicles make.
- Use vocabulary and sentences for speech.
- Prepare scrapbooks.
- Part and whole games – fill in the missing part of the vehicle.
- Guess which vehicle it is from only seeing a part.
- Find the differences between pictures.
- Categorize cards of vehicles, - on the road, in water, in the sky.
- Memory games with pictures of vehicles and picture and written word.
- Have an engine (1 child). Other children are given numbers 1,2,3. Have the engine pick up each carriage in order until the train is formed.

- Use play money and pretend to go on a bus ride.

These are only some of the kinds of activities that can be done in all skill areas. The teacher will obviously come up with those relevant to her needs.

Suggestions to Parents :

1. Take the child to different places in different kinds of transport.
2. Discuss kinds – bicycle, tricycle, bus, car.
3. Show different parts – wheel, door, window
4. Take him for a bus ride and let him buy the ticket.
5. Explain the meaning of signals and safety rules.
6. Expose the child to books.

DESIGN FOR AN IDEAL PREPRIMARY PROGRAMME

Physical Facilities

2.13.1 Outdoor Play Area well shaded from the sun with

- Swings, slides, see-saws, jungle gyms, roundabouts, parallel bars and other playground type of equipment
- Large equipment for balancing, climbing, crawling, sitting, rocking
- Sand-pit with toys
- Water play area with toys – must not be such that a child can accidentally fall in or enter.
- Tricycles, cars, scooters, tyres, wheelbarrows, rocking horse etc.
- Area for playing, throwing, running

- Area for gardening and keeping pet birds and animals.

2.13.2 Indoor Area divided into corners where material is easily accessible.

Science and math's corner

- Collections of seeds, stones, shells, feathers etc.
- Aquarium
- Magnets
- Pulleys
- Wires and bulbs
- Things and collections to sort and classify
- Teacher made games to teach

Number concepts

Addition and subtraction

Weights and measures

Locks

Clocks

Different kinds of containers to teach size, length, volume, shape etc.

Scales and measures and weights

Things to teach sink and float, hard and soft, heavy and light, different smells, rough and smooth

Magnifying glass

Dramatic and Housekeeping Corner

- Large carton with clothes for dressing up and dramatic play
- Playhouse – simulation of a real house with things as in a real house and dolls, furniture, etc.

Block Corner

- Large and small blocks for building
- Accessories like cars, traffic lights, aeroplanes, animals, small dolls etc.
- Hollow or foam blocks if available

Art Centre preferably with a Sink close by :

- Easels
- Paint and brushes of different sizes
- Finger paint
- Plenty of paper ..large – newsprint
- Clay
- Gum/paste
- Scissors (blunt)
- Crayons
- Coloured paper
- Other incidental things like straws, buttons, etc. to make things and collages.

Library Corner

- Comfortable chairs and mats
- Movable bookcases

- Many storybooks and picture books and teacher made books with attractive picture and simple text.

Perceptual Training Area or Sensory Skill Area

There is lot of material available in the market for sensory training, such as shape sorters, jigsaw puzzles, Lego sets, beads and threads, colour & shape discrimination boards, etc. The school should procure these as per the availability of finance and space.

General Items :

Blackboards

Slates

Softboard on walls

Mobile unit of softboard for story telling

Felt board

Sentence boards

Chart stands

Computers and software

2.13.3 Language Area for Sitting and Writing and Group Work

Table with group aid or loop induction system with smaller individual tables and chairs.

2.13.4 Special Rooms

For speech teaching, auditory training with speech therapist.

For music and rhythm activities –

With band instruments, large speakers, wooden floor and acoustically designed if possible.

2.14 SUMMARY

This unit is an introduction to the basic principles of preprimary curriculum design especially as applicable in the education of deaf children. It may serve as a basic outline in the development of an integrated language arts curriculum.

It provides a brief insight into how a teacher can help her young deaf children acquire the ability to use language in every phase of their lives in as close to natural a way as their hearing peers and use it with spontaneity and individuality.

This is also a guide to help the new teacher in setting up a class, involving parents and preparing appropriate materials for her class of young children.

2.15 SELF STUDY

- Prepare 3 other detailed units based on different content areas appropriate for a mixed group of 8-10 children, ages 4-6 years, with varying degrees of hearing loss and language levels. Assume that at least 3-4 of them have just started school, are 5 years old and have had no previous training.
- Prepare 3 simple stories in the form of 6-8 large flash cards approximately at least 30 cms x 24 cms each alongwith the appropriate language on sentence strips. Write detailed lesson plans showing exactly how you would go about using them. Indicate what concepts you are teaching, target language and follow up activities.
- You are planning on taking your class (3-6 yrs) on a visit to the vegetable market or as part of your units on food. Write a series of lesson plans with

language for experience charts to show how you will prepare the children for these visits and the follow up after the visit. Indicate your target language. How will you go about evaluating this experience? What suggestions would you send parents so as to reinforce the concepts and language you have done.

- One child brings 5 brightly coloured, shiny new marbles OR 2-3 different feathers (peacock, kite, koel) to school. The children are excited and intrigued. How would you use this opportunity to develop incidental language? How would you expand it? Give details.
- One child shows you and the class that his tooth is shaking. Two days later he brings his tooth to school to show everyone. Write a hypothetical conversation between teacher-child and class about this. What news you could write-up and how you could further develop this into a mini-unit.

2.16 ASSIGNMENTS

1. A 5 year old child (obviously upset) brings this news during your news time. "Bhaiya sick, hospital." Discuss in detail how you would tackle this situation and also turn it into a teaching opportunity.
2. Prepare 3 games to develop language and beginning reading skills and 3 for different math skills along with instructions on how to use them. They may be for single use or for group games.

2.17 POINTS FOR DISCUSSION/CLARIFICATION

After going through the unit you may like to have further discussion on some points and clarification on other. Note down those points below :

2.17.1 Points for Discussion

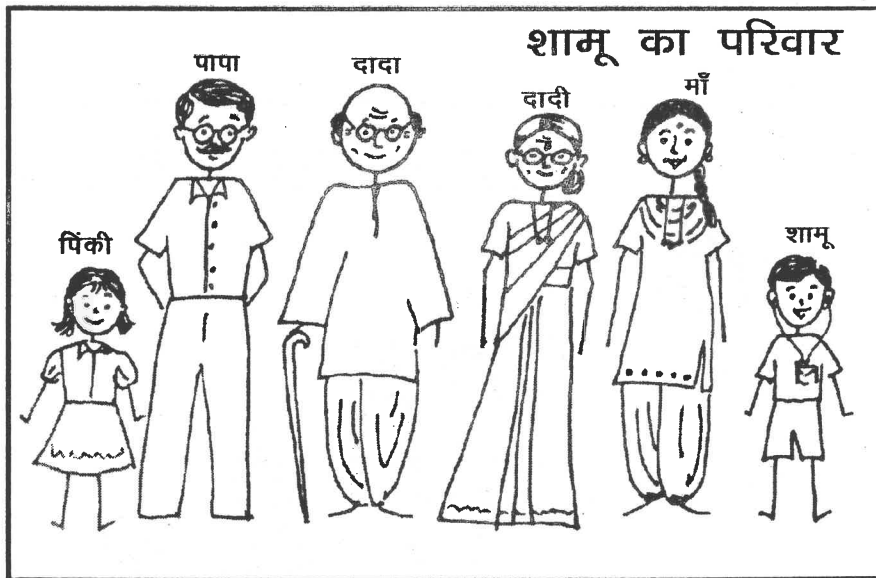
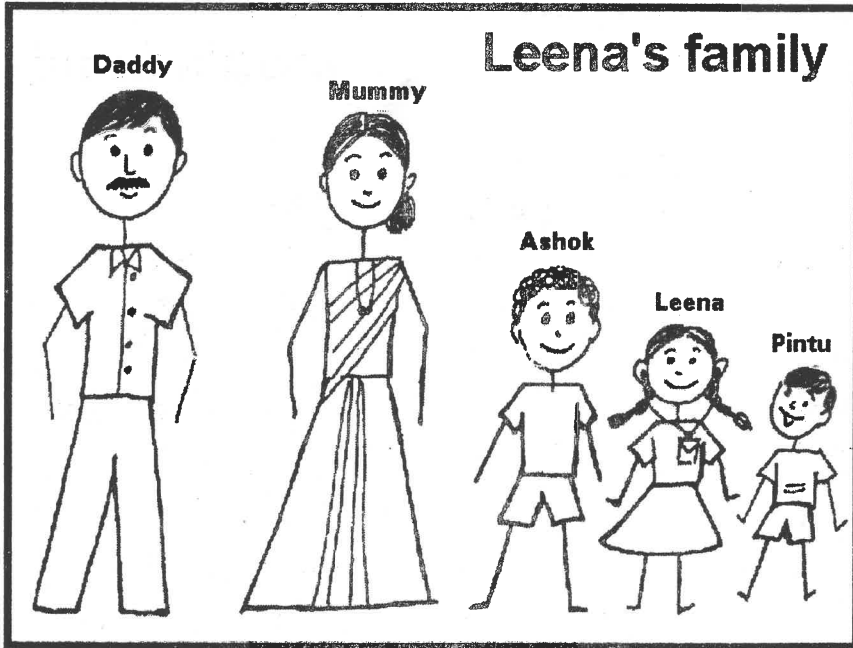
2.17.2 Points for Clarification

2.18 REFERENCES & SUPPLEMENTARY READING

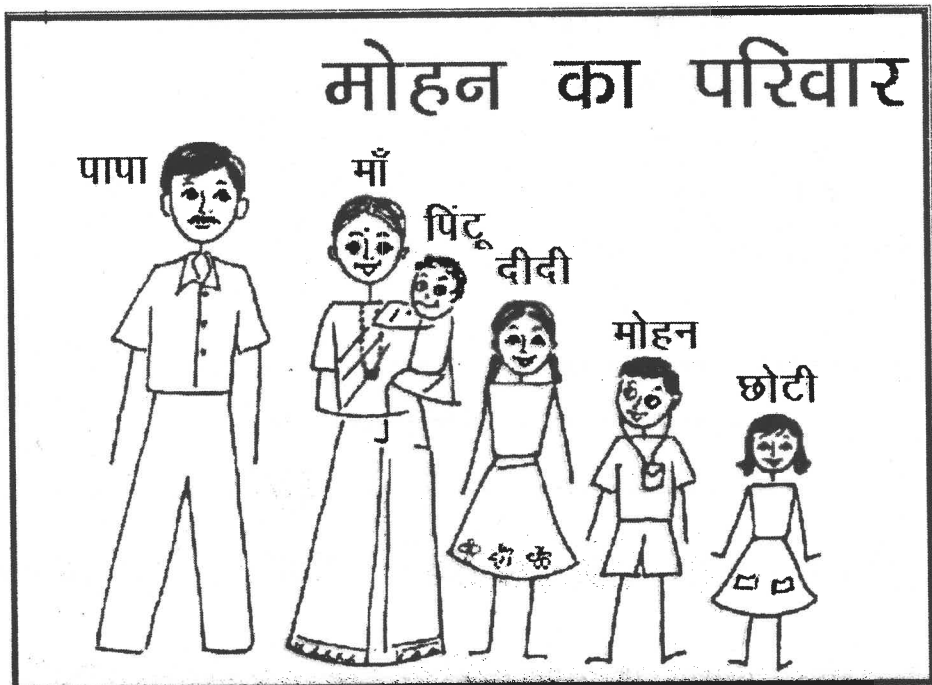
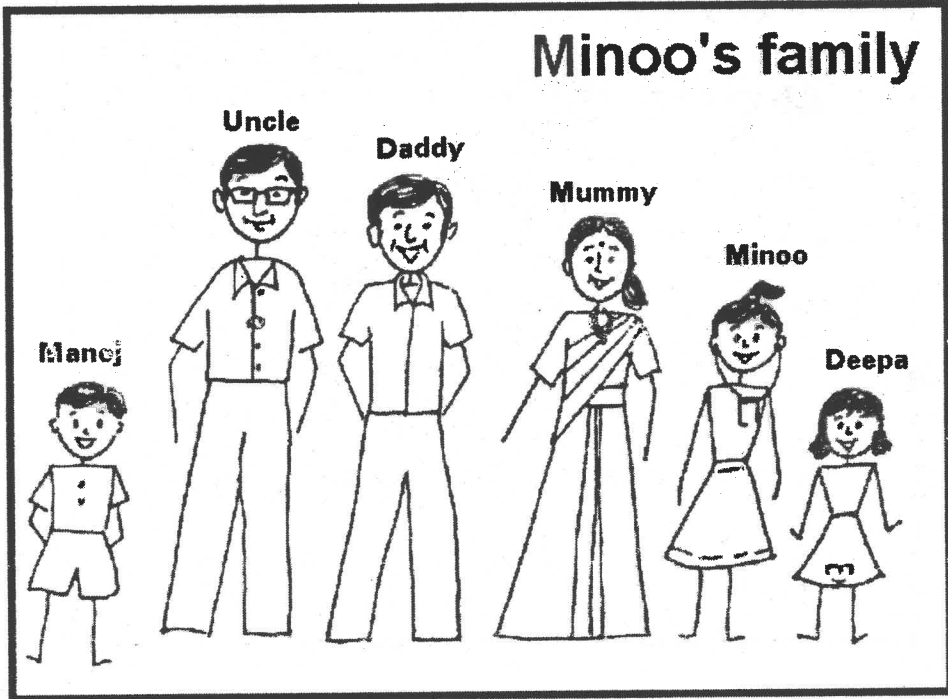
1. The Language Curriculum - Rhode Island School for the Deaf
2. Guide to the Language Curriculum - Rhode Island School for the Deaf
3. Language Curriculum Series - Clarke School
4. Language and Learning Disorders of the Preacademic child - Tina E. Bangs, Prentice Hall

5. Teaching Reading to Deaf Children – Beatrice Oстера Hart – Lexington School for the Deaf Education Series – Pub: AG Bell Ass. For the Deaf
6. Natural Language for Deaf Children – Mildred Groht – Pub: AG Bell Ass. For the Deaf
7. MacDonald Educational Series – With Objectives in Mind
8. Language for the Preschool Deaf Child – Grace M Harris Grune N Strutton

UNIT – 2 : APPENDIX



UNIT – 2 : APPENDIX



UNIT 3:INDIVIDUAL SPEECH-LANGUAGE THERAPY PROGRAMMES: OVERVIEW, NEED, REQUIREMENTS AND PLAN OF ACTION.

STRUCTURE

3.1 Introduction

3.2 Objectives

3.3 Entry behaviour

3.3.1 The need for a minimum level of language ability

3.3.2 Prerequisite level of language

- a. Oral work / conversation
- b. Concepts
- c. Related vocabulary
- d. Expressive language
- e. Reading
- f. Grammar
- g. Writing

3.4 Planning for children who have not reached the level required for the primary stage

- a. Children need more time to prepare for primary level
- b. No rush to start teaching the text books
- c. Stress on oral work and conversation

- d. All concept teaching is not planned
- e. Teaching should be student oriented
- f. General knowledge
- g. Every lesson is a language lesson

3.5 Techniques for language development and planning the time table

3.5.1 Conversation

3.5.2 Receptive reading at the structural phase

3.5.3 Grammar

3.5.4 Expressive language and composition

3.5.5 Topics selected from the Units in the curriculum

3.5.6 Trips and excursions

3.5.7 Other activities for language development

3.6 Curriculum contents and the expansion of a Unit

3.7 Lessons at the primary level – some guidelines for the teachers

3.8 Points to remember

3.9 Summary

3.10 Self Study

3.11 Assignments

3.12 Points for discussion/clarification

3.13 References

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the primary stage , at every level, the teacher's aim is to teach subjects with the help of the textbooks and complete the syllabus, then evaluate the children through tests and thus prepare them for the next level. At the end of the term or year, the primary class teacher asks, " Have the children under all the concepts? Can they apply this knowledge and memorize the information in order to answer written questions? Will they be able to pass the exams and progress to the next class?"

At the same time, keeping the long term goal of language development in mind, the same teacher also asks , "Can the children understand the different question forms? Do they reply in sentences? Can they read a text with unfamiliar words? Do they apply new vocabulary in different situations? Can they write a composition on their own?"

All these questions and more have to be asked and answered when evaluating the progress of the children because language development and curriculum are two sides of the same coin. The teacher, when planning for the day, the week, the term or the year, must aim for the right combination of these two aspects of teaching, according to the needs of the hearing impaired children at the primary stage. To acknowledge that both have their place in the classroom is to take a step in the right direction.

3.2 OBJECTIVES

You will be able to

- list the language skills required by children entering the primary level.
- plan for children in primary classes who have not reached the level required for the primary stage.
- discuss the different techniques for developing language at the primary level.
- plan a suitable timetable.
- State the important factors that you will keep in mind when teaching a topic/unit at the primary level.

3.3 ENTRY BEHAVIOUR

3.3.1. The need for a minimum level of language ability

The teacher needs to ensure that hearing impaired children have reached a certain level of language development before they are exposed to the syllabus of the primary level. Only then will they be able to understand the different subjects, read the texts and do the workbook exercises without too much difficulty. The children should have a working knowledge of the concepts, new vocabulary and constructions before they come across them in the textbooks.

If children are confronted with numerous new words and expressions as well as concepts while reading the textbooks for language, environmental studies, history, geography, and science texts, it would render the subjects almost meaningless. It would be impossible to understand new ideas while interpreting unfamiliar vocabulary.

Hearing children follow the chapters in these texts as they have a wide range of concepts and oral fluency. In the class, the teacher only explains a few new words or uses diagrams or maps. Hearing impaired children should be similarly equipped with language but this can only be achieved with a lot of planning and preparation on the part of their teachers.

3.3.2 Prerequisite level of language or the level of language that should have been acquired at the pre-primary stage.

The language involves both content and the related words.

a. Oral work /conversation

- Children talk about events that are important to them so the topics include themselves, their family their home and surroundings.
- They understand what is said to them with some clues and situational guidance.
- They can follow a discussion on a familiar topic in the class.
- They can absorb new vocabulary when given examples.
- They can follow simple oral instructions.
- They can understand questions like Who? What? Where? When?
How many? What happened? And what kind of?

b. Concepts

- Children have a basic understanding of family relationships, God and prayers. India as our country, cleanliness, time and activities associated with a particular time of the day, calendar and weather etc.

c. Related vocabulary

Children know at least 10 – 15 categories of common objects which include food items, fruits, vegetables, clothes, months, colours, names of family members, and people who help us, vehicles, parts of body, names of places like school, shop, park, office etc.

- They know 15 – 20 opposites and a few synonyms.
- They are familiar with some number language which includes shapes and sizes.
- They have lot of orrectic language like Poor thing! How exciting! How sad!
Yippee!

d. Expressive language

- Children can talk in sentences and can express their needs and feelings. They can describe a picture with some help. They can write 4 – 5 sentences on themselves and familiar topics.

e. Reading

- children can read short passages based on the conversation with a few unfamiliar words. At this stage, meaning and a global understanding is important even if every word is not understood. They can read simple stories which have been told in class.
- They can understand the language of arithmetic problems.

f. Grammar

- In their daily conversation children use nouns, pronouns, (he, she, you, they, it) verb tenses (is was will be) prepositions, and adjectives. They have a fair understanding of plurals and negatives.

g. Writing

- Children can answer questions based on their conversation and spell key words in the conversation and in the known categories.
- They can write a very short composition with help.

3.4. PLANNING FOR CHILDREN WHO HAVE NOT REACHED THE LEVEL REQUIRED FOR THE PRIMARY STAGE

- a) Children need more time to prepare for primary level.**

Children who have not acquired enough language may be promoted to 1st std. for various reasons. In such cases more time will have to be spent for the language work to prepare them for the primary stage **as per the guidelines suggested in Unit 2 of this block.** The teachers will have to plan the timetable in such a way that at least 2/3 hours are used in the morning for language development.

b) No rush to start teaching the textbooks.

The teachers should not be in a hurry to start teaching from the textbook. When the children are ready, they comprehend easily. If they are not ready a lot of time will be spent in teaching difficult concepts and unfamiliar words, often frustrating the child. Also children get into the habit of learning by heart without understanding.

c) Stress on oral work and conversation.

Oral work and conversation are an effective way of acquiring language. Many ideas come up spontaneously during the daily conversation and news times. This language could be reinforced through properly planned follow up activities, giving the teacher enough scope to teach the concepts, which would be required at the primary stage.

d) All concept teaching is not planned.

All concept teaching is not planned. Some language work is incidental and many come up during play, outings or any other lesson like calendar work or math.

e) Teaching should be student oriented.

Teaching should be student oriented. The main goal is for students to use language functionally. At any point during a lesson if the children show interest in a particular topic, it can be discussed. If a bee flies into the class and the children react, the teacher could refocus the lesson and talk about it or use this incident to give some

information on bees. In fact the teacher should use any such opportunity and benefit from its potential for developing language.

f) General knowledge.

At the pre-primary level, children collect a lot of information both planned and incidental. All these ideas could be grouped together as general knowledge. A general knowledge book could have short paragraphs, photographs, drawings, pictures from magazines etc. Separate books on family, festivals, God, plants and animals etc. could be maintained. Many of these topics would perhaps not be required in std. 1 or 2 but should be revised time and again even at the primary level with the purpose of consolidation of the language and knowledge skills; e.g. any information on India, how things are made, our teeth, things that work on electricity etc. can be stored for future reference and be used while teaching Environmental studies.

g) Every lesson is a language lesson.

At all levels, every lesson must be treated as a language lesson and as an opportunity to reinforce language. The teachers need to integrate new concepts and vocabulary into the previously taught topics and activities, using them in different situations and giving as many examples as possible. Thus new ideas and vocabulary are internalized and become a part of the children's language. Equipped with this kind of language the children can tackle the textbooks of the primary level.

Points to remember

- 1) A certain level of language is required in order to understand the syllabus at the primary level.
- 2) Teachers must plan well for children to reach this level.
- 3) Oral work, conversation and follow up activities should be used to reinforce new concepts and vocabulary.

3.5 TECHNIQUES FOR LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT AND PLANNING THE TIMETABLE AT THE PRIMARY LEVEL

Language development:

- Is necessary for children at all the primary level and indeed at all stages of the hearing impaired child's education.
- Must therefore go on concurrently with the teaching of the academic subjects
- Can be through conversation, any other oral work and follow up activities like reading, outing and directed activity.
- Should be given at least 2 hours everyday even if children have adequate level of language when they start the primary curriculum.

At the primary level, the syllabus becomes progressively more difficult in terms of Concepts, vocabulary and structure. Therefore children should have a background of information and become familiar with the key concepts before approaching the text i.e. children would have to know what is dangerous or safe before studying safety on the road. They should know about good and bad habits before reading about good habits of cleanliness. It is important to note that concepts and vocabulary alone are not enough. It is only through consistent and meaningful usage, in sentences, that language is internalized. Equipped with this language the hearing impaired children would have the confidence and the ability to tackle the textbooks of std. 1 to 4

The technique or method used for language development is in a nutshell conversation and a systematic follow up. For a new concept to be developed, reinforced and consolidated it could take a week or two and then become an ongoing process. It goes without saying then that planning is vital and at this point, it is relevant to mention the planning of the timetable. For instance, conversation goes on throughout the day but time has to be allotted for one particular conversation daily.

- Also follow up activities, to be effective, must “follow” promptly and still be within the framework of the timetable which includes the teaching of subjects, And skills for all round development. Thus a conversation may be followed by reading, written work, a story, an outing and a project in quick succession. In the same week/fortnight, the children would have to pay attention to group speech math, auditory training, composition, dramatization, drawing, craft, needlework, P.T., swimming, dance, general knowledge, environmental studies history, geography, and science, other conversations, Balbharti etc. It bears repeating here that every lesson is a language lesson and the conversation method with awareness imagination and practice can be used to develop language during every lesson.
- On way of managing time well is to include in the time table, on a regular basis, Those topics or activities which have scope for teaching a variety of concepts i.e. calendar work, visits, stories have many possibilities for introducing and explaining concepts that are useful for teaching history, geography and science. A teacher should try to derive the maximum benefit from such topics and activities This is a skill which develops and improves with practice.

The teacher when planning the timetable should divide the time judiciously in order to

- Develop language through conversation and follow up activities such as reading passages, writing work, projects and visits. Use topics and activities that will help to teach concepts needed for understanding subjects and syllabus.
- Teach the subjects in the primary syllabus, through oral work and reading of the text.
- Include activities that are required for the child’s all round personality development.

- Include incidental work.
- The time table should be structured in such a way that it is also flexible. All activities cannot be planned. After a spontaneous conversation, the teacher may have to decide on the spot to take the children to see something or demonstrate through an experiment in order to make a concept clear. There the timetable has to be flexible enough to include incidental work.

3.5.1 Conversation

The conversation method with properly planned follow up exercises and activities continues to be an effective way of acquiring language at the primary level too. It is spontaneous language at a more advanced level. Conversation goes on during the day but a specific period is allotted daily for a conversation that includes heart to heart talk, and events in the news. The teacher selects one particular conversation from which the concepts have to be developed during the week with the help of reading and other exercises and activities. At this stage children talk not only about themselves and happenings in their family and surroundings, but discuss other events as well. Gradually they relate to news and events that they are not a part of but which affect them in some way. Thus children show empathy for earthquake or accident victims, problems connected with bandhs, strikes and pollution. They take an interest in sporting events, exhibitions, famous people and places.

During such conversations, with guidance from the teacher, children learn to use (a) complex and (b) compound sentences.

e.g.(a) When I opened the paper in the morning, I saw pictures of the cricket match.

When I was coming to school in the morning, I saw two fire engines.

(b) Our team played well but we lost by a few runs.

The firemen came and they took two hours to put out the fire.

Also more questions are asked and understood.

Eg. What happened? How/Why did it happen? Did you see...? How long did it take ? Answers to Why questions do not always start with 'Because'. The answer to 'Why did you go?' Could be 'To buy' or 'For work'.

3.5.2 Receptive reading at the structural phase

Extensive reading based on curricular and co- curricular subjects facilitates the learning of texts, which gradually become more complex in terms of information and structure. Reading includes passages based on the conversation and newspaper reports, teacher made unseen comprehension passages, evaluation exercises and stories. It is necessary at this stage for children to get used to reading texts with unfamiliar words. They learn to read unfamiliar words with the help of contextual clues. Also, the teacher gets the opportunity to review known vocabulary in different contexts using a different language structure as well. The passage based on the conversation selected for the week should follow immediately after that conversation. Teachers should prepare a variety of exercise and give enough time for written work.

3.5.3 Grammar

Now grammar has to keep pace with the advanced level of conversation and reading. During oral work the children are sure to come across

- 1) Different verb tenses i.e. I have been, I had gone, I was going.
- 2) Passive voice i.e. Many things are made in factories.
- 3) More opposites i.e. victory and defeat, permanent and temporary, honest and dishonest.
- 4) Synonyms like rescued and saved, a present and a gift, collapsed and fell.

- 5) Homonyms like to park and a park, to train and a train, to be patient and a patient.
- 6) Children extend their understanding of words i.e. a test match, a blood test, a math test.
- 7) Idioms and expressions and similes e.g. It is not my cup of tea, a couch potato, as good as gold.

The teacher will have to pay attention to

- a) Regular and irregular plurals and the agreement of verbs.
e.g. Sheep give us wool. A lion has a mane. The babies are crying
- b) The use of auxiliaries or helping verbs
e.g. He is working. She has come.
- c) Negatives as in He does not know. I did not go.
- d) Indirect speech, which is necessary for answering questions and needs a lot of practice e.g. He said that his mother was not well.

Juan's mother told him to buy crabs.

Children learn to apply the rules of grammar naturally during the conversation but direct teaching is also necessary at the primary level. However, a grammar lesson should be tied as much as possible to the context of the ongoing discussions and the forms should be immediately used and reinforced at the appropriate time. Grammar rules and lists of plurals, opposites etc. are not useful unless they are regularly used in sentences that are drawn from experience or relevant oral work. E.g. if the discussion is about animals one can use such sentences as An elephant has a trunk. Elephants have trunks. Or in the case of hobbies, A hobby is interesting. Hobbies are interesting.

Grammar charts help children to remember and apply rules. i.e. question words and connected phrases.

Who ?	What?	What happened?	When?	Where?
The doctor	My bag	I fell	on Monday	to the shop
He	Some medicine	What did you do?	At night	at home.
		I made a card		
What kind of boy?	How?	Why?		
A clever boy	by bus	because...		

This chart would prove useful in teaching parts of speech as well i.e. **Who? Whose? What?** words are nouns and pronouns. **What kind of?** words are adjectives. **What did he do?** gives an understanding of verbs as doing words.

3.5.4 Expressive language and composition

Oral expression would naturally lead to written expression. From simple answers to questions on the conversation and stories the children can be gradually motivated to write compositions. This is an excellent way of reinforcing language in terms of vocabulary, structure and information on the various units taught in class. i.e. A Cow, Independence Day, A Village.

a) The earliest composition on familiar topics include specific people, places, and things. i.e. Myself,

My mother, My best friend, My home, My pet, My school. The teacher guides the children first with questions and then with points in the correct sequence. The children use this format for all composition on similar topics. i.e. in the case of

people the points could be Name, Age, Birthday, Appearance, Kind of person, Likes and dislikes, Activities, How you feel about the person.

- b) As children acquire more information, they write about festivals, the postman, animals, and they progress from the particular to the general i.e. A tiger refers to all tigers. The simple present tense is used and detailed descriptions need more adjectives now i.e. Tigers are yellowish brown with black stripes and every tiger has a special pattern above the eyes. Here too, the teacher elicits answers to questions and gives points i.e. Kind of animal, Description, Habitat, Food, Young, Uses of, Any other information.
- c) **Picture description, both oral and written**, is a good way of reinforcing vocabulary and sentences and could be used as a follow up exercise . i.e. Children can describe the railway station or a village scene. Here it would be necessary to use the present continuous tense i.e. What is she doing? What are they doing? If specific vocabulary is the aim, teacher made material could be used.
- d) **Picture stories** have a sequence of 3 or 4 pictures to be described by the children who have to imagine what has gone before, or what will happen, and interpret what the person is feeling or saying.
- e) **Letter writing** begins with short messages or greetings in birthday, get well, thank you, and invitation cards. Then letters to friends and relatives are written about real experiences and events. The format is given by the teacher who could use this opportunity to review new language.

f) Autobiography

Children progress from 'Myself' to 'My story' using the past tense. In the story of the tiger they have to use their imagination and the information they get from class work and visits.

i.e. the story of the tiger would begin with the cub in the jungle.

3.5.5 Topics selected from units in the curriculum

As suggested earlier the teacher could choose some specific topics from the units in the curriculum and some activities that help to teach concepts. These topics could be a part of the daily/weekly routine. Calendar work is one such topic. Calendar and weather charts were a part of the daily routine at the pre- primary level. It will be beneficial to keep this topic as a part of the timetable but at a more advanced level. Difficult concepts in units like Air, Water, Weather, Our Universe could be explained at this time. 'Festivals' and 'Our Country' could also be integrated in calendar work. The children can collect a fund of information by spending some time daily on calendar and weather. In fact it is the only way of understanding a phenomenon that needs to be observed over a period of time. It prepares children for the geography text of std. 3. Thus they learn about even and extreme climate by checking the temperature, dry and humid weather, and seasonal changes i.e. Fog in winter, New leaves in spring.

While discussing **festivals** the teacher can teach them about the Indian calendar months and mark the phases of the moon. Children also learn about the direction, the phenomenon of day and night, short days and long nights, the importance of the sun, evaporation and the water cycle and special events like the eclipse. Children learn concepts while discussing the significance of the festivals i.e. Harvest and spring festivals. Stories related to our national festivals and references to freedom and the constitution are the first introduction to history and civics. Children's day, Youth day and Teachers day are birthdays of famous leaders.

3.5.6 Trips and excursions

Trips are a part of direct experience. Visits to the museums, textile mills, factories, exhibitions, nearby picnic spots, the zoo, villages, important historical sites like the forts and places in ones own locality like the bakery, police stations, hospitals, fir stations etc. give the children a first hand knowledge of how things are made, processes materials and products, the functioning of different institutions, an insight into different way of life , i.e. Village life. Plays and programmes give some idea of Indian culture and history. Trips to rural areas give them some idea of the process of farming and different occupations. They see different landforms, rivers, forests, plant life while traveling.

Preparation and follow up are essential.

The teacher prepares the children before the trip by discussing the location, district, and distance, and any other any important features. During the visits, the same language is repeated and immediately afterwards there is a follow up to ensure that the children remember the ideas and vocabulary. A unit like village life and city life could be taught in this way. Apart from school visits there are discussions on the outings/journeys of individual children during vacations. These places and important features are marked on the maps of the city, state and country which should always be at hand,& on charts i.e. of the local railway system or charts of village life and city life made by the children. The city, state and the country are the topics of the geography texts of std.3, 4,5 respectively.

The class could collect information and pictures on places, people and events and make scrape books to be kept for future reference. In fact a book with information on India would itself be an excellent preparation for geography (physical and political) at the primary level.

An important benefit of these activities in addition to information is the sheer number of names collected and ultimately memorized by children. Names of states, their capital, villages, forts, cities, rivers, historical and holy places, leaders, names of stations, trains and even other countries. Much of the success of the teaching of std. 3,4 &5 subjects, especially history and geography depends on the mastery of the names by the children.

3.5.7 Other activities for language development

a) Simple science experiments should be done whenever the opportunity arises.

- Categorize objects that float and sink.
- Put water in the freezer and see what happens and why?
- See how an empty plastic bag fills up with air.
- Dissolve sugar in water. ask what happened to the sugar.
- Keep a wet hanky in the hot sun and see how quickly it dries. Ask where the water has gone.

b) Stories

Stories about leaders and historical characters, festivals, fable and fairy tales are enjoyed by children. They imbibe knowledge without being aware of it and at some time or other this information is useful too. In the story of 'Thumbelina' there is a vivid picture of the changes in plants and animal activities during winter, spring and summer.

'The farmer and the bundle of sticks' is a good way of learning about unity.

There are many stories about leaders like Shivaji and Gandhiji and festivals like Holi that would prepare the children for the language textbook as well as history. In the process of developing language, the teacher will come across many topics that are not included in the text. Nevertheless they have to be taught. They are a part of the general knowledge and ultimately they will be of use in teaching the subjects too. i.e. plastics and pollution, the Olympics, news from other countries.

c) Cooking

Cooking is an activity which has scope for reinforcing vocabulary while naming food items, fruits, vegetables and gadgets for sentence structure using different verbs and tenses, for science concepts like dissolving and for sequence.

d) Art and craft

Art and craft can be used to develop math concept on shape and measurement. Children enjoy such activities and learn to follow instructions.

e) Games and riddles

Games are a source of enjoyment and can be used for language e.g. One can talk about the rules of the game, team work, a sporting spirit, use sentences like “You are not allowed to.....”, “That’s not fair”, “You must wait for your turn” “Does the person have”?

Games like I went to the market and riddles ensure that the children are speaking in sentences. There are crossword puzzles, card games and word games that children enjoy.

f) Maths activities

Maths activities like measuring, making bills from restaurant menus or after shopping, playing shopping the class are all enjoyable and useful.

g) Dancing, Physical Education and Swimming

Dancing, P.E., Swimming can also be used for language development. One can discuss folk dances of various states, increasing one's speed in swimming, exercise and recreation etc.

h) Dramatization is an integral part of activities.

It encourages children to express themselves while reinforcing concepts. Some difficult concepts in the language textbooks (like Balbharti that is used in schools in Maharashtra) could be explained through dramatizing i.e. The wind and the sun had a quarrel, skits and stories with jokes like 'Greed Does not Pay' in Balbharti 2, - a language textbook used in Maharashtra.

i) Material has to be handy and ready.

Finally, to consolidate, there should be experience charts, project work, bulletin board write ups and scrap books on different topics.

Points to remember

- Language is internalized through consistent and meaningful usage.
- Language development should be through conversation and a systematic follow up which includes oral work, reading, writing, trips and activities.
- A timetable should be planned keeping in mind all the techniques for developing language and the contents of curriculum.

3.6 CURRICULUM CONTENT AND THE EXPANSION OF A UNIT

The curriculum at the primary stage is generally a spiraling one. Topics taught earlier are repeated but gradually the knowledge base is expanded and the complexities of language increased i.e. new concepts are added and the appropriate vocabulary and language patterns are added at each level. e.g. Apples are good for us >Fruits keep us strong and healthy > Fruits contain vitamins which protect us from diseases. (Finally the children read the text) Vitamins build resistance to diseases. The text containing the units is available to the teachers. They then have to prepare the children for the new language before they read the text. For the unit food, oral work, reading work, stories, cooking, experiments, (on liquids and solids, dissolving, starch, freezing), shopping, math (problems, bills and measuring) visits (to the farm, bakery, flour mill, oil mill, a factory), drawing and craft can be used. The same activity can be used at different levels but the teacher must ensure that concepts, vocabulary and structure all develop, by adding new verbs, adjectives and longer sentences etc. For making a salad, children start by naming, washing, cutting and mixing the vegetables. Later they discuss raw and ripe vegetables, skin and seeds, kitchen gadgets, and use verbs like prepare, chop, stir, grate, and decorate. In std. 3 children are given more information during such an activity. They are told about a recipe, a process, a method, healthy food and vitamins while they 'prepare the delicious salad'.

In the process of developing language on one unit the teacher can branch out to many other related units.

An example :

Food and language development at 3 levels. - The following oral work is an example of how concepts, vocabulary and structure become more complex at every level.

Level 1 . Wash your hands. It's time for lunch. I am hungry. I have chapattis, dal and carrots. Carrots are good for the eyes. I eat fruits and vegetables everyday. That's a good habit. What's that? Karela. I don't like karela. It's bitter. I like mithai. You must not eat lots of mithai. It's bad for your teeth. I have dahi today. Dahi is made from milk. Milk is good for our bones. What is Raj doing? He is counting the sweets. He will share his sweets with all of us. Yummy!. There were 8 sweets. How many are left now?. Give me one more sweet. Don't be greedy. You will get a stomach upset.

Level 2. I am so tired. Eat a laddoo. It will give you energy. My mother made special food and til laddoos for Sankranti. I helped nani to make bajra rotis. We brought 5 kilos of bajra from the farm. My mother could not cook dinner last night. Why didn't she cook?. Because there was no gas. We went to a restaurant for dinner. What did you eat there?. We had dosas, puri bhaji and ice cream. Each cone cost Rs.15. so we paid Rs.60 for 4 cones. That's expensive. Did you drink Pepsi ?. No the dentist told me not to drink Pepsi. I will get cavities. Cover the food. There are flies here. They carry germs. I know that. There are germs in the water too. So we boil and filter the drinking water and I had home made pani puri. It's spicy and tasty. I have finished my lunch. Aarti has not finished. She does not like raw vegetables. Salads are good for us. Don't waste food.

Level 3 . 'My mother prepared some delicious mango shrikhand. I made the mango juice in the mixer. That's simple. I know how to light the stove. I can measure the flour, knead the dough and roll the chappatis. I bought a dozen cakes at the bakery. So each of us will get two. No thank you I am not allowed to eat eggs. I am a Jain. Jains are

vegetarians. But eggs contain protein and we need protein for the growth of the body. Dal is a protein rich food too. We have a lot of milk products like ghee and dahi. They are available at the grocer. I bought two packets of chikki from Lonavala. Lonavala is famous for its chikki. Give me half. My favourite snacks are samosas. I avoid fried food in summer. Don't forget to drink water. Water is necessary for digestion. I am drinking Bisleri. It's pure and safe mineral water. If you don't boil drinking water, you will get a stomach infection. After lunch we are going to visit the oil mill to see how oil is made from oil seeds like groundnuts. The teacher will tell us about the process. This is a pleasant change from our ordinary meals. Don't drink Pepsi; it contains a lot of sugar, so it's harmful for your teeth. Never mind I'll brush my teeth after lunch.'

Thus language should be drawn from content subjects and presented through experiences which are meaningful. Children will then be prepared to read and understand the text and they will also have language that is required in daily life.

As stated earlier, a discussion on one unit will lead naturally to many other related topics.

All of these are not required for teaching the text but expand the knowledge base and will ultimately be of use. Therefore the teacher should not hesitate to include topics that arise naturally from a spontaneous conversation. Some related topics and useful activities are given below :

FOOD

Cooking		Health and Hygiene
Math		
Measuring	Our body, growth and digestion etc.	
Counting		
Utensils		Good habits
Shape and size		
Gadgets		Cleanliness
Units of measurement		
Time	The doctor and the dentist	
i.e. a kilo, a litre.		
Temperature		Germs and infections
Fractions		
Shopping		
Money		
The market		
Special occasions	Places and kinds of food	Sources of food
Birthdays		Indian, Chinese, Gujarati
The farm and the process of		
Festivals	Assam is famous for its tea.	farming.
Weddings	Food from restaurant	The dairy.& the bakery.
Picnics	Fast food	A factory.

3.7 LESSONS AT PRIMARY – SOME GUIDELINES FOR TEACHERS

1. Planning is important.

Familiarize yourself with the text including exercises which often contain unfamiliar words i.e. the text, reads 'work was divided' and the exercise asks about 'division of labour'. Also, know what has gone before and what will follow the level you are reaching.

All unfamiliar words can't be taught together. Therefore

2. Identify the key concepts which can be given more attention.

Select new words which will be

- a) more useful, used frequently not just in the classroom but in daily life.
- b) essential for the students to understand the lesson.

Later ask the children what they don't understand. These key concepts require more intensive work. When taught thoroughly they become a part of the child's vocabulary i.e. they are internalized and are also very useful in teaching other concepts. i.e. protect could help to teach a difficult concept like 'vitamins build resistance to disease'

3. Use key words repeatedly in different situations and through different activities.

'Put on your cap. It will protect you from the sun'. A net protects us from mosquitoes.

My father wears a helmet to protect his head while riding his scooter. Woollen uniforms and masks protect the firemen.

Protects, habits, germs, safe, dangerous, cannot be taught during a lesson. They arise out

of live experiences and should be meaningful. New words should become a part of all oral work. Eat fresh food, You feel fresh after a bath, Open the window, we need fresh air. Later use fresh air to explain oxygen.

4. Oral work should always precede reading.

If this is done children have a global understanding when they read the text for the first time. Do not start by reading a chapter. When you have identified and introduced key concepts and words , give the gist of the lesson so that children know what to expect.

In a subject like Story of man quickly review earlier chapters to keep a sense of continuity and reinforce a concept like progress. It is not necessary to teach every word. For vocabulary other than selected words just give the meaning that is applicable in that context i.e. were puzzled -- did not understand.

5. Keep alternatives handy

Think of as many ways of explaining /eliciting during a lesson. Use opposites, synonym, rephrase the question, suggest an obviously incorrect answer, draw quick diagrams, on the board, compare with earlier experiences, demonstrate with simple experiments, give plenty of examples. Don't ask children 'What does it mean?' unless there is a synonym like present, gift, definitions, and dictionary meanings are difficult.

Instead of asking 'What does celebrate mean?' ask 'How did we celebrate Diwali?'

'What did we do on your birthday?' 'What are vitamins?' is difficult to answer, 'How do vitamins help?' is easier.

6. Know your goals

Every lesson has two goals – language goals and information or knowledge. In uses of fire the children will understand the information so the teacher will have to concentrate on the vocabulary. In the Settlements and Nations the concepts, vocabulary and structure are difficult. The teacher has to anticipate this and teach concepts well in advance and with many examples.

7. Use simple language to explain a difficult concept.

E.g. dependence, co- operation and unity could be explained simply as helping one another and working together.

8. Prepare your own exercises.

Don't go straight from the text to the workbook. First let the children get used to following different written instructions. Workbooks may also have unfamiliar word.

9. Use a practical approach to the teaching of subjects.

Simple experiments, direct experiences, visits and projects could arouse curiosity, create awareness and interest in topics like plants, air, water, different states of India etc. Blow up and burst a balloon, dry clothes in the sun and on a windy day, boil water and watch the steam, plant seeds, collect leaves, visit a fort, dramatize a historical event, make a map of your locality, create an interest in places by connecting them to things they are famous for i.e. Nagpur is famous for its oranges and Ratnagiri is famous for its mangoes.

10. Gauge level of children and choose the right moment to give enough information.

Too little would be missing a golden opportunity. Too much would go over their heads and confuse them. For the topic 'Our Food' in Evs. 2, a simple diagram of the digestive system explained in four simple sentences would be correct.

11. Alter the sequences of chapters if necessary.

If conversation is the starting point and the discussion is about water then teach that topic in Evs 1 and 2 first. The concept of digestion has to be done briefly before std. 3 if Our Food in Evs is to be understood fully.

12. You may have to teach words and concepts that are not in the textbooks

The goal of language development is above and beyond the teaching of subjects. therefore deal with any other vocabulary arising out of spontaneous conversation because children will remember that. Secondly you may use these words to explain other concepts. Also such words, will

probably be useful at later stage. The word problem can cover many situations. 'leaders' can be used to explain Gram Panchayat , municipality, the government, the principal, the captain of the team. Pollution is relevant and will be understood as it is a part of life.

13. Progress from easy to difficult and then move on to next level

Once they know saved, teach rescued. Move from yummy to tasty to delicious. Go on extending their understanding of vocabulary e.g. bad for us, bad cough, badly hurt, I felt bad, bad weather.

14. Introduction to subjects.

Before teaching subjects group the topics so that children are prepared for subject teaching. From general knowledge, branch out into history, geography and science. i.e My body , Plants, Air are science subjects. Develop a liking for subjects that are disliked later i.e. history. Start with stories of dinosaurs visits to forts, stories about leaders, to develop interest in places and their history.

15. Keep a record of the oral work done.

Store the information for future reference in colourful scrapbooks on people, events, etc. using newspaper cuttings and photos. Parents can be involved here to help you to make interesting teaching aids like a book on your city, on famous people, on a particular state and on the Olympics etc. A book with new vocabulary used in different contexts is also useful.

16. Work on memorizing.

Learning by heart should be encouraged. Children are expected to remember long answers, compositions, stories, poems, a role in a play and tables. So start practicing early.

17. Monitor progress through periodic evaluation and standardized tests.

Remember that evaluation of the child is also evaluation of the teacher. After using suitable teacher made exercises, progress to workbooks which provide the necessary repetition for consolidating. Children learn to work independently at their own pace.

A word of caution

While learning by heart is necessary, it is essential to check understanding as well. Therefore change the questions slightly, or use a different question to elicit the same answer.

18. Collect groups of words around one category or idea when you teach new words.

Children remember words that are connected to other words either similar or contrasting, or connected to a central idea. A programme is connected to play, show, act, perform, stage, theatre, function and spectator. With doctor you could have a cluster with patient, examine, hospital, dispensary, prescribe, germs, infection, diseases, etc. similarly festivals have a group of words around it. When explaining dependence contrast it with independence which the children would have come across in the story of Independence day.

19. Don't miss any opportunity to consolidate.

Repeat new ideas and newly taught words in every possible situation, context, through all subjects including math and stories. Give plenty of examples. Use day-to-day experiences. Dividing the sweets mean sharing the sweets. Similarly with division of labour .

20. Inform yourself.

Prepare well because you will need ready answers to numerous questions at a moment's notice. Also, keep a suitable encyclopedia, grammar book and dictionary handy at all times. You may need information on incidental work, on usage or sentence patterns and meanings of words. Update yourself and use new ideas. Manage time well in order to integrate language development and subject teaching.

3.8 POINTS TO REMEMBER

1. As the knowledge base expands, concepts and vocabulary increase and structure becomes more complex.
2. Study the text and identify the key concepts.
3. Plan the teaching of unfamiliar vocabulary.
4. Reinforce and consolidate.
5. Evaluate regularly

3.9 SUMMARY

At the primary stage great strides are made in learning and in the areas of reading and writing. As the knowledge base expands and language competence increases the language used at both receptive and expressive level becomes more complex. Language development is both the means and the goal and goes on side by side with subject teaching. The conversation method ideally integrates the two. However while ideas and guidelines have been given, it is advisable for teachers to use/implement these ideas according to the needs of the children in a particular class. The individual teacher's own awareness, common sense, creativity,

judgment and innovation are of prime importance if teaching at the primary stage is to be useful satisfying and enjoyable for both teacher and students.

3.10 SELF STUDY

1. Write down a few examples from Math, Story, Cooking, Craft & Drawing, P.E., Games, and Poetry to show that every lesson can be a language lesson.
2. Plan a timetable for the primary classes 1 to 4 and explain how it can be implemented flexibly to integrate language development and subject teaching. If you spend some time regularly on Festivals/Special days, show how the language arising from this topic is useful for teaching a variety of concepts.

3.11 ASSIGNMENTS

1. Choose one of the following units and plan activities and suitable language for stds. 1, 2 & 3 - **Air / Water / Plants.**

Expand the topic showing how language develops in terms of concept, vocabulary and structure.

3.12 POINTS FOR DISCUSSION/CLARIFICATION

After going through the unit you may like to have further discussion on some points and clarification on other. Note down those points below :

3.12.1 Points for Discussion

3.12.2 Points for Clarification

3.13 REFERENCES AND SUGGESTED READINGS

1. Hearing impaired child in a regular classroom : Pre-school, elementary and secondary years, - A guide for the classroom teacher or administrator.:- Winifred Northcott, -editor. –A.G. Bell association for the deaf.
2. Curriculum, cognition and content : Harriot G. Kopp – editor, - A.G. Bell association for the deaf.

3. The language arts in elementary school : Walter T. Petty –
Prentice Hall of India, Pvt. Ltd.

UNIT 4: IMPACT OF EARLY INTERVENTION ON SCHOOL OUTCOMES

STRUCTURE

- **Introduction**
- **Objectives**
- **Different approaches to teaching of reading**
 - A proper approach towards reading for the Deaf
 - Factors involved in providing motivation for reading
 - Teacher's Involvement
 - Children's interest as a motivating factor
 - Direct experience to make reading meaningful
 - Rich variety of reading experience
- **Evaluation of Reading**
 - Observation of reading habits of pupils
 - Observation supported by questioning
 - Dramatisation
 - A more formal way for evaluation
- **What should a reading program include**
 - Developmental reading
 - Functional reading

- Recreational reading
- Remedial reading

1.6 Reading program of the nursery level (Reading readiness)

- Specific reading skills / Physical skills
 - **Matching of shapes, sizes, colours**
 - Tick the same shapes
 - Tick the same size
 - Tick the same colours
 - Tick the picture which has the same colour as the first one
 - Find the missing parts
 - Matching objects to objects
 - Matching picture to picture
 - Classification
 - Matching parts to whole
 - Matching things that go together
 - Match similar picture as in the first column. Put a circle around
 - Circle the letter “p”
 - Match picture + word to word
 - Match picture to word
 - Match and tick the words, which are the same as the first one

- **Memory training**
 - Linguistic skills
 - Ideo-visual reading
 - Functional reading at the nursery stage
 - Attendance chart
 - Health chart
 - Reading one's name
 - Recreational reading

- **Unit summary**
- **Self Study**
- **Assignments / activity**
- **Points for discussion/clarification**
- **References / Further readings**

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Reading is a process of comprehending ideas from printed or written symbols by associating known meaning with these symbols. Reading does not involve just recognition of letters or phonetically sounding the letters that form the words or sentence, but requires an association with the symbols and their meaning.

Reading is a highly complex process involving perceptual skills to decode the visual code and conceptual and linguistic skills to understand the ideas communicated. Reading is done for different purposes and at different depths of comprehension and enjoyment. When one looks at a map one is reading, when one skims a magazine or a comic one is reading, and when one studies a chapter in history or science one is also reading. Though the mechanics of reading are the same, the desired aim is to obtain pleasure and information from whatever that is read.

To decode and understand the written symbols we have seen that language is a necessary prerequisite. A hearing child who understands and speaks a language finds it easy to learn to read the same. But a Hearing-Impaired child entering a school has very little or no basis of language whatsoever. Thus he finds difficulty in acquiring this skill unless guided properly by the teacher.

1.2 OBJECTIVES

The reader of this Unit should be able to :

- Describe the process of reading,
- Explain the different approaches to teaching reading,
- State the important aspects of a reading programme,
- Define reading readiness and prepare some exercises for its development,
- List out the routine activities done in the class to introduce the nursery children to the vocabulary in everyday usage.

4.3 DIFFERENT APPROACHES TO TEACHING READING

There are different approaches aimed to teach children to read.

1. **Phonic approach** is aimed to develop word attack skill wherein children learn sounds and letters and analyse and synthesize words. In the phonic based programme the vocabulary initially is restricted in order to establish regularity of sound-symbol relationship.
2. **Look and say** recognition or “whole” approach.

These methods emphasize **reading for meaning** from the beginning using whole word or sentences to teach initial reading. After the learner has acquired ‘sight vocabulary’, systematic instructions in phonics start.

- a. **Sentence method:** Sentences are introduced from either the basic readers or from children’s experiences. Gradually words are isolated from the sentences and the children’s experiences, and the children recognize them. Phonics is taught and the children’s ability to attack words independently is developed.
- b. **Word method:** This method is similar to sentence method, but words are taught first and then combined to form sentences.

The sentence/word method has been found to be satisfactory with the hearing impaired children. This is because initially letters and sounds taught in phonic method do not have any meaning for them. A sentence or a word conveys meanings as they have been introduced orally in the daily conversations and activities done in the classroom or at home. Phonics can start side by side in their speech programmes where they will look at the letters of the alphabets and produce them in their babble and sound production play activities. As the children learn speech sounds, they are able to relate these to words they already know or learn to attack new words independently.

1.3.1 A proper approach towards reading for the deaf

While guiding the hearing impaired to acquire reading skills, the goal of the teacher is not only teach them how to read or complete a series of prescribed books for older children, but to inspire them to want to read whatever material that has meaning and use for them. He must provide reading experiences and not give more reading lessons which emphasize only on mechanics of reading. This would inculcate in the students a desire to want to read.

In order to make reading effective a teacher must provide at every stage of the hearing impaired children's education adequate motivation, a provision for evaluation and a wide and rich variety of reading experiences.

1.3.2 Factors involved in providing motivation for reading

i. Teachers involvement

At the nursery stage, the teacher must create an emotional climate conducive to learning. Before Hearing-Impaired children can read, language growth is essential, thus the teacher constantly creates a 'talking environment' in relation to all the activities done in the class. She gives language to the utterances, gestures and actions of the young children in order to establish meaning to her words. Her interest in their activities, her love and acceptance of their response stimulate the children to actively participate in the little conversation and overall happenings in the classroom. This interest, awareness and concentration are the basis of learning to read. In the pre-primary and primary sections the teacher's own knowledge and interest in reading are transmitted to the children. She either generates enthusiasm in reading or converts it into a dull boring subject. If she

loves to read stories to the class, makes interesting reading material other than their prescribed readers to arouse their curiosity, encourages them to ask questions and guides them to find the answers she will create a positive attitude towards reading. She should not spoon-feed her students because the quality of help she extends vitally affects their attitude towards reading.

ii. Children's interest as a motivating factor

The best way to motivate children to read is to base the reading programme on their own interest. At all stages of their education, conversations are encouraged in the class. The children try to express their ideas their feelings and wishes, which are correctly verbalized by the teacher and then visualized in the written form. The children are exposed to reading such conversations which they themselves have interchanged in the class. Thus reading becomes a pleasurable activity as it is based on their own interests. Secondly the teacher can base her reading material on the special interests of the children. A child is firstly interested in himself his family, friends and his toys. She should base her reading programme on these items, and supplement them with teacher made material to sustain interest.

iii. Direct experience to make reading meaningful:

To motivate hearing-impaired children to read the reading material must be within their capacity to tackle and concepts involved must be meaningful. Even if they try to read with great enthusiasm, the reading experience would be frustrating if they cannot unlock the meaning of the printed page. The word is only a symbol for an idea, whether it has meaning for the reader will depend on the language input he already has. If the idea is within his experience then it will be meaningful, otherwise it will not carry any meaning. e.g. A hearing impaired

child may pronounce the sentence 'Raju went to the market' but if he does not understand the idea behind the word "market" because he has no experience of it, then the sentence would not convey the meaning. So a reading programme must provide a variety of first hand experience for a hearing impaired child through which he can build associations and concepts which would bring meaning to the printed words. When a hearing child tackles reading, he already has mastery over oral language and a wide range of concepts, which enable him to understand ideas behind the words he reads. The written symbols represent ideas which are already known to him, he has simply to learn to recognize the words. Whereas a Hearing impaired child approaches reading with limited vocabulary and concepts and hardly has any facility with oral languages. So even when he phonetically sounds the words he reads he may not comprehend ideas behind them. Thus the teacher must provide lots of direct experience and immediate spoken and written expression to match his understanding, so that written words fall within the ken of his understanding.

iv. Rich variety of reading experience.

The material used for reading by the teacher must evoke a strong interest in and love for reading. The classroom must be stacked with colourfully illustrated books so as to promote reading as a favored activity. The books must be easily accessible to the children and displayed on the shelves in the class to invite attention of the children. In order to create a positive attitude towards reading, the books must not be limited to basal readers but should cover imaginative, realistic and folk stories; historical and scientific fiction, books of knowledge the children's magazines. This sort of variety would stimulate love for books and prove to be a satisfying and vital part of their daily living. Reading must demonstrates that books can satisfy needs.

4.4 EVALUATION OF READING

To help a Hearing impaired child to reach his maximum potential, some kind of evaluation technique needs to be followed by the teacher. Both formal and informal methods could be used; but the informal method has the advantage of retaining the natural environment for reading in which the child is free of any kind of tension of being tested. These tests are based on child's usual reading matter.

1.4.1 Observation of pupil's reading habits

Observation of pupil's reading habits can also give the teacher an overall idea of his attitude towards reading e.g. Does the child like to read? Does he take books from the class during free time? Does he ask questions pertaining to the items he does not understand from the books? Is he curious about learning something new from the books?

4.4.2 Observation supported by questioning

Secondly more detailed observation about children's' reading ability could be judged during reading of text based on the conversations done in the class, any text prepared on items from newspapers, festivals and everyday happenings all around. As the text is read in the class the teacher questions to ascertain whether the children are able to find out and interpret new words through contextual clues, whether they are able to proceed systematically or they slip around and whether they read in thought units or lose the meaning of a sentence because they are word readers.

4.4.3 Dramatisation

Dramatisation is another excellent informal method in which children are asked to dramatize what they read. This affords a teacher the opportunity to observe how carefully and accurately the children have followed what they have read. In dramatising a story for example the main idea whether humorous, sad or suspenseful would be brought out and it would also convey whether the children have understood the notion of sequence and other details.

4.4.4 A more formal way for evaluation

A more formal way is through teacher self constructed tests these may be oral and written, and can take various forms such as "True and false" multiple choice 'Yes and no' completion of sentences, fill in the blanks, matching, and questions requiring short and long answers. Formal tests such as Gates reading tests and Stanford achievement tests could be given, but here grading needs to be done and they have certain time limit which may make children tense and nervous and not allow them to give their best.

4.5 WHAT SHOULD A READING PROGRAMME INCLUDE

?

A school should provide a systematic reading programme in which reading instruction should be in connection with all normal classroom and school activities and centres of interest. The reading programme must include opportunities for developmental, functional, recreational and remedial reading.

1.5.1 Developmental reading

Developmental reading refers to reading skills which are developed step by step. There is progression from easy to more difficult reading material. Reading readiness skills, ideo-visual reading, receptive reading at the vocabulary and structural phase and the basal readers come under developmental reading as they control the vocabulary and overall language level at every stage of education. These will be discussed under each grade.

4.5.2 Functional reading:

This is incidental reading, which takes place to foster the primary activity. The child can apply ideas gained from reading in practical situations. E. g. In order to know the programmes on T. V. the child has to read the newspaper. Here the primary activity is to find out the various programmes shown on T. V. but the child has to read in order to know them and switch on the programmes accordingly. At every grade some functional reading needs to be done so that new interests in reading are developed.

4.5.3 Recreational reading

This kind of reading is important because a child is given an opportunity to read whatever he wants without adult interference. Recreational reading encourages the ability to choose the book he wants and to read with understanding. Thus at every stage of his education a hearing impaired child must be exposed to a wonderful assortment of books for fun, for information and for relaxation. Thus this type of reading must form an integral part of a reading programme.

4.5.4 Remedial reading:

Through remedial reading a child is helped to correct the reading mistakes he generally makes and consolidate the correct form of words. e. g.

Exercise for practice of words which look similar and the visual pattern of which is confused or misinterpreted.

1. Mummy ----- a cake from a shop.
2. Meena ----- a glass of water for mummy. (brought, bought)
3. Raju likes to ride a -----
4. Lata stays in a small ----- (house, horse)

4.6 READING PROGRAMME AT NURSERY LEVEL

(Reading Readiness)

The children are between the ages of three through six at this stage when reading readiness skills need to be developed. It is during this period that children should accumulate experience and proficiencies that will later help them to understand meaning of the written language. Hearing impaired children usually come to nursery grade without any understanding of language, and unless the comprehension and use of language are developed, reading can not be initiated effectively. A hearing child on the other hand is usually reading ready by the age of 6 yrs.as by this time he has achieved mastery over oral language as well as physical skills needed for reading.

Thus, Developmental reading at the nursery stage involves 2 sub-skills:

- i) Specific Reading skills/ Physical Skills

ii) Linguistic skills

Physical skills as well as linguistic skills are necessary in order to develop reading skills at this stage.

1.6.1 Specific reading skills / Physical skills

Specific reading skills or physical skills involve such necessary steps as :













- classification and matching of objects and of pictures,
- eye hand coordination,
- auditory and visual discrimination, and
- left to right movement of the eyes.

If a child visually discriminates the similarities and differences in objects, and pictures, in their shapes, sizes and colours, he gradually gets trained to recognize the subtle differences in the letters of the alphabets. So the reading programme must include specific readiness material which will provide drill for these skills. Starting from simple easy material, the skills gradually become complicated. As the children play with this material the teachers talks to each child or does it as a class activity where she addresses all the 8 children in the class. The material she uses is always attractive, so the attention of the children is easily focused. Thus as the children match shapes sizes or classify objects, play with jigsaw puzzle and put blocks or pictures in correct order, they are constantly exposed to the language of these activities. A variety of activities could be given to the hearing impaired children to learn the necessary physical skills for learning reading. The activities to develop concentration, observation, and visual discrimination are as follows :

Matching of shapes, sizes colours













1. Tick the same shapes

○	◇	○	✿
△	♥	◇	△
□	△	□	♥

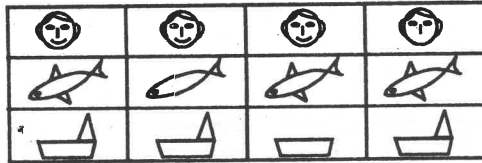
2. Tick the same size.

3. Tick the picture which has the same colour as the first one





(The teacher should colour the pictures as necessary)

4. Find the missing parts.








5. **Matching objects to objects** – Two similar objects such as balls, balloons, cars, kites could be matched. These objects should be taken from child’s everyday experiences and from conversations done in the class.

6. **Matching object to picture** –

Pictures	Objects
 a flower	
 a car	

7. **Matching picture-to-picture, e.g.**

(The teacher should make flash-cards of the same pictures for matching)

8. Classification

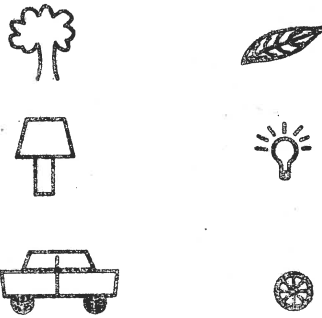
Children should classify and paste pictures in their scrapbooks on different pages pictures of animals, birds, flowers, clothes, toys etc. then find the picture that does not belong in the following activities.

- The squares in the blocks below should actually have the pictures and not the words.

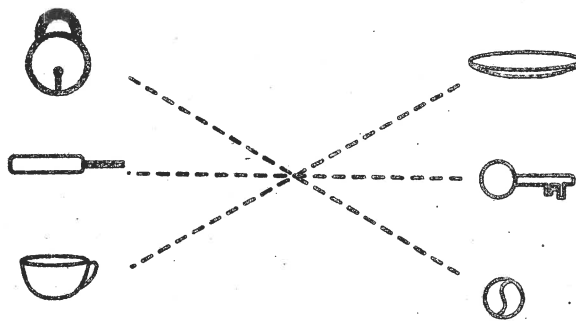
top	kite	apple	balloon
-----	------	-------	---------

dog	cat	horse	crow	cow
-----	-----	-------	------	-----






9. Matching parts to whole



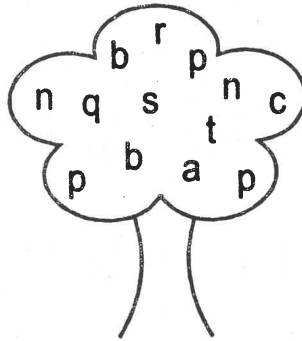
10. Matching things that go together.



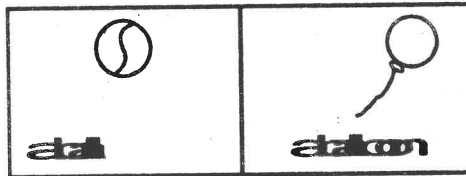
11. Match similar picture as in the first column. Put a circle around.

				
m	w	n	p	m
s	s	s	c	z

12. Circle the letter 'p'.



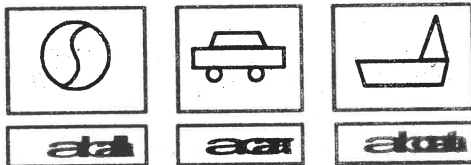
13. Match picture + word to word



a ball

a balloon

14. Match picture to word



15. Match and tick the words, which are the same as the first one

bed	ded	✓bed	edd	ded	✓bed
no	on	mo	✓no	om	✓no











All the above exercises prepare the child to detect the difference between words that look essentially alike, and then lead him step by step to reading of words and later on to sentences.

16. Memory training

Memory training is also an important factor to be considered, as a child must be able to organize and remember a series of actions, ideas or events in their proper sequence.

Memory could be trained through the following exercises.

- Teacher threads 3 coloured beads as the children watch. The children do the same remembering the pattern.
- The children see the following patterns and place the correct picture in the last column.

pattern						
pattern						



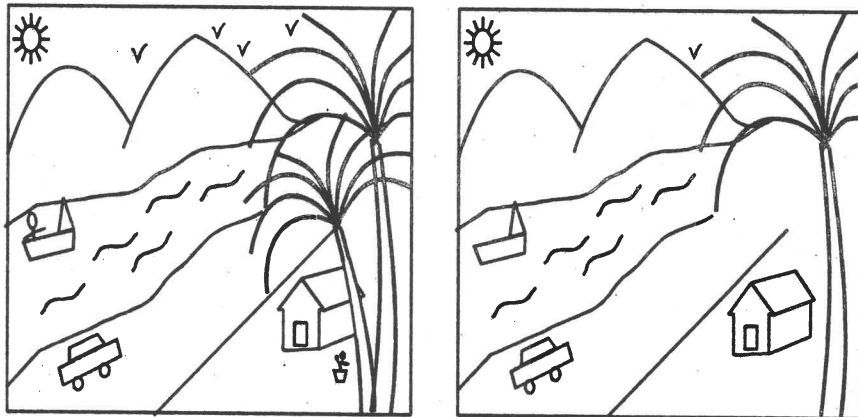
These pictures should be kept separately for the children to complete the pattern.

- c) Display 2-3 objects known to the children and take away one as the children close their eyes. Ask them the missing object.

Activities suitable for 5 to 6 yrs. old children :

By 5 to 6 years when vocabulary is fairly good –

- d. Use identical pictures, show the first picture and discuss the various items in it. Then hide the first picture and show the other picture from which items are deleted. The children should identify the missing items.



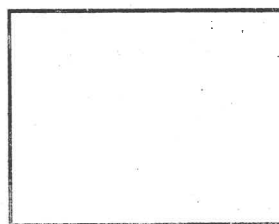
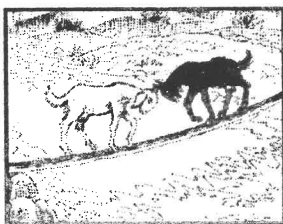
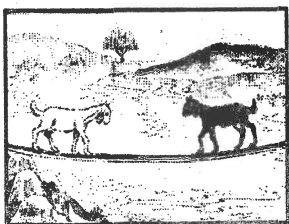
- e. A group game could be played. A child names a toy or an animal, the second one repeats the name and adds another and so on.

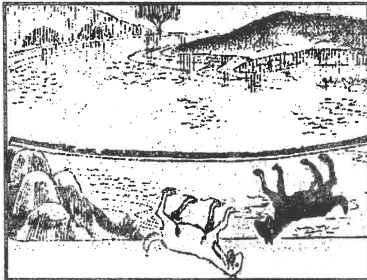
1.6.2 Linguistic Skills :

Linguistic skills are also vital to reading, thus this stage must aim at cultivation of understanding and use of oral language through conversation and other curricular and co-curricular activities such as stories, field trips, directed activities, games, craft, drawing painting, celebration of festival etc.

A teacher should also provide activities which arouse curiosity, stimulate thinking and reasoning and encourage the making of judgments and decisions.

Question forms such as who? What kind? What do? Where? When? Why? Etc. related to the everyday class activities, are basic to understanding of oral and written language and make a child think and reason. Imagination and decision-making could be developed step by step using very simple material at the beginning and gradually increasing the complexity of pictures during the four years at the nursery grade.e.g. Ask a child to judge the outcome of a simple story of three sequences. Present a series of 3 pictures building up to a final action and before the last picture is shown the child should be asked the end result.e.g.





The goats falling in the water beneath the bridge.

- Similarly to stimulate thinking, an emotional reaction could be elicited by showing a girl writing on the wall and asking a child how a mother would feel when she sees it, e.g.

Draw a child writing on a wall and mother with an angry face.

How does the

Draw children having a birthday party. Children with smiling faces.

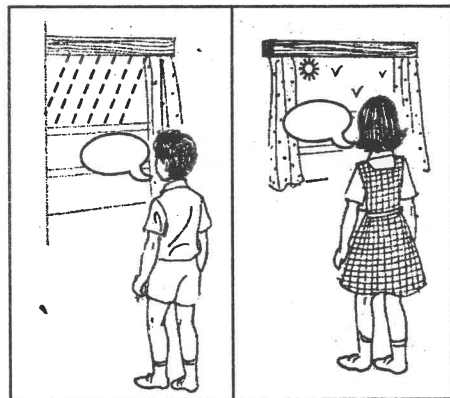
How do the children feel?

Draw a dog jumping on to a girl. The girl with a frightened expression.

How does the girl feel?

(The teachers should draw the pictures as per the descriptions in the upper blocks.)

- Conversation and events inferred but not depicted in the picture can be described by the children to develop imagination and thinking. 'What will they say?'



The children can talk about the two pictures shown above and then say what the child is likely to say in each picture.

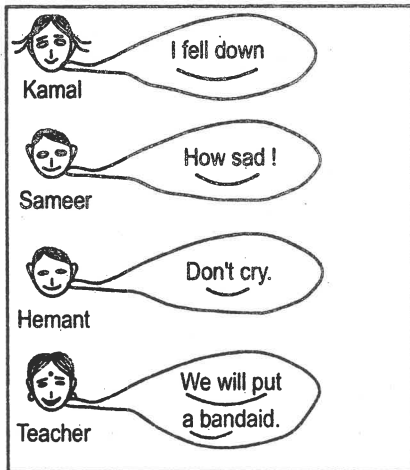
This game can be played with many suitable pictures, and the teachers can provide the right clues where necessary.

Aptly and profusely story books with text in direct discourse will be very useful for such exercises.

4.6.2 Ideo-visual reading

Along with reading readiness skills, the children at this stage could also be exposed to written conversation which has taken place in the class. This is ideo-visual reading which is based on ideas discussed by the children during their conversation and thus are familiar with the content. They globally understand the written sentences and learn to read them eventually. These sentences are written in speech balloons in front of each child's name and face.e.g.

One day a girl was in tears when she came to the class she pointed to her hurt knee.



The teacher gave correct language to the utterance and gesture of the children and added her own contribution. After encouraging the children to orally repeat the sentences to the best of their ability, the teacher wrote them on the black board with proper stress marks and phrasing. The children read the sentences after the teacher in the proper rhythm. As the incident had taken place in the class itself, the children understood and enjoyed reading their names and what they had said.

Follow up exercises eventually fix the written patterns on the mind of the children and they start giving back orally whatever is read.

1.6.2 Functional reading at the nursery stage

It is incidental reading in connection with activities done in class. A child learns to read his name incidentally through the attendance and health charts along with the names of days of the week, when these are discussed and tabulated every day in the class.

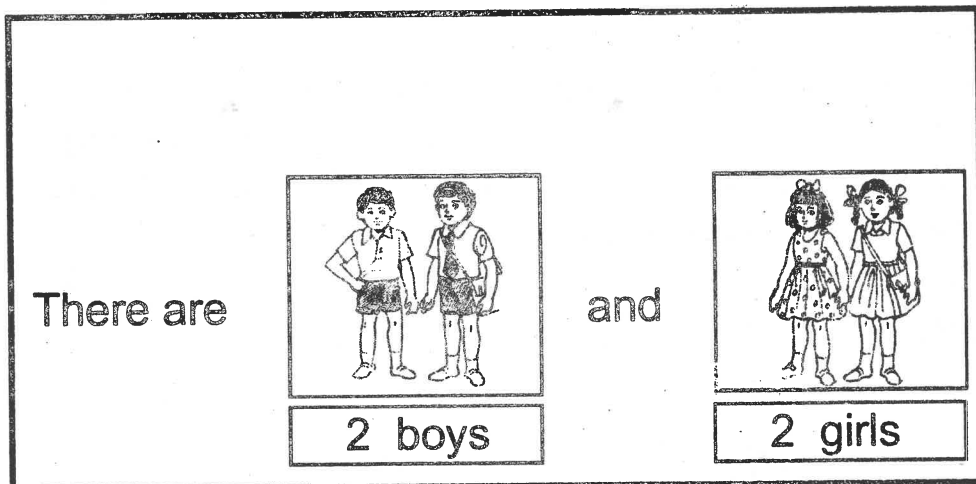
I a) Attendance chart

Names	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursda y	Frida y	Sat. Sun.
Raju	√	√				
Komal	√	√				
Varun	√	√				
Meena	√	X				
Puja	X	√				

Everyday one child takes the attendance with the help of the teacher. He calls out a name and writes √ or X according to the presence of absence of the child called. In the beginning he need guidance to mark the attendance in front of the name but after practice he is able to read the names and mark correctly.

I b) Today is Tuesday. The child inserts the card matching it with the one on the attendance chart.

ATTENDANCE CHART



in the class today

After the attendance, a child counts the boys and girls and inserts the cards in the chart. Every one reads the full sentence. He is given pictures of girls and boys from which he chooses the correct number. Every one reads the full sentence.

II Health chart

Everyday each child's nails, hair, teeth are examined by other children as to whether or not they are clean and well maintained. A discussion is done as to what should be done in case nails are dirty or hair not combed well or teeth not brushed properly. Each child is marked right or wrong after the discussion. This is an opportunity to give everyday language as well as expose children to reading their names, names of days and names of parts of the body. Other charts

such as a weather chart a duty chart could be prepared for functional reading and for developing language.

Health Chart

Today is Wednesday			
Name	Hair	Nails	Teeth
			
Siddhartha	✓	✗	✓
Niranjan	✓	✓	✓
Raju	✗	✓	✓
Varun	✓	✗	✓
Aditi	✗	✓	✓
Swapnali	✓	✗	✗
Chitra	✗	✓	✓



III Reading one's name

On each child's chair his name is written along with a picture of a toy he likes. Everyday the children have to arrange their chairs in the class and initially bring the right ones looking at the pictures. But eventually through constant association of a picture with the name, a child brings the right chair even when the picture is removed.

The teacher must draw the attention of the children to written words/sentences wherever possible. On field trips, the names of roads, traffic signs, candy

wrappers etc. must be shown or in the class attention must be drawn to the bulletin board and to charts on the wall of the class-room.

1.6.3 Recreational reading

The nursery class must be stacked with attractive colourful books with bold print so that the children are induced to handle them. Everyday fifteen to twenty minutes must be devoted to recreational reading when children choose their own books and read them. The teacher should be at hand in case a child wants to know a word or the name of an object shown in the book. Looking at books develop in the long run a thirst for knowing things and generates interest in reading later on.

1.7 SUMMARY

1. There are different approaches to reading, namely the phonic approach and the look and say or the whole approach.
2. The hearing impaired children should be motivated to read. The teacher's personality and her reading habit are important for she can generate enthusiasm for reading.
3. Interest and motivation in reading could be promoted by taking into consideration children's interest, giving direct experience to develop understanding of concepts involved and by providing rich variety of reading experiences.
4. The reading programme should include experiences for developmental, functional, recreational and remedial reading.

5. At the nursery stage developmental reading involves development of reading readiness skills, which are based on two sub skills namely specific reading skills and linguistic skills.
6. Specific reading skills develop concentration, memory, visual perceptive skills, eye-hand coordination which are basic to reading.
7. Linguistic skills are vital as they develop understand and use of oral language, promote judgment, arouse curiosity and stimulate thinking.

SELF STUDY

2. Prepare some exercises for reading readiness at the Nursery level for children of 4-5 years of age.
3. List out the activities / techniques that you would use to motivate the children to read.
4. Explain the concept of linguistic readiness required for reading giving a few examples.

1.9 ASSIGNMENTS

1. Describe the process of reading.
2. What is the importance of direct experience in reading ?
3. Give examples of specific reading skills that are necessary before formal reading could begin for hearing impaired children.

1.10 POINTS FOR DISCUSSION/CLARIFICATION

After going through the unit you may like to have further discussion on some points and clarification on other. Note down those points below :

4.10.1 Points for Discussion

4.10.2 Points for Clarification

4.11 REFERENCES AND SUGGESTED READINGS

1. J. C. Daniels and H. Diack, Progress in the infant school by Nottingham Institute of Education, University of Nottingham.
2. J. A. Downing, Evaluating the initial Teaching Alphabet (CasseII)
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4. Fernald, Grace - Remedial Techniques in Basic School Subjects : McGraw Hill 1943
5. Guiding Children's Reading through Experiences, Teacher's college Press, Columbia University.
6. Teaching Reading to Deaf Children- Beatrice Hart, Lexington School for the Deaf Education Series. Book IV.

UNIT 5: INTERVENTION OF LATE IDENTIFIED CHILDREN WITH HEARING IMPAIRMENT: CHALLENGES & STRATEGIES

STRUCTURE

- Introduction
- Objectives
- Developmental Reading
 - Receptive reading at the vocabulary stage
 - Benefits derived
 - 2.4. Reading exercises
 - Picture word matching
 - Colour the balls
 - Draw a circle round the right picture
 - Match the words that go together
 - Cross the word that does not belong
 - Join the words that mean the same
 - Join the words that are opposite
 - Use the correct verb
 - Colour / draw
 - Read and act
 - Interpret the sentence and match it with the picture
 - Put the sentences in correct order

- Read and say what will happen next
- Read and say what is wrong in the story
- Draw inferences
- **Functional reading**
 - 2.5.1 Field trips and projects
 - 2.5.2 Stories
 - 2.5.3 Increasing the complexity of the story
- **Recreational reading**
- **Reading Experiences at the Primary Level**
- **Developmental reading**
 - 2.8.1 Receptive reading at the structural phase
 - 2.8.2 Dictionary skills
 - 2.8.3 Reading exercises and games
- **Functional reading**
 - 2.9.1 A story and battery of tests
- **Workbooks**
- **Unit Summary : Things to remember**
- **Self study**
- **Assignments / activity**
- **Points for discussion/clarification**
- **References/Further readings**

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Before the hearing impaired children go to the primary level of reading, they still require a pre-primary stage of guided reading to understand and use ideas transmitted through the written language. Depending upon the children's ability and the guidance they get from their teacher, this stage of transition could cover one to two years. During this period reading experiences need to be systematic, interesting and satisfying so that the children are guided to tackle them successfully.

2.2 OBJECTIVES

After going through the unit you will be able to

- Explain the benefits derived from the daily conversations and their graphic presentation,
- Prepare reading lessons on the conversation done in the class,
- Prepare developmental reading exercises,
- Understand and state vocabulary and concepts which could emerge from a field trip or a project,
- Prepare stories and evaluation exercises,
- State what sort of books should be available for the recreational reading experiences. Then at the Primary stage,
- Promote receptive reading at the structural stage,
- Develop skills to use a dictionary effectively,

- Prepare exercises and games to consolidate language concepts and grammar encountered through reading,
- Expose them to interesting stories for reading and test their comprehension.

5.3 DEVELOPMENTAL READING – Pre-primary level

Through the daily conversations, their graphic presentation and the text prepared on these by the teacher, the hearing impaired children get the frequency of language usage vitally needed at this stage of reading. The visualized conversations

- prepare them to read in thought units,
- help to acquire a sight vocabulary with less concrete meanings , e.g. words such as, ‘but, at, on, these, so, that, just’ etc., form a natural part of conversation, and are acquired easily through the context of the conversation spoken and written than through drill.
- It also gives the colloquial language expressions such as ‘believe me, I am fed up, to my surprise’ etc. Such conversations have enormous possibilities and promote and contribute towards conceptual and linguistic growth.

5.3.1 Receptive reading at the vocabulary phase:

This stage is known as receptive reading at the vocabulary phase, wherein the children understand written text, which gives them new contents, but is mainly understood on the basis of vocabulary familiar through the different conversations spoken and written. This text can also be based on the children’s experiences, known events and surroundings, e.g. the following conversation took place in the class of 6-year-old children

where a girl was absent for 3 days and attended the school after the weekend. The same was visualized thus :

a. Sandeep – Huma has come to school today.

Mohan – Was she ill?

Teacher – Were you Huma? What was wrong?

Huma – My throat hurt. I went to the doctor.

Pratima – Did the doctor give you an injection?

Huma – Yes! But I didn't cry!

Through such graphic presentation of the conversation, the children get accustomed to look at the whole form of sentence, learn to read rhythmically in phrases and thought units. Such rhythmic graphic form is retained well in memory. The reading lesson as a deposit of this conversation was done as follows :

Reading lesson

Huma was absent for three days. Today she is in school. What do you think happened to her? "Was she ill ?" inquired Mohan. Oh! Her throat was sore, so she went to her doctor. Pratima was curious; she asked, 'Did the doctor give you an injection ?' Yes! But she didn't cry! Brave Huma!

- b. Seven years old children had the following conversation on winter season which was visualized and then text was written based on it. e.g.

Jatin – In Pune it was cold.

Satibir – In the morning, the water was so cold! I shivered.

Sharan – My mummy heats water on the gas for my bath.

Sahel – ‘Yippee! Its winter time. I love cool air.

Zainab – But the poor people sleeping on the road shiver!

Sharan – They will collect firewood and light it.

Mahi – I will wear my sweater.

Sharan – I could not see the temple on the mountain in the morning.

Sahel – Me too! I couldn’t see the skyscraper behind the church.

Teacher – That’s because early morning there is fog.

The reading of the above conversation preceded the text prepared on the same. The text is given below. :

Winter is here.

“Brr.....it’s cold.” complained Satbir after his bath. But Sahel loves cold air, so he was excited. “What about the poor people on the road? They will shiver,” said Zainab sadly. “They will light firewood and keep themselves warm,” informed Sharan. Do you know there is fog early in the morning? That is why Sahel could not see the skyscraper behind the church and Sharan the temple on the mountain.

Winter is time for grapes, apples and juicy carrots! We will have sports and picnics during winter. Fun time-isn’t it?

5.3.2 Benefits derived

Such written conversations and their text introduce new words and new sentence constructions, because such conversations in the class have natural recurrence of items, which provide repetition needed to fix the forms in the children’s repertoire. The teacher initially helps to use new ways of saying the same thing using new vocabulary. She also guides them to transform kernel sentences through negation, phrases and clauses, e.g. Huma has not come. She is absent. She didn’t attend school because she had sore throat. ♦

While writing text based on the conversation, the teacher adds a few new words and concepts and unfamiliar sentence constructions which are explained by means of examples. As far as possible, she gives an opportunity to use contextual clues to unlock the meaning. At about the age of 8 years, the children are able to read text dealing with fantasy and imagination such as fairy tales, fables and stories from history and science. This is possible only if the previous reading experiences have been meaningful and extensive.

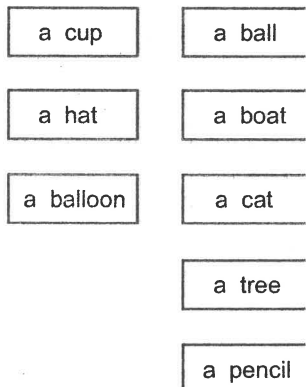
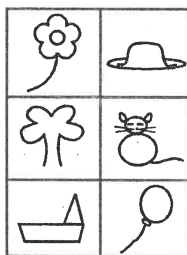
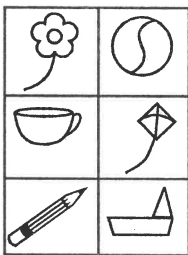
5.4 READING EXERCISES

Reading exercises form a part of the development of reading programme as they offer an opportunity to the teacher to gauge whether the children are able to interpret the exact meaning of words/sentences/and paragraphs. Starting from simple ones, these exercises increase in complexity according to the development of language throughout this stage.

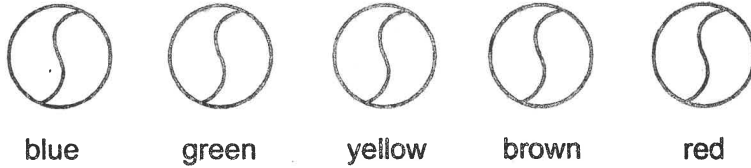
A few such exercises are given below –

1. Each child should be given a card with six pictures. The words of the pictures are in the hands of the teacher. As she shows the words one by one on the flashcards, each child crosses out the pictures on his card. The one who finishes first wins. (played like the game ‘housie’)

Cross the right picture on the card



















2 Colour the balls



The teacher should prepare flash cards for all the words given above with the pictures.

3. Draw a circle round the right picture

a clock				
a book				
a fan				
a dog				

4. Match the words that go together

cup	carrot
shoes	brush
comb	butter
bread	saucer
rabbit	socks

5. Cross the word that does not belong

c a t	d o g	h o r s e	l i o n	l a m b
f r o c k	s h i r t	p i n	t i e	p a n t s
n o s e	r i n g	e y e s	a r m s	f i n g e r s
a p p l e	p o t a t o	b a n a n a	m a n g o	g r a p h e s
m o	b r	d ri	s i	f a

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t	o	v	s	t
h	t	e	t	h
e	h	r	e	e
r	e		r	r
	r			

6. Join the words that mean the same

speak	gift
small	large
present	sad
big	tiny
sorry	talk

7. Join the words that are opposite

heavy	new
old	cold
big	start
hot	small
finish	light

8. Use the correct word (verb)

(laughed, ate, drank, climbed, cried)

Raju----- breakfast before going to school.

Mohan-----water as he was thirsty.

A cat-----a tree.

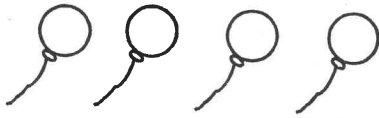
A baby-----because he wanted milk.

Children-----at the funny clowns in the circus.



9. Colour / draw

a. colour two trees green.



b. colour one balloon red, two green and the fourth blue.



c. Colour the big ball pink.

d. Draw two yellow balloons on a table.

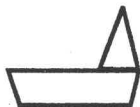
e. Draw red bus on a road.

f. Draw a girl between two boys.

g. Draw a cat under a table

10. Read and act

- Take off your right shoe
- Hop round the room
- Walk like an old man
- Answer the telephone
- Bring two cups in a tray
- Put on your raincoat, open an umbrella and go out.



11.



- Put a cross on something you see in the morning in the sky.
- Put a circle round something that you use when it rains.
- Put a line under something that goes very fast.
- Put a cross on something that goes on water.

12. Put the sentences in correct order

a. The cat drank the milk.

A cat jumped on the table.

Mummy put a cup of milk on the table.

The milk spilt on the table.

b. Mrs. Kamat was angry.

The children played cricket on the road.

It broke Mrs. Kamat's windowpane.

One boy hit the ball hard.

13. Read and say what will happen next

Nitin came to the class at 9.30a.m. in the morning. He put his bag near his desk and went to the blackboard to write the date. He saw a ten-rupee note on the teacher's table. He -----

14. - Read and say what is wrong in the story.

Uncle was going to Nagpur by plane at 11 p.m.. Mother, father and Komal went to see him off. They got ready, had their dinner and got into the car. They could drive easily to the railway station, as there were not many cars on the road.

15. To learn to read beyond the words.

The children should be exposed to exercises in which they can draw inferences according to the given facts.

- a. Pooja wanted to buy note-books and pencils. She went to -----(a grocery shop, a stationery shop, a fruit vendor)
- b. Sahil and Jatin asked father whether they could go to a restaurant to eat. Father gave money to Sahil for both of them. Sahil and Jatin are -----(friends, brothers, cousins). Who is older? -----(Sahil, Jatin)
- c. It was mealtime at the ----- . The monkey ate bananas, the elephants their sugarcane and tigers their meat.
- d. Rohan saw an old woman trying to cross the road.
He went to her and held her hand.

Who said: 'Thank you'

'You're welcome'

'May I help you'

5.5 FUNCTIONAL READING

Before the hearing impaired children make a transition from informal to formal reading of primary standard, they are bombarded with the written form during the functional reading programme. All the activities done in the class are accompanied by written language, e.g. stories, directed activities, field trips to stores, the zoo, the police and fire station, the bazaar, the railway and bus stations, the post office etc. Projects on cleanliness, family, food, games, weather etc. all have written information along with them either on the blackboard or on the newsprint or in teacher made books. As the children have experiential background

of these activities, little by little many of the words involved become sight words, which the children can identify and interpret. The teacher guides them to read the accompanying information by using contextual clues.

The following examples give the vocabulary and concepts, which would emerge out of field trips and projects, which the children would learn to understand and read.

5.5.1 Field trips / Projects

1. A field trip to a general stores to buy a few articles can reinforce words such as to buy and sell, to pay, shopkeeper, money, shelves, pretty things etc.. The concepts involved would be a little, a lot, many, few, some, not enough, cheap and expensive.
2. Post Office – Vocabulary involved would be : letter, post card, envelop, stamps, address, post box, airmail, etc.. Concepts to be introduced would be how a letter travels, far, near, local, foreign, time, distance etc..

As the children and the teacher actively participate in the oral exchange of language during field trips and projects, the written language is understood and enjoyed in conjunction with these activities. Thus reading becomes extensive and satisfying.

Conversation can follow a field trip or vice versa and the text could be visualized on the blackboard and then written in the children's notebooks. Follow up of these activities could be done through looking at and

reading books about similar experiences and by experience records books wherein the experiences are written and pictures drawn.

5.5.2 Stories -

Stories are a form of functional reading always enjoyed by the children. The words, expressions and structures of sentences initially should be within their capacity to tackle and should be interesting and appropriate to the age and the particular stage of the children. A story as an approach to language teaching is being done regularly at the nursery and pre-primary stage using picture sequences and books.

Reading of stories by the children without pictorial clues must also be done in the class as a group activity.

- The teacher reads the story with appropriate rhythm and intonation and the children follow her.
- Once again the children read the story in their mind and try to answer the questions put by the teacher in their notebooks or on the blackboard. This enables the teacher to get some idea of their general grasp of the story.
- Then a guided reading session can follow with the teacher interpreting new concepts with examples and even with simple dramatization.
- Some specific parts might have to be reread to interpret unknown language or structures of the sentences. The children would then answer a second battery of questions to test their comprehension and memory for ideas of the story.

5.5.3 Increasing the complexity of the story :

Initially for 6 to 7 year olds, the story has to be simple. Gradually complexity of ideas and structure of sentences could be added. An example of a story for 7-year-old is given below for reading:

MEENA GOES TO THE PARK

Meena went with her dog Rover and her friend Lata to the park. Rover ran around the park while Meena and Lata played with a ball.

‘Yippee!’ Meena bounced the ball high and up it went over the garden fence! ‘Mummy told me not to go after the ball on the road,’ said Meena to Lata. What will they do?

But off went Rover and brought the ball back from the road. How clever!

‘Thank you Rover, you are so helpful’ shouted Meena. Meena and Lata jumped with joy.

.....

After reading the story on their own, the children answer the first battery of questions.

- a. Draw : 1. Rover, 2. A Park, 3. A ball, 4. A road, 5. Lata
- b. Meena and Lata went to play

1. Outside their house
2. On the road
3. In the park

c. Rover is called clever because

1. He ran around the park.
2. He brought the ball.
3. He went to the park.

d. Mother told Meena not to go on the road because

1. Children play on the road.
2. Cars go on the road.
3. People walk on the road.

e. The second battery of questions could be given after the guided reading session with the teacher.

- i. Who helped Meena to get the ball?
- ii. Why didn't Meena go to get the ball?
- iii. What were Meena and Lata playing with in the park?
- iv. How did Meena's ball fall on the road?
- v. Why was Rover called clever?

5.6 RECREATIONAL READING:-

The success of this programme will depend on whether or not the children voluntarily read books from the library or those that are kept on purpose by the teacher in the class. If the books are well illustrated with interesting material suitable to the age and language development of the children, these books can excite their curiosity and can demonstrate that reading can satisfy needs and interest. Children should be exposed to the rich array of attractive books, so that during their free time they may browse in the reading corner. Sometimes they may just look through the pictures of a book or may read it right with or without asking the teacher for help. But the teacher must keep readily available a variety of reading books. With these reading experiences the children will be ready for reading of primary standard.

5.7 READING EXPERIENCES AT THE PRIMARY LEVEL

The primary years up to the 4th standard for hearing-impaired children generally span from 9 to 12 years. Formal reading instruction is introduced and extended throughout this period. If the **nursery and pre-primary reading experiences are systematically developed** then early primary level reading of basal readers, e.g. Balbharati (language textbook used in Maharashtra state) and Environmental studies, do not present many hurdles. The techniques and strategies for achieving this goal are briefly as follows :

The teacher should endeavor to –

- Promote receptive reading at the structural (sentences) stage,
- Develop skills to use a dictionary effectively,
- Prepare exercises and games to consolidate language concepts and grammar encountered through reading, and

- Expose them to interesting stories for reading and test their comprehension.

2.8 DEVELOPMENTAL READING

The viewing/reading of the oral conversation in print, either on board or in their books, is termed as visualized conversation.

Oral Conversations and their visualization need to be continued, as language development has to be promoted concurrently with teaching of academic subjects. Many of the topics that the children have to read in their academic subjects, informally arise during news and conversation periods. Thus the new vocabulary, new structures of sentences and varied concepts that are included in the basal readers get covered during the conversations and in the text based on them. This stage of reading is called “Receptive Reading at the Structural Phase” wherein the children learn to read and interpret words according to the context in which they are used, e.g. the “to look” gets different meaning according to the preposition that follows it.

e.g. Mohan looked out of the window, he looked at the birds which visited his garden in early spring.

2.8.1 Receptive Reading at the Structural Phase

The term ‘structural’ means that the children now can get meaning through complete sentences. They are no longer dependent upon words alone.

At this stage, the children learn to understand humour in language, figurative meanings and can also comprehend longer sentences with subordinate clauses. The conversation at this stage could be as follows:

- Apoorva : I went to a dentist because I had a toothache.
Shahzed : What did he do?
Apporva : He gave me an injection and put a filling in the cavity.
Janisha : Ouch! Even my tooth hurts!
Niyojita : Do you have a cavity too?
Janisha : Yes, But I am scared to go to the dentist.
Niyojita : You eat too many sweets and drink Pepsi everyday!

Apporva : My doctor told me to brush my teeth two times a day!

5.8.2 Reading text prepared on the above conversation

Take Care of your Teeth

Have you ever been to a dentist to fill a cavity? Apporva has and so has Bhaskar. Janisha has a toothache, but she is too scared to visit a dentist.

How we all love to eat sweets and drink Pepsi! But alas! They cause cavities in our teeth that give us much pain! Let us brush our teeth twice a day and eat healthy food to keep the dentist away.

.....

The teacher, by introducing longer sentences, new language expressions and structure, guides the children to read, understand and use these in their colloquial language. Thus the vocabulary, concepts and language expressions involved in the textbooks are already covered before the children in their books encounter the particular lesson.

2.8.2 Dictionary Skills

These need to be introduced as reference sources so that the children understand their use on a simple level. They will use it to look up the spelling of words they need to write. So they must not leaf through the dictionary randomly but should be taught the skills to locate the words they need to write. They also could be taught singing rhythmically the alphabet song or playing alphabet games to aid with rote memory. Simple exercise could also help. E.g.

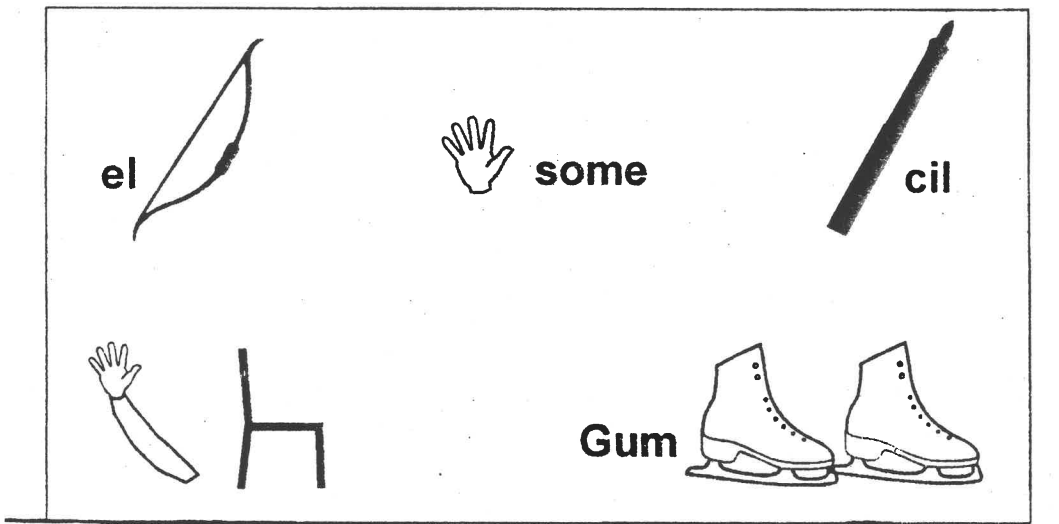
1. Put in alphabetical order v,s,t,r,u.
2. Baba, papa, mama, kaka.
3. What comes next? K,l,m,n,___
4. What comes after h___
5. What comes before s ___

5.8.3 Reading Exercises and Games

They perform the vital function of providing repetition needed to incorporate new words into the children's sight vocabulary. The children enjoy these and they become more observant and agile giving answers to these exercises.

1. Finding small words in a long word, e.g. –
Weather – we, the, at, her, eat.
2. Making small words from a long word - e.g.
Stationary – on, sat, tie, stone, year, ---etc.

3. Rebus games



4. Categories game.

Fill each column with the word beginning with the letter mentioned.

	M	S	A	P
Countries				
Vegetables				
Animals				
Things				

5. Series: -

- a. Small-big, tall-short, fat-thin, narrow- _____
- b. Cow-calf, horse-pony, dog-puppy, lion-_____
- c. Bus-driver, ship-sailor, train-motorman, aeroplane-_____
- d. Boy-girl, man-woman, king-queen, bride-_____
- e. Cat-fat, hen-men, run-fun, pin-_____

6. Find word/words in the sentence with the same meaning as the underlined.

- a. Leena had many pens and Meena had several pencils.
- b. Bhaskar's father and mother came to school but Rahul's parents didn't
- c. The waiter was told to fetch pudding yet he brought ice cream.
- d. Asha was fed up of eating vegetables, she didn't like them at all.
- e. Mother told to hurry up and get ready but he could not dress up quickly.

7. Complete the sentences:

- a. Janisha's father is a plumber. He fixes _____. (taps, lights, doors)
- b. When you are out of breath, you _____. (breathe, pant, snore)

- c. A temple is a place where people _____. (sit, work, pray)
- d. The one who is well known is _____. (big, famous, clever)

5.9 FUNCTIONAL READING

The children should be presented with different types of material for reading. They should be exposed to newspaper items, information given in the textbooks of different subjects of their syllabus, stories, workbooks and rapid readers.

The story units at this level become longer than at the previous stage so that the children learn to read in cumulative thought units. They should be able to follow a story sequentially as the events unfold. A battery of tests, checking their comprehension of the main idea, the sequence of events, vocabulary and inferences should accompany the stories.

5.9.1 A Story and battery of questions

The following story gives the example of how it should be tackled at this level.

A story :

Ramu used to set out at the crack of dawn to graze his cattle on the slopes of a mountain. There he relaxed in the shade of a tree as he kept an eye on his cattle. Every day, he used to see some farmers toiling in the fields nearby.

One day he decided to tease the farmers and have some fun. He called out, "Help! Help! The wolf is here." The farmers ran with their sickles and sticks to help. But alas! There was no wolf. The farmers went back angrily. Ramu had a good laugh at their plight.

Next day, a wolf came where the cattle were grazing. The frightened Ramu Shouted "Help! Help! The wolf has come" But alas! Nobody came in time to help.

- 1. A good title for the story would be
 - a. Clever boy Ramu

- b. Serves you right! Ramu
 - c. Trouble maker Ramu
2. What happened to the cattle?
3. Find the right answer
- i. The farmers were angry because
 - a. Ramu called out to them.
 - b. No wolf had come.
 - c. They were working in the fields.
 - ii. The farmer came running to help because
 - a. They thought the wolf had come.
 - b. They thought Ramu was sick.
 - c. They thought the cattle were lost.
 - iii. One day Ramu called out to the farmers because
 - a. he wanted help
 - b. He wanted to have fun
 - c. He lost his cattle
 - iv. The next day Ramu called to the farmers because
 - a. The wolf had come.
 - b. He wanted to tease the farmers.
 - c. He wanted to take the cattle home.
4. a. Ramu set out at the **crack of dawn**.

Crack of dawn means: At midnight/ Early morning/ late

- b. Ramu relaxed in the shade.

Relaxed means: Rested/Slept/Snoored.

- c. Ramu kept an eye on his cattle.

'Kept an eye on' means: Ignored/Examined/Watched.

- d. Laughed at the farmers' plight.

'Plight' means: At their work in the fields

At their going back angrily

At their coming with sticks

- e. The farmers toiled in their fields.

Toiled means: Wandered in the fields,

Guarded their fields,

Worked hard in their fields

- f. Nobody came to help in time.

'In time' here means: When the cattle grazed

At the crack of dawn

When the wolf came.

5. Arrange in sequence the following sentences.

- a. But nobody came to help in time.
- b. One day he decided to have some fun.
- c. The farmers nearby came running with sticks.
- d. So they went to graze his cattle every day.
- e. Ramu went to graze his cattle every day.
- f. He shouted, "Help, Help, the wolf has come!"
- g. But there was no wolf.

h. Next day Ramu shouted again for help.

6. Answer the questions.

- a. Where did Ramu take cattle?
- b. Who worked in the fields nearby?
- c. Why did Ramu Shout for help when there was no wolf?
- d. Why did the farmers come with their sticks?
- e. Why didn't the farmers come to help?

These tests indicate the variety of ways in which comprehension of the story can be tested. It makes the children read, think and interpret the essence of the material presented.

5.9.2 Work books

Commercially prepared workbooks can also be used as they provide ready – to – use assignments. But the teacher must use them judiciously. She must use the workbooks suited to develop the children's vocabulary and give them the drill required in specific skills.

At this stage, the children should be able to read books as much for pleasure and recreation as for information. The ultimate success of the programme of reading will depend on whether a child voluntarily chooses books to read in school and at home.

5.10 SUMMARY - Pre-primary level

1. There are different approaches to reading, namely the phonic approach and the look and say or the whole approach.
2. The hearing impaired children should be motivated to read. The teacher's personality and her reading habit are important for she can generate enthusiasm for reading.

3. Interest and motivation in reading could be promoted by taking into consideration children's interest, giving direct experience to develop understanding of concepts involved and by providing rich variety of reading experiences.
4. The reading programme should include experiences for developmental, functional, recreational and remedial reading.
5. At the nursery stage developmental reading involves development of reading readiness skills, which are based on two sub skills namely specific reading skills and linguistic skills.
6. Specific reading skills develop concentration, memory, visual perceptive skills, eye-hand coordination which are basic to reading.
7. Linguistic skills are vital as they develop understand and use of oral language, promote judgment, arouse curiosity and stimulate thinking.
8. Everyday conversation and its written form known as ideo-visual reading increases sight vocabulary and develops the ability to globally understand what is read.
9. Functional reading is incidental reading done in connection with the class activities
10. Recreational reading creates interest in books and a thirst for knowledge that in later stages promotes interest in reading.

Primary level:

11. Oral conversations and their visualizations need to continue.
12. The stage of reading is called 'Receptive reading at the structural phase.'
13. In the reading text the teacher introduces longer sentences, new expressions and structures, and encourages the students to use in their colloquial language.
14. Dictionary skills are also introduced, so the students locate systematically the spellings of words they need to write.
15. Reading exercises are prepared to improve student's sight vocabulary and promote their observation and agility in answering the questions.
16. In functional reading story units become longer in order to make the students read in cumulative thought units and follow the units logically.

17. The battery of questions must be such as to check the comprehension of the main idea, the sequence of events, vocabulary and inferences. The children must learn to think and interpret the essence of the material presented.
18. Workbooks could be introduced to give them drill required to consolidate the vocabulary and language concepts presented in the text given.

5.11 POINTS TO REMEMBER

1. The daily conversations and their graphic presentations contribute towards conceptual and linguistic growth.
2. The reading of conversations and their text at this stage is called receptive reading at the vocabulary stage and is based on children's experience, events known to them, and on their surroundings.
3. In the reading text prepared of the conversation the teacher adds a few new words, concepts, and unfamiliar constructions, which are explained through examples and contextual clues.
4. Reading exercises are formulated to test whether the children are able to gauge the exact meaning of words, sentences, and paragraphs they encounter in their reading experiences.
5. To learn to read beyond the words, the children should be exposed to exercises in which they can,
 - i. Draw inferences,
 - ii. Read and say what is wrong in a story / incidence, and,
 - iii. Say what will happen next, etc.
6. Functional reading must be done in connection with all the activities done in the class.
7. Field trips, projects, stories, present a wealth of experience and language to the children.

8. At this stage, the children should be able to choose books they like and read voluntarily. They must be exposed to a rich array of attractive books based on their interest and language stage.

5.12 SELF STUDY

1. List out the techniques that a teacher would use to motivate the children to read?
2. Define dictionary skills and write down 3 exercises to promote these.
3. From the observations that you have done of the lessons in H.I. children's pre-primary class in the 4th year of the pre-school, list out the direct experiences provided by the teacher and the reading exercises that she has prepared for these.

5.13 ASIGNMENTS

1. What does receptive reading at the structural phase mean ?
2. Make a text on the conversation done by the students in the class at the primary stage. Show the stress marks and phrases.
3. Give an example of a story to be given at the last stage of pre-primary level. State the battery of questions based on it to check their comprehension, vocabulary and inference skills.

5.14 POINTS FOR DISCUSSION/CLARIFICATION

After going through the unit you may like to have further discussion on some points and clarification on other. Note down those points below:

5.14.1 Points for Discussion

5.14.2 Points for Clarification

5.15 REFERENCE / FURTHER READING

1. J. C. Daniels and H. Diack, Progress in the infant school by Nottingham Institute of Education, University of Nottingham.
2. J. A. Downing, Evaluating the initial Teaching Alphabet (Cassell)
3. F. J. Schonell and E. J. goodacre, The Psychology and Teaching of Reading – Oliver and Boyd. 5th edition.
4. Fernald, Grace – Remedial Techniques in Basic School Subjects : McGraw Hill 1943
5. Guiding Children’s Reading through Experiences, Teacher’s college Press, Columbia University.
6. Morris R. – Success and Failure in Learning to read penguin, 2nd edition.

7. Papas, George – Reading in primary school (Macmillan 1962)
8. Teaching Reading to Deaf Children- Beatrice Hart, Lexington School for the Deaf Education Series. Book IV.
9. Reading – a source book edited by Drummond Edna Wigne II, Heinemann Educational Books, London.

BLOCK 2:
AUDITORY LEARNING (AVT & AUDITORY
TRAINING) & SPEECH READING

UNIT 1:CONCEPT OF 'AUDITORY LISTENING': UNISENSORY & MULTISENSORY APPROACHES

STRUCTURE

- Introduction
 - Objectives
 - Reading and Curriculum
 - What is Reading ?
 - Reading and Curriculum
 - Curriculum for schools for the deaf
 - Text books used in regular schools
 - Textbooks are written for children fluent in language
 - Dearth of reading material for language-delayed children
 - Role of textbooks in education
 - Skills involved in the reading-task
 - Learning to read and use the textbooks
 - Reading and the Hearing Impaired Child
 - Difficulties faced by the H.I. in the use of textbooks

- **What is the solution to the problem ?**
- **Adaptation / rewriting of the text**
- **Process of adaptation**
- **Important factors that influence text difficulty**
- Some examples of text-adaptation
 - **Example 1 : Story of ‘ The Lion and the Mouse’**
 - **Example 2 : Story of ‘ The Loyal Mongoose’**
 - **Example 3 : A complex sentence from a science textbook
– std. 6**
 - **Example 4 : A passage on ‘ Solar System’**
- Summary
- Self study
- Assignments
- Points for discussion/clarification
- References

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Deaf children are known to have severe problems in getting meaning from what they read. This mainly results from totally inadequate exposure and opportunities to language usage. When they begin reading at the primary grades, they have a very limited knowledge base, and their language and cognitive skills are grossly inadequate.

Since in this unit we are mainly concerned with the reading abilities of deaf children studying at the secondary level, it might be helpful to look at the outcomes of some of the studies done abroad of the results of deaf students performance on reading tests.

Most studies indicate that the reading scores achieved by deaf children are much below their mental and chronological age. Trybus and Karchmer (1977) reported reading scores for a stratified, random sample of 6,871 deaf students. They found that the median reading level at age 20 years was a grade equivalent of only 4.5, and that only 10% of the very best reading group (the 18 year olds) could read at or above the eighth grade level. Many other studies indicate that the low and very poor reading levels and the slow rate of progress in reading are not uncommon amongst deaf children; and educated guess suggests that if this is the state of affairs in the very progressive countries like U.K. and USA, conditions are likely to be much worse in other countries. (There will always be some exceptions.) While reviewing reading, writing and instructional approaches as they relate to acquisition of English language, Joseph E. Fischgrund highlights that the teaching of English (as a matter of fact any language) to deaf students is a paramount yet extremely difficult task. He quotes Stuckless (1989): ‘ *the*

acquisition of verbal language is a critical element in a deaf student's education, both for active participation in society and as a requisite for success in academic content areas. However...literacy in English remains beyond the grasp of many, if not most deaf students.' **Informal observation and study of H.I. pupils, in or out of schools, in India suggest that we are in much worse situation as far as reading levels of deaf children are concerned.**

The purpose of providing this data on reading scores here is just to make the future teachers of the deaf aware of the problems involved in educating the deaf, so that they may approach the task much more seriously and with an analytical mind than they would normally do in education of normally hearing children.

3.2 OBJECTIVES

After studying this Unit, the readers would be able to :

- **Appreciate the problems faced by the H.I. children while reading,**
- **State how textbooks help in education,**
- **Describe the skills involved in the process of reading,**
- **State what is involved in the process of adaptation of text for the H.I.**
- **List out the reader-based and text-based variables that affect text difficulty,**
- **Describe the differences between the original text and the adapted text given in the examples.**

1.3 READING AND THE CURRICULUM

1.3.1 What is reading ?

As stated in the introduction to Block 2, reading too is a mode of communication like speaking, lip-reading, signing words and sentences, etc. As a mode of communication, it is a vehicle for processing the meanings and intentions communicated by others. Whenever readers engage in the task of comprehending message coded in the orthographic system, they actively employ their world knowledge and communicative and linguistic competence. They make use of their understanding of discourse structure and how meanings are organized within a given discourse; they determine how they are expected to , or need to, use or respond to a given passage, and they make use of their knowledge of how meaning is coded by various syntactic structures and particular vocabulary items (Galloway,1977; Shafer,1979; Smith,1978; Truax,1978;Wolf, McQuillan, & Radwin,1980).

1.3.2 Reading and Curriculum

Reading is not considered a subject within the curriculum; rather it is the primary tool whereby children can gather information. Often reading is difficult for many hearing children too who do understand and speak their native language. In the case of severely or profoundly hearing impaired children, who comprehend and use language only vaguely, it is a Herculean task. Yet for them it is this ability to read which is of vital importance. The deaf who have received some education are more dependant on getting information and communicating with others through the written word than their hearing counterparts who also have the benefit of several other inputs

like oral interaction with adults and peers, exposure to incidental language heard in surroundings, TV, radio, movies etc.

1.3.3 Curriculum for the schools for the deaf

This is not dealt with separately in SESH 1,2, & 3, because the total 6 Units in Blocks 1 & 2 of Paper III cover the teaching-learning program from the infant level to the pre-primary level quite adequately. And from 1st standard onwards, the teacher is expected to follow the regular textbooks as support to instruction. The content in the textbooks should be the source of vocabulary, syntax, and speech patterns and must be utilized in presentation, teaching, and even drilling language sentence patterns rather than the reverse. It must be remembered that language and content are inextricably interrelated.

There is a misconception amongst some educators of the deaf that there should be a special curriculum for the hearing impaired. But actually, 'Curricula for hearing impaired children' must reflect everything that a normal school curriculum includes, but in consideration of their low language levels, the language could be simplified. Added emphasis has to also be placed in the area of language development and reading. Appropriate modifications in the curriculum to include the recurring life situations would allow a child to periodically review vocabulary and language acquired at an elementary level and continually apply and expand it with his maturing concepts. (This point is discussed in the previous unit too.)

1.4 TEXTSBOOKS USED IN THE REGULAR SCHOOLS

1.4.1 Textbooks are written for Children Fluent with Oral Language

Unfortunately for us, books including textbooks prescribed in the curriculum are written for children who are already fluent with oral language. They know and use sentences and questions, understand transformations, phrase structure rules and morphemic variations of words in their spoken language. When a book is written for children, the author keeps in mind the interest level of the child and to some extent the vocabulary and cognitive development, but usually pays little attention to background experiences and none whatsoever to the syntactic aspects of the language. He assumes the reader can comprehend complicated syntactic structure as well as idiomatic language, and he would grasp the new and the difficult ones in the course of teaching learning

1.4.2 Dearth of reading material for language-delayed children

Despite the abundance in availability of reading material, very little is appropriate for hearing impaired children and those with other severe language delays. To read books and textbooks written for the hearing child requires language sophistication far beyond that which hearing-impaired children possess. Complex grammatical structures and verbose language in texts create special difficulties for a H.I. child. He may well be able to understand the underlying concepts after careful explanation but may need considerable help in reading such texts with comprehension. Same as the hearing children, as the H.I. children grow, their maturity level and cognitive capacities grow to a large extent through varied experiences in spite of the severe impoverishment of language. But they do not have the verbal language to retain and express these.

Under the circumstances, use of the textbooks therefore, inevitably leads to a deaf child depending a lot on rote learning mostly without comprehension. This is not only a futile waste of time and energy but is often actually detrimental to their language and cognitive development. Hearing-impaired children therefore often remain illiterate or at best semi-literate in spite of spending many years in school.

1.5 ROLE OF TEXTBOOKS IN EDUCATION

In the Indian education system textbooks have a major role to play. To a vast majority of teachers and children, these are often the primary and only source of information available for instruction. The text book mainly serves two important purposes:

- i. It tells the teacher what to teach, and**
- ii. It enables the students to revise lessons.**

These textbooks presuppose a certain level of language development in pupils. Ability to use language as distinct from learning is inherent in the notion of education. **Hearing children, when they enter the secondary level, do not normally have any problem with the language part of the text. They may face difficulties in getting complete meaning from the text, not because of the structure and semantics part of language but because of the understanding of the new concepts in the text, which the teacher will help them with, through verbal explanations. (Meaning mostly refers to the message intended by the speaker. Language refers to phonology, syntax and semantics.)**

1.5.1 Skills involved in the reading task

Hearing children are introduced to the task of reading in the elementary classes, i.e. 1st std onwards.

The main components involved in the task of reading are :

- 1. the large stock of words (vocabulary) and the basic grammatical competence which they have acquired through verbal interaction from infancy,**
- 2. the experiential knowledge of the world that they have acquired which helps them to make sense of the language they hear and now will learn to read.**

Thus they already possess language and speech skills, and now they have to learn comparatively simple or lowest level of skills required for reading; namely, learning to recognize the printed letters / words that represent speech sounds and / or sequence of sounds that constitute words. Thus it is argued that learning to read largely means mastering the decoding skills.

1.5.2 Learning to read and use the textbooks :

The use of textbooks for learning involves many interrelated skills of various levels of complexity that are already explained earlier. However these are listed below again from simplest to the most difficult. such as :

- Decoding symbols (letters into sounds),**
- Recognizing a pattern of symbols as words,**

- **An appreciation of rules of grammar and semantics necessary to impart meaning to a sequence of words,**
- **Readability of the reading material i.e. clarity of presentation of ideas as distinct from the complexity of the subject matter,**
- **Background knowledge of the concepts involved in the subject on hand,**
- **Ability to understand the textbooks of science, geography, etc., which are seldom written in simple narrative form. Reading in those areas calls for more advanced skills like understanding through words of the basic lower levels concepts, comparison, reasoning, seeing relationships between bits of information, drawing inferences and understanding cause-effect relationships which are expected to lead to concept formation, and**
- **Primarily, the language competence, that is required for the comprehension, retention, retrieval, expression, and application of knowledge presented in the textbooks.**

1.6 READING AND THE HEARING IMPAIRED CHILD

Unlike hearing children, most deaf children lack a well-developed language base on which reading instructions, after age 5/6 years can be based. As the written word provides a permanent visual picture of words of a language (as against the oral speech or words seen on lips which are evanescent i.e. vanish immediately), educators in the field of education of the deaf, are seen to use reading (mostly in addition to speech) as a tool to develop initial language competence.

1.6.1 Difficulties faced by the deaf in the use of textbooks

Apart from impoverishment of language, there are mainly two additional difficulties that the deaf children face in relation to the use of textbooks. One is 'understanding the oral explanations given by the teacher while teaching a subject'. The other is 'getting, revising, and consolidating knowledge by reading the book'. What else can they do under the circumstances but to learn the subject matter by heart and that too mostly without comprehension? It is often argued by many that 'what does it matter if the deaf children learn by heart ? Even the hearing children do it for the examinations.' But here we cannot overlook the great difference between the two situations; - whereas the hearing child already possesses the tool (language) needed for learning and can use it with some effort whenever he wishes to, the deaf child is not only just learning by heart without comprehension but also is losing all the chances of developing the tool in the process.

1.6.2 What is the solution to the problem ?

At the secondary level the students, in addition to what the teacher teaches /explains, are expected to learn through reading on their own and enhance their language skills too. How can they best be helped in this exercise ?

The probable and plausible solution to this dilemma seems to be the linguistic rewriting / adaptation (simplifying) of books. Although the task would be time consuming and one that would require a lot of effort, it is the only way of providing reading material which can meet the conceptual goals at particular interest and emotional levels of the children and also take into cognizance the linguistic capabilities of it's readers. (It would be of great

help if the task of preparation and dissemination of such material is taken up by some agency.)

1.6.3 Adaptation /rewriting

The purpose of adaptation of text is twofold :

- 1. To make the students understand the subject matter,.**
- 2. to develop their language ability in the process so that in turn, their reading ability too will grow.**

In teaching the hearing impaired, one important aspect must be constantly borne in mind by the teacher. Mere adaptation of the text will not at all serve the purpose. Teaching of such text will necessarily have to be accompanied and supplemented by explanations through use of pictures, signs *, demonstrations, checking comprehension and giving repetitive practice through exercises such as 'fill in the blanks, true or false, complete the sentence, choose the correct word, and direct and inferential questions on the text', etc. Initially, depending upon the pupils' command over language, they should be allowed to answer these by referring to the text; and later, gradually from memory without referring back to the text. For the hearing-impaired children language work can never be 'enough'. It has to go on through all the years of schooling, and the skilled teacher has to all the time do the balancing act of giving and enhancing both language and knowledge skills in such a manner that it does not become a drudgery / a boring exercise for the children.

(* The use of the word 'signs' here needs some explanation. Signs here mean use of signed language, i.e. manually coded language (which allows

each and every word and word-part to be signed) as is explained in Paper 1, Block II, Unit 2. The deaf child must have language in the form that is clear to him and that will thus serve him as a complete language model. To make sure a deaf child knows exactly what is said to him, even when he does not understand the meaning of what is said, is not easy unless the deaf child can make most of the speech sounds. If not, then we must give the patterns of language to the deaf child in a clear visual form, preferably of signs, over and over in countless repetitions. Every time we say anything to the child, in speech combined with manually coded language, we are exposing him to the patterns of language including rhythm and stress. The deaf child must have a clear, accurate, appropriate language model, and he must get it in the early years if he is not to be tragically slow in developing communication skills.)

1.6.4 Process of adaptation

The process of adaptation requires that the text should have syntactic and vocabulary control for deaf children. For most language-delayed children the process of learning to read becomes a language learning process, and the text should focus on language development too.

The strategies normally used by the teachers of the deaf for adaptation of text are :

1. to substitute the difficult words by synonyms which are within the child's repertoire, and / or to give a synonym familiar to the child in brackets immediately after the new word.
2. to use shorter sentences initially, preferably with one idea in a sentence, i.e. one proposition; e.g.

- Sachin is 12 years old.
- He (Sachin) goes to school.
- He is in 7th class.
- His school is far away from his house.
- He goes by bus.

Initially all text should be context embedded and supported by pictures whenever possible.

The two concepts that are very useful for a teacher of the deaf to know are 'context embedded language' and 'context reduced language'. The teacher has to gradually lead the children from the former to the latter.

Context Embedded Language :

The language where there are plenty of clues, shared understandings, and where meaning is relatively obvious, due to help from physical or social nature of conversation, i.e. text which can be dramatized and explained through the use of pictures, miming, demonstrations, and which is based on their personal experiences.

Context Reduced Language :

The language where there are few clues as to the meaning of the communication apart from the words themselves, the language is likely to be abstract. (e.g. The original text of 'Solar System' given in example 4 in this Unit.)

3. **to avoid difficult complex sentences unless the conjunctions used indicate most obvious and / or logical relationship between two**

clauses. E.g. the complex and compound sentences given below are not difficult to understand :

- It was raining heavily so Ram carried his umbrella.
- Neeta threw away the orange because it was rotten.

Or,

- The orange was rotten so Neeta threw it away.
- Sham is tall and strong.
- Mummy is sleeping and Daddy is reading.

1.6.5 Important factors that influence text difficulty

1. Text –based variables that influence text difficulty:

These mean the level of language that is used and the manner of presentation of the text. It includes :

- Vocabulary,
- Syntax and discourse level structures, (direct and indirect speech)
- Format-illustrations, (placing the picture next to the sentence that it illustrates, making very clear paragraphs to represent ideas, writing only one sentence on one line for younger children, etc.)
- Print legibility, (write in a suitably big and clear print size)

- Attention directing devices, (highlighting words or sentences, underlining words, etc.)

The first two variables namely vocabulary and syntax have already been discussed above. The remaining three are exemplified in the two stories, one complex sentence and a passage on Solar system given as examples of adaptation in this unit..

One important point about the use of pictures must be mentioned here. The correct use of pictures will certainly aid, facilitate, and quicken comprehension, and this may lead the teacher to be tempted to proceed further with the text (may be arising from the compulsion to complete the portion in the syllabus in the prescribed time frame, or may be from not realizing and appreciating the need to give sufficient time for consolidation of language usage at all stages of the deaf child's schooling) without spending the time that is absolutely vital for stress on language work that should go with it, and the repetitions that should follow the appropriate language usage thereafter. The teachers should avoid making this mistake because comprehension without consolidation of the related language usage is futile, and the children will soon forget what they had understood and learnt. Language helps considerably to retain what one has learnt. So with the young children at least, once they have understood and enjoyed the story, the teacher should remove or cover the pictures while revising the story or narration.

2. Reader-based variables that influence text difficulty.

- Familiarity with the subject matter,
- General background knowledge,
- Interest,
- Motivation,
- Purpose, - for gaining more knowledge, passing an examination, to please the teacher, parents, etc.

The teacher will have to judge their pupils proficiency level / readiness for these variables and prepare or modify the text accordingly.

The vast majority of H.I. children, unless they are detected early and are provided with sufficient language stimulation and the necessary socio-emotional climate in which communication competence can develop, enter school with delayed language.

Understanding and using direct and indirect discourse, - as is used in stories, narrations, etc., - even more importantly requires that a child has participated in the give and take of discourse. But what happens is that often the H.I. child is required by a clinician or the teacher to answer a question or make a statement about a picture or object. This does not enable the child to participate in discourse. The structuring of reading material containing discourse at the simplest levels presented in paragraphs will serve to help students more easily comprehend complexities such as referencing with pronouns and different forms of complementation, in addition to making them more aware of the ways in which the language functions.

1.7 SOME EXAMPLES OF TEXT-ADAPTATION

Many deaf children who are promoted to secondary level – 7th or 8th class – may not have full grasp of syntax and vocabulary of the language. In such cases, the best course to follow perhaps would be to present text at a low language and age level, and class-appropriate knowledge contents. This way the teacher can provide the knowledge as well as opportunities to the children to develop language. This naturally leads us to simplification/adaptation of the lessons in the textbooks.

The examples of rewriting of a text to suit children's maturity, knowledge and language level are provided on the rest of the pages of this unit. The teacher will have to judge the children's readiness level and modify the text accordingly.

Example 1. A story that provides examples of direct discourse (conversation).

Example 2. Again a story given as an example of adaptation of the original story with simple sentences and additional information supported by pictures to facilitate comprehension and learning by H.I. children of certain concepts useful in everyday life.

- Examples 1 and 2 would be suitable for children studying in pre-primary 3rd or 4th level.

Example 3. A complex sentence from a science lesson for Std. VI containing several propositions has been rewritten in

three ways for facilitating comprehension and aiding rehearsal of structures.

Example 4.

A passage on 'Solar System' replete with all kinds of language complexities is simplified here by breaking the subject matter into small easy steps (kind of task analysis) and supporting it with appropriate illustrations and formatting / lay out.

1.7.1 Example 1

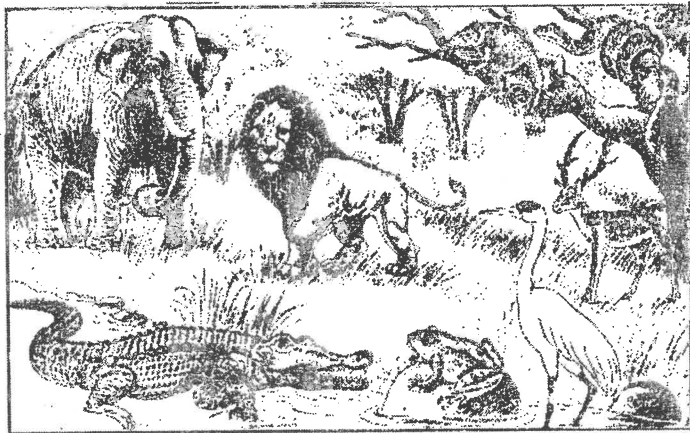
THE LION AND THE MOUSE

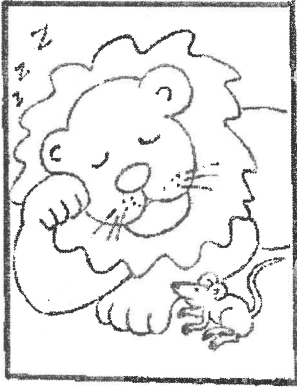
Can you see a jungle in this picture ?

There are many big and small trees in that jungle.

Many animals live in that jungle.

A big lion too lived there.





One day the lion was sleeping under a tree.
A mouse came there.

The mouse climbed on the lion's
He jumped on the lion's head.



body.

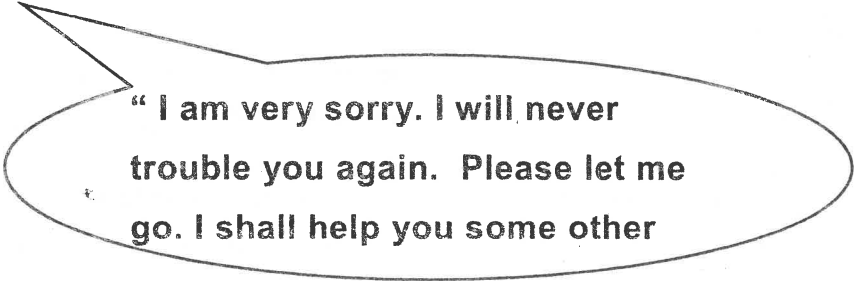


The lion woke up and caught the mouse.
The lion was very angry.
He said to the mouse,

Why did you jump on my head ?
You are very naughty.
Now I will eat you up."

The mouse was very frightened.

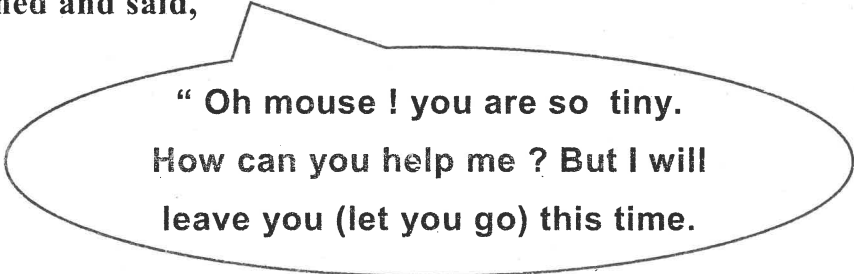
He said,



“ I am very sorry. I will never trouble you again. Please let me go. I shall help you some other

The lion was kind-hearted.

He laughed and said,



“ Oh mouse ! you are so tiny. How can you help me ? But I will leave you (let you go) this time.

Then the lion released the mouse.

The mouse was very happy.

He said to the lion, “ Thank you.”

Then the mouse ran away.



After a few days the lion got caught in a net. He tried and tried, but he could not come out of the net.

He was very angry and roared

loudly.



The mouse heard the lion's roar.

He thought, "Why is the lion roaring!

I must go and see what has happened."





The mouse ran towards the lion.
He saw that the lion was caught in the net.
The lion could not free himself.
The mouse said,

“ Wait my friend.
I shall cut the net with my

The mouse quickly cut the net
with his sharp teeth.
The lion came out of the net.
He was free, so he was very
happy.
He said to the mouse,



“Thank you my friend.
Today you have saved my
life.”

From then on the lion and the mouse became great
friends.

.....
1.7.2 Example 2 – The original story from a 2nd standard
language textbook :

THE LOYAL MONGOOSE

Once there was a farmer who lived with his wife in a village. They had a little son and they loved him very much. One evening when the farmer returning home from work, he brought with him a tiny little mongoose. He told his wife that the mongoose would grow up and be a pet for their son.



was

The baby and the mongoose both grew quickly. But in five or six months the mongoose was fully grown, while the farmer's son was still a baby. The mongoose was a lovely animal. He had two shining black eyes and a long bushy tail.

One day the farmer's wife wanted to go to the market. She fed her son and put him to bed in his little cradle. Then she took her basket and was ready to go.

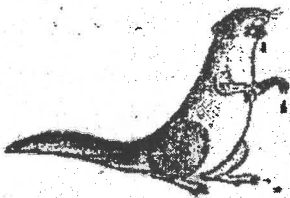
Before leaving, she told her husband, "I am going to the market. The baby is asleep. You must be careful. I do not like leaving the child alone with the mongoose."

"Please don't be afraid," said the farmer. "Our pet is as sweet and loving as our baby."

Then the farmer's wife went to the market. The farmer too went out for a walk. He did not return home for some time.

His wife came home with a basket full of groceries. She found the mongoose sitting outside the as if waiting for her. As soon as he saw her, he ran to welcome her. But the farmer's wife took one look at the mongoose and screamed, as she saw blood on his face and paws.

"You have killed my son !" cried the woman. And with all her strength she struck the mongoose with her heavy basket. She then ran straight to the child's cradle.



She found the baby still fast asleep. But on the floor, below the cradle, lay a black snake torn and bleeding.

The farmer's wife realized what had happened. She ran out looking for the mongoose. 'You killed the snake !' she cried. "You saved my child." But the mongoose lay still. He could not hear her. The basket had hit him on the head.

The farmer's wife was sad she had acted hastily. With tearful eyes she bent down looked at the mongoose.



so
and

Example 2 -adaptation

THE LOYAL MONGOOSE



Once there was a farmer.
He lived with his wife in a
village.

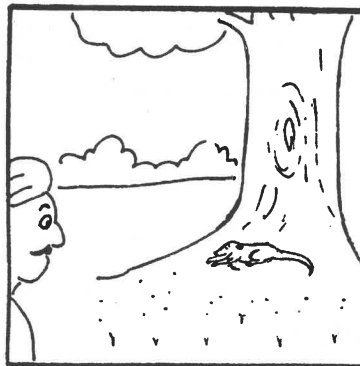
They had a little baby.

The baby could not yet sit or
walk.

One day the farmer was
his field.

He saw a tiny little
lying under a tree.

The mongoose was hurt
it could not run or
It had become very



working in

mongoose

on its leg, so
walk.

weak.



The farmer felt sorry for the
mongoose. He carried the baby
mongoose home.

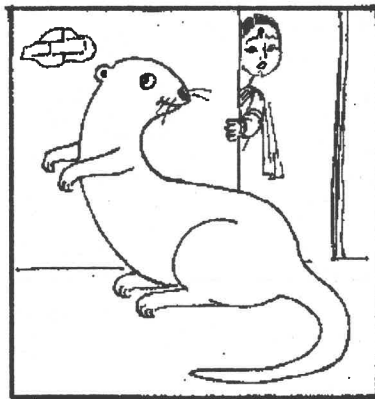
He applied medicine on its leg.

Every day he gave the mongoose milk and rice to eat. In a few days the mongoose's leg healed. It grew up to be strong and healthy. But the farmer's son was still a baby.



The mongoose was lovely. It had two shining black eyes and a long bushy tale. The mongoose liked the baby very much. The baby too looked at the mongoose and smiled. At night the mongoose slept near the baby's cradle.

The farmer's wife was however afraid of the mongoose. She thought that the mongoose might harm the baby. But the farmer told her,



“Don’t worry my wife. The mongoose will not trouble or bite our baby.”

One day the farmer’s wife went to the market.

She carried a basket with her. She bought groceries (dal, rice, oil, etc.) and some fruit.

She put the groceries and the fruit in the basket. The basket was now very heavy.





When the wife came home she saw the mongoose.

It was sitting outside. There was blood on its mouth and paws. She was very frightened because she thought that the mongoose

had killed her baby.

She screamed and said, “
You have
killed my baby.” Then she
struck
(hit) the mongoose on its
head
with the heavy basket.





Then she ran into the house. She was surprised and happy to see that the baby was fast asleep. But there was a black snake on the floor near the cradle. The snake was torn and dead. There was blood on the floor. Now she realized (understood) that

the mongoose had killed the snake and saved her baby.

The farmer's wife ran out of the house to look for the mongoose. But she saw that the mongoose was dead. The heavy basket had crushed its head. Poor mongoose! Now the farmer's wife felt very sad for she had acted so hastily



(without thinking). She looked at the mongoose with tearful eyes.

Don't act hastily; think first.

1.7.3 Example 3. -

Simplification of a Difficult Complex Sentence from a science-book

General Science

CHAPTER – 13

WATER

Std. 6

“ MEASURES TO REMOVE HARDNESS OF WATER :-----

Washing soda makes permanent hard water soft

If you remove by filtration the curd-like white precipitate formed in the hard water after adding soap, you will find that the water has become soft.”

This sentence, which is just two lines, actually contains several propositions / ideas, such as :

- a)
 - i. The water is hard. (If you want to make it soft),
 - ii. You add soap (to the water).
 - iii. A precipitate has formed in the water.
 - iv. The precipitate is white.
 - v. The precipitate is curd-like.
 - vi. (You) filter the water.
 - vii. (You) remove the precipitate.
 - viii. (You) find something.

- ix. The water has become soft.

SIMPLIFICATION OF LANGUAGE FOR USE WITH DEAF CHILDREN

If the H.I. child's language base is weak (as is the case with many H.I. children), he /she will never be able to understand such sentences. Then the teacher can present the topic as given above in 9 simple sentences to make comprehension easy, but again not without practical demonstration.

- b) The topic can be presented in another way, that is, if the children have not understood or retained the information from the previous chapters, then the kind of information given in the introduction below would help a lot; e.g. –

HOW TO MAKE HARD WATER SOFT ?

Introduction :

Water comes (is available) in two forms (types) – soft water and hard water. Some parts of the earth have a large store of various chemicals. These chemicals dissolve in the pure rainwater. Then this water is called 'hard water'. In these places, we can only get hard water.

It is difficult to cook food or clean things like clothes, vessels, etc. in such hard water; therefore we need to make hard water soft.

Let us have an experiment in the class. -

Experiment :

- 1. Take some hard water.**
- 2. Add some soap to it.**
- 3. The soap contains washing soda.**

4. This washing soda separates the chemicals.
 5. Thus you will see precipitate (substance) in the water.
 6. The precipitate is white and curd-like.
 7. Filter the water through a filter paper.
 8. The filter paper removes (takes out) the white precipitate.
 9. The hard water has now become soft.
 10. The washing soda in the soap makes permanent hard water soft.'
-

c) Yet another way for children to learn the matter and different sentence patterns could be :

The teacher should ask, "Tell me (describe) how you will make hard water soft."

The child should answer thus :

1. "First I will take some hard water in a bowl or a glass.
2. Then (next) I will add some soap to it.
3. The soap contains washing soda so it will separate the chemicals from the water.
4. Now I can see white precipitate in the water.
5. I will filter the water through a filter paper to remove the precipitate.
6. Now the hard water has become soft."

Some other questions could be, "How does pure rain water become hard ?
" What things do you need to make hard water soft?"

“ What other experiments have we conducted so far?”

“ Why do we need to make hard water soft ?”

“ What things do we require to cook rice ?”

“ Name 5 places in India where hard water is found.”

In order to understand this subject matter, the child must have / be taught concepts like –remove, filter, hard water, chemicals, soft water, precipitate / substance, form, add (put), contains, washing soda etc.

The teacher will have to do the experiments in the class. Through several such experiments in science lessons, or activities related to topics in geography, the teacher not only makes the topics easy and clear to understand but also can provide several opportunities to the pupils to use certain sentence structures repeatedly in an enjoyable and meaningful way.

However it must be remembered that this cannot be taught and consolidated in 1 or 2 lessons. The knowledge concepts will have to be built through all the pre-primary and primary years along with the language vocabulary and structure.

The lower level concepts will have to be developed and fixed properly (concepts and words for concepts) right from the beginning.

1.7.4 Example 4 – Original text

THE SOLAR SYSTEM

All the worlds discovered so far belong to one family of planets that go around the sun. At present, we know of nine planets, including the earth. Six of the nine have moons that circle them while they circle the sun. The other three planets are moonless.

The Sun and its family of circling bodies make up the solar system. The word “solar” means of the Sun. In astronomy, the word “system” is used for a group of heavenly bodies that stay together in some organized way. The solar system, as the name suggests, is held together by the Sun. The Sun is at the center of the system and is the ruler.

The Sun keeps the planets in their paths and regulates their speeds. Each planet, in turn, controls its moons, if it has any. But the planets are like Lords that must obey the King.

The planets follow paths that are on about the same plane, or level. All move in the same direction as they circle the Sun.

Each planet moves at its own particular speed. Mercury, the nearest to the Sun, travels at almost 30 miles a second and gets around its orbit in less than three

months. But Pluto, the most distant planet known, moves in a much larger orbit, and goes about three miles a second. It takes Pluto 258 years to make just one journey around the Sun.

As each planet makes its annual journey, it takes part in a tug-of-war. Gravity works to pull the planets towards the Sun. But the planet's tendency to keep going straight due to inertia of the planet, works to pull the planet away from the Sun. The two forces just balance each other and hold the planet in its orbit. A planet's distance from the Sun depends on its weight, its speed of travel, and the Sun's gravity. Astronomers believe that the planets have been following their present orbits for millions of years, and will continue in these orbits for millions of years in the future.

Besides the planets, there are a number of smaller bodies that travel around the Sun. Between Mars and Jupiter, in a part of the Solar system known as 'Rocky Belt,' move hundreds of asteroids. These are chunks of rocks of assorted shapes and sizes. Most of them are only of few miles in diameter. Like the planets, each travels in its own path around the Sun. I

In the same belt are swarms of still smaller bodies, called meteoroids. They are merely flying pebbles, most of them no bigger than rice grains. Now and then, a meteoroid from this belt or some other unknown quarter, runs into the earth's atmosphere. The meteor falls with great speed towards the earth. Friction with the atmosphere makes it so hot that it turns into flowing gases. When we see a meteor fall, it appears as a 'Shooting Star'.

A number of strange bodies loop around the Sun in long oval orbits. These are comets. Each one has a head made of bits of material like meteors. From the head wispy tail of gases stream outward, some times to a distance of millions of miles.

The principal members of the Sun's family are separated by great distance. The space in which they travel is empty and vast, and the bodies stay very far from each other.

Of all the members of the system we can see without a telescope are the Sun, the moon, the five planets nearest the earth, stray meteors, and a very rare comet.

Rarely are the five nearer planets visible during the same night. Usually we see one or two. These planets look like bright stars, but have a more steady gleam.

Each planet, as it travels along its path, seems to move from constellation to constellation. It looks like a wanderer among the stars. That is what the word 'planet' means – a wanderer.

Our own planet, the earth, is the third from the Sun. We never see the solar system from the outside, for we live in it. Yet from the science of astronomy we know what the solar system is and how our world fits into the Sun's family.

DIFFICULTY LEVEL OF THE PASSAGE GIVEN ABOVE ON 'SOLAR SYSTEM'

The understanding of this topic involves ability to comprehend a number of complex and abstract concepts, and also requires relevant background knowledge and information.

Depending upon the cognitive and reading levels of the children, the Unit will have to be broken down into several sections, with appropriate linguistic and visual inputs through pictures and models, and actual sensory perception like observation of the sky. This will help considerably because the Unit contains lots of information. E.g. the understanding of the concept of 'balance between the gravitational force and the effect of inertia' would require in depth explanation, basic knowledge of certain concepts and cognitive maturity to grasp it.

Some vocabulary will have to be specifically explained prior to actual teaching or while teaching. The teacher will have to have all the teaching aids necessary for teaching these concepts ready with her. That is if she really wants the deaf children to be able to understand and retain the subject matter. In fact this is applicable throughout the educational years of the hearing impaired children.

The children should have very clear understanding of at least some of the concepts involved in this topic on 'Solar System' prior to reading even the adapted version of the passage. These are :

rotation, revolution, gravity, orbit,
plane or level,
direction, flowing, gases, atmosphere,
powerful,
twinkle, steadily, telescope, configurations,
nearest,
farthest, stars, planets, etc. - in addition to
the grasp of basic
language structure.

The adapted version of 'The Solar System' :

UNIT 2: AUDITORY TRAINING: IMPORTANCE, TYPES (INDIVIDUAL & GROUP) AND STAGES

STRUCTURE

- **Introduction**
- **Objectives**
- **Methods used historically for teaching language to the deaf**
 - Structural Approach
 - Natural Approach
 - Combined Approach
- **Structural Approaches**
- 1.4.1 The Fitzgerald Key
 - The APPLE TREE programme
 - **Constructive Method of Teaching Language to the Hearing Impaired**
- **Natural Approaches**
- **Combined Approaches**
 - The Rhode Island Curriculum
 - Test of Syntactic Abilities Syntax Program' (TSA)
 - Maternal Reflective Method
 - Requirements of Conversation and Kinds of Conversation
 - How to converse with a hearing impaired child (infant level)
 - Requirements of a visualized conversation.

- 1.6.3.4 A linguistic conversation
- Eclectic Approaches
 - Summary
 - Check Your Progress (Self study)
 - Assignments
 - Points for discussion and clarification
 - References

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Most children acquire spoken language skills during their first few years of life, effortlessly and without formal instructions. All they require is the chance to interact regularly with people who already use spoken language. But some children have hearing impairment – a difficulty to detect and interpret sounds. The spontaneous acquisition of speech is therefore impeded or prevented. Unless this problem is resolved, the long-term consequences are severe and wide-ranging.

Helping the pre-lingually deaf children with severe to profound loss to acquire language of the community is quite a difficult and complex task. It not only requires teaching over a long period of time but also needs sustained, consistent, and intelligent efforts to achieve even a small degree of true success. The main problem that a deaf child faces is getting the structure/grammar of a language under control. This in turn, creates difficulties for the child both in communicating effectively verbally as well as in reading and writing for meaning. Formal academic education becomes quite a struggle for such children.

History of the education of the deaf indicates that several different strategies and methods of teaching language to the deaf have been developed and tried out by

experienced educators of these children. Research work on the efficacy of these different approaches is also available in plenty. The literature on teaching methods in education of deaf abounds with discussions on the issue of the best method of assisting deaf children to learn language. However, it is not possible to decide which method is the best and it still remains a very very controversial topic.

This unit takes a brief review of the most commonly used approaches / methods of teaching language to the deaf and gives description of some of these methods somewhat in detail. It remains for the readers, based upon their experience, to decide which method or combination of methods they would like to use for their wards.

1.2 OBJECTIVES

To acquaint the readers with –

- the major approaches used historically for teaching language to the deaf;
- the principles behind the different approaches;
- the work of the innovative educators to enable the readers to get guidance in carrying out their own work

2.3 APPROACHES TO TEACHING LANGUAGE TO DEAF CHILDREN

It can be seen that historically, two major approaches to language development have been used with deaf children; 'Natural Approach' and the 'Structural Approach'. Since the second half of the 20th Century, a third approach, i.e. the 'Combined Approach', has been added to it.

2.4 STRUCTURAL APPROACHES

These approaches require students to study syntax and grammar to learn language. A symbol system is used to represent the structure of language for teaching. These approaches are also termed as formal, analytical, systematic approaches. The structural method involves explicit instruction in the component of language and a visual coding or symbol system that represents the orders or relationships within each component. Advocates of structural approaches assert that language can and needs to be taught to students with hearing impairment. Students are required to analyze and categorize the grammatical aspects of language, e.g. parts of speech such as nouns, verbs and objects. These are referred to by symbols such as noun phrase (NP), verb phrase (VP), subject, or other symbols and words used to describe the language. Students demonstrate the understanding by writing sentences that correspond to previously taught patterns.

The structural approach is also associated with the concept of direct instruction and use of written language for teaching. Some of the basic tenets of direct instruction include; explicit teaching of rule and strategies, selection of examples, sequencing of examples, and principle of internalizing the rules and principles of language uses.

The best example of this is the **Fitzgerald Key** developed during the early 20th century.

2.4.1 The Fitzgerald Key

The **Fitzgerald Key** is probably the most widely known **structural approach** and one that is still used in a number of programmes. Edith Fitzgerald (1929), who was the deaf teacher at the Wisconsin school for the deaf, developed the key. There are 6 columns and each column is headed by words which are symbols as follows: Subject (Who what, verb and predicate words, indirect and direct object (what, whom), phrases and word denoting place (where), other phrases and word modified (e.g. how often, how much), and words concerning the concept of time (e.g., when). According to Fitzgerald, the purpose of this approach was to help deaf

The APPLE TREE is another programme under structural approaches. It involves pattern programme of linguistic expansion through Reinforced Experience and Evaluation. This programme consists of pre and posttests, workbooks, and a teacher manual designed to teach ten sentence patterns. The exercises in the workbooks consist of comprehension, manipulation, substitution, production, and transformation activities. Transformations include only negation and question forms. These exercises are considered fundamental steps and are part of instructional procedures. For example, the first step, comprehension, refers to the development of vocabulary, concepts, and form of the structures. The apple tree program was designed to introduce the sentence patterns in a sequenced, spiraling manner, i.e. proceeding from the easiest to the hardest structure.

As a supplement to the basic APPLE TREE materials, a series of short story books have been developed, using only the sentence pattern depicted in the example given below:

Sentence pattern and examples for APPLE TREE programme

Sentence pattern	Example
i. NP1 + V (be) + adjective	The boy is short.
ii. NP1 + V (be) + Where	The girls are in school.
iii. NP1 + V (be) + NP1	I am a student.
iv. NP1 + V	The boy is running.
v. NP1 + V + Where	The children are running to school.
vi. NP1 + V + Where + When	Mother went to school this morning.
vii. NP1 + V + NP2	The woman bought a car...

- | | | |
|-------|------------------------------|---|
| viii. | NP1 + V + NP2 + Where | The boys took their bats to the game |
| ix. | NP1 + V + NP2 + Where + When | I will take my wife to the doctor tonight |
| x. | NP1 + V + NP3 + NP2 | Jill gave me a toy. |

(NP1 represents subjects, NP2 direct object & NP3 indirect object; V is verb phrase; V (be) is linking verb or copula.

Yet another example of structural approach is “Constructive Method of Teaching Language to the Hearing Impaired”.

1.4.3 Constructive Method of Teaching Language to the Hearing Impaired

Typical normal-hearing children learn to speak and understand language without conscious effort on anyone’s part. They learn to use a great number of utterances. From the many unplanned and naturally occurring exposures to words, phrases and sentences and from the numerous opportunities to try out their own utterances the normal-hearing child is able to learn phonology and vocabulary and to generalize the rules governing syntax.

Language samples of hearing impaired children however reveal that they have very limited vocabulary, the length of their utterances is very small and in most of the children, the sentences do not go beyond the simple sentences.

Constructive or the Structural Method provides the hearing impaired children an opportunity to develop syntactically appropriate utterances. Situations are specially contrived wherein the children are exposed to various combinations of words and also are encouraged to put to use the combination learnt by imitation. Four major stages which are followed in the constructive method and are found helpful in accelerating the acquisition of syntax as given by Moog + Kozak (1983) are as follows :

1. **Comprehension:** The child comprehends the grammatical structure.
2. **Imitated Production:** The child imitates the grammatical structure.
3. **Prompted Production:** The child produces the grammatical structure in a prompted situation.
4. **Spontaneous Production:** The child produces the grammatical structure spontaneously.

1. **Comprehension:** Comprehension usually precedes production or expression. Hearing Impaired Children should also be expected to comprehend a structure of language before being expected to generate it spontaneously. The most obvious means for verifying comprehension is observing whether or not the child 'did' what he was asked.

An activity to check comprehension of Adjective noun combination could be placing balls of different colours on the table and the teacher asking the child to point out or ask the child to give a red ball, blue ball, yellow ball and so on.

2. **Imitated Production:** An imitated production is one, which is produced by the child immediately after the teacher or the other person modeling the structure says it. Experiences with hearing-impaired children indicates that the use of modeling –imitation procedure in which the child produces a phrase or sentence immediately after it is modeled by the teacher is effective in accelerating the development of selected structures (Moog 1983) . The teacher models the language for the child and the child is then expected to imitate what the teacher produced.

E.g. Child points and says : “biscuit”
 Teacher Models : “ I want a biscuit”.
 Child : “want biscuit”.
 Teacher : “A biscuit”.
 Child : “A biscuit”.
 Teacher : “I want a biscuit”.

Child : " I want a biscuit".

The teachers should be quick in modeling the missing components and should also stress them and care should be taken that the child does not feel that she is continuously nagging or correcting his production. It has to be a teacher – child exchange resulting in improved linguistic form. In the e.g. cited above the child was only on one word utterance i.e. 'biscuit'. After the exchange the child would produce at least two or three words in a correct word order. Modeling by the teacher could be expanding the child's utterances as illustrated above and it is called Expansion or it could also be Reduction wherein the child is provided an opportunity to learn and practice the aspects or components of a sentence that need to be omitted or are produced incorrectly.

3. Prompted Production: Drills or repetitive practice forms the basis of constructive method. Teacher consciously contrives situations to make it natural for the child to use the structures of language being worked on and once the child demonstrates the ability to imitate a structure rather easily, the teacher attempts to get him to produce the structures on his own. This is called prompted production because the situation has prompted the child to say it.

For e.g. if a teacher is working for an Adjective and noun combination. She could pick up a red ball and prompt the child in the following manner to elicit out a full sentence.

Teacher : What is it ?

Child : A ball.

Teacher : What colour ?

Child : Red.

Teacher : What is it ?

Child : It is a red ball.

A teacher has to undertake repetitive drills like the above so that the child is able to express in a full sentence.

If a teacher wants to work on future tense, she would have several objects and a tub of water. Before dropping each object into the water the teacher will ask “ will the marble float or will it sink”. This elicits from the child “the marble will float” or “marble will sink”.

If on the other hand, the teacher wishes to provide practice on the past tense, she will have several objects and a tub of water. After dropping each object into the water the teacher will ask ‘What happened?’ ‘To elicit that the “rubber band floated”. If the teacher wishes to provide practice on negative of past tense, she would use objects that did not float. The child may then be prompted to say, “The coin did not float”.

4. Spontaneous Production: The continued planned practice, gradually going from controlled repetitive practice to practice in more natural situations, helps the child bridge the gap from drills to spontaneous use. When the child uses the structure on his own appropriately, without reminders of any kind from the teacher, it can finally be considered a spontaneous production.

The teacher’s job is to devise activities and work through all four stages in an integrated manner. She has to take into consideration the word combinations and sentence patterns which are uttered by the normal hearing children and prepare drill work and activities

which would help hearing impaired children to comprehend the word combination or language structures, imitate it, produce it in a prompted situation and finally use it spontaneously.

The child exposure to language should not be called "teaching". He learns the language because he is shaped by nature to pay attention to it and learned significant aspects of it.

1.5 NATURAL APPROACHES

In the natural approach, the child is expected to acquire language implicitly (without any conscious effort or teaching about language) through interaction occurring within the environment. No symbol systems are used. The main emphasis is on the development of language via oral conversational method based on the experiences of the children as happens naturally in the home environment, and the instruction is planned to parallel the sequence of language acquisition in hearing children.

The underlying principles of Natural Approach as described by McAnally, Rose, and Quigley in their book 'Language Learning Practices with Deaf Children' are given below with a brief explanation of these :

- 1. Language involves interaction among the components of content, form and use i.e. children are prompted to speak because they want to say something.** This suggests that the language program must be integrated into all activities during the school days as these activities provide natural occasions to use language., Also the related work should be stressed and repeated in their natural context and not in isolation. And structure should not be presented separately or in isolation. The main thing is that teachers teach children to talk about things, relationships and events which they have already known and are aware of and through which they learn language.
- 2. Information about normal language development is the basis for determining language goals and intervention strategies.** Here the focus is on planning the learning experiences and intervention strategies in such a way that communicative interaction among and between children and teacher will resemble the home environment as much

as possible. Here it will be beneficial to see what vocabulary pervades the first words of the child. The names of things that children can play with or manipulate easily are the words learnt and used first by children. The words, which stand for things that move and change themselves, attract children a lot, such as car, animals, dolls, and are likely to be included in the first word.

3. **Language is learned through communication.** Children acquire language comfortably and easily in a social setting and in an unconscious manner. Nobody teaches them particularly.

According to this it is important to preschool teachers of deaf children to provide a variety of experiences that are accompanied by appropriate language input. Communication is the key to language learning and this should be related to activities which are real and meaningful to children and provide opportunities for them to communicate with the teacher with whom they are familiar. Activities, which are planned specifically, for encouraging communication will also help to provide new knowledge and language about the environment and how to talk about the new information.

4. **Communicative competence is the ultimate goal of language development.**

This means that the student should be able to communicate in various contexts and for varied purposes. This emphasizes the need for a holistic comprehensive language program, which will lead to a practical functional language for the children, which they can use effectively in different environments.

The authors have stated that basic assumption underlying the natural approach is that when acquiring language, deaf children progress through stages and sequences in a manner similar to that of hearing children. All activities should promote linguistic communicative competence, which is the ultimate goal of the language program.

2.6 COMBINED APPROACHES

The aspects of both structural and natural approaches are combined in the 'Combined approach'. However the relative use of structural or natural approaches varies from programme to programme.

The three major approaches under combined approach that are discussed here are :

- **The Rhode Island Curriculum**
- **Test of Syntactic Abilities Syntax Program' (TSA)**
- **Maternal Reflective Method**

1.6.1 The Rhode Island Curriculum

Blackwell et al. (1978) designed it for his students at the Rhode Island School for the Deaf. This approach is primarily structural and is based on the assumptions of Chomsky's transformational-generative grammar theory. The programme begins by introducing the students to the 5 basic (Kernel) sentence patterns.

Three levels are envisaged in this curriculum. The **first level** is designed for children in preschool and kindergarten. The stress is on planning and conducting activity for exposure, recognition, comprehension, production, and writing of the linguistic principles. In the **second level**, the focus is on teaching-learning the use of simple sentences. In the **third level** the focus is on teaching-learning the use of complex sentences. In all the 3 levels, in addition to the extensive use and stress on syntax in the linguistic portion of the curriculum, Blackwell has taken care to see that **development of cognition, semantics and pragmatics are given equal importance**. The curriculum also is geared to **coordinate the language goals with content area goals**. The principle behind it is that language is never to be 'taught' in isolation.

2.6.2 Test of Syntactic Abilities Syntax Program' (TSA)

Quigley and Power (1979) developed this programme, which was a result of their 10 years of research at the university of Illinois on the language structure of deaf students. The program is intended to help teachers to assist children in acquiring sentence structures. The program was developed as a natural approach. The 'Teachers' Guides' provide basic information on syntactic development and a variety of games and other activities for developing syntactic structures in natural situations. Workbooks provide intensive exposure to particular syntactic aspects of language in more structured situations. Diagnostic guides for assessing student performance on the 'Test of Syntactic Abilities' and relating it to development of language structure assist the teacher in identifying the instructional objectives most appropriate for the individual student.

2.6.3 Maternal Reflective Method developed by van Uden (1977).

Language acquisition requires access to the speech and language of self and others. Normal hearing provides access to the spoken language through the medium of sound. For the hearing impaired child the methods of providing access to language falls into two types.

1. Those using residual hearing and vision supported by print (listening and reading),
2. Those using visually accessible hand movements to support listening and reading such as finger spelling, cued speech, and signed language (Total Communication).

The “**Maternal Reflective Method**” pioneered by Dr. Van Uden of Netherlands is based on the first type of approach. He also tries to combine normal colloquial language from **early childhood** with the teaching of the rules of grammatical behaviour, making it a combined approach/method to teaching language.

Effect of Hearing Impairment on the Language Acquisition of a child

We have already discussed the process of development of language and speech in a hearing child in Paper I & II. Now let us consider a profoundly deaf child. During the first few months of life, he vocalizes reflexively. He also does some purposeful babbling as he explores the resulting tactile and kinesthetic sensations. However, in the absence of auditory feedback, this activity comes to an end and the vocal output of the child is limited to the acts of crying and laughing.

It is the mother who spends the maximum time with her young baby and hence has the greatest opportunity to observe and interact. So it is the mother who first suspects the hearing problem.

The first clues may be the failure to startle at certain loud sounds, be aware of people when they call. Some times some severely deaf or profoundly deaf babies

may startle but they may be responding to tactile and /or visual clues, but parents do not realize this.

The baby's failure to babble after the age of six months affects the mother's verbal behaviour. In the beginning, the mother talks to the baby as she would to a normal hearing baby, as if every word is understood. In the absence of the baby's verbal efforts, the mother talks to the baby lesser. As a result of this and the absence of the auditory feedback, the baby's babbling activity comes to a halt.

A sense of guilt prevails among the parents, rejection of the child who is "different" or refusal to accept the facts. Therefore,

1. Because of their impairment, the children do not learn to listen to speech,
2. Because they do not learn to listen, they do not acquire language or develop speech,
3. Because they do not acquire language, their social and emotional development is impaired,
4. Because they do not develop normally, their parents react in ways that further interfere with all the three areas of development.

Maternal Reflective Methods of Developing Language in Hearing Impaired Children

Soon after the diagnosis of the extent of hearing loss, selection of a suitable hearing aid is necessary. This must be followed by a continued effort by the parents and people in contact with the hearing impaired child to provide a "talking" environment, thereby preventing the withdrawal of language input, and arresting the child's vocalizing and babbling.

Maternal Reflective Method or Conversation Method is an oral aural approach (method) where a child acquires language in the same manner as a hearing child does, by natural conversation.

Dr. Van Uden advocated this reflective method for use with hearing impaired children. He observed the way a mother talks to her hearing baby who is without language and speech in infancy by :

1. **'Seizing'** what the child wants to say and
2. Playing the **'double role'** by saying what the child wants to express. This, when applied by the teacher while teaching the hearing impaired child, helps in the language development.

After the child has a fairly good vocabulary, the simple conversation is then written and used as a 'reading deposit'. These contain the statements and also questions, exclamations and requests. The hearing impaired child is encouraged to discover language structures. They are taught to reflect on language for its correct use.

2.6.3.1 The requirements of Conversation and kinds of conversation.

Seven things that are important to have a conversation are :

1. **Eye contact:** When the hearing impaired child has an eye contact with its mother/teacher and she should communicate with the child, then the child's attention and reaction of the mother are directly connected. There is a good chance that the child can understand the relationship between what it has focussed its attention on, and the mother's / teacher's reaction.
2. **Attention:** The mother/teacher should pay attention to the child's signals and tailor her reactions accordingly.

3. **Seizing and right interpretation:** The mother / teacher should seize the child's body language, gestures or utterances and interpret them correctly.
4. **Simple language, short correct sentences:** The idea presented by the child and seized by the mother / teacher should be given back in simple language and not "baby talk" and in short grammatically correct sentences.
5. **Empathetic understanding:** The mother/teacher should be able to put herself in the child's place and understand the child's reactions. e.g. when the child falls and hurts himself , the mother says, "Poor thing! It's paining, isn't it?"
6. **Things to be avoided:** The mother/teacher should avoid excessive questioning, enforced repetitions and frequent corrections.
7. **Listening is an important aspect of conversation:** The mother/teacher should listen and interpret the child's utterances, incomplete words. This strengthens the desire of the children to express themselves. Being understood stimulates the desire for expression.

Kinds of Conversation

There are two kinds of conversations.

- a. **Heart to heart:** These are spontaneous conversations in the classrooms/at home. Here the flexibility of content and development of empathy are important. Incorrect forms are seized and repeated in a correct form without interrupting the flow of the exchange of thoughts. (for e.g. Please see 1.6.3.2 : 2 – Ex. I, II, III, AND IV.).
- b. **Linguistic Conversations:** In these conversational lessons, the children are made to reflect on language, discover the semantic and grammatical

rules. A hearing child can form the linguistic concepts by enormous frequency of language use but a hearing impaired child lacks this frequency. Hence grammatical terms are used in conversation. (for e.g. Please see 1.6.3.4)

2.6.3.2 How to converse with a hearing impaired child (infant level)

Like the mother of the hearing child, the mother of the hearing impaired child uses an “anticipatory device”. She tries to discover what the child might want to say. She ‘seizes’ a gesture made by the child and then she uses the appropriate language. If the child utters a one-word sentence, she fills it out, i.e. she plays “the double role” – her own as well as that of the child’s and adds to what has been seized. E.g. when a baby cries, the mother seizes its body language because it has not yet learnt to use language with words. She tries to get at the meaning of the baby’s crying. She assumes that the baby is trying to express some thing, which it cannot say in words. She plays the double role by saying – “are you hungry?” and then adds – “ Here’s your milk. Come to me Darling!” Thus, she has translated as it were, a supposed action by the baby and she adds a particular action to his, with the aim of eliciting a new action from the child. In this way, a way is paved for the alternation of speaking and listening, which is typical of conversation with one initiating behaviour and the other responding.

The contribution by the child initially is small. The entire initiative comes from the mother but her most important contribution is to give the appearance that the conversation is coming from the child. E.g.

- i) Mother picks up a rattle and shakes it making a sound to attract the baby’s attention
- ii) Baby raises its arms, kicks its feet – idea presented.

- iii) Mother says – “Oh! Do you want the rattle”- seized and played the double part.
- iv) Mother continues – “Shake! Shake!” – adds her own contribution.

She responds to the baby’s behaviour and tries to elicit reactions from the child – a little smile, a gleam in the eyes, a little kick. This stimulus is for her to continue the conversation. Thus, it is important that the child learns that a particular behaviour is associated with a particular response. e.g. the “**peek-a-boo**” game. In this the mother places a towel over the baby’s face and after a short time takes it away and says “ Peek-a-boo”. Then she quickly replaces the towel. This is a fun-filled game for both the mother and the child. Both laugh intensely with pleasure. Later the child imitates the game covering his own face with its own hands. When it uncovers its face for a short time, the mother reacts with “peek-a-boo”.

The mother has the maximum opportunities to respond to the behaviour of the child. She is the only person in contact with the child through out his waking hours. While bathing, feeding, dressing the child, she converses by **seizing and playing the double part**.

This form of contact between the mother and the child can be used as a model in teaching hearing impaired children to communicate and acquire language.

How to come into conversation with a hearing impaired child.

As mentioned earlier, the most important aspects of conversation are –

1. **Seizing method**, and,
2. **Playing the double part** by listening to and observing the spontaneous reactions of children.

E.g. I : A child is playing with a toy plane. He maybe babbling and vocalizing.
This is seized by the mother / teacher and imitated.

Child : vocalizing with an aeroplane

Mother : mmmmm.....

As she moves the plane higher and lower, she varies her pitch.

E.g. II : A child falls and hurts himself. This can be used as a perfect situation for orectic language as well as for introducing figurative language as follows.

Child : (cries) “Weh! Weh!”

Mother : (seizes) “Ouch! (Orectic language)
(plays the double part) “Poor thing! Is it paining? “
“Naughty floor!” (FIGURATIVE LANGUAGE)

E.G. III : During free play, when children play with toy kitchen sets making tea etc.

Child : serves tea in a toy cup.

Mother : Oh! You’ve made tea. (plays the double part)

Child : “ ee” (tries to repeat the word tea)

Mother : (touching the cup) Ooo! It’s hot!

Child : “ ot” (tries to say hot)

E.G. IV : In a classroom situation.- children aged 3-4 years

Ansel : (picks up his bag and shows it to others, eyes gleaming, smile on his face) says, “
bag new”.

- Teacher : (seizes his body language and clumsy utterances and says)
“Look! Ansel has a new bag.”
She makes the child repeat, “Look! I have a new bag.”
- Mahi : (points out to the colours on the bag) Utters, “boo , ed”
- Teacher : (seizes these utterances and makes him repeat), “ blue and red”
- Zainab : (acts out using gestures trying to say that the bag is lovely)
- Teacher : (gives the expression) “Wow!”

At a later stage, when the child is ready to read, these conversations can be “visualized” and written down as “deposits” of conversations. These deposits are related to the child’s experiences and give an opportunity to expand language and for repetition.

What are “Deposits”?

A deposit is like a fund in the bank from which interest is received. The **written deposits understood by the children are a treasure of language**, which gives an interest in the form of more and more language, vocabulary, and language expressions by conversation and in written form.

In the initial years, the small conversations are written down on the blackboard or charts and later in children’s notebooks, and these are called ‘**Visualized Conversations**’. As the language of the children develops, the conversations can be made into a reading lesson.

2.6.3.3 Requirements of a visualized conversation.

1. It should be started only when the child begins to lip-read and / or speak.
2. Speech balloons should be used to give an idea that – what is written down is the same as what is spoken.

3. A small picture should be drawn on the right hand corner to give the child a clue about the topic.
4. Faces of children should be drawn just as in the comics.
5. The teacher's handwriting should be clear.

Visualized conversations (some examples)

I. A group of 3-4 year old children. (stage I)

Step I. The conversation is written as follows using faces of children and speech balloons as shown below.



"balloon)

Satbir:

Look! I have a balloon. (showed the balloon and said,



Mahi

I can blow it. (said "I" and gestured the blowing action)
Phuu! Phuu!



Burhan:

POP! It burst. (said "Pop") .



Zainab:

Oh no! (Said "Oh no! and pointed the same on the chart displaying

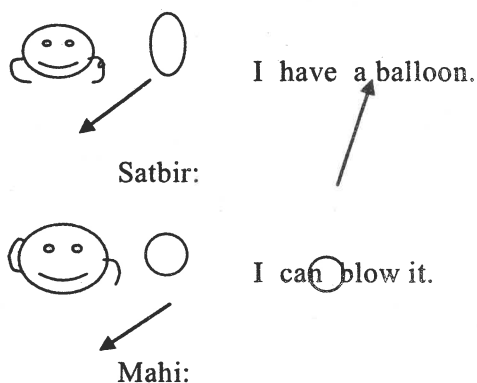
orrectic language)

Step II. After the conversation is written on the blackboard, as shown above, grouping of words should be done appropriately as shown above.

Step III. Linking the pointer words e.g. “it”, “I”, to the respective nouns that they point to should follow this . e.g. “I” in the first dialogue is connected to the name Satbir by drawing a line from “I” to Satbir, and in the second dialogue to Mahi.

“It” in the second and third dialogue is connected to the word balloon .

e.g.



II. A group of 5-6 year old children.

Satbir looks out of the window and points to the clouds and says, "clouds"

Teacher seizes this and asks the child to say, "it's cloudy"

Zainab joins him and looks here and there in the sky saying, " no Sun?"

Teacher Gives a clue by saying, "Use a question word, "where's the Sun?"

Mahi quickly runs to the black board and draws the clouds and the Sun behind and says “at the back” with his body language expressing “hiding”

Teacher helps him by clueing, “Use a **verb**. **What is the Sun doing?**”

“ It is hiding behind the clouds.”

Burhan dances saying, “rain, rain”

The teacher clues the child by saying, What **will** happen? Use a **future verb**.

This is expressed as , “Yippee! It will rain.”

At this stage, appropriate grammatical terms are used to aid correct production of sentences. The above conversation was visualized as follows and used for reading. This is called “Ideo-visual reading” because the ideas are already in the minds of the children and they read what they know.

Satbir said: It's cloudy!

Zainab asked: Where's the Sun? I can't see it.

Mahi replied: It is hiding behind the clouds.

Burhan shouted: Yippee” It will rain.

Function of grouping, pauses and stress marks.

In the visualized conversation, grouping () is done to express rhythmic unity of words. The rhythmic training of speech aids memory for language.

e.g. the Sun, behind the clouds, it will rain.

Stress marks () are made above the words to emphasize the specific words e.g. where's, behind, The mark is placed above the stressed syllable. e.g. 'where's' has only syllable hence the accent is on the vowel "e" and the stress mark is placed above the word where i.e. 'where's' while behind has two syllables i.e. "be" and "hind". And the stress is on the second syllable 'hind'.

Pauses in a sentence help in memorizing and make the rhythm of the phrase more prominent. E.g. It's hiding / behind the clouds. They also give meaning to the sentence. e.g. the following sentence can be interpreted in two different ways as follows according to the pauses shown.

'The child said / the father made a mistake.'

'The child / said the father / made a mistake.'

The first pause in the sentence implies that the father made the mistake whereas the second one implies that he child made a mistake.

Listening to rhythmic speech and speaking rhythmically trains the short term memory of the hearing impaired child for language.

Objectives of the follow up exercises

The main objectives of the follow up exercises are:

1. Repetition
2. Reinforcement
3. Consolidation of vocabulary and sentences by using it in a meaningful situation.

Follow up of the visualized conversation.

The conversation is displayed on a chart in clear handwriting and the following work is done.

1. connecting pointer words
2. Lip reading of sentences
3. reading readiness
4. Writing readiness

1. **Connecting pointer words** I, it, you, he, she, ... to the objects.
(as shown by arrows in the visualized conversation)

2. **Lip-reading** sentences from the conversation

The teacher reads out a dialogue from the conversation and the child lip-reads, listens to it and points out to the sentence.

3. **Matching vocabulary words**

Picture + word to word initially and later picture to word.

4. **Who said? Game**

Placing names against dialogues.



Zainab

Where's the Sun?

5. **Sequencing** : The name cards and the dialogues written separately in speech balloons. The children have to place the dialogues in the proper order. The first dialogue first and the next below it and so on.

6. **Fill in the blanks:** The words omitted are written at the bottom.

Satbir; It's _____

Zainab: Where's the _____ ?

Mahi: It is hiding _____ the clouds.

Burhan: _____ ! It will _____.

(Sun, cloudy, Yippee, behind, rain,)

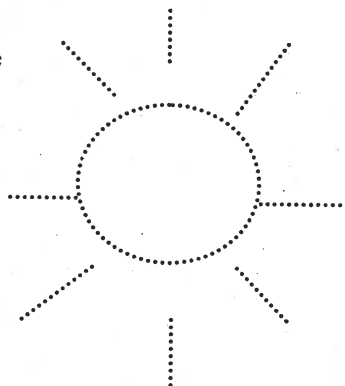
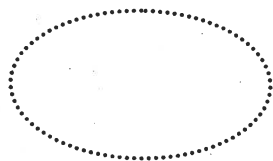
7. **Auditory Training.**

Listen and identify the sentence (difference in duration.)

a) It is cloudy. b) Yippee! It will rain.

8. **Colouring:** The clouds black and the Sun yellow.

9. **Join the dots** to complete the picture



10. **Pre writing skills** - tracing over the patterns

nnnnnnn uuuuuuuuuu

11. Writing the vocabulary words. Sun, rain, clouds

12. Craft. Draw a circle, cut and colour to make the Sun.

Draw a cloud and stick cotton on it.

Tear bits of yellow paper and stick in the circle drawn to make the Sun.

The above activities reinforce the vocabulary and also add to the language development of the hearing impaired child.

Requirements of a reading lesson.

1. Use of normal language.
2. Must include "say sentences"
3. Use of orrectic language, words with figurative meaning and literal meaning.
4. Must not use only sentences but must include exclamations, interrogatives, commands
5. New vocabulary must be introduced.
6. Chronological order can be rearranged.
7. Each line must be numbered.
8. A suitable title must be given to the passage.

A reading lesson based on the conversation is called "**Receptive reading in the vocabulary phase**" The child understands the texts which give him new contents by more or less guess work on the basis of the vocabulary known to him. The child can also identify the pointer words and question words

A reading lesson based on the visualized conversation - children aged 6-7 years

- Sahel said: Uncle went to the beach. There, he sat in a balloon.
- Satbir shouted: Hey! He will fall.
- Sahel said: Never! It has a basket to sit.
- Sharan explained: Fire helps it to fly.
- Sahel informed: When it goes high, everything looks small.
- Satbir asked: Is it free?
- Sahel replied: No. It cost 200 RS.
- Jatin said: I'm scared! When the balloon goes high, I will have butterflies in my stomach.
- Sharan said: Let's go for a balloon ride.

Reflective exercises done on the conversation :

1. Finding the correct pauses, accent groups in the sentences
2. Pointer words- linking the pronouns and pointer words to the nouns / objects.
It, he, I, my, there,
3. Picking out the verbs
4. Using the figurative meaning - "butterflies in my stomach"
in different situations.

line/ sentence/word explains the answer. EG . looked like small toys.

Line 2

2. Find the lines, which tell you, "How many times did uncle go to the beach?". Here the clue is the phrase "he went there again" in line3.
3. Name the days on which he went to the beach? Here it is expected that the children point out to the phrase "the next day " line 3 and get the answer.
4. How much money did uncle spend in all? Here the phrase "each time" in line 4 aids in calculating.
5. Why did the balloon go high? Line 5 explains this.
6. Choose the right answer:
 - a. (Sahel / Sahel's uncle) went to the beach.
 - b. (Uncle / Uncle's friend) sat in the balloon twice.
 - c. Uncle spent (200 / 400) Rs.
 - d. Uncle enjoyed the ride on (Monday / Tuesday / Monday and Tuesday)
 - e. The (balloon ride / air) is useful to us.
7. What do these underlined words mean?
 - a. He went there again with his friends.
 - b. He went the next day.
 - c. He spent 200 Rs each time.
 - d. Wasn't that expensive?
 - e. Up! Up! It went.
8. Arrange in sequence.

- a. Uncle went there again with his friends.
 - b. He sat in a balloon.
 - c. He saw small people, vehicles and buildings.
 - d. He paid 200 Rs.
 - e. Uncle went to the beach.
 - f. The balloon went high up in the sky.
9. Fill in the past verb
- a. The balloon _____ high up. (to go)
 - b. The people _____ like small toys. (to look)
 - c. Uncle _____ the balloon ride.(to enjoy)
 - d. He _____ 200 Rs. (to spend)
 - e. Hot air _____ the balloon rise. (to make)
 - f. The ride _____ expensive. (to be)
10. Making sentences with “ looked like” ”Each time”, “useful”
11. Antonyms- above – below, up – down, rise – fall, small – big.
12. Use of prepositions- above, below, up, to, on,
- a. The plane flies _____ the clouds.
 - b. The book is _____ the table.
 - c. We went _____ the doctor.
 - d. The shoe shop is _____ my house.
 - e. The mouse ran _____ the clock.
13. Fill in there or their

- a. Put the books _____
- b. My friends went home in _____ car.
- c. Children must wear _____ sweaters in winter.
- d. The boys went to the zoo. _____ they saw lions and tigers.
- e. _____ was no water in school today.

14. Make questions for the underlined words/phrases.

- a. Uncle and his friends went to the beach on Tuesday for a balloon ride.

Who?

Where?

When?

Why?

- b. The balloon went high up in the sky ,above the trees and buildings.

What?

Where?

- c. Up ! the balloon went.

What happened?

14. Maths – Use of “each” in sums.

e.g. There are 5 boys. Each boy has 2 sweets. How many sweets in all?

15. Science lesson on Air and its uses.

Visualized Conversation for children aged 7 – 8 yrs. And above

As the children go to the higher classes the language of the varied texts will also become more enriched and varied in vocabulary and structure.

The Visualized Conversations should be continued till the teacher feels that the children have now acquired the basics of language very well and can now

manage with reading with comprehension with some help where necessary. However the follow up exercises should continue along the same lines as given below :

Example :

Jatin said : My grandparents are coming to my house on Friday.

Burhan asked : Will they come by train or by plane?

Jatin answered : Not by plane ro train but by car.

Mahi asked : Why are they coming here?

Teacher said : Maybe because Kanpur is hotter than Mumbai.

All asked : How do you know that?

Teacher explained: Kanpur is away from the sea but Mumbai is near it, so,
So, it is cooler.

Mahi said : Mad Sun! It makes us fell hot.

Sharan said : Not at all. It changes water into vapour and gives us rain.

Burhan said : It helps plants to grow.

Jatin said : It dries our clothes quickly.

Mahi said : The Sun is just like fire!

Sometimes it is helpful but sometimes, it is naughty.

Follow up of the conversation

1. The above conversation is an example of how geography can be introduced to children from a topic that came from them and is of their interest. Introduction of the map has been done to find places, which the

children have visited, on the map. This lesson helps to consolidate the concept that places near the sea are cooler than those far away from the sea.

2. Writing a composition on The Sun with guide lines e.g.
 - a. Description shape, size etc
 - b. Where is it
 - c. How does it help us
 - d. Why don't you like it
3. Grammar Using the present verb, adding "s" to the verbs for the third person –
he, she, it. E.g. it dries, he feels,
4. Fill in the present verb
 - a. The barber _____ our hair. (cut / cuts)
 - b. I _____ with a pen. (write / writes)
 - c. The bird _____ in the sky. (fly / flies)
 - d. He _____ to office by bus. (go / goes)
 - e. Mummy _____ sandwiches for breakfast. (make / makes)
5. Use of conjunctions- and, but, or, so, because.
 - a. Is the gift cheap ___ expensive?
 - b. They bought soaps ___ shampoo from the shop.
 - c. Papa sprayed medicine _____ there were cockroaches.
 - d. Satbir is tall ___ Mahi is short.
 - e. It was very hot ___ we switched on the A.C.

6. Use of comparative degree

Sweeter than, stronger than, taller than, brighter than, larger than.

- a. The lion is _____ the deer.
- b. The giraffe is _____ the horse.
- c. The Sun is _____ the Moon.
- d. Chocolates are _____ than biscuits.
- e. Elephants are _____ cows.

7. Give a rhyming word.

- a. Sun- fun , bun, run.
- b. Light- fight, right, night.
- c. Sweat- get, wet, set.
- d. Dark- park, mark.

8. The above exercise helped to make a poem as follows

The Sun

There comes the Sun	round just like a bun.
It makes us dark	if we play in the park.
It gives us light	and sleeps at night.
It helps plants grow	and makes a beautiful rainbow.

1.6.3.4 A linguistic conversation

- Sahel said: There was a fire in our factory on Monday night.
- Sharan asked: Oh my goodness! Are the workers safe?
- Jatin asked: Did the firemen spray water to put out the fire?
- Sharan asked: Don't you have a fire extinguisher?

Sahel replied: We have two of them but the workers forgot and they ran out to save themselves.

Mahi told: Everything was burnt. The roof, machines, furniture and the tyres which the workers made.

Teacher said: What a great loss!

Reflective exercises help the children detect the system of language

1. Circle the pronoun and connect them to the nouns, which they replace.
e.g. The workers forgot and they ran out.
2. Circle the reflexive pronoun and connect it to the pronoun.
e.g. The workers forgot and they ran to save themselves.
3. Which of the underlined words denote a number?
(a) No one died. (b) We have two of them.
4. Which underlined accent group is a preposition group?
There was a fire / in our factory / on Monday night / so / four fire engines/ rushed there.
5. Which accent group contains a present verb?
We have an extinguisher/ but / the workers forgot.
6. What do the underlined pointer words mean?
We have two of them but the workers forgot about the extinguishers and they ran out of the factory.
7. Which of the underlined accent groups has an adjective?
What a great loss! / The roof, / the new tyres / and the machines / were burnt.

A reading lesson on the above conversation for more opportunities to reflect on the language.

Fire! Fire!

1. "Naughty fire! exclaimed Sahel sadly.
2. "Why? "What happened?" questioned his friends. They were all ears as he told them about the accident.
3. At 10 p.m., on Monday night, Mr. Kadri, Sahel's father, had to go quickly to his factory. Do you know what he saw there?
4. The fire had destroyed everything. The machines, the furniture, the roof and the rubber tyres.
5. "Don't you have a fire extinguisher? Are the workers safe? Did the firemen put out the fire?", the children asked.
6. Four fire engines and five times that number of firemen rushed there and extinguished it. Thank God! The workers were safe because they ran out as fast as they could.
7. Fire is helpful but sometimes it is dangerous.
8. What a great loss for the Kadri family!

Reflective exercises

1. Pick out the figurative phrases in line 1 and line 2.
Ans: Naughty fire, were all ears.
2. Pick out two verbs that mean "said".
Ans: exclaimed, told

3. Pick out synonym for “asked.”

Ans: questioned

4. Give another verb for “go quickly” and “to put out”

Ans: rushed, extinguished

5. Find out all the nouns that have a plural “s”.

Ans: friends, ears, machines, tyres, workers, engines.

6. What do these stand for?

a. “There” in line 8 Ans: to the factory.

b. “They” in line 2. Ans: Sahel’s friends.

c. “He” in line 4. Ans: Mr.Kadri.

d. “They” in line 9. Ans: the workers

e. “it” in line 9. Ans: the fire

f. “everything” in line 5. Ans: the machines, the roof, the tyres, the furniture...

7. “They were all ears” means –

a. The children had ears,

b. The children listened.

c. The friends had ears.

8. “Naughty fire” means –

a. The fire was naughty.

b. The fire troubled Sahel

c. The fire destroyed the factory.

9. Pick out the “How “ words from the sentences and connect them to the verbs.
- a. Naughty fire! Said Sahel sadly.
 - b. The workers ran out quickly.
10. The “S” in Sahel’s family stands for –
- a. plural ‘s’
 - b. belongs to
 - c. the verb ‘is’

The above examples of conversations and the reading deposits along with the reflective exercises help the hearing impaired child to understand and use words, meanings of sentences, modify and combine words to make sentences that convey his or her thoughts and wishes, use language for a variety of purposes. In short, the child will have things to talk about, people to talk with, an ever-increasing vocabulary, grammar and the ability to make them all work together.

Even after the child starts the regular school curriculum, the conversation, reading deposits and the reflective exercises must be continued as this method helps to tackle and to consolidate the difficult concepts encountered in the textbooks.

Use of M.R.M. involves the following:

- Maternal Reflective Method or the conversation method requires the art of listening to the child, observing his utterances and reactions in order to follow the “seizing” method and playing the double part.
- Conversation is child oriented and not teacher oriented.
- There are two kinds of conversations- heart to heart and linguistic.

- The memory function for language needs rhythmic speech, clustering, repetition and the support of reading and writing.
- Spontaneous conversations are visualized and used as reading deposits – a fund from which vocabulary, language comprehension improves and structure of language can be detected.
- Reflective exercises help the child to detect the structure of language both semantic and grammatical.

1.6.4 Eclectic Approaches

Eclectic Approaches is yet another method used for teaching language to the deaf. It is a combination of approaches. The combination may vary from classroom to classroom within the same programme. It can be described as ‘Anything and everything that works for helping the deaf to acquire verbal language’, and it is the decision of the teacher.

In this, special mention is necessary of ‘Rochester method’ and ‘Cued speech’ and the ‘Signed Language Systems’, which are merely modes of communication, used to support speech and can be used with any of the methods mentioned above.

‘**Rochester method**’, the communication system of speech and finger spelling, was developed by Westervelt, a teacher of the deaf, in 1880s. He fully believed in developing of language in naturally occurring situations. In his work with deaf preschoolers, ranging in age from 4 to 7 years, Westervelt used play, games, toys, and daily activities as his ‘curriculum’ for language development. The uniqueness of his approach was that he used finger spelling as an initial **mode of communication** in addition to speech, which is referred to as ‘Rochester method’. He presented new vocabulary and phrases to the children by finger spelling the entire phrase. Words were repeated and modeled for the students until the child began reproducing the finger spelling and the spoken word.

‘**Cued speech**’ was invented by Dr. Cornett to eliminate the ambiguity in speech reading. Some of the sounds of speech, such as /p/, /b/, & /m/ look alike on the

lips. The hand shapes and hand positions used in Cued Speech near and around the mouth can prevent confusion between such sounds. This will thus help those whose speech reading cannot be supplemented adequately by hearing aids, tactile devices or cochlear implants. Cued speech provides a variety of hand cues simultaneously with the spoken message. The hand cues are not signs. They have no intrinsic meaning. It has been demonstrated that cued speech can permit the reception of speech by totally or near totally deaf school-aged children at extremely high levels of accuracy.

While the Rochester Method represents English alphabets, Cued Speech is the phonetic way of finger spelling where the English speech sounds / phonemes are represented by the 8 hand shapes and hand positions. The Indian Manual Alphabet (AYJNIHH,Mumbai,) represents most of the speech sounds and the corresponding letters in most of the Indian languages.

Signing Systems / Manually Coded Languages

de l'Epee – 1712-1789 developed a signed communication system following the grammatical rules of French. Language. A system of manually coded English which is somewhat similar to the French system, is now being used in the United States, U.K., Australia etc. and is known as exact English or signed English. (See Paper I , Block 2.). This system is again meant to support spoken and written language. In India too, a system of signs to represent 6 Indian State languages has been developed at A.Y.J.N.I.H.H. by Dr. R.A.Ghate. It is termed as Indian Signing System which has developed signs for the content words and function / grammar words. However, it is being used in very few schools so far.

The important thing to remember here is that Rochester method, Cued Speech, and all the signed languages are merely modes of communication which aim at making the input of language complete and clear to the deaf children. Any mode can be used with any method of teaching language discussed above in this Unit, thereby leaving the teacher to select any mode of communication and any method of teaching language of her choice.

2.7 SUMMARY

In this Unit, different methods that are used to teach language to deaf children are discussed.

Structured methods treat language analytically and prescriptively, emphasizing knowledge of structure as embodied in rules of grammar. Through processes of direct imitation, memorization, and drill, usually within the framework of a strictly sequenced curriculum, the deaf child is expected to acquire grammatically accurate version of the general language of the society.

In the natural approaches, language is treated holistically, and development is planned to parallel the sequence of language acquisition in hearing children. The deaf child is expected to acquire language principles inductively and unconsciously through constant exposure to appropriate language patterns in situations that are designed on the basis of the child's needs and interests. Rules of language are not taught explicitly, but the approach implies that the deaf child will absorb the rules unconsciously through exposure, imitation, and expansion without memorization or language drills.

The combined approaches appear to be more commonly used by educators than any other approach. Streng, (1972), among others, has claimed that many deaf children are not able to acquire language solely through daily communication interactions with parents, teachers, and others. They seem to benefit more through the use of some structured activities to guide them in language acquisition. Some recent programmes that combine natural and combined approaches to language development are The Rhode Island Curriculum, Test of Syntactic Abilities Syntax Program' (TSA) and the Maternal Reflective Method. These are discussed in this Unit.

To summarize, it can be said that no single method, no one mode of communication and, no one strategy solely can bring satisfactory development of language in a deaf child. It is the optimum combination of these as per the needs of the child, in addition to the extra amount of time and intelligent efforts that one puts in to achieve complete and meaningful language input and abundance of linguistic interaction with the child that would make a difference.

2.8 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS (SELF STUDY)

1. What are the two ways in which access to language can be provided to hearing impaired children?
2. What are the main principles of 'Natural approach and 'Structural approach ?
3. What are the two important aspects of the maternal reflective method?
4. When do we start visualizing a conversation?
5. Why are reading deposits compared to funds in a bank?

2.9 ASSIGNMENTS

1. Read the following and write it in the form of speech balloons.

Three children talking about rains. The roads are flooded and one child is late.

Shubham: (points to the clock) says "late"

Akshay: (Gestures to show lots of water) " water up,up lots"

Pushkar: (Acts out) Mummy carry?

Akshay: No. (gestures to show that he came walking) "Walk"

Shubham (points to his clothes) "wet"

2. Make a reading lesson for 7 year old children from the conversation given.

Akhil; There was no water at home today.

Pankaj: Did the water pipe burst?

Akhil: Maybe, I did not have a bath.

All: Dirty pig!

Sohail: How did Mummy cook and wash clothes?

Akhil: She brought a bucket of water from Aunty's house.

Shubham: Poor mummy! That's heavy.

2.10 POINTS FOR DISCUSSION/CLARIFICATION

After going through the unit you may like to have further discussion on some points or require certain clarifications for better understanding. Note down there points below :-

2.10.1 Points for Discussion

2.10.2 Points for clarification

.11 REFERENCES / FURTHER READING

1. A world of language for deaf children by Dr. Van Uden
2. Oral education today and tomorrow by Ann Mulholland, A.G.Bell
Publication
3. Hearing Impairment in young children by Arthur Boothroyd A.G.Bell
publications
4. Language acquisition - Harvard University press. The first three years
- Burton White. (Prentice Hall Inc)
5. Curriculum guide : Hearing impaired child (0-3years) and their parents.
A.G Bell Association for the Deaf.
6. A world of language by Mildred Groht.

UNIT 3:AUDITORY VERBAL THERAPY: PRINCIPLE, IMPORTANCE AND ROLE OF TEACHER

○ STRUCTURE

Introduction

Objectives

○ Assessment

- What is assessment?
- Purpose of evaluation and testing
- Types of tests
- Language – the main objective in deaf education

○ Aspects of Language

- Phonological Level
- Morphological Level
- Syntactic Level
- Semantic Level
- Pragmatic Level

○ Purpose and Types of Language Assessments

- Purpose of language assessment
- Evaluation of the three main areas of language behaviour
 - Imitative ability (Elicited Imitation Format)
 - Comprehension ability

- **Production ability.**
 - Some of the tests commonly used for language assessment
 - Some of the language Tests Developed In India
 - Some of the standardized tests available for use with the hearing-impaired
 - Types of Assessment – formal and informal
- **Assessment of Different Aspects of Language**
 - Assessment of Morphological Rules
 - Assessment of Syntactic Rules
 - Assessment of Semantic Development
 - Assessment of Pragmatic Development
- **Language Competence and the Deaf Children**
 - Content of Child's Language
 - Sequence of acquisition of language competence
 - Linguistic status of a prelingually h.i. child at age 4/5 years
- **Suggestions for Evaluating a Deaf Child for Language Abilities.**
 - Language Skills
 - Assessing Vocabulary
 - Assessing at the Sentence Level
 - Ways of Eliciting Responses

- **Language Competence And The Deaf Children**
 - Use of Cognitive areas
 - Testing of language ability for Indian languages –
General Instructions
 - Testing use of case markers used in most of the Indian languages
 - Testing use of pronouns
 - Testing use of coordinating and subordinating conjunctions
 - Testing use of prepositions / adverbs / adjectives
 - Testing use of morphological items such as tenses, plurality, gender
 - A word of caution about the likely pitfalls in assessing a deaf child
- **Unit Summary**
- **Check Your Progress (Self Study)**
- **Assignments**
- **Points for Discussion and Clarification**
- **References And Suggested Readings**

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Assessment of a student's language ability is central to planning language teaching. The objective behind language assessment is to identify areas that need attention for the purpose of improvement.

Assessment of language abilities in any population is an exceedingly difficult task owing to the extremely complex and all pervasive nature of language itself ie. It is related to everything that happens in the world.

Vaidyanathan has summarized the issue of assessing children's language abilities in these words.

"The task of assessing children's language would be relatively simple if language could be easily quantified like height or weight (Bernstein and Tigerman 1985). However language is complex, dynamic and multidimensional in that it involves many interrelated processes and abilities. This elusive nature of language, particularly that of children makes it very difficult to measure and quantify. The task is further complicated by the variety of behaviours exhibited by children with language disorders. Preschool children are also difficult to test in formal situations because of their unpredictable and uncooperative behavior possibly related to their fear of the clinical situation itself.

3.2 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, the student will be able to

- Discuss the different aspects of language
- Construct a simple test to assess different morphological rules
- Enumerate with examples the different areas to be borne in mind when examining the syntactic development of a child

- Discuss the importance of pragmatics
- Prepare a set of guidelines for assessment
- Be able to assess a child informally for his skills in using an Indian language at the basic level of language competence.

3.3 ASSESSMENT

Measurement has always played an important role in helping man cope with his environment.

3.3.1 What is Assessment?

A Test is defined as a task or series of tasks used to obtain systematic observations, which are presumed to be representative of educational or psychological traits.

Measurement is the assigning of numbers to or quantifying attributes to persons, objects, events etc. according to special rules.

Evaluation is the process through which a value judgment or decision is made from a variety of different measurements or tests.

3.3.2 The Purpose of Assessment / evaluation and testing

The Purpose of Testing is to obtain accurate and relevant data necessary to make important decisions with the least possible error, so as to be able to plan future strategy effectively.

Tests are used to make effective decisions related to a vast number of areas, the most important to a special educator being in the area of program development, design and remediation.

3.3.3 Types of Tests

Many types of tests exist:

1. Formal and Informal
2. Individual and Group
3. Objective and Subjective
4. Power and Speed
5. Verbal and Non Verbal
6. Teacher made and Standardized

3.3.4 Language – the main objective in the education of the deaf – vis-à-vis

The main area of work for a teacher of hearing-impaired children is that of language acquisition.

Language is defined as a structured system of arbitrary symbols, mutually agreed upon by a community of human beings and governed by a set of rules, by which people cooperate, communicate and acquire and store knowledge.

Language training in children involves teaching children to effectively use different linguistic features at various levels namely phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic levels.

Assessment/Evaluation of progress in language usage will be very helpful for effective teaching.

3.4 ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE

3.4.1 Phonological Level (Sounds)

- Recognition and production of sounds of the language (45 in English)
- Knowledge of the rules for combining the sounds
- Knowledge of the rules for stress, pitch and intonation

3.4.2 Morphological Level (Structure of Words)

- Knowledge of the base words of the language

All nouns, verbs, adjectives, prepositions, conjunctions etc...

e.g. boy, girl, big, on, play...

- Knowledge of inflections.

Inflections have a grammatical significance and are affixes which must be acquired first.

There are 8 regular inflectional morphemes in English.

plural – s	boys	possessive – 's	boy's
past – ed	played	V – ing	playing
V – s (seen)	plays	V – en	played
Comparative	bigger	superlative	biggest

- Knowledge of derivational morphemes (prefixes and suffixes) that are attached to base words to derive other words.

-er	runner	-ish	foolish
-----	--------	------	---------

-less	thoughtless	-ly	softly
-ment	development	-ness	happiness
-able	readable	-ic	acrobatic
-ous	nervous	-y	hairy
-ent	dependent	-en	wooden
-ful	careful	un-	unhappy
re-	reconsider	dis-	discontinue

Children learn the rules for derivational morphemes after those for inflectional morphemes.

3.4.3 Syntactic Level (Grammar)

- Knowledge of the rules for the arrangement of words in sentences.

This means that correct word order is essential to convey meaning. Word order is governed by certain rules.

e.g. man the big is can be

Is the man big? or

The man is big.

Word order obviously changes the meaning of the sentence.

- Knowledge of the rules for the arrangement of words in parts of sentences (as in phrases).

Rules govern the arrangement of words in noun and verb phrases.

could have been studying

Rule : Verb phrase = tense + modal + have + -en + be + -ing + verb

- Knowledge of the rules for making change in sentences so as to express the same idea in different ways.

e.g. The team scored only one goal in that match.

The team in that match scored only one goal.

Only one goal was scored by the team in that match.

In that match the team scored only one goal.

- Knowledge of the rules for combining a number of simple statements to make a complex sentence.

e.g. I saw a man. I was sitting outside. The man was wearing a red coat.

When I was sitting outside, I saw a man wearing a red coat.

3.4.4 Semantic Level (Meaning)

- Knowledge of the meaning of words (lexical level).

This includes different categories of nouns, verbs, adjectives and multiple meanings of words.

The child ran fast.

A river ran through the field.

The car ran smoothly.

Two candidates ran for the post of President.

- Knowledge of the different relationships that can be expressed in sentences.

Agent – action

Raju cried.

Agent – action – patient (receiver)

Raju slapped Mohan.

Experiencer – process – patient

Mira wants some cake.

Beneficiary – process – patient
prize.

The girl received the first

Agent – action – complement

Maya sang a song.

Patient – state – attribute
today.

My hair looks awful

Patient – state – equivalent
friend.

The boy became my

Patient – state – location

The car is parked outside.

- Knowledge of the meaning of stress and intonation patterns of a language and how changes affect meanings.

e.g. Is it YOUR birthday today?

Is it your birthday TODAY?

Is it your BIRTHDAY today?

- Knowledge of idiomatic and figurative expression.

e.g. He jumped at the offer.

The thieves broke into the empty house.

The addition of a preposition to the verb forms an idiom different in meaning from the base verb + preposition.

3.4.5 Pragmatic Level (Discourse and Conversation)

Pragmatic skills enable a child to use language to communicate with other people by conversing with them. Pragmatics is sometimes referred to as language use. It is the social and interactional use of language and can therefore be called real-life communication.

There are many different types of **pragmatic skills**. They include:

- **Kinesics** – use of gestures in communication; e.g. pointing, waving etc. Gestures can support and reinforce communication or sometimes even replace verbal communication.
- **Proxemics** – is how a person uses space and distance in interpersonal situations. It includes personal posture, how close we stand to another person and touch and physical contact. Proxemics vary greatly from culture to culture and even from one geographic region to another.
- **Intent** – this is the term used to describe the purpose of conversation. If the child's intent and the message received by the listener are the same, the intent has been successfully communicated. Intent can be communicated verbally or non-verbally. E.g. Intent to go out could be indicated by the child going and fetching his shoes and putting them on or fetching the car keys.
- **Eye Contact** – this plays a crucial role in social communication. This again is culturally dictated. In some cultures it is considered a sign of respect to look away and in some others eye contact is very important.
- **Facial Expression** – According to communication researchers, about 38% of the meaning of a message is communicated through facial expression.
- **Conversation Skills** are those that enable us to participate in conversations both as speakers and listeners. These include turn taking, initiating a conversation, responding, and keeping a conversation going, terminating a conversation, and knowing when to pause, how to interrupt and how to provide feedback to the speaker. All these skills are difficult for a deaf child to learn and are generally mastered over time through numerous experiences and repeated practice.

- **Stylistic Variations** is the term used to describe a person's skill in adapting his communication to his audience and situation. Using this skill we modify how we talk to people not necessarily what we say. As children grow, they learn a variety of different rules when talking with different people, e.g. your peers, elders etc.
- **Presuppositions** – these are the background information you assume your listener already knows without your telling him or her. This requires being able to put yourself in your listener's position. What does your listener know? What do you need to tell him? Young children have difficulty with this because they are egocentric.
- **Turn Taking-** Children have to learn to take turns to keep a conversation going. Deaf children often have very short conversations. They may respond to your question, but will not ask any questions of their own to keep the conversation going.
- **Topicalization** Topics are the material on which conversations are based. It is important to learn how to choose a topic, how to introduce it, maintain it, stay on the topic and how to change it. These skills are difficult for a deaf child due to his limited vocabulary and syntax and conversational experiences.
- **Requests** – The ability to make and respond to requests helps ensure that our environment will meet our needs. This skill is learned as part of daily life. Requests that name what is wanted without using a verb are usually mastered first. E.g. More juice. Modeling with imitation and expansions are good ways to develop it.
- **Clarification and Repair** – these are 2 skills that go together. Clarification is asking for more information. Repair is the ability to recognize when a communication breakdown has occurred, understand

what caused the breakdown and provide the information necessary to repair it.

Eg. Speaker : Lets build a house. Bring me a big block.

Listener : There are lots of big blocks. Do you want a square one or a triangle?

Speaker : Give me the square one.

3.5 PURPOSE AND TYPES OF LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT

3.5.1 Purpose of Language Assessment

The purpose of such assessment is to determine the child's level of functioning so as to establish the goals of language instruction, implement a programme of development, periodically assess this development and thus modify and change the goals of instruction so as to promote further development.

Language assessment is a necessary component in educational planning for formulating language instructional goals and gathering evidence about whether children are learning.

3.5.2 Evaluation of the three main areas of language behaviour

The three dimensions of language behaviour or the three areas of language behaviour that are most commonly evaluated are :

- i. Imitative ability (Elicited Imitation Format),**
- ii. Comprehension ability, and**

iii. Production ability.

3.5.2.1 Imitative ability (Elicited Imitation Format)

In these evaluation procedures the child is required to imitate the examiner's language behaviour, i.e. the sentences spoken by the examiner. When the sentence to be imitated exceeds the memory capacity of the child, he often rephrases such sentences to make them compatible with his memory span but retaining the meaning to the extent possible. (Carrow and Mauldin 1973, Slobin 1973).

However, with regard to use of this technique with hearing-impaired children, Streng comments that inability to imitate accurately may be a problem of insufficient experience with lack of mastery of the language principle under consideration. If the child has developed competence for the basic language structures then he should not have a problem in imitating the simple sentences. In addition to this, there could be the problem of the child not being able to hear the complete sentence, which is difficult for an inexperienced teacher/tester to make out.

3.5.2.2 Comprehension ability

The 2 formats most commonly used for testing comprehension ability are

- 1.4 Demonstration format,
- 1.5 Picture identification format.

Demonstration format

Demonstration techniques consist of having a subject/testee move objects, or dramatize his understanding of the meaning of the sentences, phrases, of words presented by the examiner. In some instances such testing is carried out through the use of standard materials; in others the examiner is free to use any objects available to him and familiar to the subject.

Bellugi-Klima has suggested some conditions that should be met when constructing a language test that uses demonstration techniques. These suggestions include :

- a. Eliminating situational cues that might influence the generation of a response of comprehension of the test situation,
- b. Ensuring that each child knows the test vocabulary so that investigation of knowledge about a particular linguistic principle is not confounded by lack of lexical (words) understanding;
- c. Ensuring, as far as possible, that syntactic knowledge is tested and not the child's ability to recognize test patterns.

Test strategies that allow a child to dramatize or act out his understanding of sentences require careful planning, as well as awareness of the possible reasons for child's responses, or lack of it to requests by the examiner. The child who makes no response should not be assumed to lack knowledge. His behaviour could be the result of a number of performance limitations, such as,

- i. Inattention
- ii. Lack of motivation
- iii. Unwillingness to interact with the examiner
- iv. Lack of comprehension of what his response should be, etc.

On the other hand, a seemingly appropriate response cannot always be taken as a clear understanding of knowledge of a specific linguistic principle, because situation cuing can influence the comprehension process. The examples for these are given later in this unit.

Picture identification format.

The second prevalent category in comprehension testing consists of those language tests in which the subject is directed to select a picture/s that best exemplify sentences, phrases, or words presented by the examiner. While presenting such tests, three issues should be considered in relation to the picture identification formats :

1.6 Guessing

1.7 Rate of sentence presentation, and

1.8 Pragmatic competence.

In spite of the limitations of the picture identification formats, they have proved to be widely used in assessing language performance of children. Two popular tests that use picture identification are the North West Screening Test (NSST) and the Carrow Auditory Test of Language Comprehension (ATLC).

3.5.2.3 Production ability

Production or expressive ability of the child is normally tested by Language completion tasks, which require the examinee to complete a sentence, phrase or word presented by the examiner, or picture description tasks. The stimuli are usually so constructed that the subject response could be said to reflect knowledge of a particular linguistic principle or construction.

The best-known examples of the language completion are the Berko Morphology test (Berko, 1958) and its derivative. In each case sentences or phrases are presented with picture cues so that the subject, using application of an appropriate morphonemic rule, must fill in the last word of the test sentences.

The Berko Morphology Tests, which focuses on inflectional word endings for plurality, past tense, comparative adjective forms, etc., has been used for the hearing-impaired by R. Cooper (1967). In each case the researcher employs visual modes such as reading and signed English for tests instructions and writing for subject response to avoid the issue of misperception of test items or confounding of response intelligibility by poor articulation skills. This need to restructure for deaf subjects indicates a major problem of formal language completion tasks : they are primarily useful for those linguistic principles that are regular and stable with regard to morphological English rules. Unfortunately, the speech events most affected by hearing impairment and showing subsequent difficulty with speech performance are the aspects most frequently tested.

Dr. V.A. Heldinger in her book "Analyzing Syntax and Semantics" (1984) summarizes the old and new language tests in those words:

'Language assessment entails the use of a battery of tests plus observation and evaluation of the child's spontaneous utterances in varying communication situations. Up until the last two or three years, there have been no language tests standardized on a hearing impaired population. As of now there are several new tests that bear promise of providing the teacher, clinician, and researcher with valuable and necessary information on the child's syntactic competence and performance. These tests include the 'Test of Syntactic Abilities' by Quigley, Kretschmer and Kretschmer (1978). The procedure for assessing

language, involves obtaining a language sample and then determining the child's communicative functioning and semantic and syntactic performance.

Unfortunately, the emphasis in most of the aforementioned materials and tests has been on syntax. Kretschmer and Kretschmer's procedure, however, include the pragmatic and semantic evaluations.'

3.5.3 Some of the tests commonly used for language assessment are :

1 : Vocabulary Comprehension Scale (VCS)

2 : Michigan Picture Language Inventory (MPLI)

3 : Illinois test of Psycholinguistic Abilities (ITPA)

4 : Illinois Children's Language Assessment Test (ICLAT)

5 : Utah Test of Language Development (UTLD)

6: Carrow Elicited Language inventory Test: Elizabeth Carrow (1974). –

This test is used extensively for assessing language ability of deaf children.

This test measures a child's productive control of English grammar.

The test for Auditory comprehension of language is available in English and in Spanish. It is designed for children from 3 to 7 years of age and it serves two primary functions. The first one is to measure the auditory comprehension of language structure and, on the basis of the child's performance permits assignment of the child to a developmental level of comprehension. The second function is diagnostic.

The test instrument permits the assessment of oral language comprehension without requiring language expression from the child. The test consists of 101 plates of line drawing. The pictures represent

referential categories and contrasts. The form classes and function words tested by the instrument are nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and prepositions. Morphological constructions tested are those formed by adding inflections to free morphs such as nouns, verbs and adjectives. Grammatical categories that are evaluated involve contrasts of case, number, gender, tense, status, voice and mood. Syntactic structure of predication, modification and complementation are also tested.

(Criticism: So many items are morphological items. Specific vocabulary morphemes and syntax is what they are evaluating.)

3.5.4 Some of the language Tests Developed In India are :

1. Preschool Language Development Scale: Dr. R. Vaidyanathan (1989) Mumbai
2. Syntax Screening Test In Tamil: Sudha K. Murthy (1981) Master's Degree. Mysore University
3. Language Acquisition Test: Geetha Herlekar (1986) Master's Degree, Mysore University
4. Test for Acquisition of Syntax in Kannada (TASK): Vijayalaxmi A.R. (1981), Ph.D Dissertation, Mysore University
5. The test of Psycholinguistic Abilities In Kannada: P Karanth (1981) Ph.D. Dissertation, Mysore University
6. **Linguistic Profile Test: (LPT)** developed by AYJNIHH, Bombay In collaboration with R.R.T.C. Madras, 1990.

Linguistic Profile Test: (LPT) - a brief description

Purpose: Linguistic Profile Test is intended to provide an estimate of subject's semantic & syntactic ability both for comprehension.

Age: It is designed for children ages 3 to 7 years.

Time: It is an individual untimed test requiring about 45 to 75 minutes to administer.

Applications: Linguistic Profile Test has application in ascertaining the individual's language age and hence assists in identifying delays and quantifying the same. It permits comparison of first and second language acquisition within and across individuals. The Linguistic Profile generate along various language dimensions permit tester identify deviance's in language acquisition.

Criticism: Extensive use of drawings that provide cues and allows guesswork.

While selecting a test for language evaluation, it must be remembered though that 'Language-related children' are an extremely heterogeneous group, and no test, or small group of tests, is most descriptive for all the population with a diversity of etiologies and linguistic behaviours.

3.5.5 Some of the standardized tests available for use with the hearing-impaired

Some standardized tests available for use with the hearing-impaired, which may be modified and used in other languages, include :

- TSA – Test of Syntactic Abilities (Quigley, Steinkamp, Power and Jones 1978)

- Rhode Island Test of Language Structure (Engen and Engen 1983)
- GAEL test – Grammatical Analysis of Elicited Language (Moog and Geers 1979,1980; Moog, Kuzak and Geers 1983]
- The Written Language Syntax Test (Berry 1981)
- Hasenstab and Laughton Test for Language Assesement in hearing-impaired infants and pre-school children (1982)
- LPT – Linguistic Profile Test (Karanth 1984)

2.5.6 Types of Assessment – formal **and** informal

Two basic modes for assessment exist – the **formal** and the **informal**. The assessment process should consist of phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic analysis of language samples obtained in various communication situations.

Formal assessment involves the use of **standardized tests**, some of which are mentioned above. These tests normally give information on some aspect of language and therefore several have to be administered in order to obtain a comprehensive picture of the child's ability. These can be very time consuming and are not very easy to administer. They have to be administered in the mode with which the child is familiar (speech, signs).

Informal assessment involves interviews with parents, observation of the child in classrooms, during group activities, during free play, recording his spontaneous language and analyzing it to study its form and content.

3.6 ASSESSMENT OF DIFFERENT ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE

3.6.1 Assessment of Morphological Rules

The teacher has to note the use of inflectional and derivational rules in spontaneous utterances and also devise tests to check their use in both oral and written responses. The ability of a child to deal with regular morphological rules of inflection, can be assessed by using teacher made materials (adaptations of Berko or Cooper tests - discussed earlier.), in which the child is expected to apply the rules for a plural, past tense etc. to preferably nonsense words, randomizing the items so that no two of the same or similar morphemes appear one after the other. Many languages like our Indian languages rely heavily on inflections to express differences in number, gender, tense or aspect. Here the job of designing tests is much more complex. Studies of early development in languages other than English indicate early emergence of inflectional morphemes in highly inflected languages much earlier than in English (Stephany 1981, Slobin 1982). When inflections are an important aspect of language, morphological assesement in the use of regular inflections becomes important.

An expressive test assessing a child's productive control of the rules is easier to construct than a receptive test when the child is too young to read.

Expressive Test

This is a blum

Here are two _____

This cat can pling

Now the cat is _____

Receptive Test

This is a glup.

Here are two _____. [gluper, glup, glups, glupes, glupping].

This cat can jing.

Now the cat is _____. [jinged, jings, jinger, jingen, jinging]

3.6.2 Assessment of Syntactic Development

It has often been noted that deaf children of all ages seem often to understand what is being said to them, but are unable to use good sentences. It is possible that situational context, facial expression and gestures accompanying verbal messages play a major role in bringing meaning to the spoken word. They get hints from stressed nouns and verbs and usually ignore unstressed determiners, prepositions and verb auxiliaries. It is very likely they fail to absorb structural meaning because their input is partial and fragmented.

It is difficult to assess the actual knowledge a young child has about specific grammatical forms. An incorrect response or lack of one in non contextual situations may result for a number of reasons including inadequate vocabulary, unfamiliarity with a particular phrase or rule or not having generalized the meaning of a particular structure.

Assessing the ability of any child's comprehension of language requires insights into his capacity to understand not only word meaning but also what he knows about structural rules and structural meaning (understanding sentences and discourse).

Assessment may be done through an analysis of 50 spontaneous utterances of the child or through picture elicitation. Evaluation should begin when the child is at the one word utterance level and proceed through all levels. The

utterances are then classified as naming or labeling, imperatives, interrogatives or declaratives. Intonational and Stress Patterns should be noted.

Evaluation should be done to note the use of all syntactic rules of the language, which means the use of all 5 basic, or kernel sentence patterns and all transformations of these basic patterns.

Evaluation using observation and teacher made tests should be carried out to note whether requisite skills have been mastered or not. These include:

- Use of rules for singular and plural.
- Use of transitive and intransitive verbs.

Transitive verbs are those which can take a direct object.

e.g. The man drove the car.

Intransitive verbs are those which cannot take a direct object.

e.g. She is smiling.

- Familiarization and use of causatives.

It is a grammatical category used to refer to the causal relationship between sentences – cause and effect. - e.g. The cat killed the mouse. The mouse died.

- Use of affirmative and negative sentences and the negative contractions

e.g. Is that your father?

That is my father...affirmative

That is not my father...negative

That isn't my father...negative contraction

- Use of pronouns.

Personal pronouns – I, we, you, he, she, it, they, me, us, him, her, them.

Possessive pronouns – my, his, her, it's, our, your, mine, ours, yours, his, hers, its, their's.

Reflexive pronouns – myself, yourself.

- Use of appropriate person - gender - number markers (PNG markers)

Person – a category used to indicate the nature of participants in a situation.

Distinctions of person are usually marked in the verbs or associated pronouns.

1st person – in which a person refers to himself – I, we.

2nd person – in which the speaker refers to the person he is addressing – you.

3rd person – in which other people or things are referred to – he, she, it, they.

Number – a category used for the analysis of word classes displaying contrasts as

Singular and plural

He walks they walk.

Gender – a category used for the analysis of word classes displaying contrast as masculine, feminine, neuter. Grammatical gender is different from natural gender in the real world. It has an important role in signaling grammatical relationships between words in a sentence especially in Indian languages.

e.g. adjective agreeing with the noun.

Possessive marker depending on gender of object

• **Use of tenses.**

A category used in the grammatical description of verbs referring primarily to the way the grammar marks the time at which the action denoted by the verb took place.

e.g. present, past, future

• **Use of prepositions**

A word placed before a noun or pronoun to show in what relation the person or thing denoted by it stands in regard to something else.

e.g. prepositions – in, on, under, to, with, from, by, through.

• **Use of conditionals if.....when (conditional clause)**

e.g. What will you do if / when ?

If it rains then use the umbrella.

The bottle will break if you drop it.

• **Use of comparatives**

It is a description of adjectives or adverbs into comparative degrees. The comparative form is used in a comparison between 2 entities.

e.g. The boy is fatter than the girl.

Superlatives compare more than two.

e.g. He is the tallest boy in the class.

• **Use of conjunctions**

Conjunctions are used in the connecting of 2 clauses or sentences.

e.g. and, but, because

The pencil and the rubber are on the table.

He left work early because he was unwell.

- **Use of direct /indirect speech or quotative for narrative use**

e.g. Direct (Kernel sentence)– Jaya said, “I will bake a cake.”

Indirect – Jaya said that she would bake a cake.

- **Use of active and passive voice.**

e.g. Active voice (Kernel sentence) – The cat killed the rat.

Passive voice – The rat was killed by the cat.

Understanding the rules for the indirect and passive transformation enables one to get the same meaning from all the four following sentences.

- Mira gave a sweater to my mother.
- Mira gave my mother a sweater.
- My mother was given a sweater by Mira.
- A sweater was given to my mother by Mira.

- **Use of relative clauses**

It involves the combining of two or more sentences which is exceedingly difficult and becomes increasingly more so with deletions.

e.g. Kernel sentence – The man is my friend. You met the man at the party.

Relative clause – The man that you met at the party is my friend.

Relative clause with deletion – The man you met at the party is my friend.

- **Use of imperatives**

Commands like come here, sit down, open the door.

- **Use of infinitives**

He likes to go to school.

Jalpa loves to dance.

- **Use of participle constructions**

A grammar term used to refer to a word derived from a verb and used as an adjective.

e.g. A laughing face. Or, A sleeping dog.

- **Use of interrogatives or question forms.**

Who? Where? When? What? Why?

When to evaluate

Evaluation should begin when the child is at one-word level. One-word utterances can be classified as naming or labeling utterances as imperative, interrogative or declarative. The intonational and stress markers the child uses should be noted.

Evaluation of the rules a child using at the present tense and sentence level can be accomplished by noting the noun phrase and verb phrase rules used.

3.6.3 Assessment of Semantic Development

Semantics deals with meanings therefore vocabulary and knowledge of words, including multiple meanings (homonyms), antonyms, synonyms, idioms and figurative speech are included here.

The child at a one-word level may indicate meaning such as possession, saying mine while holding the object or location by saying up or there and pointing.

However, it is at the two-word level at which semantic relations are more readily observed.

Traditionally two-word utterances may be at the level at which one can begin to note the beginnings of syntax verb + noun, noun + noun etc. but often this does not give an idea of the richness of the child's language. Depending on the context, stress and intonational patterns used different meanings can be conveyed.

Given the utterance 'Dada room' the child could be using different meanings depending on the function

(That's) Dada('s) room – Possessor + possession

Dada(is in the) room – Entity + location

Dada(came into the) room – Actor + location

Cross-linguistic research indicates that children use language for the same functions and express the same semantic relations. Languages differ not in what can be said but in how things are said because of the differences in structure (Johnston and Slobin, 1979).

When obtaining a sample of language one can analyze the semantic relationships and note the different types of nouns, verbs, adverbials and attribute cases. Growth in terms of the kinds of verbs, addition of adverbials other than location, increase in number of prepositions etc. per utterance be they two word, three word or more should be noted.

e.g. – Basic semantic relationship

Meanings in **two-word utterances** (Brown, 1973)

- | | | |
|----|------------------|------------|
| 1. | Agent + action | daddy push |
| 2. | Action + patient | push truck |

3.	Agent + patient	boy ball
4.	Possession + x	my dog
5.	Recurrence + x	more milk
6.	Attribute + x	yellow bus
7.	No-existence + x	no milk / allgone egg
8.	Rejection + x	no sleep
9.	Denial.+ x	no dog(that is not a dog)
10.	X + location	baby bed / doll there / put here
11.	Introducer + x	here ball / that car

As the child moves to **three-word utterances** other semantic relationships are added.

Agent + action + patient	daddy hit ball
Mover + action + location	mommy go outside
Instrument + action + patient	knife cut me
Possessor + attribute + patient	jimmy big dog

Semantic evaluation would also necessarily involve an evaluation of :

1. The child's lexical level, i.e. vocabulary both receptive and expressive at matching, identification, naming, categorization and reading levels as also his understanding of multiple meanings of words or homonyms, antonyms and synonyms.
2. Ability to comprehend and respond to (understanding & use of) concepts of affirmation & negation using familiar vocabulary.

3. The ability to understand principles of semantics, congruity and incongruity so that the child knows when a sentence is anomalous, i.e. it contradicts facts.

e.g – the lamppost ran away

milk is green

4. Ability to see paradigmatic relationships i.e. a set of relationships that a linguistic unit has with other units in a specific context.

e.g – select the odd one out from a set of stimulus cards where one belongs to another category and is different.

- apple, orange, mango, pen – The odd one out is pen.

- nose, eye, lips, hand – The odd one out is hand.

3.6.4 Assessment of Pragmatic Development

The pragmatic aspect of language deals with the function or use of language in the context of communication:

One's intents, conversational devices one uses, presuppositions one makes, use of rules of discourse etc. Pragmatic development begins in the crib. It may be possible for a person to have acquired syntactic rules and still be lacking in communication competence, how and when of using language, how to explain clearly, when to change syntax and vocabulary when communicating with different people.

Pragmatic development is best assessed through observation and a use of a checklist that contains pragmatic behaviours to be expected at different levels of development. Language sampling of a child in different communication settings is done periodically involving parents, teachers, family members, peers etc. Facial expressions, gestures and other actions that accompany the

utterances are also recorded. As with all assessment, the use of structured tasks to elicit particular behaviours is an important adjunct to free sampling. E.g.

Preverbal

- Vocalizes when talked to
- Responds by smiling or frowning to verbal stimulation
- Cries to indicate discomfort
- Points to objects to indicate desire for them
- Seeks attention by tugging on clothes
- Waves goodbye
- Gives eye contact to speaker
- Uses gesture and facial expression to convey question
- Shakes head to indicate non existence, rejection
- Closes eyes, turns head or moves away to end a communication

Verbal

- Uses 2 or 3 word utterances or simple sentences to make comment on an object
- Asks appropriate questions; both yes-no and those requiring an information response
- Changes the topic in a conversation
- Expresses feelings verbally
- Dramatizes events or stories

- Relates humour or tells a joke
- Expresses negation verbally
- Initiates farewells and greeting with appropriate phrases and actions
- Indicates non understanding by puzzled look or requests for information

Advanced verbal

- Shares or relates information in the form of books or other reports ?
(BRINDA, please check the word)
- Initiates a conversation appropriately
- Terminates a conversation with appropriate and polite language
- Provide more information or rephrase when others don't understand
- Gives adequate directions
- Changes register and intonation when talking to babies, children, peers, adults
- Specifies topic by using a relative clause
- Writes or communicates a story with appropriate discourse structure

The Fairfax County Curriculum (1984) and A Pragmatic Approach To Language Instruction (KDES, 1980) suggest activities that can be used in the development or in eliciting pragmatic behaviour for assessment.

A sample analysis would be as follows:

A child may be informing a friend about a picnic the family had the previous evening. After saying that they had a picnic at the beach, the child says, "Daddy drive picnic fast."

This utterance can be analyzed as follows:

- Pragmatic – maintaining topic of conversation
- Semantic – agent/mover + action + location + manner
- Syntactic – NP1 +Vi + (Adv) + Adv

**Noun phrase + Intransitive verb + Adverb of place+ Adverb
of manner**

Restrictions: Omissions in:

Irregular past tense

Prepositions

Definite articles

A good teacher should bear all these factors in mind no matter what level he/she is teaching at. On going evaluation, under relaxed conditions, is the key to effective classroom teaching and the only way to ensure that the child develops any degree of language fluency.

3.7 LANGUAGE COMPETENCE AND THE DEAF CHILDREN

With the deaf children, who may enter educational programmes with 0 to very inadequate language skills, it becomes necessary to examine their language ability not only in the beginning of instruction but also routinely in the instructional process. This is because their whole education depends upon their ability to understand and use language well.

As has been discussed in SESH Paper 1 Block 2 earlier, linguistic competence is seen as the ability to understand and generate sentences relating to the topic on hand, using the basic sentences solely through the

medium of linguistic symbol manipulation, i.e. through the means of words alone and without the situational and external context (pictures, gestures, etc.). The language itself must provide the context which will enable the child (listener / reader) to use his internal context, i.e. recall and use of his/her cognitive structure, / schema, / knowledge of the world.

Several standardized tests are mentioned above for language evaluation. However many of these would not be easily available to teachers of the deaf. Some of these, mainly those prepared for English language will not be useful in most Indian settings. Sometimes it may not be necessary to conduct elaborate standardized tests; and the teacher may get the necessary information by just conducting teacher made tests. These tests would be quite useful to a teacher of the deaf for assessing her pupil's language ability. However before we take a look at some examples of these, it will be beneficial to examine what a normally hearing child can do with his language and what to expect from a deaf child after special exposure to and tutoring in language usage.

1.7.1 Content of Child's Language

We see that during stage 1 children talk a great deal about **objects** –

- They point them out and name them (demonstrative),
- Talk about where the objects are (locations),
- What they are like (attributive),
- Who owns them (possession), and
- Who is doing things to them (agent-object).

They also talk about **actions** –

- Performed by people (agent-action),
- Performed on objects (action-object), and
- Oriented towards certain locations (action-location).

Objects, people and actions and their interrelationships thus preoccupy the toddler's language universally, and as Brown points out these are precisely the concepts the child just completed differentiating during what Piaget has called the sensory-motor stage of cognitive development.

The ability to decontextualize (or better, to symbolize and construct context linguistically) is essential in developing skills to communicate with others who do not share the same social and personal experiences, and eventually in learning to read and write, where the text itself must carry the message and other interactional clues are not available.

The Research – on the basis of the research findings quoted above – sees the whole process of acquisition of **language competence** broadly in this sequence. (This corresponds to the verbal and advanced verbal stages of development described on page 18 of this unit.)

3.7.2 Sequence of acquisition of language competence

Ist level (1 ½ to 2 yrs)

Understanding and acquisition of semantic relationships at stage 1 of early word combinations (Brown and Berko) is manifested usually through some kind of word order and mainly coming from the child's sensor-motor knowledge and exposure to related language usage. These are single propositions striped of (which do not include) the case endings,

morphological changes in word forms such as plurality, tenses, pronouns, use of articles in English etc..

IIInd level (3 – 4, 4 ½ yrs)

Acquisition of the semantic relationships alongwith the corresponding correct/apropriate syntactic and morphological arrangements that are specific to the child's native language is achieved in this stage. The implicit knowledge of the 5 basic sentence patterns would of course underlie the language use at this and all levels after this. The children also use certain compound and complex sentences which are combinations of the propositions in the basic sentence patterns, and which are needed for every day communication at this stage. This is described by researchers as 'the complete sentence stage' with adult-like grammar and can be termed as the stage of acquisition of 'Basic Language Competency'.

The main difference in the 1st and the 2nd level is that semantic relations are mastered in the first level itself, but the corresponding language specific basic grammar is acquired only at the end of 2nd level.

It means in other words that though acquisition of semantic relations is primary to conveying meaning, and though it is generally acquired universally by the first stage itself, ONLY when a person has acquired the appropriate grammatical structures of his language can he be said to have acquired 'Basic Language Competence'.

IIIrd level (5 yrs +)

Progression towards schooled language competence through acquisition of full structural knowledge of construction such as passives, coordinating and relative clauses.

3.7.3 The linguistic status of a prelingually h.i. child at age 4/5 years

If one takes into consideration a typical 4 to 6 year old **deaf child's** total environment and relates his language behaviour to non-language behaviour, one can see that **cognitively and functionally the child is almost on par with his normally hearing peers in his day-to-day dealings.** It can be seen that, through the improvised signs, pointing and gestures used by him/her and the immediate family members he too is expressing all the basic semantic relationships that a child in stage I uses, such as who does/did what, actor-action whose-possession, where – location, requests/demanding, denying etc. He may learn the single vocabulary items also if these are accessible to him, but he often fails to reach the 2nd level of learning language, i.e. specific syntactic rules which a normally hearing child acquires by age 4 to 5. And this proves him unfit for formal school education.

The child must develop the ability to remember and comprehend/express what he perceives in term of language i.e. the relations between the constituents of an event (i.e. actor, action , receiver of the action, objects, instrument, etc,) expressed in a phrase or a sentence however small. These when expressed in language are the semantic relationships.

3.8 SUGGESTIONS FOR EVALUATING A DEAF CHILD FOR LANGUAGE ABILITIES

Techniques and Examples of Informal Testing

As discussed earlier assessment of language is a very complex and difficult yet necessary activity.

It is important to bear in mind that testing and teaching are two different things. Evaluation is to be done (only after adequate exposure of the child has taken place to the raw material of language in meaningful linguistic interaction) to find out whether or not the child has learnt the particular aspects of language. **This should be done without prompts or cues from the teacher.**

2.4.3 Language Skills

Language skills as you know are in two areas

- Receptive Skills
 - understanding using audition alone
 - Understanding using audition + lip-reading
 - Reading signs, finger spellings and cues
 - Reading the written word
- Expressive Skills
 - Expression through speech
 - through signs and fingerspelling
 - through writing

3.8.2 Assessing Vocabulary

This can be done through simple matching activities to test at both receptive and expressive levels.

At the receptive level it has to be noted whether the child can match

- Spoken word to picture
- Spoken word to written pattern
- Spoken word + lipreading to picture
- Spoken word + lipreading to written pattern
- Spoken word + lip reading + sign/fingerspelling/cue to picture
- Spoken word + lipreading + sign/fingerspelling/cue to written pattern
- words in correct word order to make sentences
- Puzzles and guessing games
- Making negatives

At the expressive level it has to be noted whether the child can if

- Shown a picture, say the word (speech)
- Shown a picture, sign/fingerspell/cue the word
- Shown a picture, write the word

Tests such as these should be carried out in the area of semantics, associations categorizations etc. with pictures and with words.

3.8.3 Assessing at the Sentence Level

It must be noted if the child

- Follows simple instructions and later a series of instructions and more complex directions given orally/with lip-reading/with signs/written.
- Points to correct pictures from an array depicting different structures
- When shown a picture says/signs/writes the given structure
- Shows an understanding of different question forms by giving appropriate answers

Questions are of different types. Those requiring factual answers (who, what, where, when, how much, how many, what colour, etc.); those requiring imagination and inference (Why do you think____?, How____?, What will happen if____? Etc.);

Those requiring recall, classification and association (what is another word for____?, what kind of animals are there? Who were the children?).

3.8.4 Ways of Eliciting Responses

- Matching
- Categorizing
- Sequencing pictures and sentences
- Drawing
- Dramatization
- Completing statements
- True and false
- Multiple choice

- Fill in the blanks
- Descriptions both oral and written
- Generating sentences
- Arranging asking a question for which an answer is supplied (The car is red. The question to be written to get that information is What colour is the car?).

3.9 LANGUAGE COMPETENCE AND THE DEAF CHILDREN

It has already been mentioned that cognitively and functionally the deaf child is almost on par with his normally hearing peers in his day-to-day dealings. What he cannot do is learn the language specific syntactic rules, which a normally hearing child acquires by age 4 to 5, just by being part of his family and his linguistic community. He cannot symbolize and construct context linguistically and understand verbal messages without any external cues, and eventually learning to read and write is also extremely difficult for him, where the text itself must carry the message and other interactional clues are not available.

It must be borne in mind that a prelingually deaf child with severe to profound hearing loss is not likely to attain any language and speech without special help. When the child enters the pre-school programme you may just observe his behaviour with his parents and in the class to see if he is using a few words to communicate or is just relying on some gestures. On the basis of this informal assessment the child can be placed in the appropriate level in the programme.

The first few years of training will be devoted to laying the foundation of language till the child reaches somewhere near the second level of language functioning. Till then the teacher can rely on her weekly and monthly observation and evaluation done at the end of each lesson, and weekly and monthly informal assessment for development of **vocabulary and simple conversational language** and keep the record of it. The record will be useful to keep track of the child's progress.

The assessment of a deaf child's ability to perform at the language level of a 4 year old hearing child is very important/crucial, because this will enable the principal and the teacher in the school to decide whether the child is fit to begin his formal education at the 1st or 2nd standard level or not. And this assessment can be done only after the child has spent at least 3 to 5 years in the pre-school classes. It must be remembered though that the deaf child's newly acquired language will have to be reinforced through out the primary years till they become an automatic part of his language usage.

Some informal ways/techniques of assessing a deaf child's basic language competence (i.e. linguistic communication ability), at this level, through speech and/or reading and writing, are suggested below :

3.9.1 Use of Cognitive areas

The cognitive areas are the internal context that the child has access to. The ones to be considered for designing the test could be:

1. Daily routine followed at home, such as eating, bathing, playing etc. or incidents such as, falling ill, getting injured, fighting, etc.
2. Things normally seen and experienced by children in their surrounding environment.

3. Ordinary routine things related to the school life, such as commuting from home to school, socialization processes such as sharing, turn-taking, making friends etc.
4. The vocabulary that represents objects, actions, attributes of persons and things, etc., in daily usage and falling within the experience of children.
5. The language that any hearing child is normally exposed to in all of the situations mentioned above; and the language that children use at age 4 to 5 years.

This approach has support from the study of Slobin 1973. According to him ' the rate and order of development of the semantic notions expressed by languages are fairly constant across languages, regardless of the formal means of expression that is (syntactic structure) employed.

3.9.2 Testing of language ability for Indian languages – General Instructions

- i. Ensure that the child has spent at least 3 to 4 years in a good pre-school language programme. (Deaf children from such pre-school programmes are generally 6 to 7 years old by the time they complete the pre-school years. They are expected to be conversant with simple reading and writing skills too by this time. The reading and writing abilities will help to reduce the ambiguity in the testing situation.)
- ii. Give practice to the child through 2-3 items of the type of responses he is expected to make.

- iii. While giving practice, do not specifically point to or stress on the test item, e.g. if you are asking a question 'kis ne', then do not stress particularly on the case marker 'ne'.
- iv. Do not leave the written question in front of the child. Or else the child will copy the pattern and just fill in the key word. This will not give you an idea of whether the child has internalized the rules or not.
- v. Repeat the question or action, if necessary, only twice. **Remember that testing has to be differentiated from teaching.** Bear in mind that the child is exposed to all types of assessment work for nearly 2-3 years. Do not start explaining and teaching if the child has not understood. Just mark the response.
- vi. Prepare the test in advance and as far as possible, try it out on a hearing child to see if there are any items, which will create confusion even in the hearing child's mind. Make suitable changes in the test items.
- vii. Test the intended grammatical item by using at least 3 different test items so as to make sure that the child has got it under control.

3.9.3 Testing use of case markers used in most of the Indian languages

In most of the **Indian languages**, use of case markers is very important for conveying the intended meaning i.e. semantic relationships. E.g. in the sentence 'Shikari ne sher ko mara', (The hunter killed the tiger), the use of appropriate case markers such as 'ne' and 'ko' is crucial to convey **who did what to whom**. A sentence like 'Shikari sher mara', or 'Sher shikari mara', are ambiguous/confusing without sufficient external cues.

Testing of use of case markers can be done informally in the following ways:

- Perform an action in front of the child and ask him to describe what he saw or what somebody did. (Here the child is expected to know the names of the persons / children involved in testing.) e.g.

- Teacher eats a chocolate. Action over.

Expected response - *Didi ne chocolate khaya.*

- Teacher cuts a banana/paper in front of the child. Action over.

Expected response - *Didi ne churi / kaichi se kela / paper*

kata.

- Teacher throws a ball. Action over.

Expected response - *Didi ne ball feka.*

- Teacher gives a book to Geeta. Action over.

Expected response - *Didi ne Geeta ko kitab di.*

- Teacher keeps a pen on the table. Action over.

Expected response - *Didi ne pen table per rakhi.*

- Teacher places a book under the table. Action over.

Expected response - *Didi ne kitab table ke niche rakhi.*

- Teacher shows the child her red bag, and asks, 'meri bag kaisi hai ?

Expected response - *Didi ki bag lal hai. Or Sham ka ball safad hai.*

3.9.4 Testing use of pronouns

How to test : Choose an incident, preferably based on an activity, which has recently taken place in front of the child. Compose a small paragraph about it and present it to the child in writing. Then ask the child to replace the nouns, which are underlined, with a suitable word. E.g.

- ‘Ram had a picture of a kite/parrot.

Ram coloured the parrot green or the kite red’.

Expected response - *He coloured the parrot green or the kite red.*

Or

- ‘Shama is a girl.

Shama has a friend. Expected response - *She has a friend.*

The friend’s name is Madhu.

Shama always plays with Madhu.’

Expected response - *Shama always plays with her.*

Shama gave Madhu a flower.

Expected response - *Shama gave her a flower.*

3.9.5 Testing use of coordinating and subordinating conjunctions :

- Ram went for a walk. Sham went for a walk with him.

Expected response - *Ram and Sham went for a walk. Or*

Sham went for a walk with Ram.

- Ram is tall. Ram is strong.

Expected response - *Ram is tall and strong.*

- Meena ate rice. Meena ate dal.

Expected response - *Meena ate rice and dal.*

- Teacher drops a chalk and it breaks. Incident over.

Expected response - *The chalk broke because the teacher dropped it.*

A more natural situation would be better here, such as, a child falls and cries.

Teacher can make use of appropriate pictures to elicit expected responses. E.g. A man shows a stick to the dog and the dog runs away. Expected response - *The dog ran away because it was afraid, or because the man tried to hit it; or because the man picked up the stick.* The child may also use 'so' to join the sentences. Here you are testing the use of 'so', or 'because'. There could be pictures of a man falling in water; then the man comes out of water with water dripping from his clothes. Expected response - *The man fell in the water so his clothes got wet.* Or pictures of a child falling and hurting itself and then the mother applying medicine to the wound. Expected response - *Mohan was hurt so mother applied medicine to his knee/ hand/ leg.*

3.9.6 Testing use of prepositions / adverbs / adjectives

Here the teacher will have to keep on hand ready, the items needed for the testing prior to actual testing; e.g. two or three toy cars, a garage made from cardboard box, toy dog, trees of different sizes, two or three cups, two or three spoons, pencils of different thickness, some hard and soft material, buttons or any such objects of different sizes, etc.

In this type of testing, the child will have to perform as per the instructions from the tester. The instructions should be kept ready in written form also. This is a test of comprehension only. The child is not expected to speak but perform only as per instructions.

Test Items:

1. Put the car **in** the garage.
2. Put the car **behind** the garage.
3. Put the car **beside** the garage.
4. Push the car **towards** the garage.
5. Push/drive the car **around** the tree.
6. Leave the car **in front of** the garage.
7. Take the car **out of** the garage.
8. Show me the **top** of the car.
9. Show me the **bottom** of the car.
10. Show me the **front** of the car.
11. Push the car **backward**.
12. Push the car **forward**.

Place 4 cars in a line and also have big ,medium and little sized cars.

13. Show me the **first** car.
 14. Show me the **last** car.
 15. Show me the **big** car.
 16. Show me the **little** car.
- (Use big and little cars only.)
17. Show me the **tall** tree.
 18. Show me the **short** tree.
 19. Put the button **under** the car.
 20. Touch **each** button.

(Place 3 buttons on

the table.)

21. Which box has **more** / **less** buttons? (3 buttons in one box and 9 in the other.)
22. Show me the button that is **same** as this. (Hold up large button.)
23. Show me the button that is **different** from this. (Hold up small button.)
24. Put the spoon **in** the cup.
25. Show me **my** cup.
26. Show me the **thin** pencil.
27. Show me the **thick** pencil.
28. Give me the **soft** material.
29. Give me the **heavy** / **light** cup.

(All the adverbs / prepositions / adjectives exemplified above can be translated into Hindi, e.g. 'pahila', 'doosra', 'upar', 'peeche', 'patla', 'mota', 'herek' etc., or any other Indian language.)

2.9.7 Testing use of morphological items such as tenses, plurality, gender, etc. :

Use of pictures can be made very conveniently here, e.g.-

- First picture is a boy is holding a bag / banana.
Expected response - *The boy has a bag / banana.*
Second picture is a boy is holding two bags / bananas.
Expected response - *The boy has two bags / bananas.*

Some more examples for hindi with use of pictures are as given below :

- The boy is running. (Ladaka daud raha hai.)
The girl is running. (Ladaki daud rahi hai.)

- Teacher may try acting out actions for making certain that the child can make the necessary variations in the forms of words., e.g.

Didi ne kitab table per rakhi.

Didi ne do kitabe table per rakhi. Etc.

Use of tenses can be tested through narration of an event of a simple story and question –answers on it (for past tense); or talking about an event that is happening (continuous tense); or some event that is likely to take place in the near future (future tense).

Teacher may, as per the child’s observed level of functioning and as per her teaching goals, decide what she wants to test and prepare matter accordingly.

3.9.8 A word of caution about the likely pitfalls in assessing a deaf child

Peter M. Blackwell cautions the teachers of the deaf about certain issues related to the assessment of language abilities of the deaf children. He explains these issues as given below :

- If the teacher wants to assess understanding of the different question forms, one word answer to the question should suffice e.g. The teacher, after giving a pencil to her assistant say Shama, asks the child, “Who gave the pencil to Shama?”, “To whom did I give the pencil?”, “Whose pencils/box is this?”, “Which pencil is yours?”, “What did Shama put in the box?”, etc.
- Questioning a child about a story is different from teaching the question form. In the former, the goal is comprehension; so one must question whether the reader understood the meaningful or most central structures of the story; the characters’ motives, the location of certain actions,

events, what happened at the end, and so on.(It will be better if the text is removed from the child's sight or he/she will try to visually match the question to the answer.)

- Questions should not exclusively assess literal recall skill. Because in such cases, a reading skill (reading for meaning i.e. the ability to identify the relevant semantic elements of the text) is being mistaken as reading ability.

3.10 SUMMARY

It is important, particularly for a teacher of the deaf, to know thoroughly well the sequence of language development and the content of the language of normally hearing children. This will help her considerably in understanding what to expect from her children, when to expect it and to plan her learning experiences suitably. Both the formal and informal assessment techniques as are discussed in this unit will further facilitate her efforts.

Summarized below are the guidelines for a teacher for language evaluation.

- Estimate overall semantic clarity. Does the meaning come through? Is vocabulary adequate and is it appropriately used?
- Observe sentence structure. Is the child using 1-2 word utterances, partial sentences or complete ones. What kind? Observe consistency, patterns used and the influence vocabulary may have on the structure.
- Observe optional adverbs used – single adverbs, phrases, clauses, order of adverbs, etc.
- Observe use of determiners in noun phrases – articles, possessives, and predeterminers. Does he differentiate between count and non -count nouns in the use of determiners?

- Observe the use of pronouns. Does he adhere to rules for PNG markers? Does he reflexives, indefinite pronouns? etc.
- Observe tenses and aspects used. How clear is the concept?
- Observe the use of morphemic markers
- Can he frame and use questions correctly
- Can he make statements, issue commands etc?
- Note his level of achievement in the pragmatic areas.

3.11 SELF STUDY

Study the language of a young hearing child (3-5years) who has no other problems. Analyze it in all areas mentioned before. Compare it with a language sample obtained from a deaf child (6-10years) .

3.12 ASSIGNMENTS

Develop a test to assess the comprehension and use of possessive case markers previously taught in any regional language.

3.13 POINTS FOR DISCUSSION/CLARIFICATION

After going through the unit you may like to have further discussion on some points or require certain clarifications for better understanding. Note down there points below: -

3.13.1 Points for Discussion

3.13.2 Points for clarification

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UNIT 4: AUDITORY TRAINING AND AVT: PRE-REQUISITES, CHALLENGES, SIMILARITIES & DIFFERENCES

STRUCTURE

- Introduction
- Objectives
- The role of the Organization / Trust which runs the school,
- Role of the Principal / Head Master of a Special School for H. I.
 - The role of the Principal
 - Qualities of the Head Master
 - Duties of the Head Master
- **Role of the Teachers of the Deaf**
 - Important Characteristics of an Effective Teacher
 - Duties the Teachers of the Deaf
 - Problems faced by the Teachers of the Deaf
- **Schools in Urban areas, and schools in Rural areas**
- **Technology and Education of the Deaf**
- **Unit Summary**
- **Assignments**

- **Check Your Progress**
- **References**

INTRODUCTION

School is critical in determining the quality of children's education. Schools can make a difference. In this Unit, we will look at some of the main effective strategies for effective classroom and school practices.

Management of the school is the collective responsibility of the teachers and the Principal of the school. This Unit discusses the duties of the headmaster, the teachers, and also mentions the problems faced by these personnel sometimes, in carrying out the duties satisfactorily. The role of the agencies running the school is also discussed briefly. However, it is absolutely vital that they function in unison at all times.

OBJECTIVES

After reading the Unit, the trainees would be able to specify

- **The role of the Organization / Trust which runs the school,**
- **The duties of the headmaster**
- **The duties of the teachers,**

- **The problems faced while conducting various programmes of the school satisfactorily,**
- **The use of Technology in Education of the Deaf,**

THE ROLE OF THE ORGANIZATION / TRUST WHICH RUNS THE SCHOOL

The voluntary organizations have always taken a lead in doing charitable work for the welfare of the disabled population. They have much valuable and pioneering work in this field, right from the regime of Ashoka. Since independence, there has been intensive development in the country for the disabled, sick and the aged. However, the actual needs of the country are far in excess of the resources made available for the purpose by the Government. Therefore, the work of the voluntary organizations has always been recognized and encouraged by both the Central and the State Governments.

As for establishing and running the schools for the deaf, the following conditions have to be fulfilled by the Organizers :

- **Government Rules and regulations applicable to concerned organizing bodies (Trusts, Societies etc.) should be strictly followed,**
- **Sufficient corpus fund must be available with the Trust,**

- **For the purpose of day to day running of the school, reliable sources of fund have to be ensured by the Organization,**
- **The Organizers should not take active interest in the day to day working of the school but restrict themselves to overall supervision to ensure smooth operation,**
- **In case of the schools for the deaf, the teaching-learning process of academic skills is quite a complex and difficult task for both the teachers and the children and there is every possibility of outwardly appearance of proper learning taking place. In reality, however, the children may be learning only rote learning and acquiring mechanical reading and writing skills without understanding. This has to be guarded against by the Organizers by taking help of expert professionals in the field.**
- **It is essential to hold regular meetings between the managing committee of the Organization and the staff of the school, to identify, discuss and resolve various problems, if any.**

ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL / HEAD MASTER OF A SPECIAL SCHOOL FOR H. I.

Qualities and Responsibilities

The Head Master/Mistress is the key figure in the school. H.M. plays a vital role in running an educational institution . Proper working and reputation of a school depends upon the H.M.. He/She being the head and leader should be able to lead his colleagues and bring about best in his pupils. It is therefore rightly said – that a school is as great as its Head Master is.

The Central Advisory Board of Education has stated, “No scheme of educational reconstruction will produce the desired results unless it is administered with vision and executed with responsibility by the H.M..”

In words of Education Commission (1964-66), “The reputation of the school and the position it holds in the Society depend largely on the influence that the head of the school exercises over his colleagues, his pupils and the general public. On him the proper working of the school ultimately depends.

The following are the six main responsibilities of the headmaster.

Harmonious

School

Atmosphere

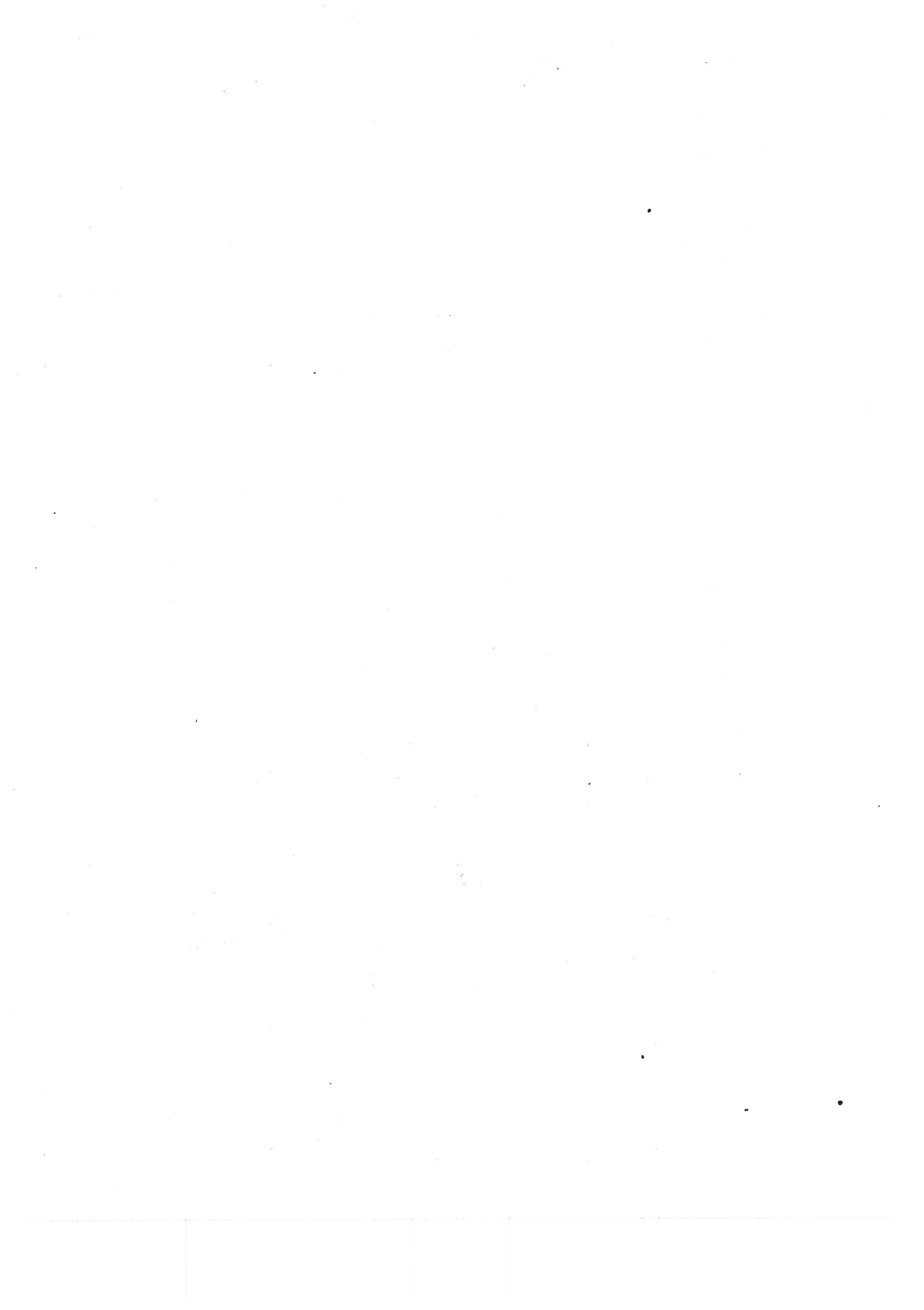
**Guidance
Planning
& Counseling**

HEAD MASTER

**Teaching
Organizing**

Supervising





3.4.1 The role of the Head Master

The factors related to school success – all of which are under the control of the Principal – are :

- Strong leadership,
- High expectations (reasonable and practical),
- Good atmosphere,
- Strong emphasis on reading,
- Careful evaluation student progress.

Research shows that Principal in high achieving schools reported that they felt that they had control over the school, the curriculum and the staff (Austin 1979). Research also shows that in schools where achievement was improving, Principals were concerned about instruction; they made their views about instruction known to faculty. They took responsibility for decisions about instruction, and they emphasized academic standards. Moreover, Principals demanded - and got,- results but allowed flexibility. It was also seen that the concept of accountability was totally accepted by the staff in these schools.

3.4.2 Qualities of the Head Master

The Head Master should

- posses a sound philosophy of education,
- have a clear vision of the aims and objectives of 'Education in General',
- be well versed with the additional aims and objectives of 'Education of deaf,'
- possess a good educational background and should have mastery over his subject of Special Education of H.I. (This would help to make the

school technically well equipped and maintain a good educational standard in the school.)

- have a good personality which will enable him to lead his staff towards achievement of the school objectives,
- possess qualities like patience, humbleness, enthusiasm, democratic honesty, tolerance and so on.
- be resourceful which would enable him to build a sound infrastructure of the school.

3.4.3 Duties of the Head Master

Planning

Proper planning helps to implement and achieve the objectives of school. The Head Master has to just plan out broad Annual Schedule of the school and then work out the finer details like Opening and Closing the Terms, time tables of different classes and teachers, schedule of examinations, parents meetings and meetings of school committee. He/She has to plan out list of holidays, celebrations, excursions etc... The Head Master needs to plan allotment of classes, organization and utilization of infrastructural facilities and equipment. He/She needs to plan the process of integration of the children and also plan out extension services like awareness programmes etc..

Organising

Planning is followed by organising activities. The Head Master has to organize the curriculum and co-curricular activities. If the number of the children in the school is over 100, it may help to set up a service centre for hearing aid repairs and an ear mould laboratory. He has to organize for hearing aid trials and spare parts bank. He needs to organize the staff and parents meeting. Quite often, he has to organize fund raising programmes. At least twice in a year, a Medical

Camp should be arranged in the school for the benefit of children. The Head Master also needs to organize some training in the form of refresher courses for the teachers, or organize seminars, workshops and invite experts to update the teachers' knowledge of the latest trends in education of the Deaf.

Supervising

One's performance improves if one is aware that one is being supervised. Teachers and other professionals, would definitely try to put in their best performance if they are being supervised. Supervision followed by suitable guidance may give positive reinforcement and the teachers would know that the Head Master is concerned about their quality of teaching. Even the non-teaching staff of the school would deliver its best when it is aware that all its work is being supervised and checked. The Head Master has also to supervise the overall functioning of the school. The admission procedure, class-room teaching, grouping of children for instruction especially should be carried out under his supervision. He has to supervise the Hearing Aid Trials and also fitment of hearing aids. Once a month it is always best to supervise the Attendance register, Muster and other academic and non-academic records. The responsibility of a smooth examination process lies on the Head Master, so also he has to supervise the preparatory classes for students to be integrated. Cleanliness of school and accounts would remain up to the mark if the Head Master supervises it regularly.

Teaching Duties

A light can never light another lamp unless it continues to burn itself, says Tagore. The Head Master has to keep himself abreast to the special methodology and technology and has to generate innovative techniques to teach the H.I. Unless he/she teaches in a class, he may not be able to experiment it at out and may lose touch of teaching and therefore it is the duty of the Head Master to take some classes. This would also inspire and motivate the teachers and prove that the Head Master is an ideal teacher for them.

Guidance and Counseling

Most of the parents of deaf children come in a shattered (situation) state of mind to the school and always with a feeling of 'Why only our child?' It is the duty of the Head Master to help such parents to overcome their shock and (runway situations) grief. He should help them to realize that is not the only child and also motivate them so that they would realize that, "Yes! My child would also overcome the barriers of communication one day." The H.M. has not only to give guidance regarding hearing aids maintenance to the parents but also has to empower the parents to become equal partner in the teaching and learning process. Once the child is ready to pass out from the school either for integration or for higher studies, the H.M. also has to guide the parents for further plan of action.

The H.M. also has to guide (to provide guidance to) the teachers while setting timetables, planning out the curriculum, selecting text books and also to make supplementary teaching materials. He/She should be able to guide the teachers for grouping in auditory training and speech therapy. At times, H.M. needs to give guidance to the teachers for some problem children so also for the gifted ones. He may have to give guidance to Normal school Principals and teachers for setting up Resource rooms and appointing resource teachers. The H.M.

has to be well versed with the Legislation for the Handicaps so that he would be able to give information and guide the parents regarding procurement of concessions and facilities as laid down in the 'PWD Act'.

Maintaining Harmonious School Atmosphere

The school should be a harmonious place to study and work. The responsibility of maintaining a cordial atmosphere in school lies on the H.M.'s shoulders. It is the duty of the H.M. to maintain a healthy atmosphere in the school. He should not exercise his authority all the time, instead should make others feel that they are all equally important as him. There has to be a sense of belongingness in everybody and everyone should feel that he is part and parcel of the whole system. The H.M. should undertake welfare activities for the staff and also follow up with the Government and the Management for the welfare of the staff. The H.M. should set up a grievance cell and hold open discussion with parents, teachers and students. The H.M. should be approachable by one and all.

3.5 ROLE OF THE TEACHERS OF THE DEAF

The most obvious and important duty of a teacher is to teach, impart knowledge to students. Apart from teaching the regular subjects in the curricula, the teacher has the responsibility of developing the language and speech communication skills of his/her hearing impaired children.

For teaching purpose, it is the teacher's duty to a) study the curricula, b) form objectives, c) prepare lesson plans, and d) form evaluation strategy for her class.

3.5.1 Important Characteristics of an Effective Teacher

The following are the important characteristics of an effective teacher: They -

- i. Believe that children can succeed,
- ii. Have confidence in the Principal's ability,
- iii. Are able to maintain discipline in their classes without spending time punishing students,
- iv. Appear to understand the rules
- v. Planned their lessons in advance,
- vi. Select instructional goals and materials and actively monitor student progress towards these goals,
- vii. Breaks the Unit into small learning experiences so as to teach only a few objectives at one time,
- viii. Designs the experiences with the assumption that every student can master the material. The teacher will teach; then test for learning. When the teacher realizes that certain students have not yet learnt the material, the teacher provides those students with additional help until they come up to mastery.
- ix. Structure activities, and provide feedback which is immediate and correction oriented,
- x. Seek appropriate help,
- xi. Structured their classrooms, using whole group teaching techniques to fulfill their expectations,
- xii. Handled their most discipline problems themselves,
- xiii. Rarely sent children to the Principal's office,
- xiv. Care about their students,
- xv. Take a sense of pride in teaching.

3.5.2 Duties of the teachers of the Deaf

i. Counselling Duties:-

Counselling students

A teacher should have a good rapport with children. Like their children, parents too depend more upon teacher's advice than any other professionals' counseling. This is so because children feel comfortable with their teacher. And therefore, they tend to listen more to the advice of their teacher than of their parents. Also, with practice, the communication between the teacher and the children is more effective.

Counselling parents

It is also a teacher's duty to counsel parents about the following :

- Care and maintenance of hearing aids,
- Follow up of classroom teaching at home,
- Motivating the children to do homework regularly,
- Convincing children to bring their children to school regularly,
- Advising them about education and rehabilitation.

ii. Work on the Curriculum

It is the responsibility of the teacher of the Deaf to develop or modify the curriculum to suit the language level of the class. It is also her/his duty to update the curriculum from time to time.

iii. Supervisory duties

These include

- Supervising the co-curricular activities,
- Supervising the children during recess and playtime,
- Supervision of the laboratory work.

If the school conducts 'Teachers' Training Programme', the teacher also has to supervise the trainees' lessons.

iv. Administrative duties - Assessment and record keeping in schools.

The main objective of keeping a progress and general record of a child is to compile a systematic record as the child passes through a school so as to establish a profile of development for the benefit of teachers and parents. The report should convey to the parents a measure of their child's progress and standing in particular subjects and to indicate any strengths and weaknesses. These reports coupled with personal contacts between the teacher and the parent can often resolve some of the instructional problems. When a teacher discovers that her pupil has a nervous disposition, it is up to the teacher to put the pupil at ease by showing sympathy and a willingness to talk through the problems.

Most records contain the following information:

- i. Biographical details of name, age, sex, birth date, address and general information about schools attended;
- ii. Health and home conditions such as illness or handicaps which may affect the child's progress or require regular treatment;
- iii. Attainments in general ability, verbal reasoning, word recognition, reading, comprehension and arithmetic taken at various in school along with the name of the test;

- iv. Interests such as music, drama, sport, social activities or practical skills;
- v. Attendance;
- vi. Behaviour and personality including deviant behaviour (delinquency, truancy) and emotional disturbance;
- vii. Other general comments by the teachers or head teachers.

In addition to this a teacher of the Deaf has to maintain the following records for the children in her class. These include –

- Keeping record of audiograms of the children in the class and getting them updated every year, through the parents,
- Checking hearing aids and maintaining the record of the repairs as well as of stock of extra batteries, cords, etc.
- Keeping record of various class tests,
- Preparing Progress Report Cards, etc.,
- Providing assistance for the preparation of the time table,
- Keeping record of class books/toy library,
- Keep record of teaching aids,
- Maintaining ‘Home-school Diaries’ for all the children for written communication with the parents on various related matters. Etc.

v. Duty of convening Parent-Teacher Meetings

The class teacher should hold meetings with the parents periodically and in these meetings the teacher should encourage the parents to attend the classes with a view to observe the method of teaching and dealing with the deaf child.. This is vital because the child is in the school for only limited hours and most

of its time is spent at home. This practice would help the parents to work effectively with the child at home along the same lines.

Such meetings would also provide a platform for the parents to discuss their particular problems with the teacher and to interact with the other parents simultaneously. It is necessary that the teacher maintain records of these meetings for future reference.

vi. Public relations

General public looks upon the teachers as experts in the field. They are therefore in an ideal position to create public awareness about disabilities and importance of education for the rehabilitation of disabled persons.

The teachers also play an important role in an integrated setup by keeping in touch with and providing assistance wherever necessary to the regular schoolteachers, parents, social workers, etc. It is the duty of the teacher to provide information and assistance to parents and children about availability of scholarships, free ships, concessions, etc.

vii. Professional growth

The teachers of the Deaf should realize that obtaining a degree or a diploma in Special Education is only an introduction to the field of the education of the Deaf. It is only through dealing with and teaching such children for a few years at least that the teachers would gain the insight of the complexities involved in the process. In addition, it is vital for the teachers to keep abreast of the latest development in the field and to upgrade their knowledge to become more and more effective as a teacher. This can be achieved through :

- Attending refresher courses, workshops, seminars and conferences,
- Cultivating the habit of reading new books, journals on the subject.

viii. Government duties

Currently the teachers including special teachers are called upon to do certain duties for the Government, such as:

- Election and/or census work,
- Participation in health programmes promoted by Government e.g pulse polio, health camps, etc.

ix. Duties related to extra curricular activities

The teachers are expected to train and prepare their pupils to participate in the school's extra curricular activities such as elocution, dance, drama, sports, art competition.

3.5.3 Problems faced by the teachers of the deaf

Considering the heterogeneous nature of the children who enroll in schools for the deaf, the teachers have to face multifarious problems in dealing with the children. Some of these most commonly faced problems are as discussed below:

i. Multilingualism

The essential requirement for training in language and speech skills for the deaf is that the language spoken at home and the medium of instruction in school should be the same for optimum results. In most of the towns and cosmopolitan cities, however, deaf children who are enrolled in schools, usually come from family background where different languages are spoken. This negates teacher's efforts owing to lack of reinforcements to language usage at home hampering proper progress of the child.

ii. Vast difference in the cognitive entry behaviour of the children

It is seen that the socio economic background and the home environment affect a child's cognitive development to a great extent. The children from homes where they are treated with love and affection and where the parents and the siblings take interest in the child's progress, are found to be well-adjusted and better achievers than those who are deprived of such treatment at home. The latter group is naturally a problem for the teacher for whom she would be required to devote more time and attention.

iii. Difference in ages and hence maturity of the children and the number of children in the class

Young children love repetition and are interested in simple activities while slightly older children need more interesting, boisterous, stimulating and varied activities. The older children tend to get bored if activities are repeated for the purpose of reinforcement of relevant language and then they tend to disturb the class. When there is considerable difference in the ages and hence the maturity level of the children, the teacher finds it difficult to plan instructional activities to suit the whole class at all times. Grouping for instruction to overcome this problem, is only a partial solution.

The problems get multiplied if the children in the class are more than 6 or 8. Since the deaf children necessarily need lot of individual attention at the preschool stage, greater number of children in the class will render the instruction ineffective.

iv. Rampant illiteracy and apathy among the parents/carers

Instruction in school will be more effective if it is supplemented by appropriate reinforcement by the parents at home. Since the parents are many a time illiterate, the teacher cannot make use of written instructions for getting support from parents at home. Weekly meetings with the parents for the purpose of giving them guidance verbally could help to a certain extent.

In many cases, parents have the tendency, owing to various reasons, to avoid taking on an active role in the progress of the child leaving total responsibility of the education of the child on the school. This attitude of the parents negates the teacher's efforts.

v. Wide difference in the socio-economic background of the children

The difference in socio-economic background also has its effect on the teacher's planning of the instructions and the teacher has to be very skillful in managing the problems arising out of this; such as children from rich homes might bring fancy things and food to school which might give rise to jealousy, thefts, fights among children.

vi. Presence of additional disability such as mental retardation, vision problem, autism etc., in the child.

Children with additional disabilities naturally need much more attention, which the teacher may not be able to give when she is tutoring a group of children. Under the circumstances, such children not only tend to get neglected and taunted by the other children, but also they are likely to disturb the class too often thus distracting the teacher from carrying out her work.

- vii. **Insufficient support from the school authorities in terms of irregular payment of salaries, lack of proper teaching materials and other equipment necessary for teaching.**

Teachers in many schools in India have to face these problems, which lie entirely beyond their control.

3.6 SCHOOLS IN URBAN AREAS, AND SCHOOLS IN RURAL AREAS

The persons working in the rural areas would require MUCH greater effort to achieve in the villages what ever is possible in the town. Since the rural areas are sparsely populated, the number of disabled children reaching the special education centers would be limited. In such conditions, there is a fear of clubbing together, the children with different disabilities and being given identical management. The individual needs of such children should be properly attended to. Also, young children with disability in sensory perception (such as deafness) and multiple disabilities would require long-term management lasting for 10 –15 years. Such daily programmes would naturally require special trained teachers who have to be stationed in a village for many years. It is not easy to get trained teachers to work in these areas.

The deaf benefit considerably with the rich environment in the nursery for language growth, which the children in rural areas cannot get. The primary schools start at class 1 and rarely are there any nursery classes in the rural areas. The 'Anganwadi Workers' in many places are entrusted with the responsibility of training such children. But owing to the heavy work load and lack of knowledge of handling severe and profoundly deaf children, they are unable to perform the needful.

It is not possible and economically viable to set up large number of special schools covering the sparsely populated rural areas. Vocationalization of

special education for older children is a practical solution. This is discussed in detail in SESH Paper 1, Block 3. Voluntary agencies are also being encouraged and assisted by the Government to set up facilities for the purpose. Voluntary agencies are indeed implementing projects, establishing and managing schools with a zeal and dedication.

3.7 TECHNOLOGY AND EDUCATION OF THE DEAF

Educators of the deaf have continually tried to make use of developments in technology to compensate for the loss of hearing. Several devices have been tried as means to make the auditory-based language accessible to deaf children. Amplification devices such as hearing aids and cochlear implants which are expected to augment the residual hearing of children, and the electronic equipment used for speech training, are commonly used for the purpose. In addition, in actual classroom teaching to make it effective, various types of language materials have been and are being devised to support instructions for language development irrespective of the method being used. The major ones are as given below :

i. Teacher made material

This is material such as charts, flash cards, work cards, hand written books, etc. These are still widely used in schools for the deaf in India.

ii. Material in print

Textbooks, series of books, curricula for teaching at different levels, teaching manuals, etc.

The objective of all this material in print was to facilitate the work of the teachers by providing ready-made material for language teaching. Some textbook series begin with a small initial vocabulary and then progressed

through a series of lessons, vocabulary, phrase and sentences to be mastered by the children. The Clarke school for the deaf had developed a series of language of stories and drills (Crocker Jones, and Pratt, 1920-28), which consisted of 4 volumes of language practice exercises. The stories included new vocabulary and example of language objectives to be mastered, followed by practice in writing questions, review drills of previous lessons, comprehension questions and some more exercises. These books were a landmark in the development of media and material for handicapped children. Many more dedicated and innovative teachers of the deaf have prepared plenty of teaching material of similar type. The reading milestones series (Quigley and King, 1981-84) is the only basal-type reading programme that incorporates linguistic control while focusing on the interest and experiences of deaf children throughout the series. Syntactic structures are identified clearly and introduced in graduated steps of complexity. New vocabulary and idioms are introduced at a controlled rate. The scope and sequence of the programme are based on extensive research regarding the language comprehension and syntactic abilities of deaf children. It consists of 80 textbooks with accompanying work books and also includes placement assessments, teachers' guide lines and instructional strategies for each level.

In India, a set of large size Picture Charts with relevant vocabulary and a guide book for guidance for teaching language, has been published by N.C.E.R.T. Delhi in Hindi and by NASEOH India, in 9 other major Indian languages including English. A series of Work-books with focus on teaching strategies for grammatical language and lots of supportive exercises has been published in Hindi and Marathi by 'Chembur Colony Yuvak Mandal', Mumbai, which is used by teachers in a number of schools as reference books by teachers and work books by children in Maharashtra. There are efforts put in by many teachers to prepare material for teaching but they remain as

'material used in their schools only' because of their inability to put in efforts and expenses involved in printing and distribution.

iii. Educational Material and the use of electronic devices

These are being used widely in Western countries and some Asian countries like Japan. These include captioned films, overhead transparencies, movies, slide productions and material for programmed instructions.

The first major computer-assisted instruction project for the education of deaf children was 'PLATO', a teaching system that included data based management, individualized instructions. LOGO (Papert,1980) is a graphic software programme that was used with hearing impaired preschoolers as a means of introducing problem solving and creativity experiences without the need for complex language structures. The ALPHA Interactive Language Series (by Prinz and Nelson, 1985) includes a microcomputer-videodisk interface with additional hardware adaptations that allows very young deaf children to select a communiqué by pressing a series of picture keys. The words or phrases appear in print, signs, and animated graphics. The design and the flexibility of the system allows for the print and graphic expansion of vocabulary. Research results indicate that young deaf children between 2 and 6 years of age had a significant improvement in word and phrase identification, reading comprehension, and sentence construction and writing after using the system.

In western countries, use of Instructional technology has progressed very well through use of various audio-visuals and application of programmed instruction, computer assisted instruction and real time graphics, which provide effective learning environments for deaf students.

In India, a number of schools in urban areas have procured computers for use by teachers for preparing teaching material. However, although the intentions

are laudable, it is by no means easy to prepare the material, graphics needed to teach the variety of subjects and topics that the teacher has to teach. Few teachers have the necessary skills and the time to do the job well. In addition, it must be remembered, that language-learning takes place through live interaction in meaningful situations and not through computer instruction. A collection of suitable pictures for teaching various subjects could help considerably. The CD for the same can be prepared and used on the computer.

Logistics plays significant role in use of the electronic and other teaching material; all the material must be easily accessible to the teacher at all times. It will be helpful if material such as the Overhead Projector, transparencies and pens, and slide projector, T.V. etc., are kept suitably in one or two rooms, which have provision of curtains for darkening the rooms when required. The room should also have sitting arrangement for at least 20 children.

3.8 UNIT SUMMARY

Management of a school involves considerable planning and proper allocation of responsibilities. While the Principal as the head of the school, has the overall responsibility for maintaining proper discipline, smooth running of the day to day work, and most importantly providing the best education to the pupils, he cannot possibly do every thing by himself. The teachers and the other staff have to carry out their duties properly under his guidance and supervision.

The teachers and Principals of special schools for the deaf, in addition to all the regular duties, have to attend to some other important work such as provision and care of hearing aids, maintenance of electronic gadgets, conducting parent-guidance meetings etc. Keeping all types of important records is necessary for the proper functioning of the school.

Rehabilitation of the hearing impaired population in the Rural areas is a much more complicated task than in the urban areas. Efforts for community based rehabilitation are more viable in such areas.

In western countries, various audio-visual and computer assisted programmes are used for instruction of the deaf students. But in India, teachers and heads of schools will have to think of the chances of full fruitful utilization of such gadgets for instruction. The related problems involved as regards their maintenance, repairs and safe storage must also be given proper consideration before taking decision to purchase such expensive items.

3.9 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS (SELF-STUDY)

Visit 2 schools for the deaf each in the urban and the rural areas and compare their performance in terms of their overall functioning as regards space, trained teacher : pupil ratio, use of various teaching aids including amplification devices, methods of record keeping, general attendance of pupils etc.

3.10 ASSIGNMENTS

- i. Enlist briefly the main duties of the Principal and the teacher of the deaf.
- ii. Describe the electronic teaching devices that you have seen being used in the schools for the deaf.

3.11 POINTS FOR DISCUSSION/CLARIFICATION

After going through the unit you may like to have further discussion on some points or require certain clarifications for better understanding. Note down there points below:

3.11.1 Points for Discussion

3.11.2 Points for clarification

3.12 REFERENCES

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UNIT 5: SPEECH READING: CONCEPT, IMPORTANCE, PRE-REQUISITES, CHALLENGES AND ROLE OF TEACHER

- **Introduction**
- **Objectives**
- **Definitions**
- **Summary**
- **Revision**
- **Assignment/Activity**
- **Points For Discussion And Clarification**
- **References / Further Readings**

- **Introduction**

Some students with hearing impairment use the strategy of speech reading to enhance their understanding of oral language. This involves not only looking at the lip movement as a person speaks, but also at the facial expressions in order to determine the meaning of what is being said. In order to encourage speech reading, the teacher needs to face the student when talking. When the teacher's back is turned, the student is forced to rely solely on what he/she hears to gain information. By facing the student, the teacher is providing the

student with an extra assurance that he/she has understood the information correctly (Nausbaum, 2003). If the teacher needs to write any information on the board or overhead projector, it is important to do so before discussing the material (NDCS, 2004). This way, the students are not denied the chance to speech read while the teacher is writing down the important information. It is also important for the teacher to teach the other students to face each other when talking. In order to avoid singling out the student who is deaf or hard of hearing, the teacher can explain that it is common courtesy to face others when speaking to them, (The Ear Foundation, 1991). By doing this, the student with hearing impairment may feel more comfortable within the classroom and may be more willing to interact with peers.

- **Objectives**

Besides the appeal and applicability these "realistic" activities offer for children, there are some very important theoretical reasons not to focus only on what is seen on the lips. Speechreading, a term coined and used by professionals working with deaf and hard of hearing individuals, is a much broader activity, in which individuals utilize all available clues to understand what a person is saying. Speechreading does include lipreading, but also capitalizes on gestures and body language, facial expressions, situational clues, linguistic factors and any auditory input that is available to the individual (Kaplan, H. (1996). Speechreading. In M.J. Moseley and S. Baily (Eds.), *Communication Therapy: An Integrated Approach to Aural Rehabilitation*, 229-250. Washington, DC: Gallaudet University Press). Lipreading is the visual differentiation and comprehension of the sounds in words and sentences. Gestures or body language include any body

movement accompanying the spoken utterance that add meaning; for example "Go!" with a finger point. · Facial expressions are similar to body language and add information for the listener, such as the emotional tone of the comment and whether it is a statement or a question. · Situational clues that assist the deaf or hard of hearing listener are contextual cues such as a child's mother with her hands full standing in front of a door saying "Open the door please." · Linguistic factors that rely on the redundancy that is a natural part of language assist children who are becoming more familiar with spoken English. An example

A deaf or hard of hearing child with receptive spoken language skills (of any kind) and experiential practice using these skills is likely to know what to expect and experience greater success in a variety of settings that involve spoken communication. Speechreading skills can be an important part of developing independence and a feeling of confidence when encountering situations in which spoken language is appropriate or desired. Using this type of context-based practice, deaf and hard of hearing children, in any type of educational program, can experiment with a full array of communication tools and discover what works for them in a variety of academic and social situations, and later in their careers. For these reasons, speechreading is an important and beneficial feature of a communication therapy or training program. The focus of this type of training in speechreading enables deaf and hard of hearing children to anticipate what may be said in a given spoken language situation. This process of learning what to expect (situationally and linguistically) furthers the ability of a child to function in diverse situations in hearing society. Most deaf and hard of hearing children in any type of

educational setting can enjoy and later benefit from this type of guided exposure to spoken language presented in natural contexts. The goals and expectations are easily modified to suit the needs and abilities of each child. A possible additional benefit for children is the connection this type of work can have to literacy. While not thoroughly investigated, it is hypothesized by some researchers that some children's success in reading is related to an internal decoding system based on the spoken form of English. How this system is developed by the children is not yet clear. However, these activities have the potential to reinforce developing English literacy skills by linking both written and spoken forms of English with meaningful activities.

- **Definitions**

The question of whether or not to use voice when conducting speechreading practice is an important one. The recommendation--to use voice--is based on this guide's broad definition of speechreading. If a child has some residual hearing, then speechreading in natural contexts will most often include access to some sound. The only caveat to this "rule" is when the task is speechreading/lipreading, and the child has good auditory skills that preclude the need for visual input for the child to understand. In other words, if the child can hear and understand the message without looking, but lipreading practice is the goal, the clinician needs to present items "voice-off." Another strategy for increasing the level of challenge for these children is to add noise to the situation. Cafeteria noise at varying levels can add that needed challenge to role play situations. Another option is to involve the child in a three- or four-way conversation to add challenge. Alternate Strategies For the Teacher: If a child is having difficulty at a given level, some modifications can be made. The number of possible response choices can be reduced to a

level that allows mastery. This modification is demonstrated in the above hierarchy for task difficulty. Begin with a choice of two, and then add more choices as appropriate and as the child succeeds. · Select choices that vary more dramatically from one another (mouth movement, syllable number, etc.). For example, father and mother are more easily discriminated than mother and brother. · Have the choices available in print form. It helps the child to remember the options and can reinforce literacy skills. · It is very important to use a language that is fully accessible to all the students to ensure comprehension and student involvement for pre-activity discussion, explanation, brainstorming and for post-activity discussion and processing. However, if sign language is to be used within the specific choice task, it should be only in response to a child's request for clarification (or the clinician's judgment that it is warranted). The goal of these activities is not to frustrate the student or to force the use of spoken language. Sign language should be utilized without hesitation to clarify when the student has no other strategy for identifying the target word/phrase or asks for help in deciphering a message. The sign language used should support the comprehension needs/preferences of the student. Therefore, in an ASL program, this prediction work, as well as all the preliminary and follow-up discussions, can be conducted (voice-off) in American Sign Language.

- **Summary**

Some students with hearing impairment use the strategy of speech reading to enhance their understanding of oral language. This involves not only looking at the lip movement as a person speaks, but also at the facial expressions in order to determine the meaning of what is being said. In order to encourage speech reading, the teacher needs to face the student when talking. When the

teacher's back is turned, the student is forced to rely solely on what he/she hears to gain information. By facing the student, the teacher is providing the student with an extra assurance that he/she has understood the information correctly (Naussbaum, 2003). If the teacher needs to write any information on the board or overhead projector, it is important to do so before discussing the material (NDCS, 2004). This way, the students are not denied the chance to speech read while the teacher is writing down the important information. It is also important for the teacher to teach the other students to face each other when talking. In order to avoid singling out the student who is deaf or hard of hearing, the teacher can explain that it is common courtesy to face others when speaking to them, (The Ear Foundation, 1991). By doing this, the student with hearing impairment may feel more comfortable within the classroom and may be more willing to interact with peers.

Lighting plays an important role in the classroom. Many classrooms have florescent lights and windows that can cause shadows throughout the classroom. These lights can also cause a glare for people who are looking towards them. When a teacher stands with his/her back to a window, the students facing the teacher may see a glare (The Ear Foundation, 1991). Many students may look away from the teacher and concentrate solely on what the teacher is saying. For a student that relies heavily on speech reading, the backlighting causes them to rely mostly on auditory information, as he/she cannot see the speaker. In order to keep this from happening, the teacher must be aware of the lighting throughout the classroom. It might be easier to keep the blinds on the windows shut in order to eliminate one cause of glare and shadows. It is important for the teacher to watch the students within the classroom for cues as to whether or not there is a glare. If many students are looking away, squinting, or using their hand to block off part of

the light, chances are there is a glare on the speaker. When a teacher spots these signals, he/she should move to another area of the room and then continue talking (Nausbaum, 2003; The Ear Foundation, 1991; Tacchi, 2005).

The teacher's placement within the classroom also plays a major role in a student's ability to speech read. The teacher needs to remember to stay in the same area or spot as much as possible. If the teacher is constantly walking around the classroom or pacing, the student who is speech reading will be forced to follow the speaker with his/her eyes as well as try to understand what is being said (NDCS, 2004).

When some people meet a person who is deaf or hard of hearing, they try to speak louder and slower. As a teacher, it is important to remember to speak as naturally and clearly as possible. The students are used to listening to daily conversations that are spoken at a normal rate. For this reason, and to allow for easier speech reading, speaking with too loud or soft a volume, or more quickly or slowly than normal speech can cause difficulty in comprehension of what has been said. People may think that by speaking slower they are allowing the person who is hard of hearing or deaf more time to comprehend what has been said, but in fact, they are making it harder to speech read, as the movements of the face are different from when a person is speaking naturally. It is not only important for the teacher to speak naturally, but to ensure that the student's peers do as well (Nausbaum, 2003; Tacchi, 2005).

Speech reading is easiest when standing between three and six feet away from the person to whom you are speaking. A teacher with a child who relies heavily on speech reading should always keep this in mind. If you are too close, the student might have a hard time seeing your entire face as well

as watching your body language. If you are too far away, the student will have to try harder to see your face clearly enough to speech read (The Ear Foundation, 1991).

Before beginning discussions, lecturing, giving directions, or any activity that requires listening, it is important for the teacher to gain students' attention and focus on the speaker. It will also provide them with a chance to refocus their attention before any critical information has been given, therefore allowing them the chance to sure to identify the speaker whenever a new person begins talking. This means that the teacher must identify the new speaker by name, including when students are asking or answering questions during discussions. This will allow all students the chance to give the new speaker undivided attention (NDCS, 2004).

Insisting on the rule of one speaker at a time is essential, so that a child who is wearing a hearing aid will hear everything and avoid difficulties distinguishing among the noises within the classroom. By insisting on the rule of one speaker at a time, the teacher is allowing a student the chance to focus solely on the person speaking and not on tuning out background noise (Peake, 2005).

- **Revision**

Lighting plays an important role in the classroom. Many classrooms have florescent lights and windows that can cause shadows throughout the classroom. These lights can also cause a glare for people who are looking towards them. When a teacher stands with his/her back to a window, the students facing the teacher may see a glare (The Ear Foundation, 1991). Many students may look away from the teacher and concentrate solely on

what the teacher is saying. For a student that relies heavily on speech reading, the backlighting causes them to rely mostly on auditory information, as he/she cannot see the speaker. In order to keep this from happening, the teacher must be aware of the lighting throughout the classroom. It might be easier to keep the blinds on the windows shut in order to eliminate one cause of glare and shadows. It is important for the teacher to watch the students within the classroom for cues as to whether or not there is a glare. If many students are looking away, squinting, or using their hand to block off part of the light, chances are there is a glare on the speaker. When a teacher spots these signals, he/she should move to another area of the room and then continue talking (Nausbaum, 2003; The Ear Foundation, 1991; Tacchi, 2005).

- **Assignment/Activity**

POINTS FOR DISCUSSIONS / CLARIFICATION

After going through the unit you may like to have further discussion on some points and clarification. Note down those points:-

Points for Discussion

- **References / Further Readings**

- Ellen Tacchi, M.A.T. and Angela Peake, M.A.T.Trinity University
- A Sharing Ideas series paper by the Laurent Clerc National Deaf Education Center, Gallaudet University

BLOCK 3: SPEECH INTERVENTION STRATEGIES

**UNIT 1: APPROACHES TO TEACHING
SPEECH: AUDITORY GLOBAL APPROACH;
MULTI-SENSORY SYLLABLE UNIT
APPROACH; LING'S APPROACH**

- **Introduction**
- **Objectives**
- **Definitions**
- **Summary**
- **Revision**
- **Assignment/Activity**
- **Points For Discussion And Clarification**
- **References / Further Readings**

- **Introduction**

Since the 1997 Green Paper, Excellence for All Children, the government has made a firm commitment to a high quality of education for pupils with special educational needs (SEN). It has recognised that building the capacity of teachers and schools to teach pupils with a diverse range of SEN is key to raising the achievement of these pupils. To this end, it commissioned this

scoping study in order to map out and assess the effectiveness of the different approaches and strategies used to teach pupils with the full range of SEN. More specifically the research aimed to:

- Undertake a literature review which will broaden understanding of the different learning profiles of pupils with a range of SEN and identify the best ways of teaching them as recommended by the various theoretical perspectives of teaching and learning.
- Demonstrate the effectiveness of these different approaches/strategies in raising the achievement of pupils with SEN.
- Identify the most effective teaching approaches and strategies for pupils with the full range of SEN at different phases of their learning.
- Make recommendations for the focus and development of future research in this area.

With these aims in mind, we formulated a series of questions to guide the study as follows:

- (i) What are the principal theoretical perspectives that indicate or reflect effective teaching approaches/strategies for pupils with SEN?
- (ii) What is the evidence that these strategies and approaches are successful in raising the achievement (academic, emotional, social, behavioural) of pupils with SEN?
- (iii) What is the evidence that these strategies and approaches are successful for pupils with SEN at different stages of their learning?
- (iv) What are the distinctive approaches, identified from the answers to i), ii) and iii) above, that can form the basis for the development of new initiatives/materials that can be evaluated during the second phase of the research?
- (v) How can schools and LEAs make most effective use of best practice knowledge in relation to teaching approaches and strategies in planning for pupils with SEN?
- (vi) To what extent are these approaches and strategies consistent with current knowledge regarding the development of inclusive schools?

- **Objectives**

A two-phased strategy for meeting the project aims and answering the research questions was adopted. The first three questions guided the literature review which was undertaken during July and August 2003. The findings of the review were then analysed in relation to the second three questions which relate to the future development of teaching strategies and approaches for pupils with special educational needs. Mapping the effectiveness of different approaches and strategies employed to respond to the full range of children's special educational needs is a complex task because the field is broad, covering a range of educational needs across all phases of education. This scoping study drew upon national and international publications, including reviews of research findings, individual research reports and professional guidance for teachers. One of the key factors we considered was the extent to which the review should be led by literature that refers to categories of impairment in the field of SEN. It was decided to adopt the 'areas of need' as defined in the SEN Code of Practice as a feasible means of grouping the literature under a manageable number of headings. This strategy would include all pupils having some form of SEN as well as being generally understood by parents, practitioners and policy-makers. The areas of need are: • Communication and Interaction • Cognition and Learning • Behaviour, Emotional and Social Development • Sensory and/or Physical Cross-university teams were organised around these four areas which we called strands. Each strand was led by a faculty member from either Cambridge or Manchester who liaised with a counterpart in the other institution. In this way team leaders were supported by a link colleague who organised and coordinated the contribution of colleagues and research assistants within their institution. The strand teams were steered by the project managers. The

search strategy relied on three main sources of information: • Professional knowledge and bibliographic input from team members • Online searches of relevant databases • Library catalogue searches These approaches were chosen for their efficiency, to enable the work to be completed in the specified time, and comprehensiveness, to enable the international literature to be searched. The sources and the search strategy are described in detail in Appendix A. It should be noted that the brief for this project was to undertake a scoping study rather than a full-scale systematic literature review. As this scoping study was not commissioned as a systematic review, we did not restrict our search to research which involved controlled clinical approaches to the study of teaching approaches and interventions. This was important as many systematic reviews exclude numerous interventions, not because they are ineffective, but because their effects have not been documented by the specific research designs specified in the selection criteria. A bibliography listing all of the sources identified during the course of the project is included in Appendix B. The work presented here is based on professional knowledge and bibliographic input from the research team as well as online searches of relevant databases. We searched widely for literature 9 reviews and studies which reported on teaching strategies for pupils with special educational needs in order to survey the current scene in terms of topics, approaches, key theoretical concepts and to identify seminal works. Specific review criteria were not applied, nor were sources subjected to the rigorous scrutiny of a systematic review.

Definitions

Behavioural models of learning focus on observable outcomes of learning as influenced predominately by the key principles of reinforcement theory in different learning contexts. This theory considers all behaviour is learned according to rules which shape, change or sustain it. Cognitive-behavioural approaches take account of the capacity of individuals to understand and reflect on their behaviour. The advantages of this model lie primarily in the positive, practical outlook, the clear signs of success, and the ways in which the setting of specific targets allows all those involved in teaching and learning to understand the goals and expectations for individuals and groups of pupils. However these approaches have been criticised for an overly narrow focus on measurable learning outcomes, when it is known that many aspects of knowledge and understanding are not directly observable and measurable in the required form. There is also an acknowledged danger of pupils' coming to rely on extrinsic rewards for achieving success. Constructivist models of learning are those in which children are seen as active participants in the processes of seeking out knowledge, making sense of their experiences and gaining intrinsic satisfaction from learning and solving problems. Constructivist learning is seen to be a transformative experience which opens up opportunities for further learning as children gain greater depth of understanding and increasingly flexible ways of representing their knowledge and dealing with new information. Related to this approach is social constructivism or sociocultural theory. Here children's active role in learning is set in the context of their membership of social groups and communities (such as classrooms and schools) which jointly create knowledge through their engagement in purposeful and valued activities. 10

Ecological models of learning focus less on the individual learner and more on the interaction or 'goodness-of-fit' between the learner and his or her environment. Ecological models operate within a concept of 'nested systems' or 'levels' often referred to as bio, micro, meso, macro exo, chronosystems (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998). In such a model the learner is situated in the centre of the system interacting at various levels each of which are part of a larger system, for example, the level of the classroom (micro level), the level of the school not involving the child directly (macro level) and society (macro level). Teaching strategies and approaches often focus at a micro level but acknowledge or incorporate activity at broader levels. The mesosystem refers to the relationships between two or more settings in which the child participates. Such an approach allows consideration of the role of such things as school or community culture in learning.

- **Summary**

There is a diversity of communication and interaction needs and, indeed, a wide variation in the terminology used to refer to this group of children. It is also important to note that the nature of these needs may change over time, as may the ways in which these impact upon children's learning. It is also difficult to equate the terminology used in much of the research literature with the classifications used in the Pupil Level Annual Schools Census (PLASC), since some of the literature regarding severe learning difficulties (SLD), or profound and multiple learning difficulties (PMLD), tends to be inextricably linked with a consideration of communication and interaction. Consequently, for the purposes of this review it was decided to think about the children associated with this strand in terms of in three broad groupings.

These are as follows: – Children with speech, language and communication needs (SLCN). In much of the research literature, children with SLCN are referred to as having specific speech and or language impairments (SSLI), or as children with specific speech and or language difficulties (SSLD). Here the work of Dockrell and Lindsay, (2000) has been influential in that they went some way towards establishing a common terminology for those children who are unable to express themselves in the normal effortless way as their peers, and where the difficulty cannot be attributed to physical or sensory impairments, (Bishop, 1997; Adams Byers Brown and Edwards, 1997). Such communication difficulties are said to affect about 7.4% of the child population (Tomblin, Records, Buckwater et al., 1997). – Children with communication and interaction difficulties associated with severe and profound learning difficulties. This group of children tend to communicate at an early intentional or pre-intentional level. They may adopt atypical, idiosyncratic, non-verbal or augmentative (assisted) methods of interacting with the world around them (Coupe-O’Kane and Goldbart, 1998). Intervention aims may vary from bringing the child’s language skills up to an age equivalent level, engendering social interaction with peers, using basic cognitive processes to develop information handling and management within the curriculum, removing obstacles to enable the child to participate in learning and the life of the school (See Dee, Byers, Hayhoe and Maudslay, 2002 and Byers, 1998, in relation to children and young people with more complex communication difficulties). – Children with Autistic Spectrum Disorders (ASD). This term covers a range of pervasive developmental disorders which include ‘classic’ autism (often in association with additional learning difficulties), for instance: • Asperger syndrome which is sometimes referred to as ‘high functioning autism’; • Heller’s and Rett’s syndromes

(these two being degenerative conditions that may exhibit autistic features (e.g. see Dempsey and Foreman, 2001); and pervasive developmental disorder (PDD-NOS). Children in this group are seen as displaying deficits in three key areas, atypical communication and social development, adherence to ritualistic behaviour, plus a resistance to change (Howlin, 1998), with variable age of onset. Figures for incidence and prevalence vary widely because of the variety of labels used in different studies.

2.2 The nature of the evidence

12 The literature that was reviewed points to the following: – There is a high proportion of professionally-oriented practitioner accounts in relation to this strand (e.g. Spooner 2002 and Lees and Urwin, 1998 for SLCN), which typically are either functional in approach or involve highly specialised test-retest models. – Carefully controlled comparative studies are rare (See Panerai, Ferrante and Zingale, 2002 in relation to ASD for an example), as are studies evaluating specific teaching approaches (See Jordan, Jones and Murray 1998 for ASD; Law 2000 for SLCN). – Studies tend to involve small numbers of subjects, are frequently ill-defined, use nonstandardised or non-replicable methods of assessment and are described in insufficient details to enable their replication. – Measurement of outcomes using established tests has only recently started to appear in the literature. There are a few high quality longitudinal studies that are following pupil progression through school (for example, see the work of Botting, Conti-Ramsden and Crutchley, 1998, and Knox 2002).

2.3 Principal theoretical perspectives under-pinning the research literature

Several theoretical perspectives appear to underpin this literature. The field is complicated by the differing perspectives from which the research originates, e.g. psycholinguistic, (work on SSLI by Bishop 1997), behaviourist perspectives (e.g. influencing some ASD pedagogies), and developmental-interactionist or

social constructivist perspectives, which are sometimes found in methods used with children with more complex communication and interaction difficulties. Preferred theoretical perspectives are also influenced by whether the researcher comes from a teaching, clinical therapeutic and or neuropsychological background. This, in part, explains the complexity of complementary terminologies used in the context of this strand. The main overall models are as follows: Behavioural: methods associated with this perspective usually involve imitation, shaping, rehearsal reinforcement, usually task or skill specific. Targets are designed to be defined and measurable. Cognitive: here the focus is usually on using and developing basic cognitive processes to improve skills in information storage, processing, organizing and retrieval. This may be at a phonological processing level, word level (semantics and grammar or syntactic level), or sentence level. Other related perspectives include different models of auditory memory, and approaches that examine how different aspects of language are stored and called up when needed. Developmental: this perspective involves an analysis of the developmental stages through which a child is believed to pass. Although still prevalent in some literature, this model is no longer exclusive. Naturalistic approaches, as opposed to 'direct' teaching methods, may sometimes be included within this framework. Interactionist: this perspective is known by a number of names, including experiential learning. It emphasises the development of meaningful relationships with the child's environment, instead of teaching of skills in isolation. The child is encouraged to gain from positive experiences of communication and interaction, to solve problems, and to devise and use a variety of increasingly complex communicative intentions and strategies.

- **Revision**

The literature highlights what seem to be some promising approaches to teaching, as well as examples of good practice. These include:

- Early identification and intervention Early intervention is key to implementing successful teaching strategies for pupils with ASD as well as children with language impediments (Fraser, 1998).
- Involvement of parents and families in a collaborative partnership. See, for example, the work of Shields (2001) in relation to children with ASD, and the account of the Hanen Programme (e.g. Manolsen 1992) for those with SLCN.
- Collaborative working with other agencies in a child centred approach. This is particularly important since support services may have differing foci on the form and purpose of the intervention they envisage (see Wright and Kersner 1998; Law, Lindsay, Peacey et al., 2000; Law, Lindsay et al., 2001 for children with SLCN).
- Teaching approaches that adopt additional (visual) reinforcement strategies to supplement verbal instruction (see Chiat, Law and Marshall, 1997 for children with SLCN; Siegel 2000 for children with ASD) and be conducted alongside typically developing peers (e.g. McConnell 2002 for children with ASD).
- An emphasis on teaching language and cognitive process, and the strategies needed for effective generalisation through varying degrees of structure designed to match the child's needs (see, for example, Adams and Conti-Ramsden 1995 for children with 'SLCN').

Beyond these general conclusions, there is some benefit in considering the approaches to teaching the three sub-groups identified within this strand separately, since there is some evidence suggesting that the needs of the children in each of these groups will likely be best addressed by different means. Some promising teaching approaches and strategies for each of the three groups are provided below:

- **Assignment/Activity**

This group of children is often described in terms of a developmental delay or disorder. Many children experience delays during childhood affecting their speech or language development. For the majority of children these difficulties resolve themselves with maturation and/or as a result of therapy. A language disorder is suspected when there is a discrepancy between verbal and non-verbal cognitive ability. • Reports of approaches and teaching strategies have generally focused on placement, intervention and curriculum differentiated provision using highly individualised, child specific programmes. • The type of intervention available varies according to geographical area, whether the speech, language and communication needs are primary or secondary to other difficulties, e.g. 14 behaviour problems or attention difficulties, and systemic arrangements (Law, Lindsay, Peacey et al., 2000). • Children with SLCN were noted to benefit particularly from mainstream education with additional support mechanisms, especially in the early years, but also extending into secondary education. (Conti-Ramsden, Knox et al., 2002).

POINTS FOR DISCUSSIONS / CLARIFICATION

After going through the unit you may like to have further discussion on some points and clarification. Note down those points:-

- References / Further Readings

Law, Lindsay, Peacey et al., 2000

Conti-Ramsden, Knox et al., 2002

UNIT 2: FORMULATION OF LESSON PLAN: LONG TERM GOALS; SHORT TERM GOALS; ACTIVITIES FOR TEACHING CORRECT PRODUCTION OF VARIOUS VOWELS AND CONSONANTS

- **Introduction**
- **Objectives**
- **Definitions**
- **Summary**
- **Revision**
- **Assignment/Activity**
- **Points For Discussion And Clarification**
- **References / Further Readings**

- **Introduction**

A lesson plan is a plan for learning. As is true in most activities, the quality of planning affects the quality of results. Successful executives and

professional people know that the price of excellence is careful preparation. A lawyer spends hours planning a case before appearing in court. A minister does not ad-lib a sermon but plans days or weeks in advance. In anticipation of the big game, the coach spends hours planning the plays and watching the team execute them. Should we attempt such a complicated process as learning with less attention than is given to other important activities? The answer is obvious: of course not. The effective instructor devotes much time and energy in carefully planning and preparing each lesson, whether the lesson encompasses one or several periods of instruction. To ensure the greatest probability of learning, we must carefully select and arrange activities that will produce the desired learning outcomes in our students. Only through careful planning can we be certain that we include all necessary information and have our lesson plan properly organized to achieve the lesson objective. The complete cycle of lesson planning includes eight steps: (1) Determine the objective (2) Research the topic as defined by the objective (3) Select the appropriate instructional method (4) Identify a usable lesson planning format (5) Decide how to organize the lesson (6) Choose appropriate support material (7) Prepare the beginning and ending of the lesson (8) Prepare a final outline.

- **Objectives**

Often we will begin our lesson planning with an objective or objectives clearly in mind. At other times the objective may be shaped by the research and additional planning we do. In other words, although the first step of the lesson planning process is to determine the objective, our objective may not fully evolve until after we have completed other steps of the process. Objectives need to be student-centered. We should not state them in terms of

what we want to teach, but rather they should be stated in terms of what we want our students to learn. For instance, the objective of a lesson on developing a lesson plan might be for each student to know the eight steps of effective lesson planning as listed in this chapter. Of course the lesson might be taught at higher than the knowledge level. We might want each student to comprehend the eight steps appropriate to effective lesson planning or even to be able to apply the eight steps of lesson planning. But whatever the level, the student-centered objective should guide our subsequent planning. Without a clear objective, we won't know if we ever get there. Think about that statement. Researching The Topic. After we have written or been provided with an instructional objective, we are ready to decide on the main points of the lesson and gather materials about the lesson topic. Normally we do not collect a mass of research materials and then develop an objective to match the findings. Not only is this latter approach inefficient, but it is also likely to be ineffective. It may well ignore the specific needs of the students. The objective should determine the research that needs to be done. On the other hand, research may justify a decision to modify an objective or rearrange main points for greater accuracy or clarity. Usefulness and appropriateness are two important criteria for selecting relevant material. To be appropriate, information should relate to the lesson objective and have a high possibility for student retention. To be useful, it should aid both the instructor and the students in the teaching-learning process. If the instructor selects material solely on the basis of its interest value, a lesson may be filled with interesting information of little learning value to the student. On the other hand, dry, uninteresting facts even though they are very important-may also defeat the instructor's purpose. Students are more likely to grasp and retain facts and concepts that are enriched with interesting support material

and arranged in a way that enhances learning. With the objective clearly in mind, we are now ready to gather actual material or do research on the subject. The sources for this material are our own experiences, the experience of others which we gain through conversation and interviews, and written or observed material. Instructors concerned with teaching a good lesson will often draw from all of these sources.

Self. The first step in researching a lesson topic is to see what we ourselves know about the subject. Our personal knowledge may suggest a tentative organization, but more important, it will point up gaps in our knowledge where we need further research.

Others. The second step in the research process is to draw on the experience of others. People who are interested in the topic may provide ideas during the course of conversation. The most fruitful source is the expert who may help us clarify our thinking, provide facts and testimony, and suggest sources for further research. While personal experience, conversation, and interviews provide valuable content for lessons, we must usually do further research elsewhere.

If we have properly narrowed our subject and kept the purpose in mind, our research task will be easier.

Library. Modern libraries provide us with an abundance of sources: books, newspapers, popular magazines, scholarly journals, abstracts, subject files, and microfilms. Quantity is no problem; quality is more difficult. We must always concern ourselves with the accuracy and relevance of the material we select. Using an article from 1950 to discuss atomic physics today might well lead to inaccurate, irrelevant conclusions. The next step in the research process is to evaluate the material gathered. We will probably find that we have enough material for several lessons. We must now combine some ideas, eliminate others, and perhaps expand on what we found in the research materials. We will also want to give special attention to the types of support material we have selected

(definitions, examples, comparisons, statistics, and testimony). Later in this chapter we will discuss types of support material in detail. Sometimes we have an organizational pattern in mind before we start. If not, as we gather our material, we will probably see that the ideas are beginning to form into some type of pattern. Later in this chapter, we will discuss ways of organizing the lesson. During the research phase, the instructor is likely to find material that students should read to prepare for a given class session. If we keep this possibility in mind when we begin our research, we can prepare a suggested student reading list and save time in selecting student references. When deciding on supplementary reading for the students, we should choose interesting and informative materials that reinforce or support the lesson objectives.

- **Definitions**

Our vocabularies are filled with words which refer to time: now, tomorrow, yesterday, today, sooner, later, earlier, last week, a month from now, four years ago, next time. We work, play, sleep, and eat at certain times. Major events in our lives are organized by time: births, engagements, marriages, deaths. Time or the chronological pattern of lesson organization is a natural way of arranging events in the sequence of order in which they happened, or in giving directions in the order to be followed in carrying them out. This kind of organization is sometimes called sequential organization. Certain processes, procedures, or historical movements and developments can often be explained best with a time sequence pattern. The medical technician presenting a lesson on mouth-to-mouth resuscitation would probably use the time order for the main points: (1) preliminary steps-proper body position, mouth open, tongue and jaw forward (2) the mouth-to-mouth process (3)

caring for the patient once breathing resumes. Time order is also a logical approach to lessons dealing with such subjects as "How to Pack a Parachute," "Development of the F-15 Fighter," or How to Prepare a Speech." Furthermore, any lesson on a subject with several phases lends itself well to the time pattern. For example, given an objective for students to know the three planned phases of the Common Market (where phase one was to precede phase two, and phase two precede phase three), a lesson might have these main points: (1) Phase one-a customs union where nations agreed to reduce duties, (2) Phase two-an economic union allowing laborers and goods to move freely across national borders, (3) Phase three-a political union with national representatives as members of a common parliament and using a common currency. Of course, rather than looking forward in time from a given moment, the strategy might be to look backward from a point in time. In other words, the strategy might be to move from recent to earlier time rather than 'from early to late. Regardless of which strategy is used, the flow of the lesson and the transitions should make the chronological relationships between main points clear to the students. Space. A spatial or geographical pattern is effective in describing relationships. When using this pattern, the lesson material is developed according to some directional strategy such as east to west or north to south. For instance, if an instructor were describing the domino theory of guerrilla infiltration, a good strategy would make the main points of the lesson correspond to the geographical locations of various nations. With lessons about certain objects, the strategy might be to arrange the main points from top to bottom or bottom to top. A fire extinguisher might be described from top to bottom, an organizational chart from the highest ranks to the lowest in the organization, a library according to the services found on the first floor, then the second, and finally those on the

third. Sometimes, the strategy is to organize the lesson from the center to the outside. For example, the control panel in an airplane might be discussed by describing first those instruments in the center most often used, then by moving out toward the surrounding instruments which are used least often. In all lessons arranged spatially, we need to introduce each aspect or main point according to some strategy. Just as with a lesson organized by time, the subject matter and the transitions should include elaboration and clarification of how the main points relate to one another. A simple listing of the various objects or places without elaboration as to how they are related may confuse the students and make the points harder to remember.

Cause/Effect. A cause/effect pattern of organization is used in a lesson where one set of conditions is given as a cause for another set. In such lessons we may use one of two basic strategies to arrange our main points. With a cause/effect strategy, we begin with a given set of conditions and show that these will produce or have already produced certain results or effects. With an effect-cause strategy, we take a certain set of conditions as the effects and allege that they resulted from certain causes. The cause-effect strategy might be used in a lesson concerning the increasing number of women in the Air Force. The lesson might first discuss the fact that women are now assuming more responsible leadership roles in the Air Force. One effect of women assuming such roles might be that women are joining the Air Force with increasing frequency. The effect-cause strategy might be used in a lesson on child abuse. The first point might explain the effects of child abuse upon the children themselves, the parents, and even on society. The second point might suggest that the causes are that parents themselves were abused as children or that they lack proper education on parenting. Whichever strategy is used, two cautions must be observed: (1) Beware of false causes. Just

because one event or circumstance precedes another does not mean that the former causes the latter. Many persons assume that "First A happened, and then B took place, so A must have caused B." (2) Beware of single causes. Few things result from a single cause. There may be several causes and they may not act independently. Their effect may be greater or less than the sum of their parts. Lack of safety features on automobiles does not by itself cause most highway accidents, but this cause plus careless driving and unsafe highways may, in combination, account for many highway accidents.

Problem-Solution. This pattern, sometimes called the disease-remedy pattern or the needsatisfaction pattern, presents students with a problem and then proposes a way to solve it. With this pattern we must show that a problem exists and then offer a corrective action that is (1) practical, (2) desirable, (3) capable of being put into action, and (4) able to relieve the problem. It must also be one that does not introduce new and worse evils of its own. For example, the issue of controlling nuclear weapons has long been debated. Those against control argue that erosion of national sovereignty from arms control is more dangerous than no control. There are different strategies we might employ when using the problem-solution method. If the students are aware of the problem and the possible solutions, we might discuss the problem briefly, mention the possible solutions, and then spend more time in showing why one solution is better than others. For instance, our objective is for students to comprehend that solar energy is the best solution to the energy crisis. Our main points might be: (1) the world is caught in the grip of an energy crisis, (2) several solutions are possible, and (3) solar energy is the best long-term solution. If the students are not aware of the problem or need, we may describe in detail the exact nature of the problem. Sometimes when students become aware of the problem, the solution becomes evident, and

little time is needed to develop the solution in the lesson. At other times we need to spend time developing both the problem and the solution. Still another strategy is to alternate or stagger portions of the problem with portions of the solution. For example, the cost of a project may be seen as one problem, workability another, time to do the project as a third. Taking each in turn and providing solutions to cost, work ability, and time as we present these aspects of the problem may be more satisfying to students than if we had discussed all of the problem and then its total solution. Whatever strategy is used, with the problem solution pattern students must become aware that a problem exists before a solution will be agreed upon.

- **Summary**

Selecting Instructional Methods. After deciding exactly what to teach, the instructor determines how best to teach it and what instructional method to use. When related to instruction, "method" refers to a combination of techniques or skills used by the instructor to engage students in meaningful learning experiences. A method is a broad approach to instruction-for example, the lecture method or the guided discussion method. A technique, on the other hand is a specific concrete skill or procedure used in implementing a method-for example, the technique of using the chalkboard or of using an analogy as support material. Philosophy Underlying Selection. We should choose a teaching method suited to the student's needs as a learner. In making the selection, we consider the ways that people learn: by doing, by discussing, by listening, by observing, by participating. We should select the instructional method that will most effectively guide students toward desired learning outcomes. Our role is to select the method and the techniques that will result in a meaningful learning experience. The Selection

Process. No one method is suitable for all teaching situations, because no single method is sufficiently flexible to meet the needs of students in every learning situation. In general, as we have seen, the nature of a learning outcome suggests the type of activity that will be most helpful to the students in achieving that outcome. If, for example, we want students to gain skill in performing a certain task, one of the activities should be practice in performing the task. If the desired outcome is knowledge, students should observe, listen, or read so they can relate what they are learning to their own experience. If students must learn to apply a principle, the instructor should ask them to solve problems or perform tasks requiring an application of that principle. The instructional approach we choose for one learning outcome may be different from the approaches that we select for other outcomes in the same lesson. Our primary concern is to plan and select the most appropriate approach for students to achieve each outcome.

Lesson Planning Format.

Good lesson planning is essential for any systematic approach to instruction. Although many instructors become discouraged by the time required for good lesson planning, a well written and properly used lesson plan can be a very worthwhile teaching aid. Experienced instructors use written lesson plans for a variety of purposes. They can be checkpoints to ensure well-planned learning experiences. They can serve as teaching guides during lessons and as references for other instructors who may teach for us in emergencies. They also serve as convenient records of an instructor's planning techniques and methods of teaching. One of the most practical functions of lesson plans is that they serve as step-by-step guides for instructors in developing teaching and learning activities. Authorities differ about the content and form of lesson plans, and many commands and schools have developed their own formats to satisfy particular needs. On the whole,

however, most authorities generally agree on the essential characteristics of a good lesson plan. Figure 6.1 lists these characteristics, as well as those items of information which they routinely include. Organizing The Lesson. After we have researched the topic, selected the appropriate instructional method, and identified the lesson planning format to use, we must decide how to organize the lesson. Every lesson needs an introduction, body, and conclusion. In most instances the body of the lesson should be prepared before the introduction or conclusion. After we prepare the body or main part of the lesson, we will be in a better position to begin or conclude the lesson. The first consideration in planning the body is how to organize the main points, but organization of sub-points is also important. Arrangement of the main points and sub-points of a lesson will help both the instructor and the students-the instructor in teaching it and the students in learning. Most lessons, regardless of their length, divide nicely into from two to five main points. The typical ways of organizing main or sub-points of a lesson are by the patterns of time, space, cause-effect, problem-solution, pro-con, or topic. Furthermore, certain strategies can be used with each pattern from known to unknown, for instance, or from simple to complex. How does an instructor decide which patterns and strategies to use? The lesson material will often organize itself more easily with one pattern and strategy than with another. Let us consider how various patterns and strategies can be used to organize the main points of a lesson.

Revision

The pro-con pattern, sometimes called the for-against pattern or advantages-disadvantages pattern, is similar to a problem-solution pattern in that the lesson is usually planned so as to lead to a conclusion. A major difference, however, is that fairly even attention is usually directed toward both sides of an issue with a pro-con pattern. There are various strategies to consider when using the pro-con pattern. One consideration is whether to present pro or con first. Another is whether to present both sides and let students draw their own conclusions or to present the material in such a way that students are led to accept the "school solution." For instance, with a lesson on the effects of jogging we have to decide whether to present the advantages or disadvantages first. Then we must decide whether to let students decide for themselves whether the advantages outweigh the disadvantages. Pro-con plus one is the label given to the organization used when we draw a final conclusion based on the two sides. When deciding the specific strategy to use with the pro-con pattern and determining how much time to spend on each, the following guidelines may be helpful: (1) giving both sides fairly even emphasis is most effective when the weight of evidence is clearly on the favored side; (2) presenting both sides is more effective when students may be initially opposed to the school solution; (3) presenting only the favored side is most effective when students already favor the school solution or conclusion; (4) presenting the favored side last is generally more favorable to its acceptance, especially if the side not favored is not shown in too strong a light. Topical. A topical division of the main points of a lesson involves determining categories of the subject or lesson objective. This type of categorizing or classifying often springs directly from the subject itself. For

instance, a lesson about a typical college population might be divided into topical divisions of freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors, with each class division serving as a main point. Housing might be discussed in terms of on-base and offbase housing. A lesson on the Minuteman intercontinental ballistic missile might be arranged with the main points of warhead, guidance, and propulsion systems. At times the material itself suggests certain strategies for ordering the main points. For instance, a lesson on levels-of-learning lesson planning would most likely begin with knowledge-level planning as the first main point, since knowledge-level lessons are generally simpler to understand. Then the lesson would move on through the hierarchy to comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and finally evaluation levels. In other words, our lesson would follow a simple-to-complex strategy in organizing the "topics" or levels-oflearning. Other topically organized lessons might follow strategies of known to unknown, general to specific, or specific to general. The number of strategies for arranging topical main points is practically infinite. The important consideration, as with any pattern, is that we give thought to the strategy of arrangement in order to improve student understanding and learning.

Combining Patterns. If we use a single pattern to organize the main points, our lessons will make more sense. We will be able to remember more readily what the main points are when we teach the lesson. Even more important, students will be able to follow the lesson more easily and retain the material if we use a single, logical pattern of organization. While we may choose a certain organizational pattern for the main points, we may decide to use different patterns for sub-points. Consider the following tentative outline of a lesson with an objective for students to know the importance of nonverbal factors of communication.

- **References / Further Readings**

(Aitken and Bultjens, 1992; Ware, 1996; 2003), or for intensive interaction (see Nind, 1996; Hewett and Nind, 1998)

UNIT 3: ORIENTATION TO ACOUSTICS OF SPEECH

- **Introduction**
- **Objectives**
- **Definitions**
- **Summary**
- **Revision**
- **Assignment/Activity**
- **Points For Discussion And Clarification**
- **References / Further Readings**

- **Introduction**

After deciding exactly what to teach, the instructor determines how best to teach it and what instructional method to use. When related to instruction, "method" refers to a combination of techniques or skills used by the instructor to engage students in meaningful learning experiences. A method is a broad approach to instruction-for example, the lecture method or the

guided discussion method. A technique, on the other hand is a specific concrete skill or procedure used in implementing a method-for example, the technique of using the chalkboard or of using an analogy as support material.

Philosophy Underlying Selection. We should choose a teaching method suited to the student's needs as a learner. In making the selection, we consider the ways that people learn: by doing, by discussing, by listening, by observing, by participating. We should select the instructional method that will most effectively guide students toward desired learning outcomes. Our role is to select the method and the techniques that will result in a meaningful learning experience.

The Selection Process. No one method is suitable for all teaching situations, because no single method is sufficiently flexible to meet the needs of students in every learning situation. In general, as we have seen, the nature of a learning outcome suggests the type of activity that will be most helpful to the students in achieving that outcome. If, for example, we want students to gain skill in performing a certain task, one of the activities should be practice in performing the task. If the desired outcome is knowledge, students should observe, listen, or read so they can relate what they are learning to their own experience. If students must learn to apply a principle, the instructor should ask them to solve problems or perform tasks requiring an application of that principle. The instructional approach we choose for one learning outcome may be different from the approaches that we select for other outcomes in the same lesson. Our primary concern is to plan and select the most appropriate approach for students to achieve each outcome.

Objectives

Good lesson planning is essential for any systematic approach to instruction. Although many instructors become discouraged by the time required for good lesson planning, a well written and properly used lesson plan can be a very worthwhile teaching aid. Experienced instructors use written lesson plans for a variety of purposes. They can be checkpoints to ensure well-planned learning experiences. They can serve as teaching guides during lessons and as references for other instructors who may teach for us in emergencies. They also serve as convenient records of an instructor's planning techniques and methods of teaching. One of the most practical functions of lesson plans is that they serve as step-by-step guides for instructors in developing teaching and learning activities. Authorities differ about the content and form of lesson plans, and many commands and schools have developed their own formats to satisfy particular needs. On the whole, however, most authorities generally agree on the essential characteristics of a good lesson plan. Figure 6.1 lists these characteristics, as well as those items of information which they routinely include.

Organizing The Lesson.

After we have researched the topic, selected the appropriate instructional method, and identified the lesson planning format to use, we must decide how to organize the lesson. Every lesson needs an introduction, body, and conclusion. In most instances the body of the lesson should be prepared before the introduction or conclusion. After we prepare the body or main part of the lesson, we will be in a better position to begin or conclude the lesson. The first consideration in planning the body is how to organize the main points, but organization of sub-points is also important. Arrangement of the main points and sub-points of a lesson will help both the instructor and the

students-the instructor in teaching it and the students in learning. Most lessons, regardless of their length, divide nicely into from two to five main points. The typical ways of organizing main or sub-points of a lesson are by the patterns of time, space, cause-effect, problem-solution, pro-con, or topic. Furthermore, certain strategies can be used with each pattern from known to unknown, for instance, or from simple to complex. How does an instructor decide which patterns and strategies to use? The lesson material will often organize itself more easily with one pattern and strategy than with another. Let us consider how various patterns and strategies can be used to organize the main points of a lesson.

- **Definitions**

Our vocabularies are filled with words which refer to time: now, tomorrow, yesterday, today, sooner, later, earlier, last week, a month from now, four years ago, next time. We work, play, sleep, and eat at certain times. Major events in our lives are organized by time: births, engagements, marriages, deaths. Time or the chronological pattern of lesson organization is a natural way of arranging events in the sequence of order in which they happened, or in giving directions in the order to be followed in carrying them out. This kind of organization is sometimes called sequential organization. Certain processes, procedures, or historical movements and developments can often be explained best with a time sequence pattern. The medical technician presenting a lesson on mouth-to-mouth resuscitation would probably use the time order for the main points: (1) preliminary steps-proper body position, mouth open, tongue and jaw forward (2) the mouth-to-mouth process (3) caring for the patient once breathing resumes. Time order is also a logical approach to lessons dealing with such subjects as "How to Pack a Parachute,"

"Development of the F-15 Fighter," or How to Prepare a Speech." Furthermore, any lesson on a subject with several phases lends itself well to the time pattern. For example, given an objective for students to know the three planned phases of the Common Market (where phase one was to precede phase two, and phase two precede phase three), a lesson might have these main points: (1) Phase one-a customs union where nations agreed to reduce duties, (2) Phase two-an economic union allowing laborers and goods to move freely across national borders, (3) Phase three-a political union with national representatives as members of a common parliament and using a common currency. Of course, rather than looking forward in time from a given moment, the strategy might be to look backward from a point in time. In other words, the strategy might be to move from recent to earlier time rather than 'from early to late. Regardless of which strategy is used, the flow of the lesson and the transitions should make the chronological relationships between main points clear to the students. Space. A spatial or geographical pattern is effective in describing relationships. When using this pattern, the lesson material is developed according to some directional strategy such as east to west or north to south. For instance, if an instructor were describing the domino theory of guerrilla infiltration, a good strategy would make the main points of the lesson correspond to the geographical locations of various nations. With lessons about certain objects, the strategy might be to arrange the main points from top to bottom or bottom to top. A fire extinguisher might be described from top to bottom, an organizational chart from the highest ranks to the lowest in the organization, a library according to the services found on the first floor, then the second, and finally those on the third. Sometimes, the strategy is to organize the lesson from the center to the outside. For example, the control panel in an airplane might be discussed by

describing first those instruments in the center most often used, then by moving out toward the surrounding instruments which are used least often. In all lessons arranged spatially, we need to introduce each aspect or main point according to some strategy. Just as with a lesson organized by time, the subject matter and the transitions should include elaboration and clarification of how the main points relate to one another. A simple listing of the various objects or places without elaboration as to how they are related may confuse the students and make the points harder to remember. Cause/Effect. A cause/effect pattern of organization is used in a lesson where one set of conditions is given as a cause for another set. In such lessons we may use one of two basic strategies to arrange our main points. With a cause/effect strategy, we begin with a given set of conditions and show that these will produce or have already produced certain results or effects. With an effect-cause strategy, we take a certain set of conditions as the effects and allege that they resulted from certain causes. The cause-effect strategy might be used in a lesson concerning the increasing number of women in the Air Force. The lesson might first discuss the fact that women are now assuming more responsible leadership roles in the Air Force. One effect of women assuming such roles might be that women are joining the Air Force with increasing frequency. The effect-cause strategy might be used in a lesson on child abuse. The first point might explain the effects of child abuse upon the children themselves, the parents, and even on society. The second point might suggest that the causes are that parents themselves were abused as children or that they lack proper education on parenting. Whichever strategy is used, two cautions must be observed: (1) Beware of false causes. Just because one event or circumstance precedes another does not mean that the former causes the latter. Many persons assume that "First A happened, and

then B took place, so A must have caused B." (2) Beware of single causes. Few things result from a single cause. There may be several causes and they may not act independently. Their effect may be greater or less than the sum of their parts. Lack of safety features on automobiles does not by itself cause most highway accidents, but this cause plus careless driving and unsafe highways may, in combination, account for many highway accidents.

- **Summary**

This pattern, sometimes called the disease-remedy pattern or the needsatisfaction pattern, presents students with a problem and then proposes a way to solve it. With this pattern we must show that a problem exists and then offer a corrective action that is (1) practical, (2) desirable, (3) capable of being put into action, and (4) able to relieve the problem. It must also be one that does not introduce new and worse evils of its own. For example, the issue of controlling nuclear weapons has long been debated. Those against control argue that erosion of national sovereignty from arms control is more dangerous than no control. There are different strategies we might employ when using the problem-solution method. If the students are aware of the problem and the possible solutions, we might discuss the problem briefly, mention the possible solutions, and then spend more time in showing why one solution is better than others. For instance, our objective is for students to comprehend that solar energy is the best solution to the energy crisis. Our main points might be: (1) the world is caught in the grip of an energy crisis, (2) several solutions are possible, and (3) solar energy is the best long-term solution. If the students are not aware of the problem or need, we may describe in detail the exact nature of the problem. Sometimes when students become aware of the problem, the solution becomes evident, and little time is

needed to develop the solution in the lesson. At other times we need to spend time developing both the problem and the solution. Still another strategy is to alternate or stagger portions of the problem with portions of the solution. For example, the cost of a project may be seen as one problem, workability another, time to do the project as a third. Taking each in turn and providing solutions to cost, work ability, and time as we present these aspects of the problem may be more satisfying to students than if we had discussed all of the problem and then its total solution. Whatever strategy is used, with the problem solution pattern students must become aware that a problem exists before a solution will be agreed upon. Pro-Con. The pro-con pattern, sometimes called the for-against pattern or advantages-disadvantages pattern, is similar to a problem-solution pattern in that the lesson is usually planned so as to lead to a conclusion. A major difference, however, is that fairly even attention is usually directed toward both sides of an issue with a pro-con pattern. There are various strategies to consider when using the pro-con pattern. One consideration is whether to present pro or con first. Another is whether to present both sides and let students draw their own conclusions or to present the material in such a way that students are led to accept the "school solution." For instance, with a lesson on the effects of jogging we have to decide whether to present the advantages or disadvantages first. Then we must decide whether to let students decide for themselves whether the advantages outweigh the disadvantages. Pro-con plus one is the label given to the organization used when we draw a final conclusion based on the two sides. When deciding the specific strategy to use with the pro-con pattern and determining how much time to spend on each, the following guidelines may be helpful: (1) giving both sides fairly even emphasis is most effective when the weight of evidence is clearly on the favored side; (2) presenting both

sides is more effective when students may be initially opposed to the school solution; (3) presenting only the favored side is most effective when students already favor the school solution or conclusion; (4) presenting the favored side last is generally more favorable to its acceptance, especially if the side not favored is not shown in too strong a light. Topical. A topical division of the main points of a lesson involves determining categories of the subject or lesson objective. This type of categorizing or classifying often springs directly from the subject itself. For instance, a lesson about a typical college population might be divided into topical divisions of freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors, with each class division serving as a main point. Housing might be discussed in terms of on-base and offbase housing. A lesson on the Minuteman intercontinental ballistic missile might be arranged with the main points of warhead, guidance, and propulsion systems. At times the material itself suggests certain strategies for ordering the main points. For instance, a lesson on levels-of-learning lesson planning would most likely begin with knowledge-level planning as the first main point, since knowledge-level lessons are generally simpler to understand. Then the lesson would move on through the hierarchy to comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and finally evaluation levels. In other words, our lesson would follow a simple-to-complex strategy in organizing the "topics" or levels-oflearning. Other topically organized lessons might follow strategies of known to unknown, general to specific, or specific to general. The number of strategies for arranging topical main points is practically infinite. The important consideration, as with any pattern, is that we give thought to the strategy of arrangement in order to improve student understanding and learning.

- **Revision**

The strategy statement is simply a detailed plan which explains one's overall lesson objective and the steps one intends to take in achieving that objective most efficiently and effectively. A well-written strategy statement benefits the writer of the lesson plan by helping to determine the best options to adopt when deciding on methodology, teaching techniques, interim objectives, and type and amount of proof and clarification support. It also helps anyone else who is tasked to teach or modify the lesson later on by spelling out the detailed rationale for choosing these options. When the teachers understand why the different elements of a plan are included and when these reasons are sound, the teachers can more easily adopt the process as their own or adapt the plan more coherently-both internally and as it relates to other lessons in the curriculum. And, just as importantly, the strategy can also benefit the students immensely because it provides a wellformulated overview for the lesson introduction itself by telling the students exactly what will be covered in the lesson without exposing the lesson itself. The strategy statement should be designed in such a way as to walk the instructor through the entire lesson, focussing on every element of the lesson. In this way, a comprehensive strategy statement helps the writer of the plan by forcing the writer to consider questions that are often taken for granted: (1) whether the overall lesson outline and order of main points and sub-points are the most logical and intuitively acceptable; (2) whether the teaching techniques one decides to use are the most appropriate for the lesson; and, (3) how much leeway one can take in the presentation before one changes the actual objective. Moreover, it provides a quick mental outline of the entire lesson that helps prevent the instructor's having to script, or slav

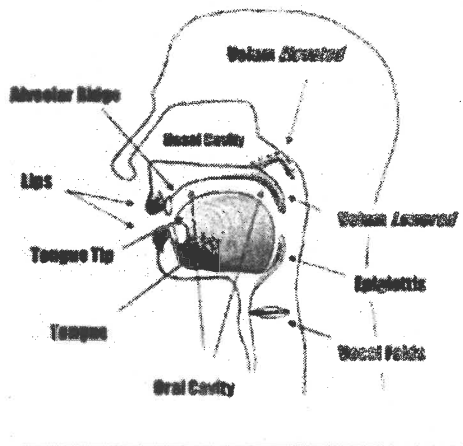
UNIT 4: STRATEGIES FOR PRODUCTION OF SPEECH: MODELLING & SHAPING THROUGH AUDITORY, VISUAL, TACTILE MODALITIES

- **Introduction**
- **Objectives**
- **Definitions**
- **Summary**
- **Revision**
- **Points For Discussion And Clarification**
- **References / Further Readings**

- **Introduction**

The purpose of this program is to provide clinicians with speech sound elicitation techniques that involve the /ʃ / & /ʒ / speech sounds. The program features two parts. Part 1 focuses on elicitation techniques for the /ʃ / & /ʒ / sounds. Part 2 features general speech therapy tips to move a child from sound level to consonant/vowel combinations. The speech therapy tips section is based on traditional articulation intervention techniques. Sound errors can become so firmly established in the child's language that he/she never corrects them and the error remains, even into adulthood. Speech sound

errors if left untreated also tend to turn up later in children's written language as spelling errors. This particular Sound Partners program targets the /f / & /z / speech sounds. Each sound features a cutaway diagram that helps the clinician and client to visualize the correct approximation of the target sound. Speech sounds are produced by the precise movements of the tongue, palate, velum and lips, which create the vowel and consonant sounds that make up the phonemic elements of language. We make speech sounds by using our tongue, teeth and lips to control the air as it passes through our mouth. Our lips, tongue and teeth all work in harmony to turn the air from our lungs into speech sounds (phonemes) and ultimately spoken words. Consonants are created by obstructions of the air flow created by our tongue, teeth, and lips. In contrast, vowels are generally produced with an open vocal tract.

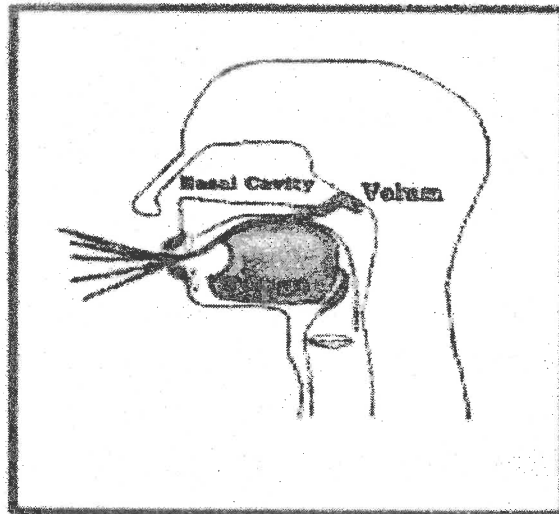


- Objectives

The tongue elevates high within the mouth and touches the upper back teeth. The blade of the tongue retreats to the rear of the oral cavity which helps to form a spacious yet shallow valley down the centre of the tongue. This mouth shape produces a long shallow constriction which begins at the velum (soft palate) at the rear of the oral cavity to the alveolar ridge toward the front of the oral cavity.

As can be seen in the diagram, the airstream passes between a narrow fissure between the velum and the tongue. Note that the tongue is slightly raised and the vocal folds do not vibrate. The /ʃ / (sh) sound is voiceless.

The /ʃ / sound can be shaped from other sounds which have some similarities to the mouth shape and tongue position of the /ʃ / sound. Script... 1. The /ʃ / sound can be moulded and formed from the /n/ sound. We do this by first shaping our mouth for the /n/ sound by touching our tongue tip to the roof of the mouth (alveolar ridge) then lower the tongue a little. 2. Next, pucker the lips slightly. 3. Allow the airstream to flow over the tongue. Your tongue tip should be not touching any structure and you should feel the top of the tongue touching the upper back teeth. The sound should be a little windy. Script... 1. The /ʃ / sound can also be moulded and formed from the /s/ sound. We do this by first creating the /s/ sound. (Demonstrate the /s/ sound)



- **Definitions**

Demonstrate the characteristics of correct /ʃ / production to the client. • For the /ʃ / sound the blade of the tongue is at the rear of the oral cavity touching the upper back teeth. • The vocal folds do not vibrate and are silent. • The airstream passes through the centre of the oral cavity over the shallow valley between the tongue and the roof of the mouth. • The lips stick out slightly like puckering for a kiss. The /ʃ / sound can be shaped from other sounds which have some similarities to the mouth shape and tongue position of the /ʃ / sound. Script... 1. The /ʃ / sound can be moulded and formed from the /n/ sound. We do this by first shaping our mouth for the /n/ sound by touching our tongue tip to the roof of the mouth (alveolar ridge) then lower the tongue a little. 2. Next, pucker the lips slightly. 3. Allow the airstream to flow over the tongue. Your tongue tip should be not touching any structure

and you should feel the top of the tongue touching the upper back teeth. The sound should be a little windy. Script... 1. The /ʃ / sou

• **Summary**

Teachers frequently approach the speech therapist with questions and concerns regarding how a student is functioning within the classroom. Often these concerns are brought up at a Needs Assessment Team Meeting. In addition, parents also express concerns about the student and are an integral part of the team. Strategies can be provided to both teachers and parents as a part of the Needs Assessment Team process or on an individual basis as concerns arise. These speech and language strategies were primarily developed to provide classroom teachers with ideas to implement within the classroom prior to considering a referral for a speech and language evaluation. A chart to facilitate documentation of prior interventions is included also. When developing the strategies, efforts were made to address the most common areas of need. Please note that all suggestions may not be appropriate for every student and you may need to modify them on an individual basis. Speech These strategies are intended for students for whom you have Articulation concerns. Try these strategies before you make a referral. Articulation/Phonology: 1. Talk with parents about your concerns and share strategies that seem to help. 2. If you cannot understand a student and you have asked them to repeat themselves, it might help to ask the student to show you or say it in a different way. For example, ask the student to write the word if they are able to do so. 3. If the student's response contains a known sound error, it's important to repeat what the child said

with an appropriate model. (e.g., If the child says ‘nak’ for snake, you would say, “Oh, you want the snake”). This way you are not focusing on the error or calling negative attention to the child, but providing an appropriate model. 4. With younger children bring whatever you are talking about closer to your mouth so that the child is more apt to focus on speech production. 5. If you hear a consistent speech sound error use written text to increase the child’s ability to see, hear and be aware of that sound. (e.g., Ask the student to find all of the words containing the error sound in a page of a story. Make this a routine in your classroom so that no student is singled out.) 6. If you have a student who is able to make a sound correctly some of the time when they know an adult is listening, set up a non-verbal cue with that child to let them know that you are listening. (e.g., for example, putting your hand on the student’s shoulder, before you call on them to read aloud.) 7. Highlight words in their own writing or in classroom worksheets that contain sounds that the child is misarticulating.

- **Revision**

These strategies are intended for students about whom you have Grammar and/or Sentence Structure concerns. Try these strategies before you make a referral. Grammar and/or Sentence Structure: 1. If the child says something incorrectly repeat it for them correctly in a natural way. Be sensitive about not calling negative attention to their language. For example, if the child says “I goed to the store.” You’d say, “Oh you went to the store.” 2. When the child’s speech or writing contains grammar or word order errors, show them in writing the correct form. 3. When working with the child individually with written or oral language, repeat the error and ask the child how the sentence sounds. For example, the child says or writes, “I goed to the store.” You say,

for Deaf.

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UNIT 5: INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP SPEECH TEACHING: STRENGTHS AND CHALLENGES

- **Introduction**
- **Objectives**
- **Definitions**
- **Summary**
- **Revision**
- **Assignment/Activity**
- **Points For Discussion And Clarification**
- **References / Further Readings**

- **Introduction**

Prior to introducing new units/stories complete a list of key vocabulary words. Discuss words and possible meaning with students. (Give words to Speech Pathologist or Intervention Specialist to pre-teach or review with the student). 2. Teach vocabulary in context 3. When introducing new words, try using a graphic organizer, visual mapping, word webs, word maps, student drawings, to come up with word relationships including discussing antonyms

or synonyms, categories. 4. When possible pair a visual picture (or gestures, objects, etc.) with the vocabulary words. When vocabulary is abstract and pictures are not available, try to relate the words to a personal experience for students to relate to. 5. Use demonstration paired with student interaction/movement to act out meaning. 6. Use examples/acting out, pictures and multiple modalities to teach figurative language and multiple meanings. 7. Place words and definitions on note cards. Use cards to play games such as matching or memory. 8. Use peer instruction/cooperative groups. 9. Create word lists with vocabulary and definitions to display in a visible place within the classroom. 10. Encourage use of word-games that target vocabulary with family (Headbands, Tribond, Apples to Apples Jr., etc.) Imitation is a useful technique when teaching a child any new speech sound. Imitation requires the child to copy the clinician's correct model of a speech sound. For instance, the clinician first engages the child's full attention and then produces a clear /s/ sound. The clinician is then silent and the child is encouraged to copy exactly the sound the clinician has produced. In many cases of course the child will struggle to accurately reproduce the sound. This is fine, because the child's inability to correctly reproduce a clear target sound gives the clinician a good understanding of how the child's speech error is occurring.

- **Objectives**

When giving directions, repeat them again using different words. 2. Use gestures when giving directions can be helpful. 3. If there are several directions, give one or two directions at a time versus all at one time. 4. Be specific. 5. If possible, give a visual cue. For example, if making an activity you can demonstrate the steps as you go along. Showing the completed

project would also provide them assistance. 6. When working with projects that have mutli-step directions, it may be helpful to write the directions on the board. 7. Create a list of common directions that are used throughout the day. When needed, they can be laminated and place on the board for the entire class, or can be smaller to be placed on the individual's desk. 8. The student may benefit from sitting next to an individual who would be willing to provide assistance with multi-step tasks.

- **Definitions**

Ask basic questions that have the answer in a picture or hands-on activity. 2. Provide small group opportunities where the children can discuss newly learned concepts or ideas 3. Provide adequate time for the child to process what you have asked them and form their answer. If the child does not respond after a given period of time, ask the question in a different way. 4. Use several modalities when teaching materials (speaking, reading, writing, listening, visual, hands-on.) 5 5. Do frequency comprehension checks when teaching. Stop periodically and discuss the information you have presented. 6. Encourage the students to ask for help. 7. Provide additional support for writing down information, such as assignments in the student's homework notebook. Actual pictures could also be taken of what needs to go home. Some students may need written directions on how to complete assignments so that parents can assist them in the home. Comprehension: 1. Ensure the student's attention 2. Use slower rate of speaking 3. Present information in smaller steps or chunks 4. Use a variety of games i.e. Bingo, Simon Says, 20 Questions 5. Before presenting information, tell the student what to listen for 6. Rephrase/paraphrase auditory information 7. Have the student repeat the

information 8. Ask the students a variety of WH questions 9. Use a story map, graphic organizer, student drawing, etc. to increase understanding 10. Break stories into smaller units and ask questions 11. Teach story elements, character, setting, problem, etc. 12. Review, discuss and paraphrase main idea

• **Summary**

These strategies are intended for students about whom you have vocabulary/word meaning concerns. Try these strategies before you make a referral. Vocabulary and Word Meanings: 1. Prior to introducing new units/stories compile a list of key vocabulary words. Discuss words and possible meanings with students. 2. When introducing words, try using a graphic organizer or visual mapping to come up with word relationships including antonyms, or synonyms. 3. When possible pair a visual picture with the vocabulary words. When vocabulary is abstract and pictures are not available, try to relate the words to a personal experience for students to relate to. 4. Place words and definitions on note cards. Use cards to play games such as matching or memory. 5. Create word list with vocabulary and definitions to display in a visible place within the classroom. 6. Provide student with vocabulary list including definitions one week prior to beginning a new unit. 7. Encourage use of word-games with family (Tribond, etc.). 8. Consult with a speech therapist for ideas using graphic organizers. These strategies are intended for students about whom you have concerns with social communication skills. Try these strategies before you make a referral. *** Social and pragmatic skills can differ significantly from child to child. Due to individualized differences, we recommend that you consult with the speech therapist, special education teachers and/or the school

counselor. Below are some general strategies that may be used within the classroom. Basic Social Language Skills/Pragmatics: 1. Social Stories (Stories written to positively depict a situation in which a student has a difficult time- providing the student with appropriate ways to interact or respond.) *Please contact speech therapist for assistance. 2. Visual schedules (Provide students who may need visual input to assist with transitions, expectations for the day.) *Please contact speech therapist for assistance. 3. Allow student to work in a group with students who are accepting and supportive. 4. Search for opportunities that support appropriate social interactions. (i.e. 'Bobby, will you please go to Sue's desk and ask her to bring me her Math folder.') 5. Avoid having activities where students 'pick' a partner. Assign partners instead to avoid feelings of rejection. 6. Board games and card games can be beneficial as they promote turn taking and sportsmanship. Be available to support sportsmanship and help to remember that playing the game is more important than winning the game. 7. Comment on positive models for targeted social skill when used by other students in the classroom. (Jenny, I really like how you raised your hand instead of interrupting me when I was talking to the class.)

- **Revision**

Following Directions: 1. When giving directions, repeat them again using different words. 2. Using gestures when giving directions can be beneficial. 3. If there are several directions, give one to two directions at a time versus all at one time. 4. Be specific when giving directions. 5. If possible, give a visual cue. For example, if making an activity you can demonstrate the steps as you go along. Showing the completed project would also provide them assistance. 6. When working with projects that have multi-step directions, it

may be helpful to write the directions on the board. 7. Create a list of common directions that are used throughout the day. When needed, they can be laminated and placed on the board for the entire class, or can be smaller to be placed on the individual's desk. 8. The student may benefit from sitting next to an individual who would be willing to provide assistance with multi-step tasks. Processing Information: 1. Ask basic questions that have the answer in a picture or hands-on activity. 2. Provide small group opportunities where the children can discuss newly learned concepts or ideas. 3. Provide adequate time for the child to process what you have asked and form their answer. If the child does not respond after a given period of time, ask the question in a different way. 4. Use several modalities when teaching materials (speaking, reading, writing, listening, visual, hands-on). 5. Do frequent comprehension checks when teaching. Stop periodically and discuss the information you have presented. 6. Encourage the child to ask for help. 7. Provide additional support for writing down information, such as assignments in the student's homework notebook. Actual pictures could also be taken of what needs to go home (i.e. Math book, writing notebook, etc.). Some students may need written directions on how to complete assignments so that parents can assist them in the home.

POINTS FOR DISCUSSIONS / CLARIFICATION

After going through the unit you may like to have further discussion on some points and clarification. Note down those points:-

Points for Discussion

○ **References / Further Readings**

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**BLOCK 4: COMMUNICATION AND
LANGUAGE TEACHING STRATEGIES**

UNIT 1:METHODS OF TEACHING LANGUAGE: NATURAL, STRUCTURAL AND COMBINED

- **Introduction**
- **Objectives**
- **Definitions**
- **Summary**
- **Revision**
- **Points For Discussion And Clarification**
- **References / Further Readings**

- **Introduction**

The history of Language teaching in India, as we know, has a long tradition. Memorization of vocabulary and translation of sentences often formed the major part of such learning process in the past. Ancient languages such as Sanskrit and Pali were mastered in India through the process of memorization of texts and vocabulary lists. "Learning vocabulary lists indeed formed the

core of language learning.”¹ But this tradition of language teaching has been subjected to a tremendous change, especially, throughout the 20th century. In case of English language teaching in India, there are some milestones in the development of this tradition. According to D. Kanta Rao and J.M.Kanthi Thilakha: “If language teachers teach as they taught earlier, then one may not achieve the required goals of teaching English in the present global scenario.”² So, there could be as many ways of learning languages as there are people learning them. The way one learnt English is not exactly the way one is teaching it. Again, the way one acquired one’s mother-tongue may be quite different from the way one learnt English. The following observation by V. Saraswathi is very important to quote in this connection. She says: “There is no best method. The history of language teaching presents a fascinating variety of methods. If there is such a variety of methods, which one are we to choose? There is 117 no definite answer to this question, what works with one learner may not work with another. One may be a wizard in grammar but another may just hate it. Others might enjoy memorizing sentences.” She further adds: “Different methods may be appropriate to different contexts. If we start searching for the perfect method or the ideal single solution to the problem of language learning, we bound to fail”³ Like V. Saraswathi, Diane-Larsen-Freeman’s remark on language teaching methodology sums up a major trend away from unity to diversity in the following words. They comment: “There is no single acceptable way to go about teaching language today.”⁴ The statements quoted above make it clear that no single approach or method is appropriate for all learning styles. A good lesson will, therefore, be one in which the teachers use a smorgasbord of activities taken from a variety of sources. By varying our techniques, we will give students of all styles the chance to shine some of the time. In

English language teaching pedagogy the three key terms viz- Method, Approach and technique are used frequently and interchangeably. This tripartite arrangement is hierarchical in order. The term 'Method' is very ambiguous, and refers to the overall plan for the orderly presentations of language material, no part of which contradicts and all of which is based on selected approach and procedure.⁵ 118 A method includes three components viz- Approach, Design

- **Objectives**

An 'approach' is concerned with the theory of the nature of language and language learning. 'Design' concerns itself with: • The general and specific objectives of the course. • A syllabus model. • Types of learning and learning tasks. • Roles of learners and teachers, and • Role of learning materials. 'Procedure' is concerned with: • The actual happenings in the classroom. • Classroom techniques, practices and behaviours. The term 'Method' is sometimes compared with the term 'Approach'. According to Yardi "Method is rigid while Approach is flexible". Pointing out the different views often held in less informed circle of teachers about the importance of method. He further asserts: "What matters is the man (the teacher) not the method."⁷ Yardi further explains the connotational difference between the terms 'method' 'methodology', and 'methodics'. These are often used in English language teaching pedagogy. Each one of them carries a different shade of meaning. 'Method', in his opinion 'is used in the context of language-teaching methods like 'Direct Method', 'The grammar- translation Method' or 'The Bilingual Method'.⁸ Yardi further went on to add that the term 'method' is not strictly speaking a 'technical term'. It is a popular one, and means 'a 120 way of doing something'. It is often used loosely as a substitute

for 'methodology'. 'Methodology', according to Yardi, 'is a technical term which refers to a body of principles and techniques of teaching'.⁹ The third term 'methodics' is being used frequently in recent years by the British linguists. The term 'Methodics' means 'a framework of organization for language teaching which relates linguistic theory to pedagogical principles and techniques'.¹⁰ Edward M. Anthony, the American Applied linguists, distinguished between technique, method, and an approach in the following words: "The arrangement is hierarchical. The organizational key is that techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach... An approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught... method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts and all of which is based upon the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural, within one approach, there can be many methods... A technique is implementational-that which actually takes place in a classroom. It is a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective.

- **Definitions**

The above quote makes it clear that approach is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified; whereas, method is the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about the particular skills to be taught, and the order in which the content will be presented; technique is the level at which classroom procedures are described. "Methods are evolved for quick and effective results" says A.D. Kulkarni in his article presented at a seminar on

the Teaching of English held in February,1972 at the then Marathwada University, Aurangabad. "The natural method of learning by trial and error has no place today as human beings cannot afford to waste time in experimenting",¹² he opines. The skill of a second language teacher lies in selecting an approach, method, and a technique in view of the learner's educational, social and economical background; the syllabus and the textbooks prescribed, and the goals / objectives to be achieved. He should be flexible enough to swift to multiple approaches so as to enable him / her to make learning effective. K. Bose cautions the teaching community regarding their pedagogical duties in the following words: "...It is expected of a teacher that he / she should think and reason out some fundamental assumptions that lie underneath the syllabus construction, that might bind together the syllabus, objectives, and instructional materials (method), and that might justify the use of any/ every classroom techniques that he /she adopts while teaching. It should under no circumstances appear like a layman's trick to teach the second language."¹³ The above statement makes it evident that the teachers of English should be cautious about some of the fundamental assumptions that lie underneath the syllabus construction. With this backdrop, it would be proper at this juncture to review the methods and approaches that have been used by the teachers of English in India in general and Maharashtra in particular. A teacher at times uses a single approach, a single method, or even resorts to multiple approaches and methods in view of several factors including the background, age of learners, and the teaching items. The skill of a teacher lies in shifting to and evolving new approaches and methods of teaching English comfortably in the Indian context. Therefore, an attempt has been made to review some of the methods and

approaches which are being used commonly by the teachers of English in India.

◦ **Summary**

This method, also known as the classical method, is one of the oldest or traditional methods of teaching English. In Europe it was used in the teaching of Latin and Greek for several centuries, and got introduced in India with the arrival of the British. This method as Tickoo said: “came to English Language Teaching in most of Asia in general and India in particular with support in the long- established tradition of teaching classical languages in the United Kingdom. The system of education in the country served as a model for schools in most of its colonies. The psychological beliefs that prevailed then were (a) that classical languages with their intricate systems of grammar were capable of training human faculties including memory, and (b) that learning these languages was part of a truly liberal education. Teaching and learning primarily aimed at the ability to read full texts rather than to communicate orally in everyday situations”.¹⁴ Thus, the above statement makes it clear that this method makes no provision for training in speech but lays stress on reading. Commenting on how this method operates in our schools and colleges, Bhatia and Bhatia assert: “This method gives equal importance to grammar in the course in as much as the linguistic material presented for study is graded on a grammatical plan, and teaches the meaning of new English words, phrases and sentences, by means of word-by-word translation in the vernacular.”¹⁵ They further add that: “the unit of speech or reading is not a sentence a sentence comes last of all, first letters and words and then sentence.”¹⁶ This method, according to Pahuja, “has no psychological basis but has two suppositions: that a foreign language can

easily be learnt through translation and that grammar is the soul of language.”¹⁷ Criticizing this method, Rouse remarks that the aim of this method was “to know everything about something, rather than the thing itself.”¹⁸ Students found the method frustrating as they had to memorise words and rules. The use of ‘L1’ in the classroom prevented the learner from developing confidence to communicate in English. The learners found it very difficult to emancipate themselves from the clutches of their mother- tongue. They were unable to use English in their day-to-day communication. The excessive obsession with accuracy and competence in written rather than oral language inhibited learners who often preferred to remain silent rather than expose their ignorance.¹⁹ The emphasis in this method is mainly on translation of English words, phrases, and passages into and from the mothertongue of a learner. Tracing out the roots of this method Yardi observes:

- **Revision**

“Latin became very popular as the Roman Empire grew, and attained the status of an international language. It became the sole medium of instruction and remained so until after the middle ages. The emphasis in teaching Latin was, by and large, on formal grammar. This method grew out of this practice...”.²⁰ J.B. Carroll, however, is of the view that this ‘traditional approach’ is of a comparatively recent origin. He states: “In the colonial days of America, language instruction seems to have included considerably more attention to oral aspects of language, even when the language was Latin,

Greek or Hebrew. The 'traditional' approach then seems to have been developed to meet the needs of rapidly expanding popular education in the latter part of the 19th century. Before 1875, members of the elite classes learned foreign languages through individualised instruction by native instructors ...".²¹ The advocates of this method, as stated by Bhatia and Bhatia, assert that it is based on some sound principles such as: "(i) foreign phraseology is best interpreted through translation. (ii) foreign phraseology is best assimilated in the process of interpretation. (iii) The structure of foreign language can best be taught by comparing and contrasting it with that of mothertongue; and this is best effected through translation."²² A number of methods and techniques have evolved for the teaching of English and also other foreign languages in the recent past, yet grammar- translation method is still in use in many parts of India. This method dominated European and other foreign language teaching for nearly a hundred years (1840 to 1940), till the advent of structural linguistics. The popularity of this method among generations of teachers in India can be related to factors that are universal. As we know, it maintains the mother- tongue of the learner as the reference particularly in the process of learning the second / foreign languages. Again it does not require special training or specialised skills on the part of the teacher. Its special appeal for teachers in India lies in the long established beliefs in the power of memory and its successful use in early learning of not only languages but other subjects as well.²³ H.E. Palmer catalogues the weaknesses of this method in the following words: "It is one which treats all languages as if they were dead, as if each consisted essentially of a collection of ancient documents to be deciphered and analysed... It is the one which categorically ignores all considerations of

Livingston, Sue (1997). Rethinking the Education Deaf Students: Theory and Practice from a Teachers Perspective. London: Heinemann.

UNIT 2: PRINCIPLES AND TECHNIQUES OF DEVELOPING LANGUAGE

- **Introduction**
- **Objectives**
- **Definitions**
- **Summary**
- **Revision**
- **Points For Discussion And Clarification**
- **References / Further Readings**

- **Introduction**

The direct method, sometimes also called as the 'reform' method, 'natural' method, 'psychological' method, 'phonetic' method,²⁵ and 'anti-grammatical' method, was established in France and Germany around 1900, and introduced in India in the early 20th century as a reform which was needed in the methods of teaching English. This was developed, as Rao has

pointed out, “as a reaction against the grammar-translation method”.²⁶ The major assumptions of this method were in opposition to the grammar-translation method. Hence, it is considered as a 128 reaction against the grammar-translation method with a distinct grammatical bias.²⁷ Again this method is a logical extension of the Natural method. It is also an offshoot of the Behaviourist school of psychology. It insists that the key to all language learning lies in association. It stresses the need for direct association between experience and expression in the foreign language. The aim is to enable the learner to think in foreign language and to cultivate an unerring language sense. It recognises that language sense has its roots in the spoken language and lays stress on the oral approach.²⁸ In the opinion of Diller this method has one basic rule: “no translation is allowed”²⁹. In fact, this method receives its name from the fact that meaning is to be conveyed directly in the target language through the use of demonstration and visual aids, with no recourse to the students’ native language. For example, in a reading lesson to class V, a new word ‘watch’ occurs. If we associate it with its intermediate in the vernacular, i.e. ‘Gharee’, we are teaching the meaning indirectly; but if on the other hand, we associate the word with an actual ‘watch’ or with the picture of a watch, we are teaching the meaning directly. If such a direct association is not possible, the teacher can explain the meaning of new words by giving synonyms, definitions, explanations, or by inference from the context. The same technique with a few modifications here and there, can be followed in teaching compositions-oral or written. Many new words can be added to the vocabulary of the learner without the intervention of the mothertongue. ¹²⁹ According to Bhatia and Bhatia, the main aim of teaching English by this method is to enable the learner: “to think in English and to discourage the practice of inwardly thinking in one’s vernacular and then

overtly translating the thought into the foreign language. He should be able to grasp what he hears or reads in English and should be able to express his thoughts and wishes directly and fluently so that in due course of time he obtains a real command over the language".³⁰ The other significant assumption of this method according to Thirumalai is: "Adult L2 learners can learn a second language in essentially the same manner as a child. Therefore, if possible, the teacher should try to create a natural learning environment within the classroom. Instead of explicit grammar instruction, the major emphasis is on communicating. Classes are carried out totally in the second language with absolutely no reliance on the first language or on any form of translation. The expectation is that through question-and-answer dialogues, the second language will gradually be acquired. Problems have arisen with such an approach because adults do not, in fact, learn exactly like children, and they express the need for explicit instruction in grammar and other aspects of the second language."³¹ Teaching of receptive skills (listening and reading) rather than teaching of productive skills (speaking and writing) was encouraged as the first step. Contrastive analysis of the native language of the learner with the target language was done. Teachers are required to have a good knowledge of phonetics of the language they teach, but they would use it to teach pronunciation and not phonetics. As this method uses conversation as the main tool in the teaching of a foreign language, the other tools are discussion and reading in the target language itself. Grammar is taught inductively. W.F. Mackey points out the main characteristics of this method as: "there is an ample scope for the use of everyday vocabulary and structures; grammar is taught by creating situations through visual presentations. There is ample scope for extensive listening and imitation until form becomes automatic."³² Thus, it becomes evident that there

- **Objectives**

foreign words and phrases for objects and actions in the classroom. When these could be used readily and appropriately the learning moved to the common situations and settings of everyday life, the lesson often developing around specially constructed pictures of life in the country where the language was spoken. Where the meaning of words could not be made clear by concrete representations, the teacher resorted to miming, sketches or explanations in the foreign language but never supplied native language translations. From the beginning, the students were accustomed to hear complete and meaningful sentences which formed part of a simple discourse, often in the form of a question-answer interchange. Grammar was not taught explicitly and deductively as in the grammar-translation class but was learnt largely through practice. Students were encouraged to draw their own structural generalizations from what they had been learning by an inductive process. In this way, the study of grammar was kept at a functional level, being confined to those which were continually being used in speech. When grammar was taught more systematically, at a later stage, it was taught in a foreign language with the use of foreign language terminology.” 33 132 From the aforesaid statement it becomes clear that this method discards the use of L1, even in teaching grammatical rules, favours the situational use of English, considers meaningful sentences at the core, teaches grammatical rules inductively, provides with ample opportunities to the students of using target language, takes care of the spoken aspects of the target language, and above all seeks gradual development of all, the basic linguistic skills viz- LSRW. According to William E. Bull “any given method is only as effective as its implementation”.34 He further adds that “the superior teacher has regularly gotten superior results regardless of the method.”35 From the

comments cited above it becomes evident that no method could be a complete one in itself. What makes it important is the man (the teacher) who does not allow the explanations in the students' native language creating English environment in the classroom. The main reason of the failure of this method in Indian context is perhaps the dearth of the expert teachers. Therefore, the direct method considered better than the previous grammar-translation method, was not completely free from certain weaknesses either. For one thing the method is not all that direct, for only a limited number of words can be directly associated with their meanings or the objects they represent. Moreover, its main claim that it teaches a foreign language directly, and not through the mother-tongue, is only partly true. Commenting on the limitations of this method Scott remarks: "The clever youngster thrives on the direct method by defeating it." 36

- **Definitions**

Thus, the mother-tongue equivalents of words may not be used by the teacher but may be in the students' mind, and the student does not exclude them from his own mind. Another limitation of this method in Verghese's opinion: "arises from its neglect of the language skills like writing and reading because of overemphasis on oral work. This method practically ignores the study of grammar, this is not desirable because the knowledge of grammar is useful to the students to correct errors and strengthen language habits." 37 Wyatt also appears to be a critic of this method particularly in the Indian context. He observes that extreme followers of the direct method overlook a simple fact of human nature, of pupils' nature in particular. An Indian pupil cannot but utter in thought the vernacular equivalent of the new English word taught to him, because in associating the new English word with a familiar

word in the vernacular, he is simply reinforcing the memory of the old friends. He Says: "The Direct method in all its rigour mistakes the end for the means, the goal for the path that leads to it - the direct association of words and phrases with their meanings is the eventual objective of language study and not a means. We cannot expect the pupil to make the association at the outset."³⁸ Thus in summing up it may be admitted that the direct method, in spite of its merits, did not make much progress because it neglected the facts mentioned above, and therefore, failed in the Indian contexts.

3.2.3 The Audio-Lingual Method:

During the World War II, American soldiers had an urgent need to learn languages like-German, French, Chinese or Japanese to communicate effectively when posted in various countries. The Army Specialised Training Programme (ASTP) was established in 1942 by American linguists to meet this urgent need. 55 American Universities were involved in the programme by the beginning of 1943. This technique of teaching was initially called the 'Army Method' and was the first to be based on linguistic theory and behavioural psychology. The objective of this programme, as stated by Richards Jack, C. and T.S. Rodgers, was for students "to attain conversational proficiency in variety of foreign languages."³⁹ Since this was not the goal of conventional foreign language courses in the US, new approaches were necessary. Leonard Bloomfield, a linguist at Yale, had already developed training programmes as a part of their linguistic research that were designed to give linguists and Anthropologists mastery of American-Indian languages and other languages they were studying. Textbooks did not exist for such languages. The technique which Bloomfield and his colleagues used was sometimes called as the 'informant method'.⁴⁰ Excellent results were achieved by this method. The 'ASTP' lasted only two years but attracted considerable attention in the popular press

and in the academic community. For the next ten years the army method and its suitability for use in regular language programmes were discussed.

- **Summary**

Charles Fries of the University of Michigan led the way in applying principles from structural linguistics in developing the method and for this reason, it has sometimes been referred as the 'Michigan Method'.⁴¹ Later in its development, principles from behavioural psychology were incorporated. It was thought that the way to acquire the sentence patterns of the target language was through conditioning- helping learners to respond correctly to stimuli through shaping and reinforcement. Learners could overcome the habits of their native language and form the new habits required to be target language speakers. The term 'Audiolingualism' was coined by Nelson Brooks in 1964, highlighting the basic belief of structuralism that: 'speech is primary'.⁴² Language is viewed as a set of structures. The behaviourist theory of learning was adopted. Language learning was assumed to involve a chain of stimulus-response-reinforcement; and it was believed that one learnt a language by acquiring a series of stimulus-response chain. V. Saraswathi quotes the assumptions of this method stated by Stern as follows: "(i) Foreign language learning is basically a mechanical process of habit formation. (ii) Language skills are learned effectively; if items of the foreign language are presented in the spoken form before the written form. (iii) Analogy provides a better foundation for foreign language learning than analysis. 136 (iv) The meaning which the words of a language have for the native speaker can be learned only in a matrix of allusions to the culture of the people who speak that language."⁴³ The Audio-lingual method, according to Thirumalai, in some sense: "represents a return to the Direct Method, as its main goal is to

develop native-like speaking ability in its learners. It is an extension as well as refinement of the direct method. Translation and reference to 'L1' are not permitted." Underlying this method, he further adds that: "L2 learning should be regarded as a mechanistic process of habit formation...Audiolingual learning comprises dialogue memorization and pattern drills, thus, ensuring careful control of responses. None of the drills or patterns are to be explained, since knowledge of grammatical rules would only obstruct the mechanical formation of habits."⁴⁴ From the statements cited above it is evident that Audiolingualism had its theoretical roots in the direct method; which was an extension of the Natural method. Again the audio-lingual method used exhaustively the linguistic structures identified in the descriptive analysis of the target language. It was skill oriented, with a practical emphasis on 'Oracy'.¹³⁷ This method provided 'contextualized' language practice in true-to-life situations including dialogue. Again, it provided a wide variety of activities to help maintain interest, and it made extensive use of visuals. It arranged for abundant practice although "the grammar based audiolingual approach moved cautiously from supposedly simple to more and more linguistically complex features, often without adequate consideration for what might be needed in everyday situations."⁴⁵ William Moulton has stated five important characteristics of this method as follows: "(i) Language is speech, not writing. (ii) A Language is a set of habits.

- **Revision**

Thus, it becomes clear that this method emphasises teaching through oral presentation prior to written presentation. It believes in the fact that the children learn to speak before they learn to read or write. Thus, the teaching

materials, that we prepare, should be based on the 'primacy of speech.' B.F. Skinner strongly believes that 'a language is a set of habits.' He further adds that "language is verbal behaviour."⁴⁸ Followers and supporters of this method were extremely influenced by its 'operant conditioning' theories. For them, the linguistic behaviour of the child can change as does its social behaviour through the process of habit forming. The kind of thinking introduced mimicry, memorization, and pattern drill into foreign language teaching. Audio-lingual teachers consider that 'teaching through grammar-translation method is teaching about the language and not the language.' They give little attention to grammar. In this connection Moulton says: "The real goal of instruction was an ability to talk the language and not to talk about it."⁴⁹ The statement cited above thus, makes it clear that the Audiolingual method laid the practical emphasis on 'oral' practice of the language. Again, the assumption that 'a language is what its native speakers say' prompted the advocates of this method to prepare learning materials with expressions which student would hear around them in the country where the language is spoken. The teaching materials avoided prescriptive school grammars, passages from literary texts, and classics. Materials embodied with day-today experience were of prime importance for teaching. 139 The increasing use of

POINTS FOR DISCUSSIONS / CLARIFICATION

After going through the unit you may like to have further discussion on some points and clarification. Note down those points:-

UNIT 3: COMMUNICATION OPTIONS: COMPARE AND CONTRAST

- **Introduction**
- **Objectives**
- **Definitions**
- **Summary**
- **Revision**
- **Assignment/Activity**
- **Points For Discussion And Clarification**
- **References / Further Readings**

- **Introduction**

Language teaching has a long, fascinating but rather tortuous history, in which a debate on teaching methods has evolved particularly over the last hundred years. The names of many of the methods (Grammar-translation Method, Direct Method, Audio-lingual Method, Communicative Teaching Method, etc) are familiar enough, yet the methods are not easy to grasp in

practice because a method, however ill-defined it may be, is more than a single strategy or a particular technique. As a part of language teaching theories, these methods derived partly from social, economic, political, or educational circumstances, partly from theoretical consideration (new changes in language theories and in new psychological perspective on language learning), partly from practical experience, intuition, and inventiveness. Therefore, to some degree, they represent a combination of language teaching beliefs, but it is evident that they are characterized by the over-emphasis on single aspects as the central issue of language teaching and learning,

- **Objectives**

Grammar-Translation Method, just as the name suggests, emphasizes the teaching of the second language grammar, its principle techniques is translation from and into the target language. In practice, reading and writing are the major focus; little or no systematic attention is paid to speaking or listening. The student's native language is maintained as the reference system in the acquisition of the second language. Language learners are passive in language learning and teachers are regarded as an authority, i.e. it is a teacher-centered model. The Grammar-Translation Method has been facing various attacks from reformers. Some criticizes that this method often creates frustration for students by a tedious experience of memorizing endless list of unusable grammar rules and vocabulary, and the limitations of practice techniques never emancipate the learner from the dominance of the first language; others says that this method pay little attention to the student's communicative competence. In spite of the severe attacks, the Grammar-

Translation Method is still widely practiced. Why? Because there is no inherent contradiction between grammar instruction and communicative approach, and a sort of explicit grammar instruction can complement communicative language teaching to raise learners' conscious awareness of the form and structure of the target language. Moreover, the first language, as a reference system, can dismiss the misunderstanding in the process of the second language learning. Then, thinking about formal features of the second language and translation as a practice technique put the learner into an active problem-solving situation. Finally, Grammar-Translation Method appears relatively easy to apply and it makes few demands on teachers, which is perhaps the exact reason of its popularity.

- **Definitions**

The direct method is a radical change from Grammar-Translation Method by the use of the target language as a means of instruction and communication in the language classroom, and by the avoidance of the use of the first language and of translation as a technique. It is a shift from literary language to the spoken everyday language as the object of early instruction. In this method, the learning of languages was viewed as analogous to the first language acquisition, and the learning process involved were often interpreted in terms of an association's psychology. The direct method was a first attempt to make the language learning situation one of the language use. It demanded inventiveness on the part of teachers and led to the development of new techniques of language, such as demonstrations of pictures and objects, the emphasis on questions and answer, spoken narratives, dictation and imitation, etc. Nevertheless, two questions will be raised inevitably about this method: one is how to safeguard against misunderstanding without translating

(especially, some abstract ideas), without reference to the first language; the other is how to apply this method beyond elementary stage of language learning. Furthermore, this method requires teachers who are native speakers or have native-like fluency in the foreign language they teach, but in practice, it is difficult to meet these requirements.

2.3 The audio-lingual method

The audio-lingual method was the first to claim openly to be derived from linguistics and psychology. Audiolingualism reflects the descriptive, structural, and contrastive linguistics of the fifties and sixties. Its psychological basis is behaviorism which interprets language learning in terms of stimulus and response, operant conditioning, and reinforcement with an emphasis on successful error-free learning. It assumes that learning a language entails mastering the elements or building blocks of the language and learning the rules by which these elements are combined, from phoneme to morpheme to word to phrase to sentence. Therefore, it was characterized by the separation of the skills---listening, speaking, reading, and writing---and the primacy of the audio-lingual over the graphic skills. This method uses dialogues as the chief means of presenting the language and stresses certain practice techniques, such as pattern drills, mimicry and so on. Listening and speaking were now brought right into the centre of the stage in this method, tape recordings, and language laboratory drills were offered in practice. As one of the most popular methods in the history of foreign language teaching, the audio-lingual method is of some great contributions to language teaching, for example, it attempted to make language learning accessible to large groups of ordinary learners because it proposed that language teaching should be organized in such a way as not to demand great intellectual feats of abstract reasoning to learn a language. In addition, it stressed syntactical progression, while previously methods had tended to be

preoccupied with vocabulary and morphology. In spite of these contributions, audiolingualism was also criticized in many ways. First, its theoretic foundation was attacked as being unsound both in terms of language theory and learning theory by Chomsky's theory of TG grammar; second, the practical results fell short of expectations and students were often found to be unable to transfer skills acquired through Audiolingualism to real communication outside the classroom. Therefore, it ignores the communicative competence in teaching practice.

- **Summary**

Each of the different methods has contributed new elements and has attempted to deal with some issues of language learning. However, they derived in different historical context, stressed different social and educational needs and have different theoretical consideration. Therefore, in teaching practice, in order to apply these methods effectively and efficiently, practitioners should take these questions in mind: who the learners are, what their current level of language proficiency is, what sort of communicative needs they have, and the circumstances in which they will be using English in the future, and so on. In a word, no single method could guarantee successful

POINTS FOR DISCUSSIONS / CLARIFICATION

After going through the unit you may like to have further discussion on some points and clarification. Note down those points:-

- References / Further Readings

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UNIT 4: COMMUNICATION OPTIONS: JUSTIFICATION AND CHALLENGES

- **Introduction**
- **Objectives**
- **Definitions**
- **Summary**
- **Revision**
- **Assignment/Activity**
- **Points For Discussion And Clarification**
- **References / Further Readings**

- **Introduction**

The pedagogical tendencies which have characterized second and foreign language teaching have been profuse and varied. As Stern (1983: 453) phrases it, “The conceptualization of language teaching has a long, fascinating, but rather tortuous history”, which Brown (1994: 52) portrays as the “changing winds and shifting sands of language teaching”. This history has been formulated mainly in terms of diverse teaching methods, each of

which has attempted to find more effective and efficient ways of teaching languages and each of which has been based on different views of what languages are and of how they are best taught. And the aim of this chapter is precisely to review such a methodological history of language teaching; framing recent approaches to language teaching against the backdrop of a general historical overview which evolves from the Grammar-Translation Method to the postcommunicative period. Behind any teaching enterprise there always exist some theoretical assumptions. We may refer to them as guiding lines or principles. Sometimes not even teachers can state them as such explicit foundations. But these principles do work and influence their everyday teaching activity. As Stern (1983: 24-5) puts it, "A language teacher can express his theoretical conviction through classroom activities as much as (or indeed, better than) through the opinions he voices in discussions at professional meetings". The idea of how to teach a foreign language affects not just teaching development, but also its results. There are many circumstances and factors which determine or modify the teaching process, but a good theoretical body is fundamental in order to moderate every factor and to achieve the general goal. We should analyse our own beliefs on how to teach the FL and adapt them, if it is the case, to more rigorous and contrasted assumptions. History shows different trends or models which evince how a variety of choices and options have been followed (Howatt, 1984). Throughout time, FL teaching has changed and it is interesting to discover our own contradictions or quests about the issue in parallel to historical development so that a solid conclusion is drawn. Some may think that all traditional methods are similar and, thus, obsolete. Or, what is worse, some may think that new technologies are a genuine panacea to solve methodological problems of any type. An open and receptive attitude to

analyse our own teaching conceptions upon the best methodology to follow is the key to construct solid foundations. The aim of this chapter is to help Secondary teachers to study the different trends and to draw valid conclusions about an effective FL teaching methodology. It is not enough to know the FL, but to combine that knowledge with a conscious reflection on how to carry out a successful teaching experience. All this will lead us to establish a new theoretical set of foundations. As many factors come into play, certain criteria to develop them must be present. Below are the criteria which Stern considers are “particularly relevant to theory development in language teaching”, (1983: 27-31):

Usefulness and applicability: Practical effects on FL learning
Explicitness: Principal assumptions stated and defined
Coherence and consistency: Elements ordered and organized within a system
Comprehensiveness: Capacity to accept other special theories
Explanatory power and verifiability: Capacity to predict events and admit research
Simplicity and clarity: Easy to understand and direct

These are the main ideas:

1. All teachers follow theoretical principles though they are not explicitly stated
2. Beliefs and convictions on the most effective teaching method must be reviewed and tested
3. As many factors influence the FL teaching process, a global theory is required
4. Throughout history, controversial trends on methods have been used. All may have a positive contribution.
5. A good theory is most of all practical
6. Research and reflection improve the consistency of a good teaching method

2. TERMINOLOGICAL INTRODUCTION Perhaps the first step in order to fully understand this historical overview

- **Objectives**

- Perhaps the first step in order to fully understand this historical overview is to establish a set of clear-cut definitions of key terms in this area. Applied linguistics: The term refers to linguistic studies and theories which support a language teaching method -in the British tradition-. Within a broader perspective, those linguistic studies which affect other domains, such as First and Second Language Acquisition, FL teaching, Language for Specific Purposes, Sociolinguistics and Pragmatics, Discourse Analysis, Psycholinguistics, Corpus and Computational Linguistics, Lexicology and Lexicography, and Translation, to mention the most relevant. Though they are theoretical, a practical conclusion or application can be drawn. Approach: Within the teaching method framework, the approach is constituted by those theoretical principles on which the curricular design is based (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). Thus, an approach is usually understood as the body of linguistic, psychological and pedagogical theories which inspire the teaching practice. Stern (1983: 43-50) refers to foundations/theoretical assumptions and to a level - interlevel between theory and practice where the educational linguistics theory and research take place. Curricular design: A new term which substitutes both programme and syllabus as old limited references to contents and bibliography. Within Richards and Rodgers' outline (1986), the design includes objectives, linguistic content, activities, learner roles, teacher roles, and the role of instructional materials. According to Stern (1983: 43-50), the practice level of a "general model for second language teaching" includes methodology -objectives, content, procedures, materials and evaluation of outcome and organization; thus, the term methodology

includes design and procedures. Curriculum: As defined by Nunan (1988), it comprises the principles and procedures for the planning, implementation, evaluation and management of an educational programme. Method: This general term includes the approach, design and procedures in Richards and Rodgers' model. Methodics and Method analysis: Terms used by Halliday, McIntosh and Stevens (1964) and Mackey (1965), respectively, in order to consider the whole teaching processes. Special emphasis is placed on selection, grading, presentation, repetition and testing. Methodology: Stern's (1983) concept of methodology can be identified with design, according to Richards and Rodgers (1986). It involves content, objectives, materials, procedures and assessment –under the acronym of C.O.M.P.A.-. Together with organization, it constitutes the practical level of the general model for second language teaching (Stern, 1983: 44). Procedures: Those “techniques, practices, and behaviours observed when the method” is taken to the classroom, as Richards and Rodgers summarize (1986). Programme: List of the topics or chapters of the course. It usually includes readings and other bibliographical references. It is a good tool to present the content outline which belongs to a broader conceptual curricular design framework. Syllabus: Similar to programme, it contains what is to be taught with a clear reference to selection and grading of content. Strategies: Learning strategies are those procedures used by the learner in order to cope with the problems faced. The knowledge of these “attack plans” is supposed to be taken to the classroom so that they become a new resource to make teaching work. Teachers' guide: First attempts to place traditional methods within a broader pedagogical framework “in

the view of modern theorists-practitioners language teaching” (Stern, 1983: 477). The most relevant contribution comes from the teacher’s own experience. Rivers’ guide (1981) requires special mention due to her recommendation of an eclectic position. Techniques: Teaching activities. They must be referred to the broader frame of curricular design to which they belong. Theoretical principles: See approach.

- **Definitions**

Looking back at the history of FL teaching is very interesting. It allows us to know the different trends and, what is more important, to ask some questions about the best way to teach the FL. Stern (1983: 75) recommends we “look to ourselves and ... explore to what extent our second language teaching has been influenced by our own language learning and language teaching experience”. This overview will help us determine which aspects have affected our learning experience when facing academic settings or less formal situations. Our past and present teaching experience will offer good reasons to discuss and draw renewed conclusions. (Discussion highly recommended, see Stern: 1983: 75). Howatt (1984) provides a very complete historical perspective. The first aspect to pinpoint is how the FL can be learnt in two different settings: as a result of a natural immersion experience -backed by the need to use the new language for trade and surviving purposes-, or after a formal and systematic academic process. These two axes will show not just different linguistic varieties to refer to the FL, but different goals, materials and activities. And different are the roles played both by teachers and learners. The closer these two perspectives are, the more effective the FL teaching turns out to be. The theoretical principles which have traditionally inspired the diverse methods come from different linguistic and

psychological conceptions. Language and learning are the two foundation stones on which methods have been based.

- **Summary**

The criticism of the traditional Grammar-translation method has a response in the second half of the 19th century. Several authors react against an excessive theoretical and academic tradition which did not prove to be efficient in everyday language conversation. Howatt (1984: 161-206) provides a broader view of this reaction, whose principal facts are treated here. Particularly outstanding is Gouin (1880), a French teacher of Latin who decided to study German as a foreign language. He followed the same Grammar-translation methodology he had applied in his lessons. He studied the grammar rules and a great amount of vocabulary, and even translated literary works. But he could not understand a single word when he took part in conversations. The failure made him search for the reason underlying those negative and frustrating results. To make things worse, after going back home, he observed how his three-year-old nephew had acquired his mother tongue and was able to speak without any problem. These sorts of observations took him to the insights that, after listening, children conceptualize meanings and develop a capacity of thinking and speaking in that language. Thus, importance was attached to the exclusive use of the target language as a direct methodology and an easy sequence of concepts to present and practice the content. Gouin created the series method, where sequenced actions as such concepts are taught step by step. Learners will associate each sentence to the specific movement to which it refers. A similar conclusion on how first language is acquired takes Berlitz to an immersion or

direct methodology. The features of the Direct Method can be summarized along the following lines:

- **Revision**

No account of present-day language usage is presented • Secondary grammatical points receive a lot of attention • Morphology is given a predominant place • It gives an exaggerated importance to faults to be avoided • Translations are often unsatisfactory, as they are done word by word • Too many notions are learnt and students may feel frustrated when unable to use the FL

The criticism of the traditional Grammar-translation method has a response in the second half of the 19th century. Several authors react against an excessive theoretical and academic tradition which did not prove to be efficient in everyday language conversation. Howatt (1984: 161-206) provides a broader view of this reaction, whose principal facts are treated here. Particularly outstanding is Gouin (1880), a French teacher of Latin who decided to study German as a foreign language. He followed the same Grammar-translation methodology he had applied in his lessons. He studied the grammar rules and a great amount of vocabulary, and even translated literary works. But he could not understand a single word when he took part in conversations. The failure made him search for the reason underlying those negative and frustrating results. To make things worse, after going back home, he observed how his three-year-old nephew had acquired his mother tongue and was able to speak without any problem. These sorts of observations took him to the insights that, after listening, children

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The so-called Reform movement is another important reaction and lays its emphasis on the teaching of oral language. The International Phonetic Association requires special mention. Created in 1886, its declaration of principles is compiled in six articles: 1. Foreign language study should begin with the spoken language of everyday life. 2. Pupils must be familiarized with the sounds of the FL. Conventional spelling is postponed. 3. The most common sentences and idiomatic phrases must be introduced at a first stage. Dialogues, descriptions and narratives will follow in a natural, easy way. 4. Inductive way for first levels. Grammar must be postponed. 5. The FL meaning must be explained with direct reference to objects or concepts and not to the native language. 6. When writing is introduced, a sequence is recommended from reproduced texts to free composition. Translation belongs to the most advanced stage of the course.

POINTS FOR DISCUSSIONS / CLARIFICATION

After going through the unit you may like to have further discussion on some points and clarification. Note down those points:-

Points for Discussion

Points for Clarification

- References / Further Readings

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UNIT 5:TUNING THE ENVIRONMENT (HOME & SCHOOL) FOR FACILITATING LANGUAGE & COMMUNICATION

- **Introduction**
- **Objectives**
- **Definitions**
- **Summary**
- **Revision**
- **Points For Discussion And Clarification**
- **References / Further Readings**

- **Introduction**

If the study of learners' errors, or Error Analysis, was the outcome of the distinction between competence and performance in connection with research, Cognitive Code learning was, rather than a method in itself, a reaction against the Audiolingual one. Thus, rote learning was de-emphasised, together with techniques such as mimicry and memorisation (Nunan, 1991b). Substitution and transformation drills were used, but they were introduced with a rationale different from behaviourist drills: to infer the rules of the target language, to actively engage the learner in a problem-

solving process, to link new learning to prior knowledge and to reflect about the way the target language operates. Also, errors were contemplated in a different way: making mistakes was part of the learning process, rather than a dangerous habit to be discouraged because of the risk of learning those deviant forms. Some other features of the method included the possibility of presenting lessons deductively or inductively. In the first approach, the new structure or item was embedded in a meaningful context, learners were told the rule and given the opportunity to apply it to several examples. In the second approach, learners were given a number of examples and then told to infer the rule through guided discovery. In both cases the aim was to formulate the rule in a conscious way and to reflect about it, rather than foster rote-learning and positive habits.

Even if there was a solid psychological and linguistic background behind Cognitive Code learning, the transformational grammar and mentalist/cognitive learning paradigms did not exactly give way to a method with a set of explicit step-by-step classroom procedures and techniques, unlike the previous method, very popular for teachers because of its explicit guidelines. That is why this layout did not attain the prominence of Audio-lingualism, as it did not have a clear classroom implementation. Besides, its major outcome, Error Analysis, also suffered some drawbacks, as it overstressed production data and paid too much attention to learners' errors but was not able to account for avoidance phenomena. However, mentalism took the individual and his/her attempt at creating a language into account, rejected the notion of the learner as an empty organism, accepted the importance of prior knowledge and distinguished the dichotomy of competence and performance, origin of communicative approaches. It also studied universal aspects common for all learners and languages. Besides, it

constituted the origin of the second language acquisition tradition and the humanistic approaches, both described in the following sections.

The empirical research into first and second language acquisition, the identification of L1 and L2 learning and the attempt to apply these notions to the second language classroom (Nunan, 1991b), together with the principles already developed in the previous mentalist framework, led to the development of two methods: The Natural Approach (Krashen and Terrell, 1983) and Total Physical Response (Asher, 1988). Both methods share some theoretical beliefs:

- Language is considered a creative process of rule formation and hypothesis testing.
- Input is used to confirm or reject those rules/hypotheses about language.
- Language learning is a universal process and it is innate, because all children develop their language around the same age, regardless of the concrete language.
- LAD (Language Acquisition Device): The roots of language are pre-programmed in the minds of children when they are born, so that they would be able to acquire a language no matter whether he receives input or not. Learners should use that LAD for acquiring the target language.
- Identity hypothesis (L1=L2): The process of learning a second language is very similar to how the mother tongue is learnt. That is why many processes of L1 learning can also be applied to L2 acquisition. Thus, the search for learning and language universals and the notion of language as a creative process constitute the two main arguments that led to the study of the similarities in L1 and L2 learning, which has been termed the Identity Hypothesis, at the core of both methods. The two attach great importance to input as a source to trigger learning and, following the Identity Hypothesis, they try to imitate the way children learn their mother tongue.

- **Objectives**

Krashen (1985; Dulay Burt and Krashen, 1982) studied the conditions underlying all successful language acquisition, mainly based on the way children learn their first language, proposing the Monitor Theory, at the source of the classroom method. This model consists of five hypotheses: 1. Acquisition versus learning hypothesis There are two different ways to 'learn' a language: a subconscious process, natural, identical to the one children learning their mother tongue use, and effective –acquisition-, and a second process –learning-, which is conscious and consists of learning grammar rules. 2. Natural Order hypothesis Second language rules are acquired in a fixed way, pre-established, determined by innate mechanisms and not by linguistic complexity or explicit teaching. 3. Monitor Hypothesis The monitor only controls learning, not acquisition. The monitor plans, edits and corrects the learner's production when there is time. It sometimes interferes with the process of acquisition. 4. Input Hypothesis It explains how language is acquired. A second language is acquired processing comprehensible input, that is, input that has been listened to and understood. If that input is beyond the level of the student and he/she does not understand it, then that input is useless. For acquisition to take place the input has to be slightly superior to the level of the learner (i+1) and comprehensible. To achieve comprehension, the learner can use some help, through the context, pictures, mime, etc. To achieve acquisition the learner must use innate mechanisms (LAD), triggered when input is heard and understood. 5. Affective filter Hypothesis It considers the role in acquisition of several factors, such as motivation, self-confidence or anxiety. These factors foster or impede acquisition, though they do not produce acquisition. To be more concrete, lack of motivation or self-esteem can raise the affective filter so

that comprehensible input is not able to trigger the LAD and acquisition becomes impossible. 6.2.2. Features of the method: The Natural Approach Krashen's Monitor Theory constitutes the theoretical background of this method, together with Terrell's school experience (Krashen and Terrell, 1983). The Natural approach considers language as communication, so meaning, rather than grammar, is at the core of their notion of language. Thus, the focus is not on explicit analysis of structures either by the teacher or learner. Following the notion that the process of learning a second language should be similar to the way children learn their mother tongue, comprehensible input is provided using visual and kinaesthetic aids, and students are not asked to produce output immediately, as they usually go through a silent period in which they understand but are not able to use the target language, in a way similar to L1 learners. There are several types of activities introduced in the lessons: -Affective humanistic activities, intended to reduce the learners' affective filter and involve their feelings, ideas and experiences, such as dialogues, interviews, preference ranking, personal charts, etc. -Problem-solving activities, in which students have to find a correct answer to a situation or problem. -Games, considered as an important element in the acquisition process and not as a way to fill up students' lessons. -Content activities, which focus on learning something else besides language, including mathematics, science, etc., for example, music, films, television reports, news broadcasts, and the like. These activities provide meaningful and comprehensible input in the form of listening and reading. Production –speaking and writing- are left for a second stage, when the students have undergone their silent period and are ready to speak. The activities introduce a focus on unconscious acquisition rather than learning, and can be used to lower the students' affective filter, because they centre on

the students' personal experience and opinions. Yes No Meaning, rather than form Unconscious acquisition, rather than learning Analysis of syntactic structures Comprehensible input Drills Games, problem-solving and affective activities

- **Definitions**

Asher (1977) focused on several characteristics of first language acquisition to develop this method: the first is that children have to comprehend a lot of input before they learn how to speak. The second is that, when they are young, children receive input in which a lot of physical manipulation and action is involved (Nunan, 1991b). This association between movement and language facilitates spontaneous acquisition because of the association between stimulus and response. In this sense, this model has a clear audiolingual orientation. Asher also incorporated some humanistic principles: as in the Natural approach, it is essential to eliminate affective filters such as anxiety or stress, which could impede acquisition. Although there is a structured psychological basis behind this method which is similar to that of the Natural approach, its linguistic orientation differs from that of Krashen and Terrell's, and can be said to be based on a structuralist or even grammatical position (Sánchez, 1997), as input is selected using grammatical and lexical criteria. Humanism and an identification of L2 and L1 learning are at the core of both methods. Moreover, many of their postulates are still applied in our days, such as the notions of input before output, the silent period, the question of comprehensible input, the reduction of the affective filter, and, for the Natural Approach, its selection of activities and its focus on meaning, rather than form. In this sense this method can be said to be the origin of the notional-functional approaches (see Section 8) that led to the

Communicative move. In contrast, the TPR method goes back towards structuralist and grammatical positions in its notion of language –considered as a set of structures and vocabulary- and learning –regarded as an association of stimulus and response through physical action-. In general, the two methods have shown some problems, such as the fact that they were not designed by experts, and it has not been possible to verify their theoretical background or hypotheses. Besides, the distinction of learning versus acquisition as two separate mechanisms, one conscious and ‘unadvisable’ and the other one unconscious and ‘advisable’ is, though accepted by a widespread range of language teachers, feeble. Moreover, the role of interaction and the function of output for learning were not considered in detail. In addition, the TPR method, though popular in our days as a classroom procedure or technique, proved to be very demanding on teachers, provided a very limited range of materials and procedures, and made teaching difficult structures nearly impossible.

This section contemplates a number of methods which, through different in their classroom implementation, share a common framework: the primacy of affective and emotional factors within the learning process. They also have some other features in common, such as their departure from theories of language and second language acquisition research studies. In fact, they can be said to stem from common sense, rather than from any interaction between the psychological and linguistic disciplines (Sánchez, 1997). The role they attach to affect and feeling forms part of what has been termed the humanistic tradition, represented by Stevick (1982), Curran (1972), Gattegno (1972) and Lozanov (1978), among others. Humanism departs from audiolingual habit theory and cognitive code learning and emphasizes the learner’s affective domain. Thus, language should be learner-centred, and the

content, materials and learning activities should take into account the learner's emotional attitude toward that language, its culture and his/her classmates. Humanism could be summarised saying that it is not really possible to teach anybody anything, only to help learners in their acquisition process. 7.2. Community Language Learn

- **Summary**

The question of how adults learn a second language, rather than an identification between children's L1 and adults' L2 learning, is at the core of this method. Adults show more inhibitions, they tend to analyse what they learn in a conscious way, and have a fear of making mistakes. Curran (1972) noticed that propensity to anxiety in adult language learners and focused on building a warm and supportive 'community' among learners, gradually moving from dependence on the teacher to complete autonomy. Psychologically speaking, this method arises from Rogers' notions of learners in the role of clients and teachers as non-directive counsellors (a summary of this theory can be seen in Rogers, 1980). Linguistically speaking, even though Curran did not put forward any theory of language, his main follower, La Forge (1983) developed the notion of language as a process in which social, personal and cultural factors interact to create the linguistic identity of the human being (Sánchez, 1997). The role of affect and feeling, the notions of learner as client and teacher as counsellor, together with a view of language as a process led to a set of procedures in which traditional and innovative techniques are combined: -Translation by the teacher of what L2 learners say is used. Then students repeat the sentences, which are recorded, revised and commented on subsequently. -Group work has an important function, and these interactions are also recorded and

transcribed by the teacher. Learners must then analyse their production and self-correct, if possible. - There is no pre-defined syllabus in the classical sense. Students decide what and when to learn according to their needs. The teacher must sometimes discover those needs. - The classroom is organized following a u-shape, so that participants can really communicate among themselves. The teacher is always behind the group to help solve linguistic problems, doubts and hesitations, and to eliminate negative feelings of anxiety or failure. Gattegno (1972) developed a method partly based on mentalist notions of learning (see section 5), and took into account the way children acquire their mother tongue (see section 6). Thus, in his theory teaching should be learner-centred, and learning was considered as an active, creative problem-solving process in which the use of physical cues was essential. As a materials developer, Gattegno was influenced by Cuisenaire, who had successfully used coloured charts and wooden sticks to teach mathematics. These cuisenaire rods –employed to remember learned material together with the role of silence it attaches to the teacher constitute two of the most well-known techniques of the method. Linguistically speaking, the Silent Way had a structuralist basis, with language being considered as a set of structures and vocabulary, but with a focus on its oral aspects. However, the social function of language was not yet taken into account.

- **Revision**

Though humanist in its general considerations, the Silent Way has an implementation different from the Community Language Learning approach. It has a very uniform classroom procedure; first sounds, then words and afterwards sentences are taught through coloured rods of different shapes,

which have been previously associated to the different linguistic items. The teacher pronounces each element and asks for its repetition. He/she can use mime to guarantee or check comprehension or to indicate slight changes in content. Thus, the teacher directs the classroom but has an indirect role, because he/she has to be silent most of the time, giving an active role to the learner. In general, the method follows an audiolingual perspective, as translation is avoided at all costs. However, it also follows mentalist accounts, because selfcorrection and learner autonomy are promoted. Lozanov (1979) developed a teaching method based on the idea that the learner, given the appropriate conditions, is capable of prodigious feats (Nunan, 1991b). He based his ideas on Yoga, Soviet psychology and the use of music. From Yoga he took some techniques of relaxation, concentration and deep breathing. From Soviet psychology he borrowed the idea that learners can acquire anything, provided they do it in a deep state of concentration bordering hypnosis, and using the non-conscious and nonrational powers of their mind. Music is used to facilitate this relaxation and to activate the use of the left hemisphere, which is supposed to trigger holistic-global, nonanalytic- learning. Even though this method had a sound psychological basis, Lozanov did not have a linguistic theory, although he did have a notion of the language to be taught: he focused on L1-L2 pairs (see Cerezal, 1996; Sánchez, 1997) and their memorisation, but did not attach a meaningful context to these linguistic items.

POINTS FOR DISCUSSIONS / CLARIFICATION

After going through the unit you may like to have further discussion on some points and clarification. Note down those points:-

Points for Discussion

Points for Clarification

- **References / Further Readings**
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BLOCK 5: EDUCATIONAL INTERVENTION STRATEGIES

**UNIT 1: EDUCATIONAL INTERVENTION:
CONCEPT, NEED & AREAS (CURRICULAR & CO
CURRICULAR) & TYPES OF EDUCATIONAL
INTERVENTION (GROUP, INDIVIDUAL,
DEVELOPMENTAL, REMEDIAL)**

- **Introduction**
- **Objectives**
- **Definitions**
- **Summary**
- **Revision**
- **Assignment/Activity**
- **Points For Discussion And Clarification**
- **References / Further Readings**

- **Introduction**

This is an empirical study of educational intervention for children with learning difficulties regarding numbers and calculations. My research began with such questions as “In what situations and what ways does a child become aware of or discover mathematical ideas?” and “In what situations and what ways does his/her mathematical cognition develop?” To answer these questions, a hypothesis has been made: There can be a way or a set of steps to obtain mathematical concepts and skills. Based on this hypothesis, a remedial form of education has been carried out for children with serious

difficulties in learning numbers and calculations. The results of educational intervention suggest answering the hypothesis positively.

First, some results of the kinds of educational intervention described above are shown in this article. Following on that, a definition of learning and an interpretation of learning progression are proposed. Lastly, a point of view to assess a child's numerical learning is proposed.

There is a mathematical educational movement in Japan with a history of more than 50 years (Horio 1994, p.265). It goes by the slogan of "high quality education in mathematics for all children." A teacher-led on-site initiative, it involves the recommendation of an alternative curriculum, and various materials have been developed associated with it (Kobayashi 1988). An example is an educational method for learning numbers and computations, known as the Suido Method (Tooyama and Ginbayashi 1971), which is widely recognized as a reliable education program that helps assure excellent academic performance for children. The characteristics of the Suido Method are that it analyzes written calculations, classifies and arranges teaching materials from general (i.e. $22 + 22$) to special (i.e. $20 + 20$), and uses one type of ten-base blocks called tiles to teach numbers and the arithmetic operations. These tiles are called schema, and are considered a teaching tool with a ladder-like role. Tile characteristics other than size are abstracted as semi-concrete items. The learning stage of manipulating concrete items and thinking, is linked with the learning stage of manipulating numbers and symbols and thinking by the tiles. Examples of similar research on the effectiveness as teaching tools of these semi-concrete items are Nakahara (2008) and Gravemeijer (2008).

This study has focused on the skill acquisition phase of the practical education process by the Suido Method, specifically on the cognitive modes,

e.g. on real world conditions, concrete pictures, schematic figures, and mathematical symbols. I call them “Real World,” “World of Models,” “World of Schemas,” and “Mathematical World”, respectively. The hypothesis is that we can set the steps for acquisition of numerical concepts and arithmetic skills. I then have conducted remedial education for children who experience severe difficulties with acquiring basic mathematical skills, continuously observing their aptitude for basic mathematical skills over a period of several years (Kotagiri 1993, 1999, 2002). The children being studied in this research are considered slow learners, developmentally disabled children including those with global-type learning disabilities, children who have suffered physical brain damage due to high fever and/or cardiac arrest stemming from meningitis, hydrocephalus, etc., and children afflicted by mental disabilities such as mentally retarded children or those with Down syndrome. One can consider that the above hypothesis has been validated or is in the process of being validated. Of course, many children with special needs may be afflicted by a wide range of disabilities, and I am aware that they may not all be covered.

From my experience with the remedial education approach, I have come to believe that all children can achieve a certain level of learning under the specific constraints of our era precisely because they have been born as human beings. Focusing on four different steps relating to the cognitive modes, I think that this learning process is assured. In fact, although learning difficulties have been repeatedly observed, and though the learning process of special needs children is slow, it definitely does take place. I would like to add that the thinking process of these children is creative, and it contributes to their self-esteem. Generalization of the four-step teaching/learning strategy has been confirmed through teaching elementary school children the decimal

place-value notation, and through teaching university students arithmetic calculation written in binary place-value notation.

To apply the results of my research to on-site teaching situations, I have compiled data on the learning processes of all the children mentioned above, and I have provided this information policy on the Web (<http://plaza4ts.edu.u-ryukyu.ac.jp/>). This enables teachers to access case studies at any time, and to devise classroom plans for children who are at roughly the same level as the children they are teaching, based on the case research here. By referring to the records of the children's performance, teachers can gain a detailed understanding of the learning tasks involved.

- **Objectives**

The hypothesis is that every child should be able to acquire the basic numerical concepts and arithmetic algorithms taught in elementary education if he/she is guided to learn them along a process which consists of the Real World to the Model World, the Schema World, and the Mathematical World, which are intellectual modes of thinking and solving problems. This hypothesis is premised on four conditions called Biological Constraint, Medical Constraint, Sociological Constraint, and Pedagogical Constraint (Kotagiri 2004A).

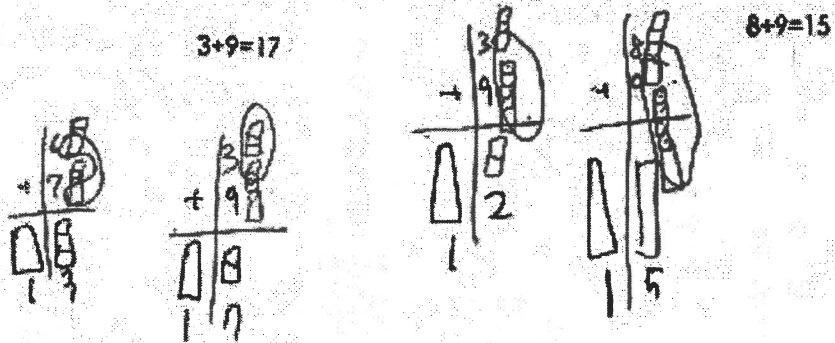
In the remedial education, each child is to take a lesson once a week and to do one-problem/one-page homework each day (Kotagiri 2004B). Children are not forced to memorize how to solve problems, but to solve them in their own way. For example, children are asked to draw a picture for an answer. They need to draw it in their own way. They are free to draw any kind of

picture in any way they choose. In this way, their cognition is reflected in the picture.

The children who have been taking part in the research are a boy with a global type of learning disability (Masa), a boy with brain damage due to fever caused by cerebral meningitis (Tats), a boy with brain damage caused by hydrocephalia (Tak), a girl thought to be a slow learner (Mak), a boy who often memorizes wrong procedures (Yas), an autistic boy (Nach), a mentally-retarded girl (Ayu), and a girl with Down syndrome (Iku). Teachers and developmental consultants etc. of schools introduced children who became unable to advance even one step in numbers or calculations at both school and after-school tutoring. Out of those children who were introduced, it was explained that these specific children were those with learning difficulties due to mental retardation and development disorders, and it is judged difficult for them to achieve further learning through daily activities by school teachers. Observations of these children were described: they have weak memories, when taught they can do it but the next day they forget, they do not understand the meanings, and/or have weak abilities to understand meanings, etc. Rough results of just four of these children are shown as follows:

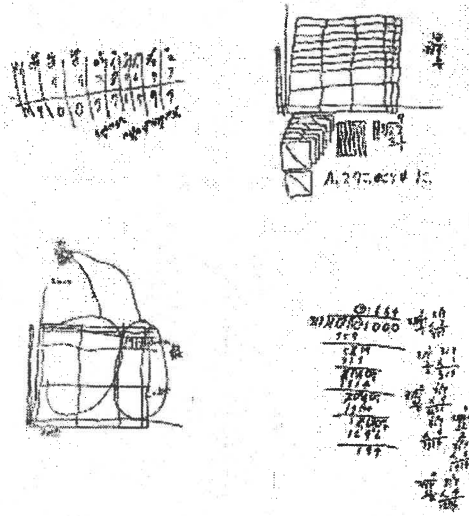
Name: Masa

<Before> (When a 5th year elementary school student)



<After>

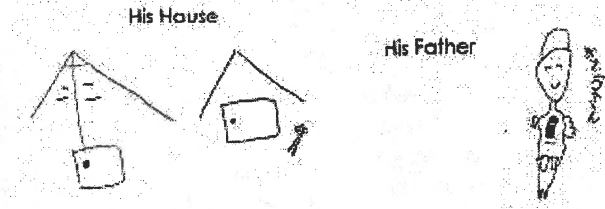
(4 years and 3 months until he learned the written division calculation algorithm)



Name: Tats

<Before>

(When a 2nd year elementary student, hyperactive, in a learning disabilities class)



<After> (Learning achievement 6 years, 5 months later)

10300 - 666

お題 お花が10300まいがさうあ
 21いすま 666まいかたれ
 たかれないのはいくつ
 だよ?

算道
$$\begin{array}{r} 10300 \\ - 666 \\ \hline 9634 \end{array}$$

答 9634まい

Name: Taku

<Before> (When a 5th year elementary school student)

same time

$6 + 3 = \boxed{\quad\quad} + \boxed{\quad\quad}$

$\boxed{\quad\quad\quad\quad} = 9$

He needed to count drawn tiles one by one.

<After> (Learning achievement 4 years, 9 months later)

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10000 - 7908

Handwritten notes in Hindi:
 10000 - 7908 = 2092
 10000 - 7908 = 2092
 10000 - 7908 = 2092

		1	0	0	8
		7	9	0	8
		2	0	9	2

Handwritten note below table: 10000 - 7908 = 2092

Name: Mak

<Before> (When a 3rd year elementary school student)

Handwritten text: 55 (50 + 5)

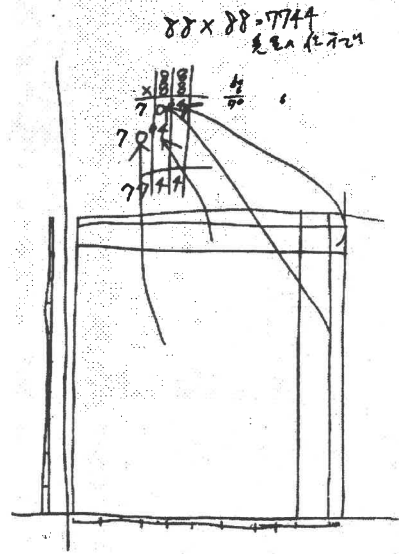
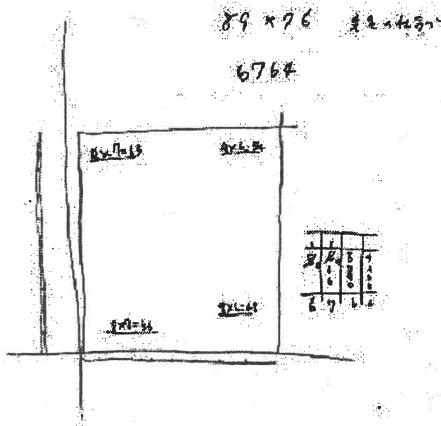
Fifty Five

A chunk "5" → "0" ?

203	02	57
	5	0

Handwritten notes below table: 50, 55, 50+5

<After> (Learning achievement 3 years, 6 months later)



- **Definitions**

The practical evidence above indicates obvious and desirable improvements which differ in their learning achievements. Such achievements are made through four teaching/learning steps: the Real World, to the Model World, the Schema World, and the Mathematical World (Kotagiri 2004B, 2004C).

When children manipulate concrete things to solve a problem, an intellectual system which depends on the real world works well. When children manipulate toys/pictures to solve a problem, an intellectual system which depends on the imagery model world also works well. An intellectual system of the Model World appears to be similar to some intellectual systems of the Real World, but in fact the two systems differ. An intellectual system of the Schema World is formed by idealizing things of the Model World, but

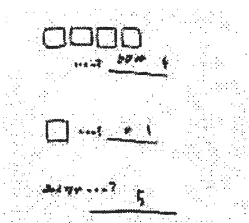
these two systems also differ. Children can see the validity of an intellectual system of the Mathematical World in the previous intellectual worlds, especially in the intellectual Schema World. However, numerals and symbols exist in the Mathematical World, not physically, although people perceive and manipulate them as well as they do concrete things. This observation gives us the following definition:

Learning is an upgrade or a reorganization of the present intellectual system, with such human intellectual systems being multi-contextual and consistent.

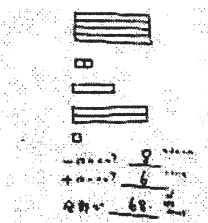
“Multi-contextual” means that people happen to think about different things from the one they are thinking about at a particular moment. For example, you are now thinking about a learning theory. Simultaneously, you may happen to be also thinking about a restaurant where you’re planning to eat out this evening. “Consistent” means that an intellectual system must be consistent in some context and should be consistent in a wider or more comprehensive context. In other words, human intelligence can not leave inconsistency or contradiction as it is without wanting to resolve it in some way. According to this definition of learning, I propose here a new term “learning conflict” to explain learning progressions observed in the cases above: A learning conflict advances learning along the steps from the Real World to the Mathematical World. When children are guided to learn along these steps, they face learning conflicts. The term “learning conflict” includes logical contradictions, cognitive conflicts, differences of opinion, and difficulties in doing something. A teacher intervenes in a child’s learning and makes him/her face learning conflicts; the teacher does not actually solve the

child’s learning conflict. It is the child who does that (Kotagiri 2007). Some specific examples are described below, involving the children mentioned earlier:

Iku can grasp the numbers “4” and “5” cognitively when she is asked to give the number of concrete tiles. But she needs to count tiles one by one when she is asked to give the number of pictured tiles. When Ayu is asked the number of pictured tiles, she usually counts them, such as ten, twenty, thirty, thirty one, thirty two, . . . , thirty seven although she can tell that there are three tens and seven ones. When she is asked to count a large number of pictured tiles, she stops counting them one by one and gives the number correctly. It is difficult for her to count numbers larger than fifty.

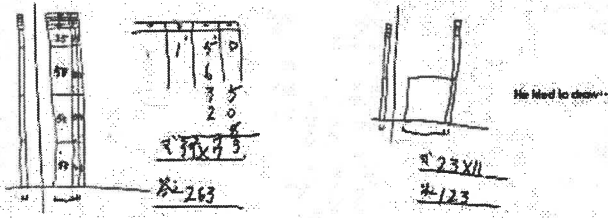


She needed to count the tiles again to answer “5”.
-Iku-



She didn’t need to count the tiles again to answer “68”.
-Ayu-

Another child, Taku, understands the meaning of multiplication and can give an answer by drawing a picture, but he cannot completely draw an idealized picture, although he can understand a complex idealized picture given by a teacher.



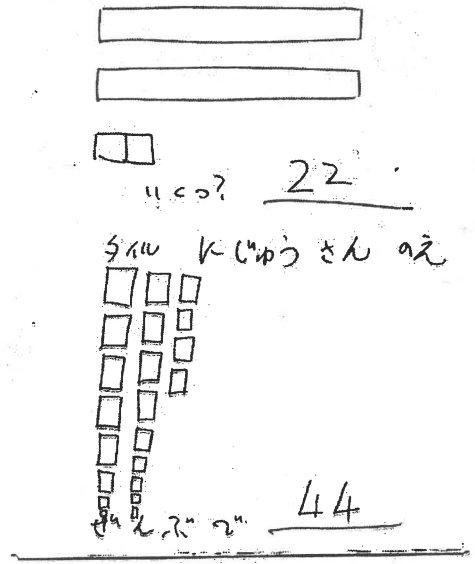
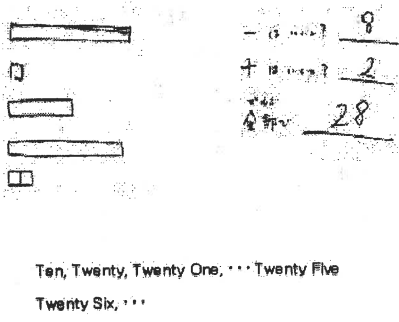
Numerical Cognition

Lastly, I describe the development of numerical cognition. What develops when a child learns numbers and calculations? The natural answer is “numerical cognition”. So what then is numerical cognition? The phrase includes number concepts and number senses.

If a child can combine or break down numbers, he/she has some number concepts required to do it. The system of decimal numeration is a number concept, as is place-value notation and the definition of decimal fractions. Number concepts can be memorized to some extent by repeating rote exercises. Number senses cannot be memorized in such a way. If they are, they will not work well.

The growth or development of number senses has been observed in educational intervention: Ayu never miscounts chunks of five and ten, although she needs to point at and count tiles one by one, creating in her mind the concept that one chunk contains 5 or 10 tiles. But she doesn’t understand the system of decimal numeration. That is, she has memorized Arabic numerals to the point where she can read and write them, but she cannot use the idea of decimal place-value notation to correctly count numbers of tiles. She understands that there are two tens and eight ones, but she cannot lead to “twenty eight” from these facts. However, this does not mean she has no number sense regarding the idea of the decimal system. For

example, when asked to draw 34 tiles, she counts while drawing each individual tile. She draws them in one row until there are 10 tiles, and starts a new row from the 11th tile. Then she starts new rows at 20 and 30, and expresses those numbers. Her idea of expressing numbers is not fully organized, but this does not mean that she has no number sense. This number sense works when she recounts to check. For the figure on the right, she looked at a picture which the teacher provided showing two tens and two ones, and she answered with the number. Next she was asked to draw a picture of twenty three tiles. Then for a problem asking for the total number, she did not notice that she was one short in the first row, counted the 22 tiles which she drew herself, and replied that the total number was 44.



Another child, Nach, has memorized pencil-and-paper algorithms to be able to do sums, after repeating rote exercises. But he doesn't use the skill in everyday life. I wish to emphasize that Nach has the number sense which

forms the base of the skill: He devises his number representation to distinguish fives from ones. I think that this number sense is an asset which can help him solve problems to manipulate numbers and seek the sum without confusing the manipulation of number concepts.

- **Summary**

It should be noted that it is insufficient to simply set up a classroom plan and prepare the materials. The issue here is how to assist each of the children individually. If we try to teach a child some mathematical knowledge and as a result push too hard, this action can have the effect of hindering the children's learning due to a lack of understanding of concepts and frustration. The more teachers try to teach, the more the children can feel pressured due to lack of understanding. Fundamentally, the children's learning process can only be facilitated by the children themselves.

How should teachers intervene in children's learning? When intervening in a child's learning, I do not attempt to drill the child too hard. I simply devise a problem incorporating the learning task the child needs to address, and ask the child to solve it. The question here is: How we can ensure that all of the children achieve the desired goals of learning numbers and arithmetic operations? Why is the four step teaching/learning strategy mentioned above efficient? In order to answer this question, we need to understand what learning is and what advances learning.

Then, in this article, I recommended that learning be defined as follows: Learning is a reorganization of the present intellectual system, such human intellectual system being multi-contextual and consistent. Here, "consistent"

means consistency not only in a certain context, but also striving to create consistency by a comprehensive range of approaches including the context in which consistency has been established. If knowledge acquisition can be transformed into problem-solving skills, it is not simply adding knowledge, but a better version of the intellectual system. It is explained that the system is continually reorganized by the learning conflict which occurs in a problem solving process. Learning conflicts include differences of opinion, learning difficulties in solving problems given in a more abstract cognitive mode, differences in strategies for solving some problem depending on differences in cognitive modes, and so on. Based on the definition of learning and learning conflicts, we can also explain how the classroom becomes a place of learning for children.

My policy on educational intervention is that a child starts learning with problems that can be resolved on the step of the “Real World,” and if these problems are solvable at this step, the child is asked to solve problems using the “World of Models.” Likewise, the child is asked to solve new problems. Throughout this process, I identify and observe the children’s emerging aptitude for math. My research also indicates that development of number cognition encompasses the children’s emerging number sense and acquisition of number concepts.

- **Revision**
- **Assignment/Activity**

• **References / Further Readings**

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**UNIT 2: PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICES IN
EARLY EDUCATIONAL INTERVENTION:
FAMILY CENTRED, CONTEXTUALISED
(NATURAL & INCLUSIVE ENVIRONMENT) &
INTEGRATED (COLLABORATIVE) SUPPORT
AND SERVICES**

- **Introduction**
- **Objectives**
- **Definitions**
- **Summary**
- **Revision**
- **Assignment/Activity**
- **Points For Discussion And Clarification**
- **References / Further Readings**

- **Introduction**

Early childhood professionals recognise that a gradual shift in emphasis occurs over the first eight years of a child's life, along a continuum from play to more structured learning in formal settings. Early childhood professionals apply strategies to support sustained and shared interactions with children through play to more focused learning.

Learning is an active process that must involve children's engagement. Play is essential for its ability to stimulate and integrate a wide range of children's intellectual, physical, social and creative abilities. Active engagement with, and attunement to children in their play extends and supports their learning. Shared, sustained conversations are also a powerful and important feature of active adult engagement.

Early Childhood Professionals:

encourage children to explore, solve problems, communicate, think, create and construct

use their judgement to support children's learning and development through a combination of child-led play-based learning, as well as active teacher-led learning

create physical environments that support a range of opportunities for learning and physical activity, both indoors and outdoors

build on children's interests, abilities, cultures and previous learning experiences to extend their thinking, learning and development

use child-centred approaches to explicitly teach particular knowledge and skills

recognise the connections between aspects of children's learning and development.

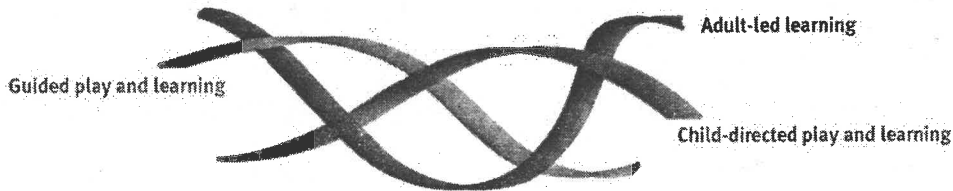


Figure 1: Integrated teaching and learning approaches (VEYDLF p 12)

Positive early learning experiences are essential for best outcomes for children. This Evidence Paper reviews the research literature that demonstrates why and how integrated learning and teaching approaches create these positive experiences. The evidence documents children's neurobiological dispositions for early learning, the role of play in early learning and, most importantly, the role of professionals in developing environments, experiences and interactions that facilitate learning and development.

What do we mean by 'integrated teaching and learning'?

Practice Principle 6: Integrated teaching and learning approaches focus on the interweaving of child-directed play and learning, guided play and learning, and adult-led learning. Integrated teaching and learning means that early childhood professionals build opportunities in early childhood

programs for children to interact with their environment, both physical and social, in response to their own hypotheses or curiosity about how their world works, *and* to interact with other children and professionals to extend this learning. Intentional teaching in this context requires responsive engagement with professionals who assess each child's existing abilities and knowledge and plan for learning experiences that build these competencies.

Successful integrated approaches to learning and teaching move children from where they are in terms of their understanding and build on this using real life examples to make learning engaging and relevant (Edwards, Gandini, and Forman, 2001; Murdoch and Hornsby,1997). A common misconception about experiential or play-based learning is that children choose topics to cover and that the direction of the learning must always be dictated by the child with little or no adult guidance. This is not the case. Content and topics need to be negotiated and effective negotiation – even with very young children – is a two way process (Copple 2003; Katz and Chard, 2000). Research indicates that while early childhood professionals need to use children's interest and previous knowledge as a foundation for their pedagogical focus, considerable time needs to be devoted to broadening and deepening children's knowledge, skills, concepts and experience to take them beyond what they already know and can do (Jones and Reynolds, 1992; Tregenza, 2006).

The research also indicates that many early childhood professionals view integrated teaching and learning approaches as unstructured or informal (Broadhead, 2006). Yet structure does not mean total teacher control. In fact research has shown that when professionals have well thought out learning

and development outcomes, with a range of pathways open to children regarding how those outcomes might be most meaningfully achieved, children remain engaged with the curriculum longer and on a deeper level than when no structure to the learning has been in place (Sylva, et al., 2007; Tregenza, 2006).

Early childhood professionals know the importance and significance of learning and development in the early years but are often divided in terms of what constitutes best practice and/or high quality. Goldbeck (2001) summarises three conflicting foci in regard to what practitioners believe shapes quality in early childhood, namely:

- whether to focus on short term outcomes versus long term outcomes
- cognitive development versus social/emotional development
- child-centred learning versus adult led learning.

This debate becomes increasingly contentious as children approach school age and begin what is typically seen as the more formal and academic journey through primary school (Fleer, 2010; Houghton, 2006; Hamre, Pianta, Mashburn, and Downer, 2009). Programs that build upon the interests of children and take advantage of spontaneous teaching moments as they arise best provide for the learning needs of children (OECD, 2007, p.174). Acknowledging this, some jurisdictions have developed tools to support teachers and school leaders to deepen their understanding of what constitutes high quality teacher practice in the classroom. Thee5 Instructional Model (DEECD, 2009b) used in Victoria, for example, provides a framework to

inform conversations and interactions, and guide observation, critique and reflection on classroom practice.

Traditionally, Australian early childhood learning environments have been heavily influenced by a developmental paradigm and constructivist learning theories, with Piaget and Vygotsky's work often dominating the agenda (Berk, 2009; Edwards, 2005). As summarised by Perry (2000, p.4), the 'shift towards a consideration of Vygotskian principles relating to the social mediation of knowledge has prompted a focus not only on what it is that children are capable of on their own (for example as assessed through Piagetian tasks), but also, what they are capable of achieving with the assistance of more knowledgeable others through scaffolding, and through teachers developing and implementing tasks that target the zone of proximal development (Berk and Winsler, 1995; Bodrova and Leong, 1996; Dockett and Fler, 1998; Fler, 1992)'.

In the last few decades, contemporary theoretical approaches to learning and development have placed a growing emphasis on the need to provide children with culturally sensitive, emotionally responsive and differentiated learning environments (Dahlberg, Moss, and Pence, 1999; Hamre, Pianta, Mashburn, and Downer, 2009).

- **Objectives**

There is now a compelling body of evidence demonstrating that what happens in the early years of a child's life has a lasting effect on learning and development (e.g. Campbell, Ramey, Pungello, Sparling and Miller-Johnson, 2002). Much of the recent debate has centred on the economic return that investing in children's early years can bring in terms of later employability and social outcomes (OECD, 2006). In particular, this interest has often centred on the most vulnerable children and families in society with low socio-economic status, those from Aboriginal communities and those children with disabilities. Children at risk from educational failure have now become a significant focus for early childhood service provision. Research has shown that high quality centre-based intervention programs that focus on the cognitive achievements of children can have lasting benefits (e.g. Barnett, 1995; Lynch, 2004).

Early learning is essential for all children; children have different strengths, abilities and interests and benefit from a range of experiences and opportunities for learning.

Contemporary evidence shows that the best outcomes for children occur when there is an integrated approach to teaching and learning (Sylva, Siraj-Blachford and Taggart, 2003; Hamre, Pianta, Mashburn and Downer, 2009; Sylva, et al., 2007). Ensuring the benefits of learning experiences in early childhood education programs, however, can prove challenging given the complex and interrelated factors involved in providing high quality early childhood learning experiences (Sylva, Siraj-Blachford and Taggart, 2003; Dahlberg, Moss and Pence, 1999; Sylva, et al., 2007; Hamre and Pianta,

2005). The benefits extend not only to children's cognitive development, but also to social and emotional development from a very young age (Davis, 2004). These approaches are best supported by early childhood professionals who understand children's early capacity for learning, the role of play in learning, and the role of educators in planning for interactions that extend children's learning.

Neurological research shows that young children's brains are extraordinarily active and that early childhood is the optimal time for learning and development.

Research over the past few decades has greatly enhanced our knowledge of how the human brain develops in early infancy and early childhood. During the period from 0 - 8 years the metabolic rate of children's brains rises sharply and stays high throughout this entire period. This means that young brains are biologically primed for learning (Shore, 1997; Blakemore and Frith, 2005; OECD, 2007).

The high level of activity in the first decade of life then begins to decline. Synapses – the site of information transfer from one neuron to another – used frequently become stabilised and will remain, and those that have not been used are often eliminated (Changeux and Dehaene, 1989); a principle of 'use it or lose it'. This early neurological priming sets the foundation for how children process their understanding of the world (National Scientific Council on the Developing Child, 2007).

The use of different brain scanning methods - positron emission tomography (PET scans), magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) or electroencephalography

(EEG) – have greatly advanced our understanding of early neurological development. Although the brain has a remarkable capacity for plasticity and change over the lifespan (Crick, 1994), the fact that early childhood is a sensitive period for optimal learning is well established (Shore, 1997; Blakemore and Frith, 2005; National Scientific Council on the Developing Child, 2007). Environmental as well as developmental influences have an impact on children's early learning trajectories. Increasingly, evidence shows that many of the critical periods for learning and development occur in the early years of a child's life (Hamre and Pianta, 2005; OECD, 2007).

Play is an essential element in early childhood learning and development.

Play has long been regarded as the locus for learning and development in early childhood education (Sylva, Siraj-Blachford and Taggart, 2003). The importance of play-based programs for young children has been widely accepted, if not clearly defined (Berk, 2009; Lally and Mangione, 2006; Sylva, et al., 2007). Early childhood professionals often struggle to articulate what it is about play that promotes learning in young children and how this can be successfully integrated into high quality learning experiences (Edwards, 2005; Kagan, Scott-Little and Frelow, 2009).

Play has many definitions and many theoretical perspectives informing approaches to early childhood education. An early study of children's play carried out by Mildred Parten (1932) observed children aged 2 – 5 years playing without adult guidance or intervention. Parten's research identified four categories of play – solitary independent play, parallel activity, associative play and co-operative play – and showed that there appeared to be

a developmental sequence to children's play. The younger the child the more likely they were to engage in solitary or parallel play whereas older children spent more time in associative or co-operative play. The categories she identified have persisted in framing understanding of the dimensions of children's play today (Smith, 1994).

A lay definition of play is often described as child-directed, active, and without rules. This ideology is based on the notion of play as an exploratory process rather than a focused activity to achieve any particular learning outcome or cognitive concept (Broadhead, 2006; Jones and Reynolds, 1992). Yet early childhood professionals conceive play more broadly, as a process through which children construct ideas about the world.

Through play, children learn about relationships, gender, race, fairness, unfairness, friendship and exclusion (Grieshaber and McCardle, 2010). In play, children experiment and develop knowledge and skills in language, literacy, numeracy and science in everyday encounters (Goouch, 2008; Samuelsson and Johansson, 2006; Van Oers, 2003). While play can be child-directed, research evidence shows that lower quality settings have the highest percentage of recorded time where staff are engaged in "monitoring" children's play but not actually interacting in any direct or meaningful way (Siraj-Blatchford et al., 2004).

Integrated teaching and learning approaches enable learning across multiple domains and best practice across service provision in early childhood.

Teaching and learning does not simply focus on a child's cognitive development, because the best outcomes are achieved for children when all aspects of their development are stimulated including social, physical, intellectual, emotional and creative abilities (Dahlberg, Moss, and Pence, 1999; Sylva, Siraj-Blachford and Taggart, 2003). Learning needs to focus on the whole child and their development across multiple domains (Gardner, 1993). Children need to be equipped with the skills to participate fully and effectively in a multicultural society and understand the particular skills and values that active citizens need (Katz, 2003a).

Understanding that everyday activities and social interactions are the foundation to cognitive, social and emotional development requires conscious and reflective practice from early childhood professionals (Katz, 2003b). This applies not only to formal early education and care settings; understanding the role of play in learning has relevance across the entire early childhood care and education field, including playgroups, parenting groups, specialist children's services, hospital play programs, maternal and child health services and Aboriginal family support programs (Kinsella, 2009). While different delivery models and varied professional, policy, theoretical and philosophical backgrounds have often seen early childhood services develop independently, common to all early childhood professionals is the agreed principle to work together to achieve the best outcomes for all children across the continuum from birth (Mogharreban and Bruns, 2009).

Children's learning and development is holistic, advancing simultaneously in the areas of health, cognition, personal and social development and wellbeing.

- **Definitions**

The most successful approaches in early learning build on children's interests and their curiosity to make sense of the world around them.

In order for children to have a strong sense of identity, to feel connected to their world, to have a strong sense of wellbeing and to be confident and effective communicators, early childhood professionals need to take an active role in children's learning. Learning needs to engage and motivate children on an ongoing basis (Siraj-Blatchford, 2007). For learning to be engaging and relevant, successful integrated approaches to learning and teaching should support and build on children's skills and interests. This happens when real life examples are used to make learning engaging and relevant (Edwards, Gandini and Forman, 2001; Murdoch and Hornsby, 1997). The work of Vygotsky (1978; see also Gardner, 1993) emphasises learning as an interactive process with its basis stemming from children's interests.

The practical guide for families and professionals, *Early Childhood Literacy and Numeracy: Building Good Practice* (Fleer and Raban, 2007) provides a

range of examples of how everyday experiences can be used to develop literacy and numeracy concepts based on children's own interests and experiences. This particular resource identifies the importance of engaging with even the youngest of infants and providing stimulating, meaningful and culturally relevant and responsive interactions. Extended interactions with infants in everyday activities prove essential for children to engage in learning (Hutchins and Sims, 1999). Research invariably shows that the experiences in the very early years have a powerful influence on later outcomes (Barnett, 1995; Hutchins, 1995; Katz, 2003a; OECD, 2006).

Research indicates that while early childhood professionals absolutely need to use children's interest and previous knowledge as a foundation for their pedagogical focus, considerable time needs to be devoted to broadening and deepening children's knowledge, skills, concepts and experience to take them beyond what they already know and can do (Jones and Reynolds, 1992; Tregenza, 2006). Integrated teaching and learning approaches are most effective when they are interactive, physical, and concrete and involve people, materials and the environment. Young children need practical, hands on learning experiences based on their interests and individual developmental level. Like adults, children learn from their mistakes as well as their successes. When early childhood professionals create a culture for this to happen, children's thinking and learning is enhanced (Walsh, Sproule, McGuinness, Trew, Rafferty and Sheehy, 2006).

Learning experiences, differentiated to fit the individual needs of each child have the most positive outcomes.

Learner-centred practice allows children to explore and experience the world around them in a way that best suits their individual interests and learning style (Dewey, 1915). Learning environments which typify this philosophy look at the whole child rather than compartmentalising learning into discrete and often unrelated experiences. A differentiated environment provides for each child's abilities, culture, perspectives, strengths, interests and learning styles (Arthur et al., 2008). A differentiated learning environment encourages children to co-construct their understanding collaboratively and allows children to explore their own hypotheses about what might work.

Success of this type of approach is seen in the work of early childhood professionals in the Italian town of Reggio Emilia. Children and professionals alike pose problems, ask questions, make suggestions, add complexity to tasks, and provide information, materials and assistance as needed to enable both children and adults to consolidate learning and move to the next level of understanding (Vygotsky, 1978; Edwards, Gandini and Forman, 1998). A differentiated curriculum attempts to blend experiences across home life and the experience in the early childhood setting so that children can internalise their learning across multiple domains in meaningful ways as they increasingly develop their sense of self and the world around them. Multimodal, differentiated learning environments that respect children's views are of paramount importance in improving the long-term learning and development outcomes (Katz, 2003a).

Early childhood professionals use integrated approaches to children's learning and take an active role in extending learning.

Effective early childhood professionals establish a learning culture where children have the opportunity to engage in a variety of activities which explore the same concepts in a variety of meaningful and engaging ways (Dockett and Perry, 2009). For example, research on mathematical learning highlights the integral role child-directed, guided play and adult-led learning have in concept and skill development across multiple learning domains (Dockett and Perry, 2009; Thomas, Warren and deVries, 2009; Lee, 2009; Hunting, 2009). Dockett and Perry (2009) found that the early childhood professionals with the greatest ability to use play to develop mathematical concepts were also best able to support and extend learning arising from thoughtful and well planned learning experiences. Importantly, these experiences should be planned for children of all ages, because infants have been shown to be equipped with a number sense and a disposition to interpret the world in a quantitative way (Wynn, 1998).

The Effective Provision of Preschool Education (EPPE) study in the UK found that the most effective early learning environments had a balanced focus on communication, language and literacy, knowledge and understanding of the world (including sciences and maths) whereas less effective environments spent almost all of their time focusing on children's physical and creative development (Siraj-Blatchford et al., 2004). This reflects the importance of intentional teaching and a *range* of learning experiences in early childhood education. Where children's arts education is supported by appropriate resources and attentive dialogue with an early

childhood professional, children's narrative abilities and conceptual skills can be extended (Wright, 2003).

In relation to learning activities, children in high quality environments participate more in reading, writing and listening, and adult scaffolded activities (Siraj-Blatchford et al., 2004). The most successful environments in the EPPE study spent time exploring scientific aspects of the environment and games that involved the deliberate development of number and mathematical concepts, guided by individual children's interests. High quality environments have more small group activities linked to particular skill acquisition or concept development, where the early childhood professional teaches language, science or numeracy concepts in an activity chosen by the children. Low quality environments are dominated by activities with little or no adult direction, and where children spend more time wandering around or watching others (Siraj-Blatchford et al., 2004).

The principle of integrated teaching and learning approaches highlights the importance of a *balanced* curriculum. In a study of early primary classrooms in the UK using either a teacher-directed curriculum or enriched curriculum – an integrated approach of differentiated learning activities, play and developmentally appropriate based practice (Walsh, Sproule, McGuinness, Trew, Rafferty and Sheehey, 2006) – children in the enriched curriculum classrooms performed better than their traditionally educated peers (i.e. teacher-directed) in all cognitive, affective and learning disposition domains (concentration, confidence, independence, multiple skill acquisition, higher order thinking skills, wellbeing, social interaction and respect). The study found that children with the highest scores were in classrooms where there

was a high level of child-adult interaction, activity differentiation and an ethos of individuality. Importantly, the study found that it was not just a matter of adding more play into children's daily activities: the highest scoring environments were those where there was a balance of play, practical and written tasks and an equal balance of child- and teacher-initiated learning activities aimed at a range of different levels and abilities (Walsh et al., 2006).

- **Summary**

Learning outcomes for children are enhanced when early childhood professionals reflect on their practice and have high expectations for all children.

The research evidence detailed in the Evidence Paper for Practice Principle 3: High expectations for every child, has particular relevance to how integrated learning and teaching practices can be enacted to achieve best practice. Having high expectations for every child, every day affirms that children have multiple learning styles, cultural belief systems and personal interests. To reflect this in learning programs, early childhood professionals need to plan varied and stimulating experiences that take account of children's individuality (Arthur, Beecher, Death, Dockett and Farmer, 2008).

There is clear evidence that when adults have low expectations for children's learning and development children often begin to incorporate this negative view into their own concept of self (Rosenthal and Jacobsen, 1992; Montague and Rinaldi, 2001). Early childhood professionals can combat this

self-fulfilling prophecy of low achievement by taking an active role in making themselves accountable for the learning and outcomes of the children in their care (Halvorsen, Lee and Andrade, 2009).

Taking responsibility for high levels of achievement and best outcomes for each child requires early childhood professionals to engage in a high degree of professional reflection (see the Evidence Paper for Practice Principle 8: Reflective Practice). The most effective early childhood professionals have a strong commitment to the ideology that all children are capable of experiencing success and demonstrate their commitment to this by providing a balance of child-directed learning experiences, guided play opportunities and adult-led learning (Fraser and Gestwicki, 2002). Adopting a well-balanced approach requires commitment, skill and creativity from early childhood professionals (Edwards, Gandini and Forman, 2001; Edwards, Gandini and Forman, 1998; McLachlan, Fleer and Edwards, 2010).

The best outcomes for learning and development require high quality interactions between children and early childhood professionals.

In a large study conducted by Hamre et al. (2009) it was found that early learning environments where there were strong, emotionally responsive teacher-child relationships, demonstrated the greatest positive overall outcomes for children's learning and development. 4000 early learning environments participated in this national U.S. study, with the most significant improvements observed in children previously identified as being at high risk of school failure (Hamre, Pianta, Mashburn and Downer, 2009).

Using the CLASS Framework (Hamre and Pianta, 2007), focusing on emotional support, the learning environment and instructional support, those environments that were observed to have a positive climate, teacher sensitivity, positive and consistent behaviour management strategies and an integrated balance of instructional support consistently improved the outcomes of even the most at risk children.

Children's outcomes can be enhanced when attention is given to the quality of interactions between early childhood professionals and children (Sparling, 2007). Back-and-forth exchanges with infants are not only foundations of language development (Veneziano, 2010), but are the platform for early learning. The importance of extended interactions is emphasised by Lally and Mangione (2006:1) who describe infancy as "a unique period that calls for unique responses from adults."

The learning games, conversational reading, enriched care giving and language priority of the Abecedarian Approach (Ramey, Bryant, Campbell and Sparling, 1990) further emphasise the importance of exchanges between early childhood professionals and young children. This language-enriched approach has proven to have significant long-term benefits for children, particularly those at risk from multiple social conditions such as poverty, young maternal age, or low parental education (Ramey, Campbell, Burchinal, Skinner, Garner and Ramey, 2000). The importance of the quality of interactions with children were also highlighted in the EPPE study, with the highest quality settings having the most sustained shared interactions (Siraj-Blatchford, 2009); in other words, conversations with children that aim to extend conceptual understanding.

The quality of interactions between early childhood professionals and children of all ages are fundamental for learning and development (Katz, 2003b). How professionals talk with and listen to children is emphasised in the following summary of strategies used by educators to support learning in early childhood (OECD, 2007, p.175):

- *Listening to children* – seen as fundamental to finding out about the learning strategies children bring to a problem or activity, the strengths they have, and the points where more knowledgeable others can help.
- *Listening to and co-coordinating with parents and family members* – to establish children’s strengths and interests, to learn of their dispositions and find out how the child’s development and learning is mediated at home.
- *Establishing common knowledge* – exploiting situations when children are together in groups, such as in kindergarten, provides common experience and common ground for expanding children’s thinking. Encouraging children to recall experiences that relate to a current task is seen to build learning continuity and establish new concepts and understandings.
- *Using positive modelling*– educator modelling of meta-cognitive strategies that regulate task achievement (e.g. What is my problem? What is my plan? How am I going to proceed? What worked? How do I know?) is seen to impact positively on young children’s learning behaviours. Asking children to predict and build theories to explain

events in which they show interest is thought to keep children interested and active (What do you think? Why do you think that?).

- “*Re-cognising*” (Meade and Cubey, 1995). Reflecting in words to young children what they are doing in action is seen to help clarify processes and ideas. Scaffolding a child’s “hands on” experiences is a key mediation role of educators in early learning environments.
- *Giving specific instruction* in certain skill areas is thought to be important. For example, for older preschoolers emergent literacy research suggests that children need increasing phonemic awareness and grapho-phonemic knowledge for successful reading. Games (rhymes, sorting, odd-one-out, etc.) may be used to practise and build repetition. Teaching routines that ensure personal safety and hygiene are considered important.
- *Spending time in observation* – educators may stand aside from, or join in, children’s tasks according to the learning events taking place. Generally, it is seen as important for children to have control of their learning in a supported way.
- *Celebrating diversity* – educators may act to endorse and expand children’s knowledge of diverse language and dialects, and become thoughtful about approaching topics in a variety of ways (musical, story-based, play, discovery, pictorial, artistic, logical deductive) because of realisations that children learn in diverse ways and can show understanding by using different symbolic media.
- “*Focusing*” *through recall and restatement* – early educators’ questions, explanations and the linking together of different events are seen to help children focus and progress their understanding.
- *Ensuring children experience different speaking and listening*

situations in order to broaden communication experiences. This is seen by some early educators as an important role for adults when they engage with young children.

Current understandings of brain growth provide an appreciation of how biology and the environment – the learning context – are inextricably linked. Early educators view the young child as an active learner and consider each child's developmental level and individual characteristics in the context of the child's family and community (Gilkerson, 2001).

POINTS FOR DISCUSSIONS / CLARIFICATION

After going through the unit you may like to have further discussion on some points and clarification. Note down those points:-

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UNIT 3: MAXIMS, METHODS OF TEACHING & LESSON PLANNING (GROUP, INDIVIDUAL, DEVELOPMENTAL, AND REMEDIAL)

- **Introduction**
- **Objectives**
- **Definitions**
- **Summary**
- **Revision**
- **Assignment/Activity**
- **Points For Discussion And Clarification**
- **References / Further Readings**

- **Introduction**

Early childhood professionals achieve the best outcomes when they can identify and respond to spontaneous teachable moments in activities where the children are already engaged, and scaffold children's learning to create learning opportunities. Learner-centred practice allows children to explore and experience the world around them in a variety of different ways that best suits their individual interests and learning style. In order for the review of contemporary research evidence to be methodological sound, relevant and robust it is important to include a description of sampling procedures and

research methods undertaken. To begin with, an online database search was carried out for current literature using the following search terms:

- Play and learning in early childhood settings
- The role of play in school settings
- Integrated teaching and learning early years
- Early childhood, play, integrated learning and teaching

This yielded more than 15,000 articles so in order to refine the search and identify the most relevant literature the following additional key words taken from the VEYLDF (Department of Education and Early Childhood Development, 2009) were included:

- Best practice
- Supporting children's learning through play
- Evidence based planning
- Challenge and change in early years practice
- Neuroscience
- Early brain development
- Teaching and learning
- CLASS

In addition to this, it was felt important to include a review of literature which, where possible, included the views of children, parents/carers and

community groups as well as the views of early childhood practitioners. As the Practice Principles for learning and development become the foundations for professional practice across a diverse range of early childhood settings these final key words were included:

- CALD
- Disadvantage
- Indigenous
- Disability

The University of Melbourne's online databases were search using "Supersearch". This provided a wide selection of electronic journals, scholarly databases, theses and government reports, locally, nationally and internationally, with a particular focus on those abstracts identifying a specific Australian context.

The databases searched were:

- Web of Science
- JSTOR
- ERIC
- Family and Society

ECIA NSW has been funded by the NSW government's Department of Family & Community Services - Ageing, Disability & Home Care (ADHC) to undertake an Early Childhood Intervention (ECI) Inclusion Project (Focus on Inclusion) that aims to strengthen service capabilities in supporting

children 0-8 within the community, through sector leadership and guidance. The project has three components: 1. An ECI Network to provide a forum for peer support in developing best practice inclusive service delivery, information exchange and expanding links with the broader community. 2. The development of an Inclusion Tool to assist services in identifying inclusive practice strengths and needs and to review changes in those practices over time. 3. A Transition to School Package which aims to address all aspects of the process to support a smoother transition for the child, and an easier navigation of the system for families through the development of a resource, and the provision of training that can be applied across settings.

Inclusion Tool ECIA NSW envisaged that the Inclusion Tool would: be able to be easily used by ECI services for self-reflection,• include a feedback component from families, and• describe the steps towards achieving ECI best inclusive practices in relation to• children, families, early childhood education and care (ECEC) settings and community programmes/settings. To be useful for practitioners, the tool needed to be relatively brief, straightforward and easy to use. It consists of four elements: an ECI Service Provider Self-Reflection tool, a Family Feedback tool, this Background paper and a Best Practice Guide.

ECI Service Provider Self-reflection tool Tool for use by ECI practitioners and agencies to assess the extent to which• their services promote inclusion of child in home, ECEC, and community settings Modelled on Frameworks FCP, with ratings of a series of criteria reflecting• best practice (five-point scales with descriptors) Includes provision for recording ratings at different points in time•

2 Family Inclusive Services Feedback tool Tool for use by families to provide feedback to ECI practitioners and agencies• on the extent to which they help the families promote inclusion of child in home, ECEC, and community settings Tool

also addresses the extent to which ECI practitioners and agencies promote inclusion of the family as a whole in community settings Best Practice Guide Outline of rationale and key principles of inclusion at home, ECEC, and community levels For each criterion / scale item, suggestions as to what ECI services and practitioners can do to support inclusion more effectively Listing of additional sources of guidance regarding best practices in inclusion.

2. INCLUSION Policy context In Australia, the case for inclusive early childhood services has received a significant boost from the release of two major national frameworks: the National Quality Framework (DEEWR, 2012) and the national Early Years Learning Framework (DEEWR, 2009). Both of these frameworks have inclusion as a central principle. Within the context of the National Quality Framework (NQF), inclusion involves early childhood educators having high expectations in supporting children with developmental disabilities to achieve learning and development outcomes consistent with those identified for all children. These outcomes are that children have a strong sense of identity, are connected with and contribute to their world, have a strong sense of wellbeing, are confident and involved learners, and are effective communicators. The service delivery standards and quality practices now required under the NQF strengthen the regulatory basis for action to ensure that inclusive practices are being followed. The Early Years Learning Framework (EYLF) is a core part of the NQF and provides a strong theoretical and philosophical foundation for respecting diversity and acting for equity and inclusion for all children in early childhood and care programs. Backing up these two national frameworks are two position statements on inclusion from the peak early childhood and early childhood intervention bodies in the US and Australia. In the US, a joint position statement from the Division for Early Childhood (DEC) and the National

Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) (2009) provides a strong endorsement of inclusion: Early childhood inclusion embodies the values, policies, and practices that support the right of every infant and young child and his or her family, regardless of ability, to participate in a broad range of activities and contexts as full members of families, communities, and society. The desired results of inclusive experiences for children with and without developmental disabilities and their families include a sense of belonging and membership, positive social relationships and friendships, and development and learning to reach their full potential. The defining features of inclusion that can be used to identify high quality early childhood programs and services are access, participation, and supports. The three defining features are further defined as follows: Access means providing a wide range of activities and environments for every child by removing physical barriers and offering multiple ways to promote learning and development. Participation means using a range of instructional approaches to promote engagement in play and learning activities, and a sense of belonging for every child. Supports refer to broader aspects of the system such as professional development, incentives for inclusion, and opportunities for communication and collaboration among families and professionals to assure high quality inclusion. In Australia, this US example has been matched by a joint position statement by Early Childhood Australia (ECA) and Early Childhood Intervention Australia (ECIA)(2012). This focuses on inclusion of children with a developmental disability in early childhood education and care settings. Our position is that children with a disability have the same rights as all children and additional rights because of their disability. They share with all children the right to be valued as individuals and as contributing members of families, communities and

society. Every child is entitled to access and participate in ECEC programs which recognise them as active agents in their own lives and learning, respond to them as individuals, respect their families as partners and engage with their diverse backgrounds and cultures. This means that ECEC services and support professionals must be resourced and supported to the level required to fully include children with a disability and to achieve high quality outcomes for all children.

- **Objectives**

Although both the US and Australian statements note the importance of specialist support and resources for ECEC staff, this is not consistently available. A recent review of the Early Childhood Development workforce by the Productivity Commission (2011) has noted that early childhood development services are not currently providing the same start in life to children with additional needs that is commonly available to other children, and there are significant gaps between the ECEC opportunities for children with additional needs and those of other children. The Productivity Commission urged that the workforce requirements to provide appropriate services for these children must be prioritised so that the gap in outcomes between them and other children is minimised, not exacerbated. 4 Definition For the purposes of the present project, inclusion is defined as the meaningful participation of children with developmental disabilities in the same range of home, early childhood and community environments, experiences and activities as other children. An inclusive environment or programme is one in which all children, regardless of ability or background, are able to participate in all activities of their choosing. Inclusion also extends to families. From the

family perspective, inclusion is defined as the active involvement of families of children with developmental disabilities in the same range of community environments, experiences and activities as other families. An inclusive community environment or programme is one in which all families, regardless of their abilities or backgrounds, are able to participate in all activities of their choosing. Rationale Based on recent reviews of early childhood intervention (Centre for Community Child Health, 2011; Dunst, 2012; Moore, 2012; Working Group on Principles and Practices in Natural Environments, 2008a, 2008b), the rationale for inclusion is as follows: Children learn from the everyday experiences and interactions they have in the various environments in which they spend their time Children's learning and development is optimised when they have regular opportunities to interact with a range of adults, caregivers and other children The learning and development of children with developmental disabilities is optimised when they have the same opportunities as other children to interact with a range of adults and caregivers, and with other children without developmental disabilities The learning and development of children with developmental disabilities is optimised when they are helped to develop the functional skills they need to participate meaningfully in all their everyday environments The learning and development of children with developmental disabilities is optimised when they are parents and caregivers respond to and build on their interests and strengths The main providers of everyday environments for young children are home, early childhood programs, and community settings Professional services have limited time to spend with children and are therefore not providers of key learning environments for children All families, with the necessary supports and resources, can enhance their children's learning, development and participation All early

childhood settings, with the necessary supports and resources, can enhance the learning, development and participation of children with developmental disabilities. All community services and facilities, with the necessary supports and resources, can ensure that families of children with developmental disabilities have the same access to the community activities and settings as other families.

Role of ECI practitioners The primary role of ECI service providers is to work with and through family members, caregivers, and ECEC staff to help them provide children with the experiences and opportunities to become meaningful participants in home, early childhood, and community settings. Another key role for ECI service providers is to work with and provide support to community services and facilities to ensure that families of children with developmental disabilities have the same access to the community activities and settings as other families. ECI service providers have an important advocacy role to play in promoting a greater understanding and acceptance of inclusion among families, early childhood service providers, and community members.

3. WHAT DOES INCLUSION INVOLVE? The following list of the key elements of inclusions is based on the following sources: Buysse (2011, 2012), Dunst (2006), Dunst & Swanson (2006), Dunst et al. (2005, 2010, 2011), King et al. (2002), Law et al. (2006), McWilliam (2010), McWilliam & Casey (2007), McConachie et al. (2006), National Professional Development Center on Inclusion (2011), Odom et al. (2002), Working Group on Principles and Practices in Natural Environments (2008b), and Webster & Forster (2012). The key elements of inclusion include the following:

Access• The most fundamental element of inclusion is enabling children with developmental disabilities access to a wide range of environments and experiences. This requires removing physical or structural

barriers, and providing multiple ways to promote learning and development (Buisse, 2012). Participation• Meaningful participation is the engine of development and the key to attaining a true sense of belonging and a satisfactory quality of life (Moore, 2012). ‘Participation in activities is the context in which people develop competencies, gain an understanding of their strengths and abilities, form friendships and relationships, and make a contribution to their worlds’ (King et al., 2002). Participation is both the ultimate goal of intervention services and the context in which children develop, and is thus both a process and an outcome (King et al., 2002). Children with developmental disabilities face many obstacles and restrictions in the life experiences and opportunities needed for the development of capabilities that will enable them to participate meaningfully (King et al., 1999, 2002, 2003; Law et al., 2006). To overcome these obstacles and restrictions, they need inclusive environments (that is, environments that are accessible, accommodating, socially supportive and non-discriminatory) and specific 6 supports from families, early childhood practitioners and early childhood intervention services. Why meaningful participation? Participation is more than being present in different environments – the person must be actively engaged and their involvement must be more than tokenistic. For participation to be meaningful, the person’s role and contribution must be valued by all those involved in the activity, including the person themselves. (Moore, 2012) Promoting participation is essential in all three of the major early childhood environments: Promoting participation in home settings. We cannot take for granted that– children with developmental disabilities will be included in all the family activities that their non-disabled siblings. In fact, there is evidence that children with developmental disabilities are likely to experience lower levels of engagement in family activities than those without

developmental disabilities (Axelsson et al., 2013). If they are not participating in some activities, then they are missing out on valuable learning opportunities. Promoting participation in ECEC settings. Attending an early childhood– programme does not guarantee participation in all programme activities. There is clear evidence that, without purposeful adaptations and strategies, children with developmental disabilities are not involved in as many activities as other children. Ensuring participation involves using a range of instructional and intervention approaches to promote engagement and a sense of belonging for each child (Buysse, 2012).

Promoting community participation. Community participation entails– involvement in the formal and informal everyday activities of childhood in all types of non-school environments, including environments for play, sport, entertainment, learning, and religious expression (King et al., 2003). Formal activities refer to structured activities that involve rules or goals and have a formally designated leader or instructor (eg. music or art lessons, organized sports, or youth groups), while informal activities have little or no prior planning (other than scheduling a time to do them) and are often, but not always, initiated by the child (eg. reading, exercising, or playing)(King et al., 2003)

Functional skills• In order to be able to participate meaningfully in everyday activities, children need functional skills – of communication, mobility, social skills, self-management etc. A functional approach to intervention aims to enable a child to accomplish particular tasks, rather than to promote change in an impairment or developmental sequence, or change the way in which a task is accomplished to make it more ‘normal.’ (Law et al., 1998). This approach has been shown to be effective in promoting children’s functional skills (Law et al., 2011). In devising strategies to promote children’s functional skills, professionals and parents need to work

together as partners. 7 Environmental adaptations• One key way in which children's inclusion can be promoted is to modify the environment (Campbell et al., 2008). This is in contrast to trying to modify the child, ie. trying to teach the child skills to manage the environment as it currently exists, even when that environment is designed for people without developmental disabilities (Darrah et al., 2011). Environmental modifications can take many forms, including physical modifications of buildings, the use of technological aids, and changes in routines. The social environment can also be modified to create a more accepting and inclusive social interactions (Odom et al., 2004). Use of natural environments and routines• Another key way in which children's inclusion can be promoted is through the use of natural environments and daily routines. Natural environments are the home, community, and early childhood settings where children learn and develop everyday abilities and skills (Dunst & Bruder, 2002). These environments contain many opportunities for children to practice and expand their functional skills and learning (Sandall & Schwartz, 2008). Routines-based approaches involve analysing daily routines in home and other settings in order to identify naturally occurring opportunities to promote children's functional skills and participation (Campbell, 2009; McWilliam, 2010; McWilliam et al., 2009).

- **Definitions**

The way in which parents and caregivers engage children is critical for their overall development. Relationships are the principal medium through which young children learn (National Scientific Council on the Developing Child,

2004; Richter, 2004; Siegel, 2012): infants and toddlers are hard-wired to use adults' brains to form their own (Siegel, 2012). Developing the skills that they need to participate in everyday activities depends upon having had the experience of parents and other caregivers responding contingently (Moore, 2009). Promoting responsive caregiving is therefore an essential first step in ensuring that children build secure relationships with caregivers and early childhood service providers. Responsive caregiving continues to play a central role in children's ongoing learning as they grow (Dunst, 2006; Dunst & Swanson, 2006). When adults engage children as active learners and partners in 'sustained shared thinking' (Siraj-Blatchford et al., 2002), more learning occurs. Similarly, when adults respect and build upon children's interests, greater engagement and learning occurs (Dunst et al., 2011; Swanson et al., 2006).

8 Engaging and responsive service delivery

Relationships are just as important for parents and caregivers as they are for children. The efficacy of support services depends as much upon the manner in which services are delivered as on what is delivered. Services are most effective when based upon principles of family-centred practice (Bamm & Rosenbaum, 2008; Dunst & Trivette, 2009; Trivette et al., 2010; King et al., 2004; Law et al., 2005) and family-centred care (Kuhlthau et al., 2011; Kuo et al., 2012).

Building strengths and capacities

Given that the primary role for ECI practitioners is to help family members and service providers build children's capacity to participate, it is essential that they use capacity-building and strength-based strategies. Rather than focusing on correcting peoples' weaknesses or problems, capacity-building and strengthbased strategies recognize the assets and talents of people and help people use these competencies to strengthen functioning (Caspé & Lopez, 2006; Dunst & Trivette, 2009; Law et al., 2003; Trivette & Dunst, 2007). This means

helping families recognize what they do well already, and progressively building their capacity to meet the needs of their children and other family members effectively. The same applies to early childhood staff: although they may feel that they are not well equipped to meet the needs of children with developmental disabilities, they are likely to have many more of the necessary skills than they recognize, and, with appropriate help, can build on these.

Mobilising personal supports• Positive social support is vital for families of children with developmental disabilities in a number of ways. Social support directly influences the well-being of children with developmental disabilities and their families, through the provision of emotional as well as practical support (Bailey et al., 2007; Crnic & Stormshak, 1997). This support is often more important in people's lives than professional support, and it is therefore important that ECI practitioners help parents of children with developmental disabilities find and maintain social support (Cavallo et al., 2008). The support of professional can also be beneficial, whether through the personal relationships they build with parents, or through arrangements such as Team Around the Child (Limbrick, 2009) in which a small group of professionals and others work together to support the child and family.

Promoting attitudinal change• Successful inclusion often depends upon changes in attitudes on the part of those who interact with the child. This includes parents themselves, as well as ECEC staff, other children, and community members. Children with developmental disabilities can face many obstacles and restrictions in the life experiences and opportunities they need to develop competencies and become fully participating members of society. These include stereotypes and prejudices concerning people with developmental disabilities (King et al., 2002). A wide variety of factors such as attitudes and beliefs about inclusion, child and adult

characteristics, policies, and resources can influence how inclusion is implemented and viewed by families and practitioners (Odom et al., 2011). In 9 inclusive ECEC settings, there is evidence that contact with peers who have developmental disabilities positively affect typically developing children's understanding of disability, and their attitudes about classmates with developmental disabilities (Odom et al., 2004). Providing specialist support• For children with developmental disabilities to be able to participate meaningfully in home, early childhood, and community settings, it is essential that families, early childhood service providers and community services are provided with specialist support (Conlon, 2004; Odom et al., 2011; National Professional Development Center on Inclusion, 2009). Without appropriate support to families and service providers, it is much less likely they will be able to help children develop the functional skills they need to participate meaningfully in everyday activities. Support can take a variety of forms, including direct support from ECI practitioners, ongoing professional development, collaboration and co-ordination among key stakeholders, public policies and resources, and research and evaluation (Buysse, 2012). The research literature clearly indicates that collaboration between parents and both ECI and ECEC practitioners is an essential feature of successful inclusion in ECEC services (Odom et al., 2004). The three tables below show how these key elements translate into specific practices in each of the three main settings in which young children spend their time. The Self-Reflection on Inclusive Practices: A Tool for Early Childhood Intervention Practitioners, that is part of this suite of resources, is designed to help early childhood intervention practitioners reflect upon the extent to which they support the inclusion and participation of young children with developmental disabilities in these settings.

- **Summary**

ECIA NSW has been funded by the NSW government's Department of Family & Community Services - Ageing, Disability & Home Care (ADHC) to undertake an Early Childhood Intervention (ECI) Inclusion Project (Focus on Inclusion) that aims to strengthen service capabilities in supporting children 0-8 within the community, through sector leadership and guidance. The project has three components: 1. An ECI Network to provide a forum for peer support in developing best practice inclusive service delivery, information exchange and expanding links with the broader community. 2. The development of an Inclusion Tool to assist services in identifying inclusive practice strengths and needs and to review changes in those practices over time. 3. A Transition to School Package which aims to address all aspects of the process to support a smoother transition for the child, and an easier navigation of the system for families through the development of a resource, and the provision of training that can be applied across settings. Inclusion Tool ECIA NSW envisaged that the Inclusion Tool would: be able to be easily used by ECI services for self-reflection, include a feedback component from families, and describe the steps towards achieving ECI best inclusive practices in relation to children, families, early childhood education and care (ECEC) settings and community programmes/settings. To be useful for practitioners, the tool needed to be relatively brief, straightforward and easy to use. It consists of four elements: an ECI Service Provider Self-Reflection tool, a Family Feedback tool, this Background paper and a Best Practice Guide. ECI Service Provider Self-reflection tool Tool for use by ECI practitioners and agencies to assess the extent to which their

services promote inclusion of child in home, ECEC, and community settings Modelled on Frameworks FCP, with ratings of a series of criteria reflecting best practice (five-point scales with descriptors) Includes provision for recording ratings at different points in time

- 2 Family Inclusive Services Feedback tool Tool for use by families to provide feedback to ECI practitioners and agencies on the extent to which they help the families promote inclusion of child in home, ECEC, and community settings Tool also addresses the extent to which ECI practitioners and agencies promote inclusion of the family as a whole in community settings

Best Practice Guide Outline of rationale and key principles of inclusion at home, ECEC, and community levels For each criterion / scale item, suggestions as to what ECI services and practitioners can do to support inclusion more effectively Listing of additional sources of guidance regarding best practices in inclusion.

- 2. INCLUSION Policy context In Australia, the case for inclusive early childhood services has received a significant boost from the release of two major national frameworks: the National Quality Framework (DEEWR, 2012) and the national Early Years Learning Framework (DEEWR, 2009). Both of these frameworks have inclusion as a central principle. Within the context of the National Quality Framework (NQF), inclusion involves early childhood educators having high expectations in supporting children with developmental disabilities to achieve learning and development outcomes consistent with those identified for all children. These outcomes are that children have a strong sense of identity, are connected with and contribute to their world, have a strong sense of wellbeing, are confident and involved learners, and are effective communicators. The service delivery standards and quality practices now required under the NQF strengthen the regulatory basis for action to ensure that inclusive practices are being followed. The Early

Years Learning Framework (EYLF) is a core part of the NQF and provides a strong theoretical and philosophical foundation for respecting diversity and acting for equity and inclusion for all children in early childhood and care programs. Backing up these two national frameworks are two position statements on inclusion from the peak early childhood and early childhood intervention bodies in the US and Australia. In the US, a joint position statement from the Division for Early Childhood (DEC) and the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) (2009) provides a strong endorsement of inclusion: Early childhood inclusion embodies the values, policies, and practices that support the right of every infant and young child and his or her family, regardless of ability, to participate in a broad range of activities and contexts as full members of families, communities, and society. The desired results of 3 inclusive experiences for children with and without developmental disabilities and their families include a sense of belonging and membership, positive social relationships and friendships, and development and learning to reach their full potential. The defining features of inclusion that can be used to identify high quality early childhood programs and services are access, participation, and supports. The three defining features are further defined as follows: Access means providing a wide range of activities and environments for every child by removing physical barriers and offering multiple ways to promote learning and development. Participation means using a range of instructional approaches to promote engagement in play and learning activities, and a sense of belonging for every child. Supports refer to broader aspects of the system such as professional development, incentives for inclusion, and opportunities for communication and collaboration among families and professionals to assure high quality inclusion. In Australia, this US example

has been matched by a joint position statement by Early Childhood Australia (ECA) and Early Childhood Intervention Australia (ECIA)(2012). This focuses on inclusion of children with a developmental disability in early childhood education and care settings. Our position is that children with a disability have the same rights as all children and additional rights because of their disability. They share with all children the right to be valued as individuals and as contributing members of families, communities and society. Every child is entitled to access and participate in ECEC programs which recognise them as active agents in their own lives and learning, respond to them as individuals, respect their families as partners and engage with their diverse backgrounds and cultures. This means that ECEC services and support professionals must be resourced and supported to the level required to fully include children with a disability and to achieve high quality outcomes for all children. Although both the US and Australian statements note the importance of specialist support and resources for ECEC staff, this is not consistently available. A recent review of the Early Childhood Development workforce by the Productivity Commission (2011) has noted that early childhood development services are not currently providing the same start in life to children with additional needs that is commonly available to other children, and there are significant gaps between the ECEC opportunities for children with additional needs and those of other children. The Productivity Commission urged that the workforce requirements to provide appropriate services for these children must be prioritised so that the gap in outcomes between them and other children is minimised, not exacerbated.

● **References / Further Readings**

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UNIT 4: PARTNERSHIP OF VARIOUS PROFESSIONALS & AGENCIES IN EDUCATIONAL INTERVENTION

- **Introduction**
- **Objectives**
- **Definitions**
- **Summary**
- **Revision**
- **Points For Discussion And Clarification**
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- **Introduction**

Early childhood professionals are a diverse group, reflecting the complexities of young children's learning, development and health. Practice Principle 2: Partnerships with professionals relates to the importance of collaboration and partnership amongst early childhood professionals, who work together to support children's learning and development. Early childhood professionals are from diverse professional backgrounds. They use multidisciplinary approaches to provide better support to families and draw on the skills and expertise of their peers. Early childhood professionals:

- work collaboratively to share information and plan to ensure holistic approaches to children's learning and development
- understand each other's practice, skills and expertise, and make referrals when appropriate
- acknowledge the

significance of transitions within and across early childhood services and schools, and ensure that children understand the process and have an active role in preparing for these transitions • build on children’s prior learning and experiences to build continuity for their learning and development from birth to eight years of age. VEYLDF, p.10 Practice Principle 2: Partnerships with professionals emphasises the importance of collaboration and partnership amongst all professionals who work with children and their families to support children’s learning and development. Early childhood professionals bring diverse cultural, educational and social backgrounds and specialisations that include early childhood education, health, social and emotional development, special education, occupational therapy, speech pathology, psychology and inclusion support. No early childhood professional is able to support children’s learning, development and health alone, and all professionals are responsible for seeking opportunities to work in partnership. The term ‘early childhood professional’ includes any person who works with children between the ages of birth and eight years. It includes, but is not limited to, maternal and child health nurses, all early childhood practitioners who work directly with children in early childhood settings (educators), school teachers, family support workers, preschool field officers, inclusion support facilitators, student support service officers, primary school nurses, primary welfare officers, early childhood intervention workers, play therapists, health professionals and teachers working in hospitals, and education officers in cultural organisations. VEYLDF, p. 5 6 It is widely accepted that partnership and collaboration are central to early childhood professionals’ roles, with benefits not just for children, but also for children’s families and the professionals themselves (Lumsden, 2005; Woodruff et al., 2005; Dalli, 2008; McWayne et al., 2008). Practice Principle 2: Partnerships

with professionals brings together the experience and expertise of diverse professionals to meet the increasingly heterogeneous needs of young children (Lumsden, 2005; Bruder, 2010). The OECD report *Starting Strong II* (OECD, 2006) includes an emphasis on developing partnerships with professionals in early childhood settings, adding that the integration of education and care services at a local level allows professionals to better respond to local families and communities. Professional partnerships are particularly important for professionals working with children with disabilities and developmental delays and vulnerable children, such as those who are victims of abuse or trauma. The support of professionals in several different fields may be required for children to thrive in inclusive settings (Wesley and Buysse, 2004; King, et al., 2009; Trepanier-Street, 2010). It is crucial that professionals work in a collaborative, coordinated way to support families and children, ensuring that the child's best interests are at the centre of all decisions. Early childhood professionals benefit from professional learning opportunities provided by working with those who have expertise in another area (Wesley and Buysse, 2001; Helm, 2007; McWayne et al., 2008). Early childhood professionals can also share their expertise in order to create new knowledge and ideas about children's learning and development. The characteristics of effective partnerships include positive communication practices, collaborative planning, and the pursuit of common goals (Kelley, 1996; Lumsden 2005). All early childhood professionals share a desire to ensure the best possible learning and development outcomes for children, and many professionals identify a need for collaboration to meet this aim (Woodruff and O'Brien, 2005; Dalli, 2008). Effective partnerships with professionals ensure that every child receives holistic and comprehensive support to meet their learning and development needs. What do we mean by

‘partnerships with professionals’? Partnerships with professionals exist where early childhood professionals communicate openly with one another, plan collaboratively and work in ways that support children’s learning and development. Participants in any partnership should have clearly articulated roles and responsibilities, and an understanding of and respect for the roles of other professionals with whom they work (Lumsden, 2005; King et al., 2009). 7 Successful partnerships are built upon common goals for children’s learning and development informed by the needs, culture and characteristics of each child (Myers, et al., 2011). Partnerships can be formed between individuals and between organisations or services. Kelley (1996) states that for collaboration to be successful there must be both organisational and individual support. Organisational support requires leadership that affirms and encourages partnerships and that provides professionals with the resources and the time to pursue collaborative opportunities as a central component of their roles. Partnership is, however, the responsibility of all professionals, and individuals must also be committed to practical action to achieve the goals and objectives of organisational partnerships. Partnerships bring together the expertise of diverse professionals to meet the learning and development needs of all children and to ensure smooth transitions and continuity in children’s lives. Early childhood educators, for example, may work in partnership with occupational and physical therapists, mental health specialists, maternal and child health nurses, specialist intervention workers, and other education professionals (Kelley, 1996; Rush, et al., 2003; Hopps, 2004; Kent, 2005; Green et al., 2006; Hendler and Nakelski, 2008; Streelasky, 2008; Ashton, et al., 2008). Why are partnerships with professionals so important in early childhood learning, development and pedagogy? Early childhood development is complex and multi-faceted;

requiring professionals in a range of sectors to collaborate so that support for each child's learning and development is integrated and holistic. Early childhood learning and development has undergone a transformation in recent years. The Victorian Framework's Learning and Development Outcomes reflect a growing understanding of children's diverse needs. Young children develop and learn at different rates and in different ways, and therefore require different levels and kinds of support from a range of early childhood professionals (Wesley and Buysse, 2004; DEECD, 2009; Bruder, 2010; TrepanierStreet, 2010). Increased understanding of the diverse and complex learning and development needs of young children has resulted in an equally diversified professional workforce to meet those needs (Wesley and Buysse, 2004; Bruder, 2010). Successful partnerships draw on the skills and experience of early childhood professionals in diverse fields to provide holistic approaches to supporting children's learning and development (Kelley, 1996). Evidence indicates that 8 children, families and professionals all benefit from partnerships in which knowledge and experience is shared (Wesley and Buysse, 2001; Tayler, 2006; McWayne, et al., 2008; Bruder, 2010). Collaborative partnerships support inclusive practice. Universally available services are inclusive of all children, including those with a disability or developmental delay and other children who may access additional support (Wesley and Buysse, 2004; Trepanier-Street, 2010). Early childhood educators of children who require additional support may need to work in partnership with occupational therapists, physical therapists, mental health professionals, literacy specialists, social workers, and other professionals with health or educational expertise (Kent, 2005; Hendler, 2008; Myers, 2008; Streelasky, 2008; Myers, et al., 2011). Research evidence emphasises the value of working in partnership to share expertise in early

childhood settings (Trepanier-Street, 2010), and the importance of these professionals' ability to build collaborative relationships (Green et al, 2006). Professionals work together both within and between services. Early childhood services are also increasingly diverse, and most children attend several different education, health and other services during their early development. This diversity can result in fragmentation for children and families, who often face more than one issue or need at any given time and thus may be accessing several services at once (McWayne et al, 2008). Inter-agency partnerships, as well as partnerships between individual professionals, can help to overcome this fragmentation (McWayne et al., 2008; Bruder, 2010). Both individual and organisational partnerships are essential in providing comprehensive support for children and families. Collaboration enhances the professional learning of early childhood professionals. The complexity of early childhood learning and development and the changing nature of the field mean that early childhood professionals need to constantly reflect on and update their skills. This can be done by professionals working in partnership with other professionals who have different backgrounds, experience and expertise (McWayne, et al., 2008). A recent study undertaken by Farrell and Walsh (2010) found that early childhood student teachers felt more confident in their knowledge following collaborative learning activities, and qualified teachers can similarly benefit from sharing their expertise with peers. Working in partnership allows early childhood professionals to draw on one another's knowledge to solve problems and plan effective approaches to responding to children. Partnership also provides professionals with opportunities for critical reflection, a key component in the creation of knowledge about early childhood learning and development. 9 Collaborative problem-solving and

planning have benefits for early childhood professionals working in partnership. McWayne, et al. (2008) found that collaboration helped professionals working in partnership to achieve personal goals. Collaboration also contributed to their professional learning as well as providing them with new perspectives of early childhood learning and development. Guo and colleagues (2011) also reported that early childhood educators' sense of efficacy was increased by a sense of community in their settings, as well as opportunities to participate in decision-making. Early childhood professionals have valuable experience and knowledge about children's learning and development needs, and partnership provides important opportunities for sharing this expertise. Collaboration also supports reflective practice (see Practice Principle 8). According to Wesley and Buysse (2001), engaging in mutual reflection on one another's practice assists early childhood professionals to refine their knowledge about early childhood learning and development. Early childhood professionals are uniquely placed to understand the issues confronting young children, and have valuable roles to play in the creation of knowledge. Working in partnership with other professionals and with early childhood researchers may help to bridge the research-practice divide, because collaboration means that early childhood professionals are at the centre of knowledge generation (Potter, 2001; Buysse et al., 2003). Partnerships between early childhood professionals and researchers ensure that professionals' voices are heard (Potter, 2001). Partnerships can lead to informal or formal professional learning opportuniti

- **Objectives**

Effective transitions provide continuity by building on children's prior learning and experiences, and are best supported by respectful

communication and partnerships among all early childhood professionals within and across settings, and with families and children. In successful partnerships, professionals effectively communicate children's prior knowledge and experience, their strengths, abilities and interests to promote continuity for children within and across settings. Early childhood professionals also work together to ensure continuity in pedagogy and behavioural expectations within and across settings. Positive relationships between professionals built on a foundation of communication and shared responsibility for children's learning and development are likely to result in smoother transitions for children and families (Hopps, 2004; Brandes et al., 2007). Collaborative approaches to transition also benefit professionals; working in partnership allows for the sharing of skills, knowledge and experience and results in the best outcomes for children and families. Hopps (2004) found that in children's transitions from preschool to school programs, educators saw a range of advantages in a collaborative approach to transition. Collaboration allowed primary school teachers to better understand preschool settings, as well as the behavioural expectations of the early childhood educators working there. The primary school teachers were better able to meet the needs of individual children when they understood more about the preschool setting, received information about individual children prior to their transition, and were able to exchange knowledge and ideas across settings. Effective partnerships ensure the best use of professionals' skills, knowledge and experience. Early childhood professionals encounter many opportunities to engage in collaborative problem-solving with those who have different professional backgrounds and knowledge, helping to ensure the best possible outcomes for children (Farrell and Walsh, 2010). Several studies have highlighted the benefits of holistic

and multidisciplinary approaches to meeting children's learning and development capabilities and needs (Kelley, 1996; Anning et al., 2006, King, 2009; Silverman, 2010,). Holistic approaches that make the best use of each professional's skills, knowledge and experience occur in partnerships that involve effective communication and shared goals (Kelley, 1996; Lumsden 2005; Woodruff and O'Brien, 2005). No two early childhood professionals have exactly the same skills, knowledge and experience. Partnership plays a key role in ensuring children's diverse 11 learning and development needs are met. Kelley (1996) found that partnership approaches can result in faster and more personalised responses to child and family needs, including establishing eligibility for special education programs, or meeting emergency family needs for shelter, money and medical treatment. Similarly, Odom and Diamond (1998) found that collaboration supports inclusive practice in early childhood settings, and conversely that a lack of time or opportunity to work collaboratively can actually be a barrier to inclusion. In partnership, service providers are able to bring together different philosophies and professional backgrounds to provide a more comprehensive service for children and families (Bruder, 2010). Professionals who respect one another's experience, and understand one another's roles and settings, are better able to achieve the best outcomes for children and families (Hopps, 2004; Ashton, et al., 2008).

- **Definitions**

Research into early childhood professional partnerships highlights the importance of communicating effectively within and between settings (Hopps, 2004; Lumsden, 2005; Brandes et al., 2007; McWayne, et al., 2008; Mogharreban and Bruns, 2009). Research undertaken by Hopps (2004)

identified nine specific strategies to assist open communication between settings. These included: • mutual respect • collegial meetings • reciprocal visits between settings • willingness from both sides to collaborate and communicate • formal and resourced processes that support collaboration • newsletters to facilitate information sharing • collaboratively developed child profiles. When sharing information about children and families it is critical to respect the rights of the child, the rights of the family to privacy, and relevant privacy legislation. Communication is essential for professionals to work in partnership, however the diversity of professionals working within the early childhood sector may lead to challenges, as professionals with different backgrounds may not share a common language or way to describe young children's learning and development (Wesley and Buysse, 2001; Lumsden, 2005; Weiner and Murawski, 2005). Lumsden (2005) suggests that challenges of communication can be overcome by professionals who are committed to achieving best outcomes for children, and are willing to share specialist knowledge. For early childhood professionals in Victoria, the Victorian Framework provides a common language for communicating about learning and development outcomes for children from birth to eight years. Effective communication requires support at an organisational level. This means leaders and professionals all take responsibility for creating time and opportunities to communicate and share their expertise (Lumsden, 2005; Green et al., 2006). Green and colleagues (2006) found that formal and informal training, coaching and mentoring supported close communication between professionals, and time allocated for professionals (in this case mental health workers) to spend in the classroom was particularly effective in building collaborative relationships. Likewise, other research found that it can be beneficial for professionals to plan together, collectively, for

children's learning and development (Case-Smith and Holland, 2009; Mogharreban and Bruns, 2009). Early childhood professionals work collaboratively by planning and sharing information with each other. Collaborative planning supports continuity and positive transitions within and between early childhood settings, as well as enhancing holistic and integrated approaches to achieving learning and development outcomes. Within settings, continuity relies on careful planning and a conscious and considered approach to curriculum development that is motivated by the strengths, abilities, interests, and culture of the child. Collaborative planning is essential to allow educators to develop a comprehensive and continuous learning pathway. Early childhood professionals also collaborate and share information across settings. For example, schools build on children's existing knowledge and experiences, including those gained in early childhood education and care settings prior to school. Evidence indicates that primary school educators benefit from knowledge of children's capabilities, interests and culture and an understanding of their prior learning (Hopps, 2004; Ashton, et al., 2008; Myers, et al., 2011). Many teachers consider this knowledge to be particularly important for children who require additional support as they settle into their new environment (Ashton, et al., 2008). Transition Learning and Development Statements are one example of how early childhood professionals, families and children share experience and expertise to support continuity. Early childhood professionals supporting children through transitions also share information to develop an understanding the behavioural expectations within each others' settings (Hopps, 2004), in order to ensure a balance between old and new expectations and experiences (Ashton, et al., 2008). For example, early childhood educators at early childhood services and schools may have

different 13 ideas about what children need to know in order to be ready for school. Professional partnerships assist children to be ready for school, and for schools to be ready for children (Hopps, 2004). Collaborative planning across settings can ensure the best possible support for vulnerable children. For example, McWayne et al. (2008) found that a collaborative approach between agencies provided comprehensive support for children whose parents were experiencing substance abuse, as well as supporting the rehabilitation of mothers. It identified a number of actions that supported greater collaboration, including: the identification of common goals and objectives, joint decision making, conflict resolution, and joint training. Time and appropriate processes for the team to connect was also identified as essential. Similarly, it was identified that the leadership needed a formal way to collect feedback from the staff to facilitate joint problem solving (McWayne et al., 2008). Early childhood prof

- **Summary**

Early childhood professionals share a common goal in supporting the learning and development of children. The motivation to form partnerships with professionals in early childhood comes from a shared desire to achieve the best outcomes possible for children. All successful partnerships are built on a foundation of shared goals, which must be clearly articulated and understood by all participants (Lumsden, 2005; Walker, et al., 2007; Mogharreban and Bruns, 2009). Studies have shown that common goals can overcome barriers and smooth the way for collaborative approaches between professionals and community (Kelley, 1996; Tayler, 2006). One way professionals can work together is through the formation of communities of practice, or learning communities, where a shared vision or goal can lead to

the development of common tools, language and understandings to achieve best practice (Wesley and Buysse, 2001). In communities of practice, professionals find opportunities to build knowledge by participating in collaborative reflection about practices. These opportunities, and the learning communities themselves, arise from what early childhood professionals have in common with one another – a focus on the child’s learning and development outcomes, and a commitment to achieve best practice. Early childhood professionals who are committed to improving and refining their own practice can form these learning communities, connecting with others who share a commitment to continual reflection and improvement (Wesley and Buysse, 2001). All early childhood professionals have a role to play in determining appropriate goals and outcomes for children’s learning and development. The process of articulating these goals is one of collaboration, and relies upon respectful and 14 open communication. The development of common goals and a shared philosophy is important in building teams in early childhood where membership and ownership is strong for all participants (Mogharreban and Bruns, 2009). Early childhood professional partnerships work best where the approach is transdisciplinary – where professionals work together to develop integrated approaches – rather than where individual professionals hold specific responsibility for selected elements of children’s development as is the case in multidisciplinary practice (Bruder, 2010, Lumsden, 2005). A transdisciplinary approach ensures that children’s learning and development goals are at the centre of the planning process, and the child benefits from expertise across a range of sectors. Early childhood professionals respect and value the expertise of their peers, and know when to make referrals Achieving positive partnerships requires professionals to respect and appreciate the diverse skills and

experience of their colleagues (Hopps, 2004; Ashton, et al., 2008; Myers, et al., 2011). Having regard for the expertise of others means that early childhood professionals are more likely to refer children and families to others where necessary, and are likely to be willing to work together with professionals from other sectors in order to support the needs of children (Lumsden, 2005; Myers, et al., 2011). Working in partnership requires commitment, and it is the responsibility of professionals to sustain collaborative working environments (Wesley & Buysse, 2001). Collaborative relationships are central to professionalism (Dalli, 2008). Effective early childhood professionals work to build positive relationships with their peers. These relationships rely on understanding one another's roles, and overcoming misconceptions about different sectors (Hopps, 2004; Ashton, et al., 2008). For example, Myers, et al. (2011) found that therapists who felt that early childhood intervention professionals and early childhood educators valued their skills and experience were more likely to be willing to work in collaboration during transition planning. Several studies also highlight the importance of leadership in facilitating partnerships and collaborative activity. These studies suggest that organisational support is key (Moran et al., 2007; Kelaher et al., 2009; Valentine et al., 2009; Johns, 2010). Griffin (2010) describes an unsuccessful attempt at working collaboratively in early childhood, where a panel brought together agencies working within a community with an aim to increasing referrals between services. Griffin suggests that the collaboration's lack of success, and lack of increase in referrals, reflects the need for administrative and personal commitment, as problems were often related to structural and organisational issues such as time and salary. Such issues can be overcome with support from leadership. For example, as the Centre for Community Child Health (2008)

suggests, effective leaders can work to span boundaries and overcome traditional barriers to collaboration. Importantly, developing leadership skills in professionals can encourage collaborative activity (Couse and Russo, 2006). Shared goals help to overcome challenges in collaboration, but leaders must be able to inspire and empower other professionals to work toward those goals.

- **Revision**

The diversity of early childhood professionals means that partnerships may not always run smoothly (McWayne et al., 2008). Difficulties may arise in partnerships where two agencies with different philosophies and expertise come together (McWayne et al., 2008) and when individuals with different expectations work together (Lumsden, 2005; Dalli, 2008). In cases where difficulties arise from hierarchical or power differences, professionals report that respect, responsiveness, honesty and openness can help to overcome issues (Dalli, 2008). Lumsden (2005) supports this idea, arguing that issues should be dealt with openly and honestly in order to improve professional relationships and increase understanding of the beliefs and expertise of those involved. Integrated and holistic partnerships occur when professionals are able to work across the traditional service boundaries (e.g., across regions or local government authorities). In this way they overcome concerns of individual organisations or employers, and can focus on the children's quality of experience, and the accessibility of information for families (Broadhead and Armistead, 2007). Early childhood professionals who respect and value one another's expertise, experience and understanding of children's learning and development, are well placed to achieve best practice. Willingness to share specialist knowledge for the benefit of children is a requirement of

professional partnerships in early childhood (Lumsden, 2005). Early childhood professionals are committed to working together to advance knowledge about children's learning and development. Early childhood professionals have a key role to play in the advancement of knowledge about young children's learning and development. Many professionals are involved in university-professional partnerships, either formal or informal, and such partnerships have resulted in an improvement of the quality of care and education for young children (Clark and Stroud, 2002; Wesley and Buysse, 2004). Communities of practice, or learning communities, may include researchers as well as early childhood professionals, helping to overcome the divide between research, policy and practice. In effective learning communities of researchers and professionals, early childhood professionals are co-producers of knowledge, as they share their valuable expertise and 16 experience (Welsey and Buysse, 2004). All such partnerships are established with consideration of standard ethical procedures for human research. Trepanier-Street (2010) describes a partnership between a university training pre-service early childhood teachers and a hospital working with children with special needs. In this study, pre-service teachers and medical professionals shared knowledge about their fields by making a commitment to teach, learn, and work together across discipline boundaries. All professionals involved took time to understand the role of different professionals, to participate in research and data dissemination together and to work together with children and families. Through this the parties were better able to prepare early childhood teachers to work with children with additional needs.

● **References / Further Readings**

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UNIT 5: CHILD & FAMILY OUTCOMES OF EARLY EDUCATIONAL INTERVENTION

- **Introduction**
 - **Objectives**
 - **Definitions**
 - **Summary**
 - **Revision**
 - **Assignment/Activity**
 - **Points For Discussion And Clarification**
 - **References / Further Readings**
-
- **Introduction**

Intervention research is an important field in establishing quality assurance procedures and related professional principles in educational applied research and practice. Recently, conceptualizing and developing educational intervention research guidelines and activities were, above all, in the hands of social research methodologists handling different criteria of empirical research, for example, validity or design sensitivity together with related assessment tools. However, improvements in educational intervention research also could come from considering expanded theoretical perspectives. It is the purpose of this paper to develop and apply a tool (called Intervention Theory Questions (ITQ)) that should assist educational researchers and evaluators in assessing the theoretical quality of educational interventions. The tool was based on systematically scanning, evaluating, and

integrating literature on theory development and intervention design questions. It consists of more than 50 questions related to problem solution (exploration, goal building, triangulation, progress, theory evaluation), theory development (covariation, other causes eliminated, process explanation, contrasting conditions), intervention design (active and passive ingredients, selection of participants, possible modalities, bias handling), and discussions (effectiveness, side effects, follow ups, other contexts). The application of the tool is demonstrated by showing how the design and evaluation of an educational intervention in the field of aggressive behavior prevention changes when considering ITQ. Finally, open research questions are briefly discussed. Keywords: educational effectiveness, assessment tools, experimental design, theory development, 2 2 2 Astleitner 2 A Systematic Approach on the Theoretical Quality of Educational Intervention Research: The Intervention Theory Questions (ITQ) Repeatedly, scientists, decision makers, and professional organizations in the field of educational evaluation have stressed the need for more and better research on the effectiveness of educational interventions (e.g., Kelly, Baek, Lesh, & Bannan-Ritland, 2008). Within such interventions, it is tested resp. evaluated whether a certain activity, for example, an instruction, a training, or a therapy can effectively increase or decrease selected goal behaviors in educational settings (e.g., daily instruction in schools, continuing education activities, or counseling programs). Knowledge about the effectiveness of interventions helps in improving research, but also in establishing evidencebased decision making as a long-term objective in educational practice. Ways of evidence-based decision making are well established in medical diagnosis, crime risk assessment, credit-rating of companies, industrial process operation, and so on, but still remain to be significantly implemented in educational settings

(e.g., Pourret, Naim, & Marcot, 2008). In order to optimize educational intervention research, researchers are considering methodological standards of experimental or quasi-experimental research, most of them related to traditional work from Campbell (1957) or Weber and Cook (1972). These standards concern internal validity, external validity, and design sensitivity for research designs, or treatment validity, treatment integrity, and strength of treatment for treatment design (e.g., Fuchs, Fuchs, & Speece, 2002; Hagermoser Sanetti & Kratochwill, 2009; Highhouse, 2009; Lipsey, 1990; Mitchell & Jolley, 2010; Yeaton & Sechrest, 1981). Valentine and Cooper (2008) have integrated many of these standards and delivered a comprehensive “assessment device” for evaluating the methodological quality of intervention research activities. Having such standards and practicable assessment tools and using them when planning, conducting, and evaluating educational interventions should improve activities and effectiveness considerably. However, there is also another source for optimizing intervention research. This other source comes from considering theories. Educational theories are nomological theories (if-then-statements in, for example, a theory of learning), but also technological theories (if-do-statements in, for example, an instructional design theory). Although these types of theories differ in respect to goals (e.g., finding truth in basic research versus being effective in applied research), both are often mixed up in daily educational research (Reigeluth, 1999, p. 12; see also for a comprehensive discussion: Patry & Perrez, 2000). Undoubtedly, theories help to optimize educational interventions and are therefore crucial for educational decision-making, because they assist, for example, in developing innovations, discovering problems, in finding causes for problems, in designing

interventions, in selecting participants, in validating measurements, or in evaluating research activities (e.g., Astleitner, 2011).

- **Objectives**

General Theoretical Shortcomings in Educational Intervention Research

When having a closer look at the actual given quality of educational intervention research, then three major issues arise in respect to theoretical foundations. First, educational interventions need theory sophistication instead of early theory replacement: Of course, theories are used more or less significantly in intervention research to formulate hypotheses, to undertake construct validation, or to cope with alternative explanations or methodological problems what should lead to an enriched knowledge about a subject area (e.g., Nipedal, Nesdale, & Killen, 2010). However, this kind of progress from enrichment is endangered, because, especially, in educational research, researchers have complained repeatedly about theories that they “seem to replace one another, rather than subsume, extend, or complement other theories” (DiSessa & Cobb, 2004, p. 79). There is probably less progress and less confidence in nomological networks than it could be, because of a resistance in integrating different theories or background variables that were found to be effective in other studies (e.g., Lynch, 1983). This resistance might come from the fact that it is scientifically more rewarding and often easier to develop and test new theories than to expand old theories to more complex, more dynamic, or more systemic ones. Second, educational interventions need to apply methods for theoretical problem solving: Undoubtedly, the design of interventions should be well balanced in respect to the state of the art in methodological and theoretical developments. However, there is much more literature on applying scientific methods for

gathering, processing, and validating data than on constructing theories and on integrating them in designing and evaluating intervention research (e.g., Reynolds, 2007). One might conclude that, within the field educational intervention research, methodological problem solving is much stronger implemented than theoretical problem solving. For example, although many have shown the functions of theories in the scientific process, they have not elaborated on how to use them systematically for the optimization of intervention research (e.g., Westermann, 2000). Others have focused in mixed approaches, both on (more quantitative) testing and on (more qualitative) developing intervention research, however, without establishing theoretically relevant criteria or procedures that can help when experiencing complex research problems like, for example, when identifying moderating or irrelevant factors, or explaining unexpected data, or handling theory or method revision (e.g., Johnson & Christensen, 2004; Patry, 2011). Third, not only measurements or assessments but also educational interventions need construct validation: There is a whole scientific “industry” dealing with the construction of tests for measuring personality characteristics and related variables (e.g., Embretson, 2007). However, within educational intervention research, theories have played a major role in construct validation of dependent variables, but not of independent ones. Bredenkamp (1979) has pointed out that within a construct validation of independent variables, it has to be asked whether an intervention is a representative for all possible interventions, for related internal processes, or for all modalities of a variable. In addition, Patry (1990) has shown that interventions can have both convergent and discriminant validity as an indicator of construct validity. Probably, this lack in construction validation comes from priorities given in educational

intervention research. These priorities might range effectiveness or efficiency prior to theoretical foundation and development neglecting that theories are the key factor in generating, selecting, or validating intervention alternatives.

- **Definitions**

Implementing Theories and the Quality of Educational Interventions Educational science and related disciplines of social research have not done anything to handle these shortcomings. They have suggested meta-theoretical or general frameworks and processes of theory use in order to improve the theoretical quality of interventions. Meta-theoretical or general frameworks. Evans, Meyer, and Buckley (2008) have proposed a multidimensional model for the design of any clinical treatment. According to this model, all interventions should a) manipulate immediate consequences of a behavior, b) re-arrange environments, c) facilitate alternative skills, and d) design long-term prevention through new behavior patterns. Also, Finney and Moos (1989) have presented a conceptual model of intervention design and evaluation. The model concerns three processes: intervention selection, intervention process, and the onset and course of the intervention problem. All processes are related to “theories of treatment” which specify “the techniques or procedures to be applied to bring about desired outcomes” (p. 310). Theories of treatment are assumed to improve interventions by getting more information about the internal mechanism and external factors that contribute to intervention success or failure. Both models were generated for presenting a general framework for increasing intervention effectiveness, however, they do not address in detail the role of theories for quality assurance in interventions. Lynch (1999) has pointed out that background

factors related to external validity should be integrated as moderators into theories. Such suggestions represent meta-theoretical assumptions that can guide theory development in respect to environmental aspects of interventions. Some kind of meta-theoretical stimulation has also come from Hettinger Steiner and Carr (2003). They have tried to merge more or less isolated results from traditional research with new theoretical models (in the field of research on giftedness). This intense theory-research-interaction has resulted in exemplary ideas about the establishment of complex and dynamic system models that can deliver a more complete picture of human development and also related intervention research. They have not answered the question how theories can lead to better interventions, but what kind of theories are needed to increase the probability of more effective interventions. Processes and areas of theory use. DiSessa and Cobb (2004) have described a process illustrating how theories can improve innovation in interventions (i.e., “design experiments”). Theories are shown in a process of generating, selecting, and validating intervention alternatives. Their presented case studies contain some examples of questions and criteria, which could be helpful for intervention design. Whyte (2006) has shown that treatment theories can help in selecting “active ingredients” of interventions, in the choice of participants, in finding outcome measures, or in study design and establishing comparison conditions. They have discussed the role of inclusion and exclusion criteria, limits of treatment utility, prognostic variables, treatment response modifiers, proximal and distal targets, and others. Siemonsma, Schröder, Roorda, and Lettinga (2010) have illustrated the use of treatment theories in rehabilitation medicine, also a field of intervention research. They have shown how the use of treatment theories changes the design of clinical trials. Treatment theories have allowed to a)

describe the assumed process of intervention change and effects in more detail, b) state characteristics of participants (e.g., language skills) that could affect significantly intervention effects, c) design control groups with participants who could benefit most from interventions, and d) select outcome measures that allow to cover as many as possible effects of an intervention. All these activities that show how to use theories to improve intervention research have identified some important goals, processes, and areas. However, they have not delivered some kind of tools that could assist designers and evaluators of educational interventions in a comprehensive and systematic way. Such a tool could consist of areas and related questions that can guide the use of theories in a step-by-step intervention design and evaluation. Valentine and Cooper (2008) have presented such a tool, i.e., a quality scale, but with a strong focus on the role of methods, but not on theories. It is the goal of this paper, to develop and present such a tool that could assist in designing and evaluating educational interventions from a theoretical perspective. The tool, called ITQ (Intervention Theory Questions) should be based on recent intervention research, distinguish different areas, and consist of easily applicable questions. Based on these questions, it will be illustrated - by an example in reducing aggressive behavior - how the design of an educational intervention changes in comparison to a situation in which these questions were not in use. Here, a bully prevention intervention from Ross and Horner (2009) was selected to illustrate the effects of using ITQ. This study was considered because it was well designed from a methodological and theoretical perspective and because it showed high effectiveness. It is not intended to criticize this study, but to illustrate how the goals, designs, and evaluations of intervention studies can change when using ITQ. Design and Evaluation of an Educational

Intervention without and with Using ITQ Tables 1a to 1d contain questions that can stimulate decisions within intervention studies based on theoretical aspects. All questions of the ITQ should be used when designing and evaluating educational interventions.

- **Summary**

These questions were found by scanning, paraphrasing, integrating, calibrating, and organizing many contributions of related methodological and theoretical literature dealing with research design (see Alisch, 1995; Barnett, Daly, Jones, & Lentz, 2004; Borsboom, Mellenbergh, & van Heerden, 2004; Bracht & Glass, 1968; Brewer & Hunter, 2006; Campbell, 1957; DiSessa & Cobb, 2004; Hagermoser Sanetti & Kratochwill, 2009; Highhouse, 2009; Johnson & Christensen, 2004; Kane, 1992, 2001; Kelly, Baek, Lesh, & Bannan-Ritland, 2008; Lipsey, 1990; Lissitz & Samuelsen, 2007; Lynch, 1983; McCaul & Glasgow, 1985; Meier, 2004; Mitchell & Jolley, 2010; Patry & Perrez, 2000; Reigeluth, 1999; Schurz, 2008; Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002; Shadish, Cook, & Leviton, 1991; or Snow, 1987). In order to identify and organize these questions, strategies for “drawing and verifying conclusions” like, for example, noting patterns, clustering, making contrasts/comparisons, or subsuming particulars into the general from qualitative data analysis methods were used (Miles & Huberman, 1994). First, contributions from literature were searched for assumptions about the integration of theories in intervention research. Second, these assumptions were organized in respect to their focus on situational parameters, subject characteristics, treatment design, mediating variables, and/or dependent variables. Third, assumptions were transformed into questions and re-organized into global areas (problem solution, theory development,

intervention design and implementation contexts, and discussions; see Tables 1a to 1d). Finally, the categorization and formulation of questions were calibrated in order to avoid definitional inaccuracies and overlappings of meanings. Having ITQ in mind, the planning, design, and evaluation of educational interventions can change considerably. There are two main ways how to use the ITQ. One way can be described as being related to a more exploratory use with less specific focuses. That means that a researcher uses the ITQ to find some stimulating ideas for decisions about different aspects of educational interventions. An unstructured scanning of the ITQ without specific goals drives this process. Another way is a more systematic use of ITQ with a clear focus. The researcher has a certain goal (e.g., improving the effectiveness of an intervention) and this goal should be achieved by selecting many or all questions of a specific ITQ area (e.g., effectiveness). Of course, these two ways can be mixed resulting in a scanning-focusing procedure. The following section should exemplarily show how the design and evaluation of the Ross and Horner (2009) intervention changes when using the ITQ in different ways. For each global area of the ITQ, questions were randomly selected out of the ITQ and answered by considering additional literature. Problem. Ross and Horner (2009) concluded from their review of existing bully prevention interventions that results have been weak and mixed with high variations, even with negative effects (for example, when students are teaching each other anti-bullying). Another problem has come from the fact that many bully prevention studies have been based on self-reports without considering systematic observations. Ross and Horner (2009) have identified more or less methodological reasons (e.g., inconsistencies in evidence) related to their major research problem. However, when using ITQ, the questions out of the global area of problem

solution are relevant (see Table 1a). These questions should lead to a complex problem view by searching, comparing, evaluating, and/or integrating different theories. For example, Lindsay and Anderson (2000) have developed a "general affective aggression model" that could lead together with the "social-cognitive informationprocessing model" from Boxer and Dubow (2002) to a set of sophisticated research problems for educational interventions. Ross and Horner (2009) have theoretically clearly focused on behavioral aspects of the aggression problem (e.g., the role of social rewards). They have not focused in detail on "social-cognitive informationprocessing" in which, for example, the attention and interpretation of external cues or beliefs that support the use of aggression are important. However, when using the ITQ questions and when having an expanded social-cognitive theoretical perspective, than, for example, the following research questions might arise: (1) Should anti-aggression trainings not only change behavior problems, but also problem-related social-cognitive information processing (see 5 5 5 Treatment Theory and Research Design 5 findings problems in the exploration area in Table 1a)? (2) Can social-cognitive information processing be measured or tested successfully in certain, for example, stressful aggression settings (see the criteria of empirical testability as part of the theory evaluation area)? (3) Is social-cognitive information processing part of a mediating mechanism that could help to reduce aggressive behavior (see mediating processes within the goal building area)? (4) Are there consistent (e.g., only positive) or inconsistent (e.g., positive and negative) theoretically assumed effects, when a behavioral and a social-cognitive perspective are integrated (see integration within triangulation area)? (5) Could a social-cognitive perspective realize a programmatic intervention progress in respect to behavioral educational

interventions on aggression reduction (see treatment development within progress area)? Theoretical background. The theoretical background of the study from Ross and Horner (2009) was based on definitions of bullying and on causal variables that are assumed to influence bullying. Especially, variables in a behavioral approach were focused over which parents and others had control and which included events that precede and follow bullying behavior (like peer attention). It was hypothesized that there is a relationship between bully prevention and physical and verbal aggression on playground activities. Prevention should increase the probability that victims will walk out of a problem situation and decrease social rewarding of problem behavior. In addition, prevention should increase stopping and helping victim behaviors of bystanders.

- **Revision**

ment of outcomes) arise, resulting in an overall non-linear inverse U-term-relationship. When such a theoretical analysis reveals a non-linear relationship between independent and dependent variables, then the designs of the intervention and of measurements are different in comparison to a linear setting. Ross and Horner (2009) have used a three-tiered prevention model in their intervention that can handle no or negative intervention effects step-by-step and that allow to measure no or negative results for a significant duration of time. So, they have important ingredients to handle non-linear relationships between their interventions and dependent variables, although no significant theoretical elaborations can be found why students do not respond positively to their interventions. Such elaborations could, for example, be based on theoretical approaches dealing with the development and experience of aggression and using concepts like the stability of causes

for aggression (e.g., Canary, Spitzberg, & Semic, 1998): During an intervention, people's attributions or explanations why an aggressive act occurs could change over time and such a change should be reflected theoretically. Another theoretical aspect could, for example, concern hierarchical classes, i.e., the question whether a stepwise change in the dependent variable can be related to a stepwise change in independent variables (see hierarchical [latent] classes within the specific area of process explanation in Table 1b). Such a theory could increase validity because it describes developments as transitions between latent classes (see Borsboom, Mellenbergh, & van Herden, 2004). In respect to aggression, different hierarchically organized development models could be found: So, for example, the affective goal taxonomy by Krathwohl, Bloom and Masia (1964) using concepts like attending (awareness, willingness to receive, controlled or selected attention), responding (acquiescence in responding, willingness to respond, satisfaction in response), valuing (acceptance of a value, preference of a value, commitment), organization (conceptualization of a value, organization of a value system), or characterization by a value or value complex (generalized set, characterization). Other relevant theoretical approaches could come, for example, from hierarchically organized stages of moral development by Kohlberg (2001). Within the intervention study from Ross and Horner (2009), such a hierarchical model could, for example, be linked with a stepwise intervention procedure that is based on a "changing criterion design": In a first step, attending to aggressive behavior and related criteria could be achieved by the intervention; when the first criteria is meet then responding to aggressive behavior and related criteria should be in the focus of intervention and so on.

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