UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

THE INFLUENCE OF TEACHERS' CLASSROOM PRACTICES ON THE SELF-CONCEPT OF PRIMARY SCHOOL PUPILS WITH DISABILITIES IN TANO NORTH DISTRICT

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BY

PETER OPOKU

Thesis submitted to the Department of Educational Foundations of the Faculty of Education, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for award of Master of Philosophy Degree in Special Education.

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature: …… Date……

Name: Peter Opoku

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature…… Date:……

Name: Dr. Prosper Deku

Co-supervisor's Signature……..... Date: ……

Name: Dr. Mark Owusu Amponsah

ABSTRACT

In Ghana, children with disabilities in the regular schools seem to go through experience which is detrimental to their self-concept development. The study investigated the influence of teacher classroom practices on the self-concept of children with disabilities in upper primary schools in the Tano North District.

The expost-facto research design was used for the study. The instruments used in gathering data for the study were questionnaire and observation guide and a structured interview guide. Purposive sampling and proportionate simple random sampling were used in selecting children with disabilities and the schools respectively for the study. A total number of 98 respondents were used. This comprises 30 teachers and 68 pupils with disabilities. One research question and four research hypotheses were formulated to guide the study.

The findings of the study were that Teacher's social and physical practices were geared toward meeting the needs of children with disabilities in the classroom whilst instructional and organizational practices were not. Teacher classroom practices have a moderate relationship with the self-concept of children with disability. No relationship was found to exist between type of disability and self-concept. Gender of children with disabilities was found to be related to their self-concept.

It is therefore suggested among others that Ghana Education Service (GES) should frequently organise in-service training for regular classroom teachers on how to take into account the characteristics of children with disabilities in their classroom practices so as to have a positive influence on the self-concept of such children.

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DEDICATION

To Pastor Prof. Yaw Afari Ankomah and My Family.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Self-concept refers to self-evaluation or self-perception, and it represents the sum of an individual's beliefs about his or her own attributes (Alena, Hadley, Elizabeth, Hair & Moore, 2008). Self-concept can also be one's beliefs about oneself. Children are likely to behave in ways that are consistent with their beliefs about themselves. The behaviour of other people in a child's life also plays a crucial role in the development of that child's self-concept. The behaviour of parents, teachers and peers toward a child communicate their evaluations about a child's worth as a person (Ormrod, 1995). A model developed by Hubner and Stauton, (as cited in Shavelson & Bolus, 1982), categorises self-concept into two main groups: academic which comprises English, History, and Science and non-academic self-concept which comprises physical, social and emotional self-concept. According to Alena et al. (2008), a child can have a positive self-concept in some domains and a negative self-concept in others. Alena et al. added that research also suggests that each individual has a global (or overall) self-concept that reflects how the individual evaluates his or her self-worth as a whole.

Some children are different from their classmates to the extent that they need special educational services to meet their unique needs (Ormrod, 1995). One of the largest groups of students who differ from their mates are those formally classified as disabled (Smith, Polloway, Patton & Dowdy, 1995).

According to Reddy (2007) children with disabilities have always been part of our communities and for that matter our schools which is part of the community.

Disability does not in and of itself result in lowered self-concept (Johnston & Sinclair, n.d; Sze & Valentin, 2006). However, a number of studies have shown that children with disabilities in the regular schools have self-concept that are lower than that of their peers without disabilities (Ascione & Borg, 1980).The question to be answered is, if disability does not in and of itself causes low self concept, then what is the reason behind children with disabilities lowered self-concept which is in contrast to that of the peers without disabilities?

The self-concept of students is formed from experiences which include classroom conditions. These conditions are those that are facilitated by the teachers' classroom practices. Classroom environment is closely related to the self-concept of students. The instructional, curriculum, social and organisational factors within the classroom which are facilitated by the teacher influence the self-concept development of children with disabilities (Rehman, 2001). Therefore, teachers' classroom practices include the entire instructional, curriculum, social and organisational techniques teachers exhibited in the classroom in an attempt to facilitate an enabling environment for all categories of students' learning.

The teacher is an important instrument in the instructional process, and this play a very important role in shaping the personality of children. The way the teacher teaches and handles the students has an effect on the personality development of children. This development includes the children's self-

concept as well. The way a teacher carries out his role in the class will affect the emotional climate in the classroom too (Chauha, 1996).

Looking at the above discussions, it is clear that teachers, as part of the community and like parents, might be in a position to demand, expect, or force students with disabilities to do certain things in the classroom for which they might not be in a position to do. Such conditions can put pressure on a student with disabilities and influence their self-concept development in the classroom. In other term as put forth by Shea and Bauer (1997), the society and significant others in the environment can influence the development of personal identity.

Students with disabilities, sometimes, require assistance and/or accommodations which include a broad array of social support or classroom climate and achievement believe factors which influence them (Smith & Nelson, 1993). That is, the way children with disabilities are handled or accommodated in the classroom affects their personality including their self-concept. Chauha (1996) also argued that the school plays an important role in moulding the personality of children because a significant part of a child's life is spent in school especially, between the ages of 6 and 20; much of what goes on in the school is influenced by the teachers' classroom practices.

A major problem faced by teachers in the regular classroom is how to create an environment in which children with disabilities can adjust and learn (Ascione & Borg, 1980). Elbaum and Vaughn (2009) also contend that the challenge for all teachers, especially those who teach students with disabilities, is how to help children with disabilities develop positive images of themselves as competent learners while at the same time maintaining high academic

standards. In many situations, children with disabilities are just labelled whilst their learning problem or difficulties are left unattended to (Knoblock, 1963).

In Ghana, a study conducted by Kuyini and Desai (2008) to examine the instructional practices of teachers in inclusive classrooms revealed that 58 percent of the teachers indicating a majority did not have any training in special education. The study further revealed that teachers used more generic teaching practices with limited or no adaptations which are tailored to the needs of students with disabilities. Besides, it was found in the study that teachers' experience in working with students with disabilities was the background variable most predictive of adaptive teaching. However, according to the American Association for Agricultural Education, AAAE (2001), a professional understanding, which is knowledge in exceptionalities, is necessary for teachers in meeting the needs of children with disabilities in the classroom. The lack of professional understanding in meeting the needs of children with disabilities and the use of more generic teaching practices suggest that teachers' classroom practices may not be favourable to the total development of children with disabilities including their self-concept. Yekple and Avoke (2006) conducted a study on "Improving inclusive education at the basic level in Ghana" and they found that teachers were not able to meet the learning needs of children with disabilities in the classroom.

The attitude of a teacher towards students and the general climate the teacher establishes in the classroom has a major impact on the success of students particularly those with disabilities. Attitudes are learnt and they appear to be affected by the amount of knowledge and contact a person has regarding a particular issue or group (Smith et al., 1995). In Ghana, teachers

knowledge in disabilities can be said to be low, in reference to Kuyini and Desai's (2008) research. Consequently, attitude of teachers' towards children with disabilities is more likely to be negative. Another study which was conducted by Slikker (2009) showed that people with disabilities are given unfair treatment in Ghana. In other words, people have negative attitude towards people with disabilities. This unfair treatment takes the form of giving names and insulting which connote stigma. Thus, these children are excluded from full participation in activities in the society in which they find themselves. The school, being part of the community, is not an exception from this situation. Deku (2000) reported that teachers in Ghana do not favour educating children with disabilities together with children without disabilities, and teachers have negative attitude towards educating children with disabilities in the regular school. In Yekple and Avoke's (2006) research, they again found that about 55% to 60% of the teachers had negative attitude towards children with disabilities in the regular classroom. One can infer from these findings that teacher classroom practices in the regular schools are likely not to favour children with disabilities thereby affecting their self-concept development negatively.

To talk of negative attitudes in the classroom situation in Ghana, from my own experience, there have been instances where teachers have given names to students who perform poorly in class or they have called students names for their inability to pronounce certain words correctly. Such unfair treatments or negative attitude by such teachers will lead to unfair grading practices, unfair assignments, inappropriate behaviour consequences and inappropriate modelling opportunities for students (Slikker, 2009). This can

lead to development of lower self-concept among those children who were rejected and for that matter, children with disabilities. Therefore, there is the need investigate how teachers' classroom practices influence the development of self-concept of children with disabilities.

Statement of the Problem

The development of self-concept among children including those with disabilities has been of great interest to parents, educators and those who respect the importance of this construct (Alawiye & Alawiye, 1984). A study conducted by Khor and Yeou (1986) revealed that teachers can enhance the development of self-concept of their students with a series of well-chosen activities, given that these teachers are supportive and they will exhibit favourable attitudes towards them. Roeser, Blumenfeld, Eccles, Harold, and Wigfield (1993) also reported that teacher classroom expectations influence the self-concept of students.

In Ghana, teachers are using more generic teaching practices which have limited or no adaptations, and such practices are not tailored to the needs of students with disabilities (Kuyini & Desai, 2008). Children with disabilities are also given unfair treatment in the classrooms (Slikker, 2009). Therefore, such children seem to go through classroom experiences which can lead to the development of low self-concept. There are also limited studies that examine the direct effect of teacher support in the classroom which include classroom practices of teachers on students' self-concept including children with disabilities (Manning, 2007). There are no known studies on how teachers' classroom practices directly influence the self-concept of children with disabilities especially, in our country Ghana and specifically Tano North

District. Therefore, there is the need to find out how teachers' classroom practices influence the development of self-concept of children with disabilities in the Tano North District in the Brong Ahafo Region of Ghana.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to investigate how teachers' classroom practices influence the self-concept of children with disabilities. Specifically, the study seeks to investigate the following issues:

1. Teachers' consideration for children with disabilities in their classroom practices.
2. The relationship between teachers' classroom practices and self-concept of children with disabilities.
3. The variations in the self-concept of the disability types
4. The relationship between teachers' classroom practices by gender and the self-concept of students with disabilities.
5. The relationship between gender of pupils with disabilities and their self-concept.

Research Questions

The study seeks to address the research question:

To what extent do teachers consider children with disabilities in their classroom practices?

Research Hypotheses

The following research hypotheses are given consideration to in the study:

1. H_0: There is no statistical significant relationship between teachers' classroom practices and self-concept of children with disabilities.

H_1: There is a statistical significant relationship between teachers' classroom practices and self-concept of children with disabilities.

2. H_0: Types of disability have no statistical significant influence on self-concept of children with disabilities.

   H_1: Types of disability have statistical significant influence on self-concept of children with disabilities.

3. H_o: There is no statistical significant difference between teachers' classroom practices by gender and self-concept of students with disabilities.

   H_1: There is a statistical significant difference between teachers' classroom practices by gender and self-concept of students with disabilities.

4. H_o: There is no statistical significant relationship between gender of students with disabilities and their self-concept.

   H_1: There is a statistical significant relationship between gender of students with disabilities and their self-concept.

Significance of the Study

The outcome of this research will:

1. Inform the various institutions such as University of Cape Coast, University of Education Winneba and the colleges of Education in Ghana responsible for training teachers in planning their teacher training programmes.
2. Help the Ghana Education Service to realise the need to organise in-service training for all teachers so as to upgrade teachers' knowledge and skills in handling children with disabilities in the classroom in

order to have positive influence on such children's self-concept development.

3. Provide useful information to teachers in terms of modifying the classroom practices to meet the needs of all categories of children thereby having positive influence on such children's self-concept development.
4. Provide adequate information for further research.
5. Add to existing knowledge in the field of Education.

Delimitation of the Study

The study was delimited to:

1. Upper primary schools in the Tano North District in the Brong Ahafo region.
2. Only children with physical disabilities, speech and language impairment, visual impairment and hearing impairment. Also, only the teachers who have handled the children in the above mentioned categories of disabilities were included in the study. The above four categories of children with disabilities were used because these categories are relatively easy to be identified in the regular classroom.
3. Children with mild disability conditions. Such children with disabilities in the regular schools, with the exception of inclusive pilot schools, are mostly of the mild type.
4. Teachers' classroom practices which include the physical, instructional, management and organisation and social practices.

Limitations of the Study

There are many limitations of the study. These limitations include: Firstly, how self-concept would be scored or measured in various tests. Secondly, many external factors that could influence the self-concept of students will not be accounted for. These factors include the influence of peers or other students, influence of parents and siblings.

Thirdly, observation checklist was used as one of the instruments for collecting data for the study. Since teachers were informed before the exercise, their performance is likely to be affected positively or negatively, depending on the teachers' attitude towards observations. Observation is also time consuming and due to that the sample size covered was not large, which poses a threat to the generalisability of the study.

Also, the questionnaires which were also used for collecting information for the study have their own weaknesses. These weaknesses include; bias, incompleteness, variability in response, mechanical limitations or make-up, non-response errors, lack of clarity in definitions, ambiguities or inappropriate wording, limited responses and briefness. The interview might also show some weaknesses on the part of students; there could be biases. All these might influence the results of the study.

Besides, the study used only primary six pupils with disabilities and their teachers. On the other hand, other pupils with disabilities in primary five and four and their teachers could have contributed to the study. Again, the study used only four categories of children with disabilities (hearing impairment, visual impairment, physical disabilities and speech and language impairment): However, there is that possibility that pupils with other kinds of disability

conditions could have contributed to the study. In addition, this limitation is also a threat to the generalisability of the study to other categories of children with disabilities.

Definition of Terms

Teachers' classroom practices: The instructional, curriculum, social, organisational, and environmental or physical adaptations teachers make in the classroom in an attempt to meet the needs of children with disabilities.

Disabilities: A physical or mental impairment that substantially limits one or more major life activities, such as walking, seeing, hearing, speaking, working, or learning.

Physical disabilities: Children whose physical limitations interfere with school attendance or learning to such an extent that they need special services, training, equipment and facilities.

Visual impairment: Having sight limitation in any way and to such an extent that special services are required.

Hearing impairment: A hearing loss significant enough to require special education, training, and/or adaptations; it includes both hard of hearing conditions and deaf.

Speech and language difficulty: Disorders affecting or interfering with an individual's ability to communicate.

Self-concept: Self-concept refers to the beliefs, attitudes and knowledge people have about themselves.

Organisation of the Rest of the Study

The rest of the study is made up of Chapters Two, Three, Four and Five. Chapter Two deals with the conceptual framework and empirical review that

guide the study. Methodology is covered in Chapter Three. This includes the research design, population, sample, sampling procedures and method of data collection. Chapter four presents the results and the discussions of the analysis of data. Chapter Five has the summary of the study, conclusion and recommendations as well as areas for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter presents a review of literature which is relevant to the study. The review is in two parts: The conceptual framework and the empirical review.

Conceptual Framework

This aspect of the literature covers areas such as the concept of children with disabilities, teachers' classroom practices which comprised the social, management and organisational strategies, instructional and physical practices. Again, it includes the concept of self-concept, factors influencing the development of self-concept and theories on self-concept.

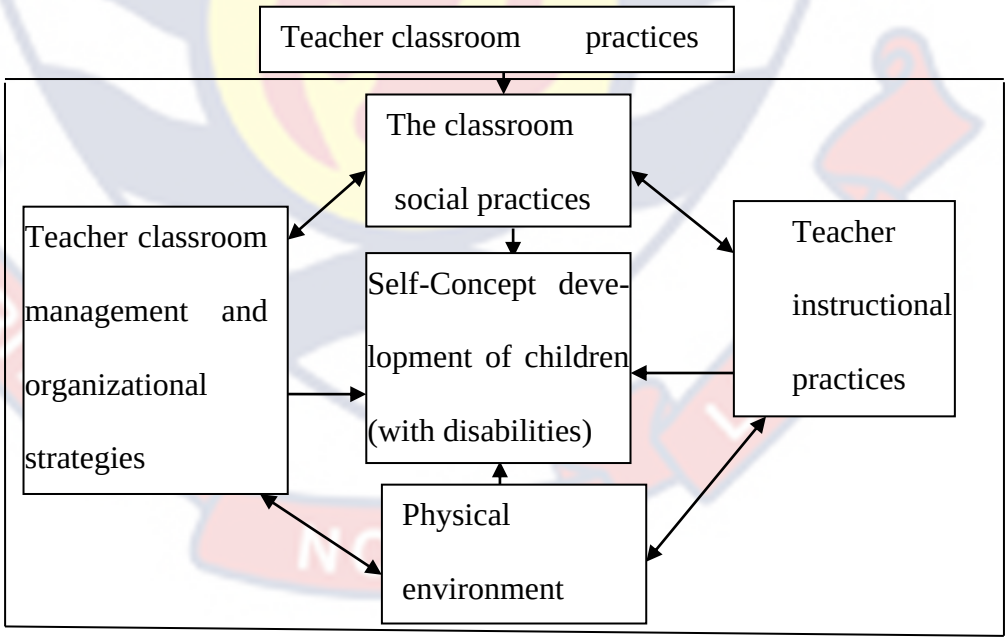

Figure 1. The conceptual framework

A model showing the interrelatedness of teachers' classroom practices and self-concept of children with disabilities

The Concept of Children with Disabilities

This subheading under the conceptual framework takes a look at the concept of children with disabilities. All children are unique individuals who require individual attention, nurturing and caring. However, in every society, the vast majority of people fall within a range of accepted physical and behavioural criteria and are referred to as the "normal group" (Hardman, Drew & Egan, 1987). Children whose differences are big enough to require specially designed instructional programme or adaptations in the general school are called exceptional children. Exceptional children include both children who experience difficulties in learning and children whose performance are superior to the extent that special education is necessary to help them fulfil their potentials (Heward & Orlansky, 1992). One of the largest groups of students with special needs or exceptionalities in the school system are those formally classified as disabled (Smith et al., 1995).

Disability according to the Disability Discrimination Act 1995 as cited by Avoke (2005) states that "A person has a disability if he or she has physical or mental impairment which has a substantial long term adverse effect on his or her ability to carry out normal day to day activities"(p. 2). General disabilities categories include cognitive deficits, emotional and behavioural problems, physical disorders, sensory problems and health related disorders. Within the general areas are many different specific disabilities which include mental retardation, learning disabilities, visual impairment, hearing impairment, serious emotional disturbance, speech impairment, traumatic brain injury, orthopaedic impairments autism and other health impairments (Smith & Luckasson, 1995; Smith et al., 1995).

According to Cook (2001), research had indicated that the level of severity of a disability is related to teachers' level of effectiveness in handling children with disabilities in the classroom. According to a study conducted by Ouellette-Kuntz, Burge, Brown and Arsenault (2010), the general public was more accepting of people who have mild level of impairment than of people who have moderate or severe level of impairment. However, research concerning the attitudes of elementary school teachers by Cook suggested the opposite. When teachers were asked to categorize students into either attachment (i.e., a student that the teacher would like to have again the following year), concern (i.e., a student that the teacher would like to give more attention), indifference (i.e., a student that the teacher is less aware of in the classroom), or rejection (i.e., a student whom the teacher would like to remove from the classroom), students with severe and obvious disabilities were significantly overrepresented in the indifference category, whereas students with mild and hidden disabilities were significantly overrepresented in the rejection category (Cook, 2001).

Cook (2001) explained that the possibility that when teachers could readily and easily recognize a student's unique needs due to a disability, they were more likely and willing to make accommodations, because the behaviours were explained, expected, and could be planned for and addressed. Cook further asserts that when students have a mild and hidden disability, teachers tended to still hold them to the same expectations of their typically developing peers, therefore, causing their behaviour to be labelled as disruptive, disturbing, or intolerable, which lead to rejection.

Classroom Practices of Teachers

Teachers' practices and attitudes are important for understanding and improving educational processes. They are closely linked to teachers' strategies for coping with challenges in their daily professional life and to their general well-being. These practices also shape students' learning environment and influence student development (OECD, 2009). For the purpose of this study, teachers' classroom practices include the entire instructional, curriculum, social and organisational techniques that teachers' exhibit in the classroom in an attempt to facilitate an enabling environment for students of all categories of students' learning.

The Concept of Accommodations/ Adaptation

Accommodation is an adjustment to an activity that removes barriers presented by a disability so that a person can have equal access to that of a person without a disability. Failing to make accommodations is discrimination. Accommodations should not alter the essential purpose of an assignment (Byrnes, 2005).

Adaptations do not represent unfair advantages to students. In fact, the opposite could be true. If appropriate adaptations are not used, students could be unfairly penalized for having learning differences. Inappropriate adaptations can create serious negative impacts on their achievement and self-concept (Ministry of Education British Columbia, 2009). Accommodation in the form of adaptation occurs when teachers differentiate instruction, assessment and materials in order to create a flexible learning environment. For example, a student should be working on below grade level learning

outcomes in Language Arts and in all other subjects or courses, some of which require reading materials at the lower reading level (Byrnes, 2005).

The Classroom Social Environment

The classroom social environment comprised whether students are encouraged to interact with and relate to others in the classroom (e.g., classmates, the teacher), and encompasses dimensions of promoting: (1) teacher support, (2) mutual respect, (3) student task-related interaction, and (4) performance goals. The emphasis on the importance of the classroom social environment, including support, mutual respect, task-related interaction among students, and a lesser focus on competition among students, is apparent in reform recommendations (Patrick & Ryan, 2003). For example, the National Science Education Standards include explicit reference to teachers creating a social and intellectual environment with support, respect, and collaboration as central features (National Research Council, as cited in Patrick & Ryan, 2003).

According to Patrick and Ryan, the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics also explicitly addresses these social norms when they outline what teachers should strive to create in their class. For example, they advocate that students should be encouraged to share their ideas and to seek clarification until they understand whatever is being taught or done in the class. To achieve this kind of classroom environment, teachers need to establish an atmosphere of mutual trust and respect. When teachers build such an environment, students would understand that it is acceptable to struggle with ideas, to make mistakes, and to be unsure. This attitude encourages them to participate actively in trying to understand what they are asked to learn because they know that they will not be criticized personally. Although the social

environment of the classroom is likely to be important for motivation and engagement for students of all ages, it may be particularly important for adolescent students with disabilities (Patrick & Ryan, 2003).

One of the most salient features of the classroom environment is the quality of the relationships between the class members. The quality of teaching and learning is entirely different depending on whether the classroom is characterized by a climate of trust and support or by a competitive, cutthroat atmosphere. If learners form cliques and subgroups that are hostile to each other and resist any cooperation, the overall climate will be stressful for teachers and students alike, and learning effectiveness is likely to plummet (Dornyei, 2007).

Quality of relationship in the classroom can also be influence by the level of acceptance. According to Dornyei (2007), one of the most important characteristics of a good group is the emergence of a high level of acceptance between members that are powerful enough to override even negative feelings. Dornyei added that acceptance involves a feeling toward another person which is non-evaluative in nature. Acceptance has nothing to do with likes and dislikes, but entails an unconditional positive regard toward the individual, acknowledging the person as a complex human being with many (possibly conflicting) values and imperfections.

Dimensions of the Classroom Social Environment

The social classroom environment has many dimensions. These dimensions include teacher support, promoting mutual respect and promoting performance goals.

Teacher support: Teacher support refers to students' beliefs that their teachers care about them, and value and establish personal relationships with them (Patrick & Ryan, 2003). Students with disabilities are susceptible to bulling by other students in the classroom. If students with disabilities will be able to gather the courage to talk to a teacher on an issue, then he or she needs to know the teachers will take the problem seriously. How a teacher reacts and responds to a student who is being bullied may make the difference between resolving the issue or allowing misery to continue that could affect the rest of the student's school life (Sunal & Haas, 2008).

According to Rimm-Kaufman (n.d), teachers who foster positive relationships with their students create classroom environments more conducive to learning and meet students' developmental, emotional and academic needs. Rimm-Kaufman added that positive student-teacher relationships in the classroom is evident when teachers: Show their pleasure and enjoyment of students; Interact in a responsive and respectful manner; Offer help for students (e.g., answering questions in timely manner and offering support that matches the needs of children) in achieving academic and social objectives; and help students reflect on their thinking and learning skills; Teachers know and demonstrate knowledge about individual students' backgrounds, interests, emotional strengths and academic levels and seldom show irritability or aggravation toward students .

The Self-System theory emphasizes the importance of students' motivation and by doing so, it explains the importance of teacher-child relationships (McCombs, 1986). Deci and Ryan (2002) hypothesize that students come to the classroom with three basic psychological needs. These

needs include competence, autonomy and relatedness. It is said that all these psychological needs can be met in class through students' interactions with teachers and with the learning environment. Close student-teacher relationship increases students' academic and social skills and it may therefore indirectly enhance self-concept (Manning, 2007).

Promoting mutual respect: A focus on mutual respect in the classroom involves a perception that the teacher expects all students to value one another and the contribute life in the classroom, but not allow students to make fun of others (Patrick & Ryan, 2003). Positive classroom environment that is supportive of learning, one in which every student is made to feel respected and worthy aids in development of self-concept (Khor & Yeou, 1986). Elliot, Kratochwill, Cook and Travers (2000) posit that Dreikers and his colleagues believed that both teachers and students need inner freedom, which results from cooperating with each other, accepting responsibility for behaviours, speaking truthfully, respecting each other and agreeing on common behavioural rules.

Some practical ways of promoting mutual respect in the classroom include not nagging or scolding, avoiding double standards, avoiding threats and intimidations (students cannot learn or acquire self-discipline in a tense environment), trying to understand the purpose of misbehaviour(a teacher can ask himself, "why do students claw during arithmetic? Is it to get attention or to demonstrate to peers that they are powerful by daring to defy adult pressure"), establishing a relationship which is base on trust and mutual respect (Elliot et al., 2000).

Positive associations between perceptions of teachers' support and students' adaptive motivational beliefs and engagement behaviours have been found by various researchers. For example, Felner, Aber, Primavera and Cauce (1985) pointed out that when students view their teacher as supportive, they report higher levels of interest, values, effort, enjoyment in their schoolwork, a more positive academic self-concept and greater expectancies for success (Goodenow, 1993). Students who perceive their teacher as supportive can also relate positively to asking for help with school work when the need arises. Also they have a greater desire to comply with classroom rules. Perceived teacher support is related negatively to absenteeism and disruptiveness in the classroom (Ryan & Patrick, 2001).

On promoting student task-related interaction Patrick and Ryan (2003, p. 7) says that:

> Teachers vary in the extent to which they allow, or even encourage, students to interact with one-another during academic activities. This interaction may encompass students sharing ideas and approaches during whole-class lessons, working together in small-group activities, or informal help-seeking and help-giving during individual seatwork. Whatever the form, however, interaction among students is a critical component of student-centred instructional approaches. When students are encouraged to interact and exchange ideas with each other during academic tasks, they have opportunities to ask or answer questions, make suggestions, give explanations, justify their reasoning, and participate in discussions.

When Students' get to know that they are given opportunities to participate actively during lessons and then are encouraged to interact with classmates in the pursuit of understanding, it can motivate them. For example, interaction opportunities may foster students' feelings of confidence or efficacy, sustain interest, and support a willingness to persevere with the task when they experience difficulty or frustration (Patrick & Ryan, 2003). However, according to the Research and Evaluation Unit of the Curriculum Research and Development Division (CRDD) of the Ghana Education Service (2001), in Ghana, teachers dominate all classroom activities, thus, they provide few opportunities for group work and pupil-pupil interaction.

Promoting performance goals: When classrooms are perceived as highly competitive, emphasizing a hierarchy of ability and students' relative position within that hierarchy, students are likely to engage in behaviours that are detrimental to learning (Patrick & Ryan, 2003).

Instructional and Curriculum Practices

According to Slavin (1994), teachers must know how to adapt their instruction to meet the students' levels of knowledge. They must motivate students to learn and they should assess the students' learning. Gallegos and Gallegos (as cited in Smith et al., 1995) suggested twenty good teaching tips which are also critical when dealing with students with disabilities in the classroom. The teacher should:

1. Be more understanding
2. Be more involved with students
3. Pay attention to students
4. Look at students a little better than what they do

5. Put students where they belong and where they can handle it at that level.
6. Not watch one students constantly
7. Be helpful in and out of the classroom.
8. Give students a chance to talk about what they need.
9. Not do things that bother or disturb and make students feel uncomfortable.
10. Students should not have to answer every single question.
11. Be patient with students
12. Be well dressed to school.
13. Not give students home work that they cannot finish.
14. Be appreciative of students when they do a good job.
15. Should not touch opposite sex students.

Slavin (994) gave two models of effective instruction methods of a teacher. These include the Carroll's model of school learning and the QAIT (quality, appropriateness, incentive and time) model of effective instruction. The Carroll's Model of school learning method describes teaching in terms of the management of time, resources, and activity to ensure student learning. The model presented by Carroll proposes five elements that contribute to the effectiveness of instruction: Aptitude (students general ability to learn); ability to understand instruction; Perseverance (the amount of time students are willing to actively spend learning which is a product of students motivation); Opportunity (the amount of time allowed for learning or the amount of time teachers spend teaching a particular skill or concept); Quality of instruction (the effectiveness with which the lesson is delivered) (Slavin, 1994).

Carroll discussed these elements in terms of (1) time actually spent on learning and (2) time needed to learn which proposes the following relationship: Degree of learning = f (Time spend/Time need). When learning is greater, the more time is spent on it in relation to the amount of time they need to learn. "Time needed" is a product of aptitude and ability to learn, whereas time actually spent depend on opportunity, quality of instruction, and student perseverance. According to Slavin (1994) what Carroll is implying is that aptitude need not be seen as restricting the amount of what can be learned, but only as determining the time it takes. In order words, anyone can learn anything if the quality of instruction is high and if enough time is spent in learning. On the word of Slavin, Carrol pointed out that a learner will succeed in learning a task if the needed time is given to that student to learn that task. This means that teachers can effectively attend to the needs of children with disabilities in the classroom if they (teachers) would adapt their instructional strategies and spend enough time on learners in order to meet their (learners) needs.

The second model of effective instruction according to Slavin (1994) is the QAIT (quality, appropriateness, incentive and time) model. The first element of the QAIT model is the quality of instruction. The quality of instruction refers to the degree to which teachers' present information or skills in a way that students can easily learn. The quality of instruction is largely a product of the quality of the curriculum and of the lesson presentation itself. Slavin (1994) maintains that instruction must make sense to the students. To achieve this, teachers must (a) present information in an orderly and systematic manner; (b) provide smooth transitions from old to new topics or

lessons; (c) use vivid images and concrete examples and (d) ensure necessary repetition and reinforcement. Figure 2 shows the QAIT model.

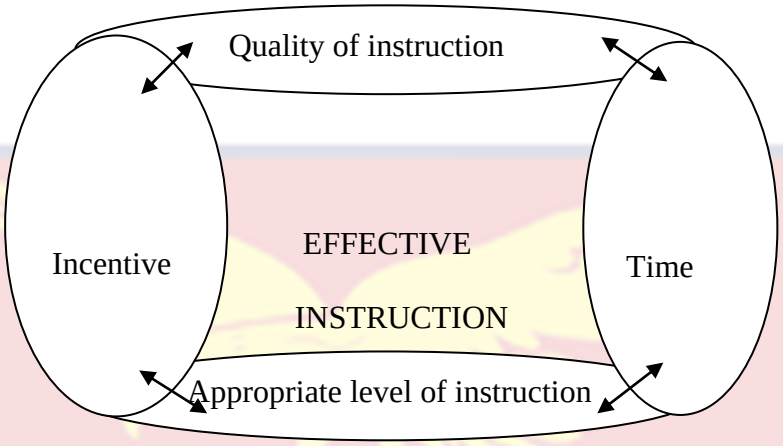

Figure 2. The QAIT model

A model showing the link between each of the element of the QAIT model for effective instruction (adapted from Slavin 1994).

The second element of the QAIT model according Slavin (1994) is appropriate levels of instruction. Appropriate levels of instruction is about the degree to which the teacher ensures that students are ready to learn a new lesson (that is, they have the necessary skill and knowledge to learn) but have not already learnt the lesson. In other terms, the level of instruction is neither too easy nor too difficult for the students. Here, one of the challenging tasks of teachers is how to effectively deal with individual differences.

The third element is incentive. Incentive is the degree to which a teacher ensures that students are motivated to work on instructional tasks and are also motivated to learn the material being presented. Time is the fourth element of the QAIT model of effective instruction. Time, in the QAIT model, stands for

the degree to which students are given enough time to learn materials that are being taught.

Children with disabilities need teaching techniques that are appropriate in order to enhance their performance. Cheney (1989) suggests that instructional modifications should address three general goals. These are: (a) the level of achievement of the students and instructional materials; (b) the characteristics of the learner and the response modes required by the material or the techniques; and (c) the motivational aspect of the learner and the materials. To tackle the issue of instructional modifications, Cheney suggest that teachers should informally assess their instructional programme to find out what students' disabilities are and that those without disabilities are learning at a satisfactory level.

According to Jordan, Schwartz and McGhie-Richmond (2009) research had shown that an effective curriculum and instructional adaptations lead to more effective instruction, which benefits all students in the classroom, both those with and without disabilities. The same study showed teachers were effective in a classroom when they have strong time management routines, balance one-on-one instruction with group activities, and they elicit a higher order of critical thinking.

Task adaptations reduce the length or complexity of the practice or test items and make assignments or test items more accessible (Beech, 2010). However, to Beech, teachers should only use task adaptations in the initial stages of instruction and then fade them so that the student has the opportunity to learn the concept or skill at the required level of proficiency.

Task adaptations are considered as accommodations because they are temporary and they do not reduce learning expectations. Examples of task adaptations include:

1. Making assignments or assessments less complex. Such as the crossing out one of the options on a multiple-choice question so that a student has to only pick from three options instead of four.
2. Providing hints or clues to correct responses on assignments and tests, such as the page number in the book where the answer to the question can be found (Beech, 2010).

According to Deku (2000), teachers must be able to present concepts by using as many non-visual senses as possible when adapting instruction to the physical, academic and social needs of students including those with visual impairment. Downing and Chen (2005) also explained that the instructional technique that teachers use definitely influence what students learn. Teachers engage students by providing visual and auditory information. They convey their mood through facial expressions, body language and tone of voice. They give directions by gestures, pointing and spoken words. If students cannot receive or understand these modes of communication the teacher must use alternative strategies. The primary alternatives are tactile. Teachers must covey their instructional expectations, mood and information through physical and direct contact with the student. To be most effective in tactile teaching, teachers must be aware of, interpret, monitor and modify their tactile interactions from students' perspective.

The classroom Physical Environment and Arrangements in the classroom

Another aspect of teachers' classroom practices is how teachers manage the physical environment and arrangements in the classroom. According to Kaya and Donmez (2010), Ginn suggests that the classroom should be organized in a way that students can walk through, and they get materials easily without disturbing others. A physical arrangement in the classroom is one of the important aspects of planning for effective instruction (Slavin, 1994). According to Emmer et al. and Everson et al. (as cited in Slavin, 1994) researchers have identified four principles of room arrangements for minimizing disturbances and disruptions. These are as follows:

1. Keep high traffic areas free of congestion. For example students' desk must be kept away from doorways, bookshelves, and supply areas to which the class needs frequent access.
2. Make sure students can easily be seen by the teacher. That is students desks should be set up so that all students can be seen from the teacher's desk. On the word of Brown and Vigilante (2005) stipulated that arrangement in the classroom to provide optimal visibility for teachers and students reduce the potential for discipline problems. Therefore, teachers should be in a position that allows full view of the classroom and the students. The teacher should do well to go round in the classroom so as to know what each student doing at any time.
3. Frequently used teaching materials and students' supplies should be readily accessible. Books, papers and other supplies should be in easily available and clearly marked areas so that students can get them without the teachers help.

4. Students should be able to see instructional presentations and displays. Students should be able to see the chalkboard, overhead projector and instructional areas without moving their desks or craning their necks. Brown and Vigilante (2005) make a case that student's visibility in the classroom is very important and it deserves careful consideration. Students must be able to see the teacher, blackboards, displays, presentations, charts and classroom activities easily. Rearranging and assigning seating positions periodically can help keep students fresh and focused.

Dean (1996) argues that in the classroom, furniture must be arranged in such a way that a child with physical disabilities can move easily. Desks and Chairs need to be of proper height for the child. Individual children may need a sloping surface for writing. In planning the physical arrangement, Deku (2000) states that teachers should consider typical student grouping and storage needs for materials and equipments.

Brown and Vigilante (2005) reason with Dean (1996) and Deku (2000) that the physical appearance of the classroom should represent its occupants and the learning activities that take place in it. Presenting murals, bulletin boards, artwork, posters, student projects and papers should be in an attractive and educative ways. Students' work should also be presented in a fair, equal and consistent manner. Brown and Vigilante added that when names of students are labelled on their desks, books, artwork, projects, papers and supplies it leads to personalization. This personalization approach helps students feel like they are an important part of the classroom and "special" individuals too.

On the word of Offei (2006), during instructional sections, enhancement of speech sounds through hearing aids, personal FM systems, sound-field systems, enhancement of acoustic classroom, et cetera is recommended in handling children with hard of hearing in the classroom. He added that alternative approaches to classroom instruction should include computer assisted real time transcription, preferential classroom seating, writing assignments on the board and male teachers not wearing bears or moustaches. Moustaches and bears when they are over grown might make lip reading very hard if not impossible for children with hearing impairment. Because of that Offei thinks that teachers should avoid it when teaching children with hearing impairment. He reiterates that in writing assignments on the board, optimizing of lighting in the classroom should be done so that the teachers face is clearly visible to help in lip reading. Again, teachers not standing with bright light behind them making their face hidden in shadows are some of the means of making the classroom conducive for children especially, children with hearing impairment in the classroom.

To make the physical environment favourable to all students especially, those with physical disabilities, teachers must be open and flexible in welcoming students into the classroom (Barbara, 2011). Teachers should also be concerned about how to handle and position children so that the risk of further enhancing a disability condition for e.g. physical disabilities is minimized (Yekple, 2005). If the learning environment can be maximized for student success and particularly those with disabilities, teachers should:

1. Create an environmental learning space that can accommodate wheelchairs and other students who using other assistive devices to move around the classroom.
2. Use assistive technology to provide adaptive technological equipment to enhance students' access to learning. Assistive technology can be a modification of the computer equipment which can have voice activated software or tutorial software for instructional modifications or actual equipment such as an adaptive mouse for students with motor coordinator issues (Barbara, 2011).

The physical organization of the classroom plays an important role in effective classroom discipline. Organized classrooms give students (especially young children) a sense of order, security and predictability. They know where classroom materials can be found, where their various learning activities take place and where they are supposed to be (Brown & Vigilante, 2005).

In all, it can be said that the general atmosphere in the classroom cannot be left out in terms of meeting the needs of all children in the classroom. Therefore, there is the need for teachers' to take a look at this since it would be very difficult to learn in an unwholesome or hostile environment which does not support the needs of students.

Classroom Organization and Management

Classroom management and organisation is also one of elements in teachers' classroom practices. According to Smith et al. (1995), a generally recognise definition of classroom management and organisation does not exist. However, Smith et al. gave a liberal application and interpretation of the term.

They defined classroom organisation and management as all teacher-directed activities that support the efficient operations of the classroom that lead to the establishment of optimal conditions of learning and order. Elliott et al., (2000, p. 382) stated that "Classroom is remarkably a complex settings, and the activities that occur within it is subject to likes and dislikes, feelings and motivation of a large number of people". Classroom management can be defined as the use of rules and procedures to maintain order so that good learning may be achieved. In the light of this, organising the classroom is the first step in achieving effective classroom management. Teachers who give the impression of knowing what they are doing and who are acting decisively, establish that someone is in control and provides a sense of security. From a pedagogical standpoint, learning can occur only in an orderly classroom. "Orderly", however, does not imply a rigid or quiet. An orderly classroom environment is one in which everyone (teacher and students) know exactly what is going on. Running a classroom smoothly can prevent discipline problems (Elliot et al., 2000).

According to Elliot et al. (2000), a comprehensive classroom management includes both reactive responds to problems and proactive plans for productive behaviour (proactive classroom management). Proactive classroom management is preventive rather than reactive. It combines methods that can help students to behave correctly with procedures than promote achievement. Proactive classroom management goes with effectives classroom instructional techniques and it emphasizes the group dimensions of classroom management (Gettenger, as cited by Elliot et al., 2000). Maintaining sufficient

order requires that the teacher ensures that students enter the classroom and they move to their seats with no disruption (Elliot et al., 2000).

Teaching skills which are related to efficient classroom organisation, according to Farrant (2004), include recognising attention or lack of attention, gaining maximum pupil involvement, displaying awareness of group and individual pupils' behaviour, displaying authority and confidence, coping with multiple issues and giving clear instructions. Farrant added that structuring the classroom environment, establishing classroom routines, encouraging attentive behaviour, maintaining pupil activity and controlling classroom equipment efficiently are all part of the teaching skills which are related to effective classroom organisation.

According to Smith et al. (1995), it is possible for students to obey classroom rules. Classroom rules are a part of the total set of expectations which are established by the teacher and it plays an important role in the success of the students. Depending on the classroom rules, some students with disabilities have an easy or difficult time being successful. According to Brown and Vigilante (2005) teachers should explain and make known classroom rules in a variety of ways in order to accommodate the various learning styles of the students. Orally, teachers should explain the rules, as well as posting them in writing, discussing, illustrating and periodically reviewing them. Furthermore, Brown and Vigilante added that teachers must teach the reasons for the rules in ways that stimulate students to think about, discuss and apply the rules to their own experiences.

In the classroom, according to Brown and Vigilante (2005), organized activities reduce the potential for discipline problems. In organized

classrooms, directions are given (and materials distributed) in systematic ways, and activities are written on the board and, then, discussed. Teachers must promote questioning from students so that students will know what is expected of them and will be equipped to complete the activity successfully.

Classroom Discipline as Part of Management and Organisation

Discipline is an often misused word, especially when it is mistakenly equated to punishment. To many teachers, discipline means punishment. However**,** discipline is the practice of teaching or training a person to obey rules or a code of behaviour in both the short and long terms (UNESCO, 2006). Classroom discipline is part of a larger "system" of rules, regulations and policies that govern the classroom. Effective classroom discipline is a natural outgrowth of planning, preparation and prevention. Effective classroom discipline structures the classroom and the learning activities that take place in ways that prevent behaviour problems. Effective classroom discipline also sets precise behavioural expectations for students. It handles student discipline problems in ways that do not detract from the learning process or interfere with the functioning of the classroom. Effective classroom discipline creates a positive educational environment in ways that enhance student learning and social development including their self-concept (Brown & Vigilante, 2005).

The ultimate goal of discipline is for children to understand their own behaviour, take initiative, be responsible for their choices, and respect themselves and others. In other words, students' internalize a positive process of thinking and behaving that can last a lifetime. Some positive features of discipline include: Giving children positive alternatives; Acknowledging or

rewarding efforts and good behaviour when children follow rules because rules are discussed and agreed upon; Consistent, firm guidance; the child being respectful and physically and verbally non-violence (UNESCO, 2006).

Effective classroom discipline is part of the planning process that begins prior to the start of each school year, and it must be put into effect the first day of class, when teacher outline to students what will be expected of them. Furthermore, it is especially important for teachers in the early grades to practice effective classroom discipline. This is because the rules of conduct they establish (or fail to initiate) will greatly influence how their students behave in the classroom as well as others in later grades or classes (Brown & Vigilante, 2005).

Teachers need to establish a position of authority from the first day of class. They must learn to analyze discipline problems accurately, and then deal with them quickly, fairly and in a consistent manner. This requires decisive action on the part of the students. Students need to know that teachers will respond to rule violations and in what ways their misconduct will be handled. Being inconsistent or arbitrary is detrimental to effective classroom discipline. Effective classroom discipline makes learning a "positive" experience by defining and enforcing rules of conduct. Conversely, when classroom discipline is ineffective or punitive, it can make learning a "negative" experience (Brown & Vigilante, 2005).

McDaniel (1986) put forward that the humanists hold the view that good discipline is related to self-concept and communication. At the same time, according to McDaniel, researchers have been generating volumes of data on effective schools and effective teachers. These researchers indicate that certain

teaching techniques lead to better learning and behaviour. Teachers must master these techniques, if they hope to have well-managed and effective classrooms

McDaniel (1986) gave ten guidelines for effective classroom management. According to McDaniel (1986), these ten principles - an eclectic combination of traditional and modern, practical and theoretical, pedagogical and psychological - provide some general guidelines for teacher's effective classroom management and control. The following are the ten principles:

The first is principle, as given by McDaniel (1986), is the focusing principle. This principle says, "Get everyone's attention before giving instructions or presenting material. The focusing principle reminds teachers that, during group instruction, they must request, demand, expect, and wait for attention before they begin to teach. A teacher can say, "I am ready to begin". To children with disabilities such as those with specific learning disabilities, this is very important. This is because it would give opportunity to students whose attention might have been distracted at a point in time not to miss what goes on in the class.

The second is the principle of giving direct instruction. The point is to get students on-task quickly and to keep them on-task consistently so that they stay out of trouble. One of the most effective techniques for accomplishing this goal is to clearly state the assignment, the directions, and the time constraints. A teacher might say, for example: "Your task is here on the board, class. You need to use your textbook and the data-bank forms to collect information. You have only 10 minutes to work, so start right away." To keep students on-task, the teacher should make certain that the tasks are interesting,

relevant, and varied and that students are motivated to engage in them. The next three principles also help to keep students on-task.

Brown and Vigilante (2005) also contend that giving clear direction promotes classroom discipline. According to Brown and Vigilante, students who do not understand what they are supposed to do can become frustrated, intimidated or angry. Many students are reluctant to admit they do not fully comprehend directions. Furthermore, some students may not realize that they are not grasping something. This lack of understanding directions can lead to learning problems and rule violations. It is therefore imperative that teachers clearly present directions and they seek to clarify them according to the needs of each student.

The third principle is the monitoring principle. "Monitoring" means keeping a constant check on student performance and behaviour. Teachers should make personal contact with each student during a lesson, and they should move frequently among their students. When students know that the teacher will evaluate their work and behaviour from close range and hold them accountable, they are more likely to stay on-task. Monitoring encourages a teacher to move about the classroom and to engage in short conversations with individual learners. These personal encounters enable the teacher to provide individualized instruction and feedback. The focus may be on the academic task at hand (for instance a teacher may say, "Freddy, your triangles look fine, but remember to label your angles"). In such a situation, such quiet conversations between teacher and student can have a significant positive effect on the classroom atmosphere (McDaniel, 1986).

The fourth principle is the modelling principle. Long before the behavioural psychologists told us that students' behaviour could be influenced by "models," good teachers recognized the importance of setting an example for their students (McDaniel, 1986). As the saying goes, "Values are caught, not taught." Teachers who are courteous, prompt, well-organized, enthusiastic, self-controlled, and patient tend to produce students who exhibit similar characteristics, at least to some degree. With sensitivity and tact, teachers can also employ students as models for the other learners to emulate. According to McDaniel, one important modelling technique that teachers should practice is the use of a soft, low-pitched voice. Students find such a voice restful and calming. "Soft reprimands" are also effective because they are not the norm and because, being private, they tend not to invite loud protests, denials, or retorts. It is especially important for teachers to model quiet voice levels when they are moving among students and monitoring individual work (McDaniel, 1986).

Another principle given by McDaniel (1986) is the cuing principle. Behavioural Psychology has given us new insights into the nature and effectiveness of cues (generally, nonverbal reminders about behavioural expectations) in improving classroom discipline. Of course, good teachers have always known that cues improve discipline. The teacher who raises a hand for silence, flips the light switch to get attention, or points to a group of gigglers and then presses an index finger to the lips is reminding students of certain rules, procedures, or expectations. Some students seem oblivious to classroom cues. In these instances, teachers should 1) examine the cues they are using, 2) establish stronger and more explicit variations of these cues, 3)

teach the cues to the students directly, and 4) pair the use of each new cue with a verbal explanation of the cue. A brief example may clarify this approach for the reader. Mrs. Jones always stands with her hands on her hips when she is waiting for attention. If members of the class fail to attend to her in this pose, she may decide to strengthen the cue by combining it with a movement toward the class and a clearing of the throat. Next, she may explain to the students that these cues are designed to let them know that she is waiting for attention. At the next opportunity, she will use the nonverbal cues while saying, "As you can see, class, I am waiting for your attention." To keep behavioural expectations flowing from teacher to student, a creative teacher can develop a host of novel cues that employ proximity, facial expressions, gestures, and objects (e.g., bells, lights, "clickers") to supplement verbal cues. Effective communication is essential to effective discipline (McDaniel, 1986).

The next principle McDaniel (1986) talked about is the principle of environmental control. There are many things in a student's life that a teacher cannot control, such as handicaps, the child-rearing practices of parents, and even whether or not the child eats breakfast each morning. But a wise teacher manipulates the classroom environment to improve both learning and behaviour. A teacher can enrich, impoverish, restrict, enlarge, simplify, or systematize the classroom environment.

Let us look more closely at a couple of these alternatives for improving discipline. Often, classroom management is a problem because the students are bored, apathetic, uninterested, or unmotivated. In such situations, a teacher needs to enrich the classroom environment in order to improve upon students' motivation, attention, and involvement. A teacher might use learning centres,

bulletin boards, music, or audiovisual aids to provide a variety of stimuli. He or she could open lessons with exercises requiring inductive reasoning. Enrichment involves consciously adding to or varying the classroom environment for an educational purpose. Done well, enrichment motivates students and motivated students engage in learning rather than in misbehaviour.

However, classroom management can just as frequently be a problem when students are over stimulated by the classroom environment. Over stimulated students have short attention spans, are easily distracted, and tend to be hyperactive. In such situations, a teacher needs to impoverish the classroom environment. If the teacher tries instead to be enthusiastic and to motivate students, the result is often disastrous; much like turning up the flame under a bubbling cauldron. The additional stimuli only raise the kinetic energy level in the classroom. Instead, the teacher should darken the room, install carpets, remove distractive materials and diversions, schedule quiet times, create quiet corners, use such focused teaching approaches as filmstrips and lessons involving directed study. The teacher should also be a model of controlled activity, concentration, and subdued behaviour - especially with regard to voice, dress, and movement (McDaniel, 1986).

The principle of low-profile intervention is the next to be discussed. According to this principle, the teacher should manage student behaviour as discreetly, unobtrusively, and smoothly as possible - avoiding direct confrontations and public encounters with disruptive students. Without delivering constant orders and commands (i .e. high profile interventions), the teacher needs to anticipate behavioural problems and to nip them in the bud. A

particularly effective approach during large-group instruction is to drop the name of an inattentive student into the middle of an instructional statement: "We need to remember, Clarence, that Columbus was one of several discoverers of America."A teacher can "drop" the names of several students during a presentation, but the name-dropping should be casual, with no hint of reprisal and no pause for reply. Another low-profile technique is to move close to students who are starting to wander off-task. The teacher's proximity often curtails misbehaviour or inattention. Such "overlapping" of teachers' behaviours (e .g ., moving to a trouble spot in the classroom while continuing to conduct a lesson) becomes almost automatic with practice, and it can be enhanced by nonverbal cues, such as touching an inattentive student on the shoulder or quietly opening his or her book to the proper page .

The principle of assertive discipline is included in the principles which McDaniel (1986) enumerated for teachers effective classroom discipline. This principle calls for higher-profile but non-hostile interventions that effectively communicate a teacher's wants and needs for better discipline. Actually, assertive discipline is only a commonsense combination of behavioural psychology (praise) and traditional authoritarianism (limit setting). A teacher should begin by identifying specific roadblocks to discipline. These are usually consequences of the teacher's low expectations regarding students' behaviour.

All teachers should proceed from the position that no child has the right to prevent classmates from learning or teachers from teaching. Teachers should also believe that their students are able to behave appropriately. An assertive teacher communicates these expectations to students through clearly

stated and carefully explained rules. When the rules are broken, the teacher consistently follows through with systematic consequences. Meanwhile, the teacher sets limits verbally through requests, hints, and demands, and he or she uses nonverbal communication (eye contact, proximity, touch, gestures) to communicate exactly what is required of whom. Finally, the teacher engages in "broken record" confrontations - repeating requests for compliance until students recognize that the teacher cannot be diverted or ignored. These techniques, coupled with positive consequences for following rules and heeding the teacher's requests, convince students that the teacher knows what he or she wants and needs by way of student behaviour. Students also come to realize that their responses will generate positive or negative consequences for them.

Another principle McDaniel (1986) gave for teachers effective classroom management is the The I-message principle. Both the assertive discipline of Lee Canter and the humanistic discipline of Haim Ginott and Thomas Gordon rely on clear communication between teacher and students. Both approaches to discipline advocate the use of I-messages by teachers. Though assertive discipline and humanistic discipline operate on entirely different premises, the I-message takes two forms.

A teacher practicing assertive discipline and the broken-record technique may communicate a demand, wish, or need in order to refocus on a group or an individual student. The teacher prefaces his or her specific request with the words "I want you to. . ." or "1 need you to. . . ." Such-message assertions are more effective than "You stop.” messages, which focus on confrontations ("you") and on past infractions ("stop"). An assertive I-message tells students

exactly what the teacher wants and expects them to do (Fields & Tallow, 1996; McDaniel, 1986).

A teacher practicing humanistic discipline, by contrast, uses I-messages to communicate his or her feelings, so that students can understand more clearly how their behaviour affects the teacher. According to Gordon, an I-message has three elements: 1) the description of students' behaviour 2) the effect of that behaviour on the teacher and 3) the feeling this creates in the teacher. Such messages encourage students to change their behaviour voluntarily. Both forms of the I-message have their proper places in the repertoire of the effective classroom manager (Fields & Tallow, 1996; McDaniel, 1986).

McDaniel (1986) added the principle of positive reinforcement. One of the best-known methods of classroom management derived from the work of the behaviourists is the "catch 'em being good" principle of positive reinforcement. Punishment does not change students' behaviour (except temporarily), but it can increase the incidence of negative behaviours by calling attention to them. A teacher would do better to ignore minor misbehaviour, while identifying and praising good behaviour. In practice, however, this is easier said than done. Teachers understand the principle of positive reinforcement, but they are not very skilful in applying it. The techniques that follow may help. One practice that a teacher can employ is to establish positive rules and expectations. Once students know that the rule is "Raise your hand for permission to talk," rather than "Do not call out if you have not been recognized. The teacher can praise students for doing the right thing instead of punishing students for doing the wrong thing: "Thank you for

raising your hand, George; you have certainly followed our rule." Praise is a major technique of positive reinforcement but it should be sincere, personalized, descriptive, and focused (McDaniel, 1986).

The quality of a teacher's discipline rests on the quality of his or her instructional practices. The quality of a teacher's discipline also depends on long-term relationships with children and on his or her ability to convince learners that school is important. School becomes important to children when teachers reach them with meaningful lessons and a professional attitude that says, "I care about you; I know that you can behave; I want to help you to be a better you." (McDaniel, 1986).

Gender Issues in the Classroom

Generally, there is the view that inequality exist in the classroom. Various researchers and writers have written on gender issues in the classroom. Dickman (1993), for instance posits that discriminatory teacher behaviour does not begin in the college classroom but rather with the advent of schooling. Frawley (2005), citing the American Association of University Women Educational Foundation, also states that gender bias persists in many elementary classrooms. This means that gender discriminatory attitude is not limited to any level in the educational system but found at all levels.

According to Fennema and Peterson (as cited in Dickman, 1993) research has demonstrated that, from preschool onwards, the activities chosen for classes appeal to boys' interests and the presentation formats selected are those with which boys excel or they are encouraged more than are girls (Fennema & Peterson as cited in Dickman, 1993). The quality of teacher contacts varies between the genders. Boys receive more teacher reactions of

praise, criticism and remediation (Sadker & Sadker as cited in Dickman, 1993). Baker (1986) reported that in secondary Science classrooms, more precise teacher comments were rendered to males than to females in terms of both scholarship and conduct.

According to the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences Teaching Center of Colombia University (n.d), a large body of research shows that teachers:

1. Call on male students more frequently than female students.
2. Are more likely to use male students' names when calling upon students and in attributing ideas advanced in discussion.
3. Ask male students more abstract questions but female students more factual questions.
4. Are less likely to elaborate upon points made by female students.
5. Ask female students easy questions; asking male students more difficult questions that require higher-order thinking (Hall & Sandler as cited in Dickman, 1993)
6. Look at male students to answer questions before females (or males) even can raise their hands. (Hall & Sandler as cited in Dickman, 1993)
7. Refer only to male contributions (Hall & Sandler as cited in Dickman, 1993)

In terms of discipline according to Saskatchewan Education (1991):

1. Males are disciplined more frequently and more harshly by teachers than are females even when both genders misbehave in identical ways.
2. Some teachers have different expectations concerning behaviour for females than they do for males.

3. Females receive more encouragement to be quiet and passive than do males.

Kyungah and Haesook (2006, p. 6) point out that reasons of differentiated discipline by teachers in the classroom are that:

> Female students are likely to show their emotional responses on physical punishment. They get distressed easily and cry often. Once they are upset, they tend to remain that way for long period of time. On the contrary, male students don't become shaken greatly. Female students need consolation after rebuked for certainly. However, male students are easy to relent with smiling on the question, "Are you all right?" after punishment.

In the classroom, on the part of students:

1. Male students speak more frequently and longer in class discussions.
2. Male students are more likely to blurt out answers without raising their hands or being recognized by the instructor
3. Not only are female students less likely to take part in class discussions, but when they do, these students are more likely to be interrupted before they complete their response (sometimes by other female students).
4. Female students make their statements less loudly and at less length.
5. Female students express their ideas in a more hesitant, tentative, indirect, less assertive, or more polite manner. Examples include phrasing a statement as a question or appending such phrases as "I guess" or "Don't you think" or "I may be wrong."

Although males tend to dominate classroom discussion, this, of course, does not mean that all males speak (Graduate School of Arts & Sciences Teaching Centre of Colombia University, n.d.). The Graduate School of Arts and Sciences Teaching Centre of Colombia University (p. 2) again has it that:

> Our classrooms contain certain hidden biases. We want students who actively participate in discussion. We tend to value a verbal style that is confident, assertive, and forceful. We regard a class as especially successful if students engage in debate and verbal sparring. These biases make some students, disproportionately female, feel inadequate. They come to doubt their own abilities and skills. Meanwhile, classroom dynamics vary markedly depending on the instructor's sex, the class' sex ratio, class size, and the gender relevance of the course. Male and female students tend to have different speaking styles in the classroom. Male students tend to speak in order to establish status and hierarchy, and their style tends to be more argumentative. Many female students feel uncomfortable having their ideas evaluated publicly. Many prefer to work with others to solve problems. In addition, male and female students tend to have different attitudes toward their own abilities and different ways of dealing with failure.

It can be concluded that gender inequality exist in the classroom situation.

Self-Concept

Self-concept refers to a student's perceptions of competence or adequacy in academic and non-academic (e.g., social, behavioural, and athletic) domains

and it is best represented by a profile of self-perceptions across domains, (Manning, 2007). Self concept, broadly defined, is a person's perception of him or herself. These perceptions are formed through one's experience with and interpretations of the environment, and are influenced especially by reinforcements, evaluations of significant others and one's attribution for one's own behaviour (Shavelson, Hugner & Stanton as cited in Shavelson & Bolus, 1982).

According to William (1988), self-concept may also be defined as the totality of a complex, organized, and dynamic system of learned beliefs, attitudes and opinions that each person holds to be true about his or her personal existence. With William (1988), it is becoming clear that self-concept has at least three major qualities of interest: (1) it is learned, (2) it is organized, and (3) it is dynamic. Self-concept is learned because no one is born with a self-concept. It gradually emerges in the early months of life and is shaped and reshaped through repeated perceived experiences, particularly with significant others including teachers.

The fact that self-concept is learned has some important implications: self-concept does not appear to be instinctive, but it is a social product developed through experience. It possesses relatively boundless potential for development and actualization. With previous experiences and present perceptions, individuals may perceive themselves in ways different from the ways others see them. Faulty thinking patterns, such as dichotomous reasoning (dividing everything in terms of opposites or extremes) or over generalizing (making sweeping conclusions based on little information) create negative interpretations of oneself (William, 1988).

The second quality as given by William (1988) is that self-concept is organized. Most researchers agree that self-concept has a generally stable quality that is characterized by orderliness and harmony. Each person maintains countless perceptions regarding one's personal existence, and each perception is orchestrated with all the others. It is this generally stable and organized quality of self-concept that gives consistency to the personality. This organized quality of self-concept means that self-concept requires consistency, stability, and resistance to change.

If self-concept changes readily, the individual would lack a consistent and dependable personality. The more central a particular belief is to one's self-concept, the more resistant one is to changing that belief. At the heart of self-concept is the self-as-doer, the "I," which is distinct from the self-as-object, the various "me's." This allows the person to reflect on past events, analyze present perceptions, and shape future experiences. The basic perceptions of oneself are quite stable, so change takes time (William, 1988).

The third quality of self-concept that William (1988) gave is that it is dynamic. To understand the active nature of self-concept, according to William, imagine it as a gyrocompass: a continuously active system that dependably points to the "true north" of a person's perceived existence. This guidance system not only shapes the way a person views oneself, others, and the world, but it also serves to direct action, and it enables each person to take a consistent "stance" in life. Rather than viewing self-concept as the cause of behaviour, it is better understood as the gyrocompass of human personality, which provides consistency in personality and direction for behaviour (William, 1988).

The dynamic quality of self-concept also has its implications. These include the fact that the world and the things in it are not just perceived as they are. Self-concept development is a continuous process. With the healthy personality, there is constant assimilation of new ideas and expulsion of old ideas throughout life. Individuals strive to behave in ways that are in tune with their self-concepts, no matter how helpful or hurtful to oneself or others. Self-concept usually takes precedence over the physical body. Individuals will often sacrifice physical comfort and safety for emotional satisfaction. Self-concept continuously guards itself against loss of self-esteem, for it is this loss that produces feelings of anxiety and if self-concept must constantly defend itself from assault, growth opportunities are limited (William, 1988). Yahaya (2008, p. 4), also pointed out that:

> There are several different components of self-concept: physical, academic, social and transpersonal. The physical aspect of self-concept relates to that which is concrete: what we look like, our sex, height, weight, etc.; what kind of clothes we wear; what kind of car we drive; what kind of home we live in; and so forth. Our academic self-concept relates to how well we do in school or how well we learn. There are two levels: a general academic self-concept of how good we are overall and a set of specific content-related self-concepts that describe how good we are in Math, Science, Language Arts, Social Science, etc. The social self-concept describes how we relate to other people and the transpersonal self-concept describes how we relate to the supernatural or unknowns.

According to Shea and Bauer (1997), Burns describes self concept in terms of its descriptive elements as well as evaluative elements. The terms such as self image or self-picture are frequently used to refer to descriptive elements of self-concept. The evaluative aspect tends to imply certain emotional evaluations that individuals make of themselves. These evaluations may be called self-esteem, self-worth, or self-acceptance.

Gurney as cited by Shea and Bauer (1997) supports Williams' (1988) idea that self concept is learnt. The raw materials for building self concept are messages received from parents, peers, teachers and others in the environment. The way the messages are interpreted determine how one interprets and defines oneself, including the degree of worthiness that one attributes to oneself. Humans are social animals and they look to society for approval. If an individual is to get approval, then he or she must abide by society's norms and standards.

Factors that Influence the Self-Concept of Children in the Classroom

According to Elbaum and Vaughn (2009), factors that affect a child's self-concept are not completely understood. However, various writers like Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2002) have expressed views on some factors that affect the concept of self-concept. According to Skaalvik and Skaalvik determinants of self-concept have been identified. These are:

1. Causal attributions: Whether students attribute success or failure to their own action, or to external factors or chances. For example, if Mary does well in Physics, and she attributes her success to her aptitude and hard work, her Physics self-concept is more likely to be

positively affected than if she were to attribute her success to having an easy instructor.

2. Reflected appraisal: How students think about what others perceive them to be including peers, family, and role models. For example, Jane is more likely to develop an engineering self-concept if she perceives that her parents think she has an engineer's skill and temperament.
3. External and internal frames of reference: These involve comparing one's own abilities with the abilities of peers (e.g., I am a little better at Science than Jim). Internal frames of reference involve comparing different abilities within one person. Internal judgments are made independent of judgments based on external frames (e.g., I am better at Math than English). Internal and external frames simultaneously influence the development of self-concept. For example, Lisa may be a poor Math student as compared to her peer group (external), but she may have a relatively high Math self-concept because she perceives that she is better at Math than English (internal).

Yahaya (2008) asserts that some aspects of self-concept remain for a long period of time but others can turn the opposite way in few seconds. There are factors that influence the process of the development of self-concept. The style of parental upbringing that has been mentioned before is a significant factor. Positive parental upbringing and attitude read by their children can develop a positive thinking and self-appreciation by their children themselves. Negative parental attitude creates the assumption that a child is not appreciated and loved by his or her parent because of his or her self-weakness.

The second factor is continuous failure in a child's life. In this case, failure can be defined as unsuccessfully to please the parent or the child himself. A continuous failure in a child's life makes him feels that he is useless. Gradually, negative self-concept is developed in this child. On the other hand, a positive self-concept is developed if a child sees that failure is an opportunity for him to improve upon himself in every aspect of decision-making.

The next factor is depression. People who suffer from depression tend to think and response negatively towards everything including evaluating themselves. They wonder whether they can survive throughout their life. They can be super sensitive to what other people say about them or how people act towards them.

Last but not the least, internal self-critic is another factor that influences the process of the development of self-concept. We cannot deny that internal self-critic is needed to evaluate every action and decision that we take in our life. Internal self-critic functions as a regulator in every action taken and how we behave so that we can be accepted by the society around us, and we can adapt well within the society.

According to Ormrod (1995) a child's own prior behaviour and academic performance are factors that affect the development of self-concept. Ormrod citing Marsh added that, to some extent, a child's self concept depends on his or her past successes and failures. Relating this to the context of this study, it can be understood that when teachers do not adapt their classroom practices to meet the needs of children with disabilities, they (children with disabilities) may fail. The failures can have a negative influence

on the self-concept of children with disability. Ormrod further argued that the expectations that other people have for a child can also influence his or her self-concept development.

Developing a Positive Self-Concept

In childhood and adolescence period, school experiences play an important role in the development of self-perceptions and they can have powerful and long-term effects on a child's self-concept (Elbaum & Vaughn, 2009). Students' self-concept is influenced by their experiences including interaction with significant other people such as teachers (Burnett, Pillay & Dart, 2003).

Individual differences may play a significant role in the development of an individual's identity and as role as a member of a group (Stainback, Stainback, East & Sapon-Shelvin, 1994). Therefore, the attempt to create harmonized environments for all children irrespective of differences and needs must not be met halfway (Shea & Bauer, 1997).

One way for teachers to have a positive impact on students' self-concept is to incorporate critical aspects of effective self-concept interventions in academic instructions. One example is the use of cooperative learning structures in which students with disabilities collaborate with nondisabled peers on academic tasks, and they receive frequent feedback on their work from both the teacher and their classmates. Other promising avenues for enhancing students' self-concept are group counselling sessions by a trained facilitator and training programs for parents (Elbaum & Vaughn, 2009).

A well-managed classroom, where material is targeted toward the interests of both girls and boys, will potentially increase self-concept.

Classrooms where students feel free to ask questions and interact with instructors will foster interest and self-concept. Class activities that require interaction between instructors and students will help foster open learning environments. Classroom environments where students feel they "fit" will also increase self-concept. Providing forums where students develop relationships with one another (e.g., small group work) may serve to increase sense of belongingness while, at the same time, providing students with additional peer support (SWE-AWE -CASEE ARP Resources, 2008).

Meece (1997) following Canfield suggested ways teachers can use to enhance the self concept development of children in the classroom. These include creating an environment that is physically and psychologically save for all students', providing all students with an environment of encouragement and positive reinforcement; accepting and appreciating all students' efforts as well as their accomplishments, and treating all students respectfully. Meece added that in order for teachers to enhance the self-concept of students they need to accept the students' feelings, both positive and negative; avoid comparing students (students should compete against their previous levels of learning); make standard of evaluation clear to students, and help them evaluate their own behaviour; make demands and challenges that are appropriate for the students' ages and abilities, and help them learn to evaluate their own behaviour.

Meece (1997) further suggested that teachers should give students opportunities to make decisions, have responsibility and experience feeling of competence and confidence; encourage students to do as much as they can on their own; attend extra curricula events that are important to the students, such

as games, recitals, plays and debates; and void laughing at students, making jokes about students or making sarcastic remarks about students.

Teachers can establish support groups that enable learners with disabilities to share information and support. This shared information could include strategies to confront and overcome prejudice, discrimination, frustrations and other barriers. Support groups can also be useful in enhancing the self-concept of learners (Stainback et al., 1994). Yahaya (2008, p. 2, 3) is of the view that:

> We develop and maintain our self-concept through the process of taking action and then reflecting on what we have done and what others tell us about what we have done. We reflect on what we have done and can do in comparison to our expectations and the expectations of others and to the characteristics and accomplishments of others. That is, self-concept is not innate, but it is developed by the individual through interaction with the environment and reflecting on that interaction.
>
> There are several different components of self-concept: physical, academic, social, and transpersonal. The physical aspect of self-concept relates to that which is concrete: what we look like, our sex, height, weight, etc.; what kind of clothes we wear; what kind of car we drive; what kind of home we live in; and so forth. Our academic self-concept relates to how well we do in school or how well we learn. There are two levels: a general academic self-concept of how good we are overall and

a set of specific content-related self-concepts that describe how good we are in math, science, language arts, social science, etc. The social self-concept describes how we relate to other people and the transpersonal self-concept describes how we relate to the supernatural or unknowns.

A positive self-concept can be developed through objectivities behaviour in knowing oneself, appreciating oneself, befriending oneself and having a positive and rational thinking. It is believed that the development of student's self-concept depends on the focus of educators in Educational Psychology in classroom practices.

Rehman (2001) points out that teachers who are effective in influencing students' self-concept for the better tend to possess two major characteristics, credibility and personalism, as seen from the students' perspective. Essentially, credibility refers to what students think of you as a teacher. McCrosky, Larsosn and Knapp as cited in Rehman suggest that the attitudes others have towards us consist of several diminutions in competence, character and intention. When students evaluate a teacher, they wish to know if he is basically honest and fair. They also wish to know his intentions, and they may ask, 'Is he concern about me or just about himself? (Rehman, 2001).

To be effective in helping students develop more positive self-concept, teachers must persuade students to view themselves in new ways. Research into the process of persuasion has revealed that a would-be persuader must be perceived in positive ways to those he wishes to persuade. Learners become frustrated when treated in an impersonal way. When personal details which make each student a unique human being is not taken into account students

feel they are very important. For example, a teacher who cannot remember the name of a student in his or her class suggests to the student that the teacher attaches little importance to that student than when a teacher remembers the student's name (Rehman, 2001).

Classroom interventions, such as peer tutoring and cooperative learning, may promote self-concept by increasing students' academic skills and perceptions of social support (Elbaum & Vaughn, 2009). Teachers can use appropriate positive feedback to maintain positive self-concept (Manning, Bear & Minke, 2006). Praise, recognition, and encouragement are strong determinants of positive self concept.

One way for teachers to have a positive impact on students' self-concept is to incorporate critical aspects of effective self-concept interventions into ongoing academic instruction. One example is the use of cooperative learning structures in which students with LD collaborate with nondisabled peers on academic tasks and receive frequent feedback on their work from both the teacher and their classmates. Other promising avenues for enhancing students' self-concept are group counselling sessions by a trained facilitator and training programs for parents (Elbaum & Vaughn, 2009).

Teachers must try to understand or know the reasons for students' misbehaviour. This is because disabilities are more "hidden," such as those with sight and hearing impairments and those with such disorders as ADHD. If these impairments are not detected, the children's behaviour – such as not paying attention, poor learning performance, or hyperactivity in the classroom may be wrongly identified as misbehaviour (UNESCO, 2006).

Theories of Self Concept

There are several theories that explain the development of self-concept. These theories represent how different personalities have looked at self-concept. Theories on self-concept or self-concept as seen by personalities such as Cooley, George Mead and Rogers are discussed below.

Cooley, as cited in Epstein (1973), defined the self as "that which is designated in common speech by the pronouns of the first person singular, `I,' `me,' `my,' `mine,' and `myself' (p. 1361)." He noted that what is labelled by the individual as self produces stronger emotions than what is labelled a non-self, and that it is only through subjective feelings that the self can be identified. He believed that the feeling state is produced by the belief that one has control over events, or by cognitive discrimination, such as taking note that one's own body is different from other people's bodies. He introduced the concept of the "looking-glass self," which refers to an individual perceiving himself in the way that others perceive him.

George Mead, as cited in Epstein (1973), expanded upon Cooley's looking-glass self. He noted that the self-concept arises in social interaction as an outgrowth of the individual's concern about how others react to him. In order to anticipate other people's reactions so that he can behave accordingly, the individual learns to perceive the world as they do. By incorporating estimates of how the "generalized other" would respond to certain actions, the individual acquires a source of internal regulation that serves to guide and stabilize his behaviour in the absence of external pressures. According to Mead, there are as many selves as there are social roles. Some of the roles are relatively broad and of considerable significance for the individual, whereas

others are specific to particular situations, and of little significance as personality variables.

According to Epstein (1973), Lecky identified the self-concept as the nucleus of the personality. He defined personality, in turn, as an "organization of values that are consistent with one another (p. 160)." The organization of the personality is considered to be dynamic, as it involves a continuous assimilation of new ideas and rejection or modification of old ideas. It is assumed that all concepts are organized within a unified system, whose preservation is essential. The self-concept, as the nucleus of the personality, plays a key role in determining what concepts are acceptable for assimilation into the overall personality organization. There is one major motive, the striving for unity. A threat to the organization of the personality produces feelings of distress.

The next theory of self-concept to be discussed is that of Rogers. The central concept in Rogers's personality theory as cited in Mcleod (2007) is the notion of self or self-concept. This is defined as an organized, consistent set of perceptions of beliefs about oneself. Self-concept, once it is formed, plays an influential role in guiding our perceptions and directing our behaviour. Rogers believed that our behaviour is not a reaction to unconscious conflicts, but a response to our immediate conscious experience of self and environment (Rogers cited in Jolly, Aluede & Ojugo, 2009). Rogers believed that without undue pressure from others, individuals naturally move toward personal growth, self-acceptance, and self-actualization, which is the fulfilment of their potential for love, creativity, and meaning (Jolly et al., 2009).

Rogers theorized that at the beginning of their lives, children cannot distinguish between themselves and their environment. As they interact with their world, children begin to distinguish between the "me" and "not me." The self-concept continues to develop in response to our life experiences, though many aspects of it remain quite stable over time (Passer & Smith as cited in Jolly et al., 2009).

According to Rogers (as cited in Mcleod, 2007), we want to feel, experience and behave in ways which are consistent with our self-image, and which reflect what we would like to be like, our ideal-self. The closer our self-image and ideal-self are to each other, the more consistent or congruent we are and the higher our sense of self worth. A person is said to be in a state of incongruence if some of the totality of his or her experience is unacceptable to himself and it is denied or distorted in the self-image.

According Mcleod (2007), Rogers stated that the total experiencing individual including all feelings and experiences, denied or accepted is called the organismic self. The greater the gap between the organismic self and the self-concept, the greater the chance of confusion and maladjustment. The self-concept of the congruent person, however, reflects the inevitability of change that occurs in the environment and is therefore, flexible. Similarly, as stated above, the closer the ideal-self is to the self-image (i.e. the closer the person you would like to be is to how you see yourself), the more fulfilled and happier the person you will be.

So, we can see that two kinds of incongruence can develop:

1. Incongruence between self-concept and organismic self
2. Incongruence between ideal-self and self-image

How does this incongruence develop? Rogers believed that we need to be regarded positively by others. We need to feel valued, respected, treated with affection and love. If someone accepts us and everything we are faults they set no conditions for respecting or loving us. Rogers call this acceptance as unconditional positive regard, and he believes that a consequence of being totally accepted by others is total acceptance of us ourselves. This would mean that we accept our organismic experiences and there is no incongruence (Mcleod, 2007).

However, if significant others offer only conditional positive regard, valuing us only when we behave, think or feel as they want us to behave, we are most likely to do those things which please them. This will lead to our being valued by others but only on condition that we deny otherwise valid personal experiences (Mcleod, 2007).

As a result of the way significant others respond to what a person may develop an imagined or idealised set of conditions of worth, standards which are used to judge what kinds of behaviours would gain approval by others. When we behave according to conditions of worth, we create incongruence between organismic self and self-concept. Similarly, if the standards are unrealistically high, we create incongruence between ideal-self and self-image, the feeling that we are never good enough (Mcleod, 2007).

According to Jolly et al. (2009), Rogers also said we can help other people develop a more positive self-concept if we are empathic and genuine. Being empathic means being a sensitive listener, sensing what it is like to be the client at any moment, and understanding other's true feelings. Being

genuine means being open with our feelings, dropping our pretences and not hiding behind a facade.

Self-Concept and Gender

Aihie (2009) opines that of all the aspects of a child's self concept, one of the most important is the discovery of the attitude toward his or her gender. Self-concept is developed not inherited. Social experiences influence the way boys and girls behave, and this can affect their self-concept development. Part of a learner's growing up is the identification and knowledge of being a boy or a girl. This knowledge has specific implications on how the child feels about himself or herself and how others treat him or her.

Alena et al. (2008) maintain that both male and female adolescents struggle with negative self-concept, but female adolescents tend to worry more about physical appearance than do males. Fontana and Obidigbo (as cited in Aihie, 2009) reported that girls have lower self-concept than boys. Aihie added that the American Association of University Women reported that boys and girls begin school at the early years with equal self-concept but by the secondary school level, the self concept of girls is significantly lower than that of boys. Nwagwu and Nwaneri (as cited by Aihie, 2009) among others, however found no significant difference in the way Nigerian boys and girls perceive themselves

Empirical Review

The section presents review of related studies of this study. The following are the recurring themes in these studies: Self-concept of children in special schools and regular schools, gender and self-concept, some factors and their influence on self-concept, teachers' instructional practices.

Self-Concept of Children in Special Schools and Regular Schools

The self-concept of students in regular schools and special schools has been studied. Such studies include that of Ribner (1978) and Allodi (2000). Ribner (1978) compared the self-concept of minimally brain damaged children in special classes with that of children with similar disabilities who were in regular schools. Those in regular schools had significantly lowered self-concept in school adequacy, but not in general competence when compared with children without disabilities. Both group of minimally brain damaged children, irrespective of class placement, had significantly lower self-concept in school adequacy, but only those in the regular schools held significantly lower self-concept than children without disabilities in general competence. No relationship was found between self-concept and length of stay in special classes. Ribner concluded that special class placement has a distinct effect on different aspects of self-concept.

The study of Ribner (1978) differs from the current study in terms of the population. Ribner used pupils in special schools and regular schools but the current study used only children in the regular schools. The minimally brain damage children which were used by Ribner were not included in the current study. Also, Ribner found that pupils with minimally brain damaged held significantly lower self-concept than children without disabilities in general competence. However, the present study attempts to find out whether teachers' classroom practices could be the reason for Ribners' finding.

Allodi (2000) investigated the variations of self-concept in pupils who attend basic compulsory schools and special units. The study also examined self-concept in pupils who receive support according to different models.

Global self-concept at school does not seem to be related to the model of special support. Pupils at compulsory schools who are receiving support differ from pupils who receive no support, in that peer relations appear to be more important for their self-concept at school. This could be interpreted as being a compensatory strategy to maintain a good self-concept in spite of difficulties at school

The study of Allodi (2000) differs from the current study in terms of the population. Whilst special class and regular class were used, the current study used only children in the regular schools.

Gender and Self-Concept

Self-concept of males and females has been compared by some studies. These studies include that of Pierson and Glaeser (2002), Enam (2006) and Mishra and Singh (2012).

Pierson and Glaeser (2002) compared adolescents' self-concept by gender. Participants consisted of sixth, seventh, and eighth graders placed in general education classes or special day classes. Findings were not significant when male and female adolescents were divided by class placement and ranked within placement. However, one significant effect was found when analyzed without the division of class placement or rank within placement. Males scored significantly lower on social self-concept scale. The results suggest that there are differences between adolescent males and females on social self-concept.

The study of Pierson and Glaeser (2002) has some differences with present study. While their study used three classes or grades (sixth, seventh, and eighth graders), the present study considered only one class or grade (class

or grade six) for the population of the study. Also, while their study considered all children, the current study considered only children with disabilities.

Enam (2006) studied factors of self-concept among pre-adolescent boys and girls in various institutions of Rajshahi City. Factors of self-concept identified are physical ability, physical appearance, peer relationship, parent relationship, reading, Mathematics, general school and general self. Thus, the study aimed at designing an investigation to measure the impact of these factors of self-concept in pre-adolescent children in the sociocultural context of Bangladesh. A factorial design involving two levels of gender (boy/girl) and three levels of socio-economic status (high/middle/low) was used. The results showed significantly higher self-concept for girls than boys. In the case of socio-economic status, children of middle class family expressed highest self-concept followed by the children of high class family and least by the children of low class family. It was also found that boys from middle class family expressed highest self-concept than their counterparts from high and low class family. But girls of low class family showed highest self-concept followed by their counterpart high and middle class family. Thus, multidimensional self-concept of young children was found to be conditioned by gender and socio-economic status during pre-adolescent stage.

The study of Enam (2006) explored factors that influence self-concept among pre-adolescent boys and girls in various institutions. However, this study attempts to add to the existing knowledge on the relationship between one of the factors (teachers' classroom practices) and the development of self-concept.

Mishra and Singh (2012) had a comparative study of self-concept and self-confidence of sighted and visually impaired children. They found that there exists no significant difference of self-concept of males and females.

The study of Mishra and Singh (2012) concentrated on comparing gender of visually impaired (disabilities) and their sighted peers (without disabilities). However, the current study excludes children without disabilities. The current study also centres on four categories children with disabilities (visual impairment, physical disabilities, speech and language impairment and hearing impairment), but that of Mishra and Singh cantered on only one category (visual impairment).

Some Factors and their Influence on Self-Concept

Another line of investigation that has received considerable attention is some factors or variables and their influence on self-concept (Ascione & Borg, 1980; Khor & Yeou, 1986; Rehman, 2001; Enam, 2006; Aihie, 2009; Ishak, Jamaluddin & Chew, 2010)

Ascione and Borg (1980) examined the effects of a training programme on teacher behaviour and handicapped children's self-concept. Results indicated that although no changes occurred in programme-related behaviours for the controlled group teachers, experimental group teachers showed significant increases on six of the 12 program-related behaviours. No gains in self-concept were made by children with handicapping conditions. However, there was some evidence for differential effectiveness of the programme for studying disabled and emotionally disabled students.

Khor and Yeou (1986) concentrated on enhancing student's self-concept in the classroom. A series of 6 activities were carried out to enhance students'

self-concept. The objective of the exercise was to enable the students to realise that they were not alone in many problems and concerns and to highlight that these problems can be rejected and changed over a period of Time

Khor and Yeou (1986) found that there were more students with higher self-concept scores while the students with low self-concept scores had decreased. The difference was found to be significant. Khor and Yeou conclude that one key factor that could have contributed to the present results of the study was, undoubtedly, the teacher himself. That is, before a teacher can enhance the students' self-concepts, he must first have a significant influence in their lives.

Another factor was that students reached a deeper understanding of themselves, and they could accept themselves better at the end of the programme. The teacher's observations and evaluation of students' reactions in terms of each activity indicated a fair measure of genuineness and sincerity in coming to terms with themselves and others. There was no evidence to suggest that the students had treated the activities lightly or gave socially desirable responses in order to "look good". This factor of active involvement (which also resulted in drawing out the isolates and neglected in the class) rather than aloof detachment could have contributed to the success of the programme. The students indicated that they found the activities meaningful and the experiences enjoyable. Khor and Yeou (1986) concluded that a teacher can enhance the self-concept of his students with a series of well chosen activities, given that he is supportive and holds favourable attitudes towards them

Rehman (2001) conducted a study to find out the relationship between self-concept and classroom conditions, gender role, cognitive development

and academic achievement of the students at secondary school level. The study revealed that there is a significant relationship between classroom environment and self-concept of students. He further stated that the direction of the correlation indicated a strong positive correlation between self-concept and classroom environment. That is, the better the classroom environment, the higher the self-concept of the students. Rehman further found that male and female students exhibit different self-concept score. The study further indicated that male students have higher self-concept than female counterparts.

Aihie (2009) studied the efficacy of peer group counselling in enhancing the self-concept of secondary school adolescents in Benin City, Edo State, Nigeria. The influence of sex on the self-concept of these adolescents was also investigated. The results of the study revealed that peer group counselling had a significant positive effect on the self-concept of the adolescents. There was no significant effect of sex on the self concept of the adolescents. Further analysis also revealed no interactive effect of treatment and sex on the self-concept of the adolescents.

Ishak et al., (2010) examined the students' self-concept among adolescents in Malaysian secondary schools. This study investigated the factors influencing students' perceptions toward their own self-concept. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) revealed three factors: academic self-concept, physical self-concept and social self-concept. This study confirmed that students perceived certain internal context factors, and revealed that external context factor also have an impact on their self-concept.

The studies which have been reviewed above focused on the influence of some factors on the development of self-concept among children. On the other

hand, the present study attempts to add to the existing knowledge by investigating the influence of teacher's classroom practices on the self-concept development of children with disabilities which has not been directly studied

Teachers' Instructional Practices

Apart from the studies been looked above, other studies also have been carried out on teachers and their instructional practices in the classroom. Gyimah (2011) examined teachers' instructional strategies for meeting the needs of pupils with and without special educational needs in primary schools in Ghana. Gyimah observed differences in the extent to which teachers used instructional strategies in their classrooms. Some teachers reported using some of the instructional strategies most often or sometimes, others indicated less frequent use. According to Gyimah the most preferred instructional strategies included: ensuring that the classroom environment is comfortable for all children (80.2%); teachers ensures that the classroom is spacious to allow for free movement (72.4%); teacher ensures that questions are fair and evenly distributed to allow children to contribute to lessons (69.8%); teacher tries to arrange my classroom to encourage participation (62.2%); and teacher constantly monitors all my children while they do class work (57.2%).

Instructional strategies used sometimes include: teacher select instructional materials that make it possible for all children to learn (53.0%); teacher vary the pace to help the children to learn (51.7%); teacher gives sufficient time to all children to complete tests and assignments (53.6%); teacher gives individual attention to children who need help (51.8%); teacher gives sufficient time to all children to practice what they learn (52.8%); teacher presents tasks in bits to allow children to learn efficiently (52.4%);

teacher sets instructional objective (s) to cover all children including those with SEN and disabilities (54.9%); teacher keeps daily records of the progress children make in class (53.6%); teacher mixes up the children when they are performing assignment (65.2%); teacher asks children to help each other (65.2%)

Less frequently used instructional strategies include: teacher moves to a new section or unit when all children have understood and can perform what they have learned (64.2%); teacher selects learning tasks that children with SEN and disabilities can do(54.3%); teacher allows children who have difficulties writing the chance to answer questions by saying it orally or verbally (56.1%); teacher approaches consultants for advice when I do not know how to make all children learn (64.5%); teacher lets children with SEN and disabilities work at different activities when assignment is given(47.7%); teacher designs individualised education plan (IEP) for children with SEN and disabilities (54.0%); teacher allows children with SEN to engage in certain activities elsewhere in the classroom(55.0%).

The study of Gyimah (2011) examined the instructional strategies for meeting the needs of pupils with and without disabilities. The current study also captured the instructional strategies for meeting the needs of pupils with disabilities. However, the current study attempt to add to the existing knowledge by including teachers' classroom social, physical, organisational and management strategies for meeting the needs of children with disabilities.

Summary of Literature Review

There are children with disabilities in the classroom who need special attention and care in the form of adaptations. The adaptations include how

teachers handle these children in the classroom, which is termed as teachers' classroom practices. Teachers' classroom practices take the form of instructional, physical, social and management and organisational practices.

The social classroom practices deal with how teachers promote or encourage interaction and foster healthy relationships with each other in the classroom. This covers teacher-student relationship as well as student-student relationship. Teachers' instructional practices include the various ways a teacher uses to present or teach a lesson. The physical environment also deals with general classroom arrangement, seating arrangement, ventilation, lightening system and beauty of the classroom. Classroom management and organisation according to Smith et al. (1995), is teacher-directed activities that support the efficient operations of the classroom that lead to the establishment of optimal conditions of learning and order. Teachers need to make adaptations to cover all these areas in order to meet the needs of children with disabilities.

Self-concept refers to the beliefs an individual hold for himself or herself. Self-concept can be learnt, organised and it can be dynamic. There are various theories on self-concept including that of Rogers. He explains that self-concept is developed out of social experiences. By implication, the theories on self-concept say that when the kinds of experiences (teachers' classroom practices) are favourable to children, positive self-concept development will result. That is, in a well organised classroom in which the needs of children with disabilities are met, positive self-concept is likely to be experienced.

There were a lot of studies on self-concept development (e.g. Ribner, 1978; Ascione & Borg, 1980; Khor & Yeou, 1986). The findings of some studies such as Aihie (2009), Ishak et al., (2010) and Rehman (2001) support the idea of teachers having influence of the self-concept of students, but others like Allodi (2000) reported the opposite. Although it was found that gender biases prevail in the classroom, some studies of Aihie (2009) and Mishra and Singh (2012) reported no differences in the self-concept of males and females. In addition, Rehman (2001) also found differences in the self-concept of males and females.

On the other hand, this study deals with the influence of teachers' classroom practices on the self-concept development of children with disabilities which has not been directly studied.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

The previous chapter discussed the conceptual framework within which the current study is situated. This chapter describes the methodology and technique employed to obtain necessary data required for the study. It deals with the research design, research population, sample and sampling procedures, research instrument, data collection procedure, and data analysis procedure that were used in the study.

Research Design

The research design adopted for the study is the causal comparative study or ex-postfacto. Fraenkel and Wallen (2000) posit that in causal comparative research, investigators attempt to determine the cause or consequence of differences that already exist between or among groups of individuals. It is viewed along correlation research. Causal comparative research deals with variable that cannot be manipulated (e.g. such as ethnicity) or one that might have been manipulated but for one reason or the other has not been manipulated (such as teaching style). In causal comparative or ex post facto research, according to Cohen, Manion, and Morison (2007), the researcher takes the effect (or dependent variable) and examines the data retrospectively to establish causes, relationships or associations, and their meanings. Casual comparative or ex-postfacto research design was used because teachers' classroom practices have already influence the self-concept of the students. Also, no variable was manipulated.

Interpretations from causal comparative research or ex-postfacto research are limited. This is because the researcher cannot say conclusively whether a particular factor is a cause or result of the behaviour observed. Nevertheless, causal comparative is of value in identifying possible causes of observed variations in behaviour pattern of students (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000).

Population

According to Polit and Hungler (1996), population is the entire aggregation of cases that meet a designated set of criteria. In this case, whatever the basic unit, the population always comprises the entire aggregation of elements in which the researcher is interested. Fraenkel and Wallen, (2000, p.104) also defined population as the "group of interest to the researcher, the group to whom the researcher would like to generalize the result of the study." The population for the study comprised all primary school students with disabilities and their teachers in Tano North district in the Brong Ahafo region of Ghana. There are sixty-eight (68) primary schools in the five 5 circuits in the Tano North District.

Tano North District was chosen for the study because there is no special school for children with disabilities in the district. Therefore, majority of children with disabilities, which is of interest to me, are in the regular schools. I have also observed that most of the upper primary schools students in the Tano North District were between the ages of 11 and 19, and because the self-concept of students within this age group was of interest to me, Tano North District was selected. The reason for chosen students within this age group (within adolescence) is that children within this age group tend to experience a

decline in positive self-concept during their adolescent years (Alena et al., 2008). Although adolescence, upper primary schools were preferred to Junior High Schools and Senior High School because teachers' direct influences on students' self-concept was the main focus of the study. That is, because in the primary school one teacher handles a class (with few primary schools practicing subject teaching), it is easy to match a teacher and a child to see the kind of influence that teacher has on that particular child.

Sarantakos (2005) defined the target population as the population for which information is required. The target population was primary six (6) pupils with disabilities and their respective teachers. The estimated population of primary six pupils in Tano North District was 1753 of which 890 are males and 863 are females. And the numbers of primary six teachers match the number of school in the district which is 68.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

A sample is a set of individuals selected from a population, and they usually intended to represent the population in a research study (Gravetter & Forzano, 2006). In the selection of the sample, I obtained a list of schools from the Tano North Office of the Ghana Education Service. The Tano North District is divided into five circuits namely Duayaw-Nkwanta, Bomaa, Tanoso, Terchire and Yamfo circuits as shown in appendix E. A proportionate stratified random sampling or proportionate random sampling was used in selecting schools from the five circuits in the district. In explaining proportionate random sampling, Gravetter and Forzano (2006, p.125) posit that:

> We begin by identifying a set of subgroups or segments in the population. Next, we determine what proportion of the population corresponds to each subgroup. Finally, a sample is obtained such that the proportions in the sample exactly match the proportions in the overall population. This kind of sampling is called proportionate stratified random sampling, or simply proportionate random sampling.

Thirty (30) primary schools were selected for the study.

Purposive sampling was used in selecting the pupils (pupils with disabilities) for the study. Kumekpor (2002, p. 138) put forward that:

> In purposive sampling the units of the sample are selected not by a random procedure, but they are intentionally picked for a study because of their characteristics or because they satisfy certain qualities which are not randomly distributed in the universe, but they are typical or they exhibit most of the characteristics of interest to the study.

The total sample size for the study was 98. This was made up of 68 pupils with disabilities and 30 teachers. " ...the correct sample size depends on the purpose of the study and the nature of the population under scrutiny"(Cohen, Manion & Morison, 2005, p. 93). This statement justifies the selection of the sample size. The sample size for the study is appropriate considering the nature of the population and the purpose of the study. That is, the sample size used was enough to give the needed information and many people more than the number used would not have given any extra information.

Instruments

The data of the study were collected using observation checklist to measure teacher classroom practices. Structured interview guide to measure the self-concept of the students with disabilities and questionnaire for teachers to measure the classroom practices of teachers were used. The questionnaire was also used to solicit for information from teachers on their classroom practices. The questionnaire had 2 sections (section A and B) with a total of 42 close-ended items. Section A was mainly concerned with the background data of respondents. There were three closed-ended items which include gender, educational qualification, and the number of years in the teaching field. Section B, made up of 39 close-ended items (composed of 9 items on the social environment, 13 items on the instructional practices, 9 on the physical environment and 11 items for the classroom organization and management) with five-point Likert scale, asked respondents to indicate the extent to which they agree to some of their classroom practices.

Observation guide was also used to elicit information about teacher classroom practices. According to Adentwi (2005), observation is a method of data collection that employs the sense of vision as its main source. It requires that an observer devote all his attention to the behaviour of an individual group within a natural setting and for a certain time period. Sarantakos (2005) sees observation as one of the oldest methods of social research. He adds that it employs vision as its main source data collection. A structured non-participant observation was employed. According to Nwadinigwe (2002) non-participant observation is a situation whereby the researcher isolates him or

herself from the observed (those he or she if observing) to the point that the observed is aware that he or she is being observed.

The observation was structured by the use of a five (5) likert scale type. The observation guide or checklist was made up of 2 sections (A and B). Section A was mainly concerned with the background data of respondents. There were three closed-ended items including name of school, date and gender. Section B, made up of 35 close-ended items (composed of 8 items on the social environment, 13 items on the instructional practices, 5 on the physical environment and 10 items for the classroom organization and management). The application of observation was due to the fact that it would help me to make up for the deficiencies that might occur with the use of only a questionnaire.

Structured interview guide was used to measure the self-concept of pupils with disabilities was used. The structured interview guide was in 2 sections A and B with a total of 32 items. There were 2 open ended questions (including name of school and date of birth) and 2 closed ended questions (including gender and type of disabilities). Section A was made up of 4 items concerned with the personal details of the respondents. The second section B was on the self-concept scale which comprised 28 items (8 items on academic self-concept, 8 items on non-academic and 12 on the general self-concept).

The instruments for the data collection were made available to experts in the field to determine their (instruments) validity after which they were pilot-tested using a total sample of 30 pupils with disabilities and 9 teachers in 9 primary schools in the (SDA Primary School Abesim, Roman Catholic Primary (RC) "A", RC Primary "B", Olistar Prepatory School, Abesim

Anglican Primary School "A", Abesim Anglican Primary School "B", Methodist Primary School, Opass Educational Complex and PA Capital school) Sunyani Municipality. The reliabilities of the instruments were tested using Cronbach's alpha. The raw data were gathered and analyzed, and the queries were taken care of. The alpha values for the questionnaire, observation guide and the structured interview guide were .88, .82 and .87 respectively. Inter ratter reliability for the checklist or observation guide was .78. The intra-class correlation (ICC), according to Centre for Educator Compensation Reform (2012), is a measure of agreement that is useful when there are many rating categories (5 or more).

Data Collection Procedure

The data collection took place between February, 2012 and April, 2012. Before the data were collected, with the help of a letter of introduction obtained from the Head of Department of Educational Foundations, University of Cape Coast I collected an authorisation letter from the Tano North District Education Office. I visited the participating schools, introduced myself and the explained the purpose of the study to them. The dates and period for data collection were then arranged.

The observation was done by me and a colleague. In preparing the research assistant (colleague), I explained the purpose of the study to him. I also explained the content of the research, from the background to the methodology. I went through the observational checklist with him and I explained each item on the observational guide to him. I gave him the chance to express his concerns and they (his concerns) were adequately resolved. After this, a comprehensive classroom observation was done with so that he

could master the skill of observing the teachers' classroom practices. After each day, during the 3 day period of observation we discuss what went on, his strengths and weakness and how he could overcome them. The training was climaxed with the pilot testing of the instruments.

We spend a day in each classroom or school with the exception of 3 schools with which 2 days were used because of the early closure of classroom activities for sports and other non classroom activities in the school. The hours spend in each classroom ranged from 5 hours to 7 hours. Most of the observations were done on the following day after the first visit, but only 3 schools had their observation in the third day after the visit and 2 schools on the fourth day. The questionnaire was self administered. Most of the questionnaire was collected on the second day, but only 5 on the third and fourth days after the first visit.

The interview scheduled for the children with disabilities were done in the schools after classroom activities or when the schools closed for the day. That was mostly between the hours of 1:00 pm and 3: 00 pm.

Data Analysis

Data gathered for the study were analysed based on the research question and the null hypothesis that were formulated to guide the study. Frequency percentage, mean and standard deviations tables were used to determine the extent to which teachers consider children with disabilities in their classroom. Apart from the descriptive statistics, inferential analyses were also done. The data were coded in such a way that a teacher's score matches that of his or her students. A self-concept score of 75% (131) and above was designated high self-concept scores. A score below 75% (131) was also

designated as low self-concept score. Pearson correlation was carried out to test the first null hypothesis: “There is no statistical significant relationship between teachers’ classroom practices and self-concept of children with disabilities”. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was carried out to test the second null hypothesis: “Types of disability have no statistical significant influence on self-concept of children with disabilities”. An independent sample t-test was carried out to test the third null hypothesis: “There is no statistical significant difference between teachers’ classroom practices by gender and self-concept of students with disabilities”. The fourth null hypothesis, which is “There is no statistical significant relationship between gender of students with disabilities and their self-concept”, was tested with a chi-square.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The chapter deals with the results and the discussions of the data. The findings from the influence of teachers' classroom practices on the self-concept of primary school pupils with disabilities are presented and discussed in relation to the one research question and the four research hypotheses that were formulated for the study. The research question and the hypotheses are discussed based on quantitative data that was used to compare the responses of teachers, students with disabilities and the classroom observation.

In the discussing the research question (To what extent do teachers consider children with disabilities in their classroom practices?) much emphasis was placed on the observation than the responses from the teachers. This is because there were some disparities in the teachers' response and the observational scores. The disparity in the teachers' response and the observation could be that what teachers think is enough are not really enough in terms of meeting the needs of children with disabilities in that way.

Also, bearing in mind that the researcher is or might be well grounded in the issues of disabilities than the teachers, the observation is more likely to produce a reliable results or likely to be accurate than the teachers response. Again, the teachers were also seen as not reporting the actual conditions prevalent in their classrooms because of trying to report an ideal situation rather than what was practice. For the research hypothesis, only the statistically significant results were discussed.

Analysis of Background Data

This section of the results and discussions talk about the background data of the respondents. Table 1 displays information on the background data of the teachers.

Table 1: Background Data of Teachers

Variable	Subscale	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	23	76.7
	Female	7	23.3
Highest academic qualification	Masters' degree		
	Bachelors degree	5	16.7
	Diploma	17	56.7
	Certificate A	6	20.0
	Senior high school	2	6.7
Years of teaching	1-5 years	15	50.0
	6-10 years	7	23.3
	11-15 years	2	6.7
	16 years and above	6	20.0

It can be seen from Table 1 that 76.7% of the teachers were males and 23.3% were females. For the highest professional qualification, 56.7% had diploma, 20.0% were certificate "A" holders, 16.7% bachelor's degree and 6.7% were senior high school certificate holders. The Table further shows that in terms of the number of years of teaching, (15) 50% were within 1-5 years, 7(23.3%) were within 6-10 years, (6) 20.0% had 16 years and above and within 11-15 years were 2 (6.7%).

Figure 3 shows information on gender of the pupils.

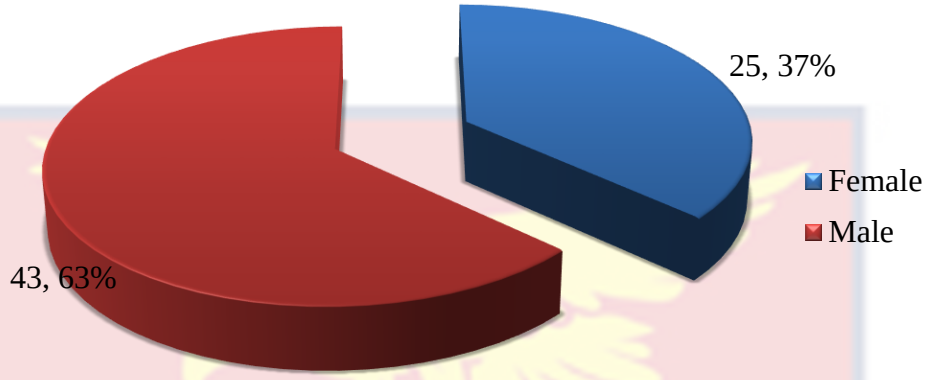

Figure 3. Gender of the pupils

On the part of the pupils, Figure 3 shows that 43 which represent 63.0% of the respondents were males and 25 which represent 37.0% were females. The distribution of pupils according to age is as follows; 7 (10.3%) were 11 years , 16 (23.5%) were 12 years, 23(33.5%) were 13 years, 10(14.7%) were 14 years, 6 (8.8%) were 15 years and 6 (8.8%) were 17 years old.

Figure 4 gives information on disability Distributions in the Sample (the pupils with disabilities). From Figure 4, it can be seen that 24 representing 35.3% of the pupils had speech and language difficulty, 20 which represent 29.4% were visually impaired (mild type for example low vision), 18 which represent 26.5% were hearing impaired (mild type for example hard of hearing) and 6 which represent 8.8% had physical disabilities.

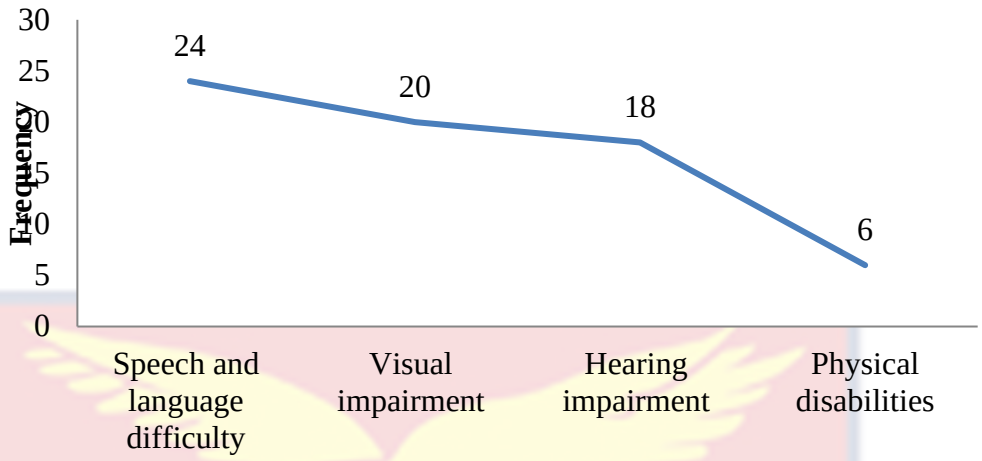

Figure 4. Disability distributions in the sample

Research Question
How Teachers Consider Children with Disabilities in their Classroom Practice?

This section of the results and discussion centres on the extent to which teachers consider pupils with disabilities in their classroom practices. This was categorised as social, instructional, physical and the organisation and management, and the discussion was done along these parameters.

Socially, it can be seen from Table 2 that majority of the teachers 69.0% strongly agreed that their students find it easy to come to them for help when they need it, 24.1% agreed to that point but only 6.9 disagreed. For the statement "I try to help students when they are sad or upset", 55.2% of the teachers strongly agreed to the statement and 44.8% agreed which makes it obvious that teachers try to help students when they are sad or upset. From the observation, it came out that 23.3% teachers were above average, 60.0% scored average with only 16.7% scoring below average. The standard deviation is 0.6 which means that there were not many variations in the scores and that the scores converge at above average and average. This suggests that

Table 2: Teachers' Classroom Practices

Item	Teachers Responses							Observation				
	SA	AG	UN	DA	SD	MN	SN	AA	AV	BA	MN	SN
	%	%	%	%	%			%	%	%		
My students find it easy to come to me for help when they need it.	69.0	24.1		6.9		4.6	.8				1.7	1.2
I try to help students when they are sad or upset.	55.2	44.8				4.6	.5	23.3	60.0	16.7	2.1	.6
I teach or tell students to respect each others' opinions.	79.3	20.7				4.8		80.0	20.0		1.8	.4
I allow students to give names and tease others in class.			6.9	6.9	86.2	1.2	.6					
I make sure that students do not say anything negative about others in class	55.2	24.1		6.9	13.8	4.0	1.5	3.3	60.0	36.7	1.6	.6
I encourage competition in the classroom.	79.3	20.7				4.7	.4	16.7	46.7	36.7	1.8	.7
I mostly call all students by their names.	75.9	20.7	3.4			4.7	.5	63.3	20.0	16.7	2.4	.9

Table 2 Continued

Teacher does not adapt or modify the curriculum/syllabus content to suit a particular child or a group with disabilities	6.9	24.1	6.9	10.3	51.7	2.2	1.4	26.7	16.7	56.7	1.3	1.3
Teacher delivers lessons in an orderly and systematic manner.	69.0	31.0				4.6	.5	53.3	30.0	16.7	2.3	.8
Teacher provides smooth transition from one topic to the other/ link new lessons with previous knowledge.						4.6	.5	43.3	46.7	10.0	2.3	.7
Teacher uses vivid images and concrete examples to illustrate a point.	44.8	51.7	3.4			4.4	.6	46.7	40.0	13.3	2.3	.7
Teacher ensures repetition of misunderstood concepts.	58.6	27.6	10.3	3.4		4.3	.9	43.3	56.7		2.4	.5
Teacher ensures necessary reinforcements of students' ideas during instruction.	24.1	69.0	6.9			4.2	.5	3.3	50.0	46.7	1.3	1.1

Table 2 Continued

Teacher makes assignments, exercises or assessments less complex to students whose learning needs demands it.(pupils with disabilities)	31.0	44.8	3.4	10.3	10.3	3.7	1.3			100	0	0
Teacher frequently uses teaching strategies such as peer tutoring and cooperative learning.	37.9	51.7	10.3			4.3	.6	6.7	50.0	43.3	1.6	.6
Teacher gets students' attention before giving instruction(s).	65.5	34.5				4.6	.5	36.7	50.0	13.3	2.2	.7
Teacher gives students the chance to express their views in class	79.3	20.7				4.7	.4	36.7	63.3		2.4	.5
Teacher demonstrates inadequate advance preparation before coming Class.								43.3	13.3	43.3	1.5	1.7
Teacher varies his teaching methods to suit the situation of the class or students.	44.8	48.3	.9			4.3	.8	20.0	53.3	26.7	1.9	.8

Table 2 Continued

I prearranged classroom in such a way that students can walk through and get materials easily without disturbing.	82.8	17.2			4.7	.4	76.7	20.0	3.3	2.7	.5
I ensure good classroom lightening system and ventilation	69.0	31.0			4.6	.5	70.0	26.7	3.3	2.7	.5
I consider the characteristics of students in arranging seating arrangement in the classroom (disability condition).	79.3	20.7			4.7	.4					
I ensure students desk and chairs are properly maintain and/or modified to suit the need of that student (e.g. Child with a disability condition)	48.3	27.6	10.3	13.8	4.1	1.1					
My classroom rules are well established/ well-known and clear to students.	58.6	41.4			4.6	.5	3.3	43.3	53.3	1.4	.7
I maintain routines and tell students what materials to bring to school.	34.5	62.1	3.4		4.2	.64					

Table 2 Continued

I make students aware of their progress or lack of progress with their academic performance.	55.2	44.8			4.6	.5		20.0	63.3	16.7	2.0	.6
I prefer that students follow directions and not ask questions.								26.7	36.7	36.7	1.6	1.1
I make relationship between rules and consequences clear to students.	51.7	48.3			4.5	.5					1.5	.9
I carefully consider the circumstances that surround misbehaviour and disciplines appropriately.	31.0	69.0			4.3	.5		16.7	33.3	50.0	1.5	1.0
I do not like to be interrupted when teaching is going on.	41.4	48.3		10.3	4.2	.90		26.7	23.3	30.0	1.2	.5
I set explicit time limits for completion of tasks without giving attention to any student.	6.9	20.7	13.8	44.8	13.8	2.6	.2	10.0	13.3	76.7	0.8	1.2
It is important that My students see me as their friend.	48.3	42.4	3.4	6.9		4.3	.8					

the majority of the teachers try to help students and make it easy for students to come for help. Therefore social classroom climate of mutual trust and support is generated.

According to Dornyei (2007), one of the most salient features of the classroom environment is the quality of the relationships between the class members and this includes the class teacher. The quality of teaching and learning is entirely different depending on whether the classroom is characterized by a climate of trust and support. The Teachers' support refers to students' beliefs that their teachers care about them, and value and establish personal relationships with them (Patrick & Ryan, 2003). The kind of social condition created here can be said to be of good nature.

That is, if majority of teachers avail themselves and make it easy for all categories of students to come to them when they (students) need help, then it is in a positive direction to all kinds of students including those with disabilities. This is clearly seen when Sunal and Haas' (2008) assertion is considered. From Sunal and Haas, students with disabilities are susceptible to bulling in the classroom by other students. If students with disabilities will be able to gather the courage to talk to a teacher on an issue, then, he or she needs to know that the teachers will take the problem seriously. How a teacher reacts and responds to a student who is being bullied may make the difference between resolving the issue or allowing misery to continue that could affect the rest of the student's school life.

Rimm-Kaufman (n.d.) is also of the view that teachers who foster positive relationships with their students create classroom environments which are more conducive to learning, and which meet students' developmental,

emotional and academic needs. Rimm-Kaufman added that a positive student-teacher relationship in the classroom is evident when teachers: Show their pleasure and enjoyment of students; interact in a responsive and respectful manner; offer students help (e.g., answer questions in timely manner and offer support that matches the children's needs) in achieving academic and social objectives. Teachers can also help students reflect on their thinking and learning skills. Teachers should know and demonstrate knowledge about individual students' backgrounds, interests, emotional strengths and academic levels, but they should seldom show irritability or aggravation toward students.

To a large extent, from the findings, teachers seem to be on the positive side. This kind of relationship of teachers demonstrating mutual support for students in the classroom was termed by Manning (2007) as close student-teacher. According to Manning, close student-teacher relationship increase students' academic and social skills and may therefore indirectly enhance self-concept.

On the statement that, "I make sure students do not say anything negative about others in class", 55.2% of the teachers strongly agreed, 24.1% agreed, 13.8% strongly disagreed with only 6.9% disagreeing. The standard deviation was 1.5, which means that although majority of the teachers agreed and their total responses were divergent. From the observation it can also be deduced that most of the teachers 60.0% had an average score with only 3.3% scoring above average, whiles a relatively substantial number (36.7%) scored below average.

Although majority of seem to be on the positive side which is average and above, it can also be said that the situation does not depict an ideal situation in the classroom for children with disabilities. This is because a relatively substantial 36.7% score below average with only 3.3% scoring above average. Nevertheless, the fact that from the teachers' responses and the observation, majority were on the positive side is encouraging. That is, if teachers ensure students do not say anything negative about one another, it would promote mutual respect in the classroom.

A focus on mutual respect in the classroom, according to Patrick and Ryan (2003), involves the perception that the teacher expects all students to value one another and the contributions they make to classroom life, and not allow students to make fun of others. Khor and Yeou (1986), maintained that a positive classroom environment that is supportive of learning, one in which every student is made to feel respected and worthy aids in the development of self-concept. Elliot et al. (2000) also posit that teacher's cooperation with students and speaking truthfully promotes inner freedom. They added that some practical ways that will promote mutual respect in the classroom include not nagging or scolding, avoiding double standards, avoidance threats and intimidations.

It can be observed from Table 2 that an overwhelming 75.9% of teachers strongly agreed that they call all students by their name. For agreed, there were 20.7% of the teachers with only 3.4% of the teachers who were uncertain. This statement had a standard deviation of 0.5 indicates that the teachers' responses converge in a positive way. From the observation, it was noticed that majority of the teachers (63.3%) scored above average, 20.0% had

an average score with only 16.7% scoring below average. That is, from both the teachers' responses and the observation, teachers mostly call all students by their names. This behaviour of teachers is geared toward creating a positive environment for children with disabilities. This is because calling a student by name affirms the condition that he or she is of concern to you. Calling students by their name is part of what Brown and Vigilante (2005) termed as personalization. They argue that personalized approach helps students feel like they are an important part of the classroom and "special" individuals too.

According to Rehman (2001), a teacher is impersonal when he does not take into account the details, which make each pupil a unique human being. When a teacher cannot remember the name of his or her student, it conveys the message that he attaches little significance to the student's existence. Such an impersonalitic teacher is likely to have little impact on a student's self-concept. Rehman added that the student is likely to ask, "Why should I believe this teacher's evolution of me is accurate when he doesn't even know who I am?" A personalistic teacher convinces students that he or she is genuinely interested. The personalistic teacher remembers details about students, and in interaction he is sensitive to the students' moods and feelings. In short, when students are convinced that a teacher has a sincere concern about them and an accurate picture of whom they are, they are greatly influenced by that teacher's appraisal.

Socially, teacher can be said to be considerate towards children with disabilities on the whole. As written by Smith et al. (1995), some students with disabilities may need a great deal of interaction with teachers to make them feel secured in the classroom. Therefore, if teachers do consider children with

disabilities in their classroom social practices, then, it will go a long way to help children with disabilities in the classroom. This can also go a long way to help in the development of positive self-concept.

On teachers' classroom practices from the instructional angle, it can be seen from Table 2 that 51.7% of the teachers strongly disagreed to the statement that they do not adapt or modify a curriculum/syllabus content to suit a child with a disability condition. Also, 10.3% of the teachers disagreed, 24.1% agreed, 6.9% strongly agreed and 6.9% were uncertain. Even though the majority of the teachers disagreed to not adapting the curriculum to suit a child with a disability condition, a competitive 31.0% agreed with an additional 6.9% being uncertain. This was associated with a high standard deviation of 1.4 which means teachers' responses were divergent. This is not a sign of good instructional practice for children with disabilities in the classroom. This picture is clearly seen from the observation where an awe-inspiring 56.7% of the teachers scored below average with 16.7% for average score and only 26.7% scoring above average. The finding of the current study is in line with the finding of Kuyini and Desai (2008). Kuyini and Desai found that teachers in inclusive schools in Ghana use more generic teaching practices with limited or no adaptations which are tailored to the needs of students with disabilities.

According to Slavin (1994), teachers must know how to adapt their instruction to the students' levels of knowledge, and they should motivate students to learn. Slavin added that for effective instruction, an appropriate level of instruction, the second element in the QAIT model, is necessary. Appropriate levels of instruction is about the degree to which the teacher

ensures that students are ready to learn a new lesson (that is, they have the necessary skill and knowledge to learn), but they have not already learnt the lesson. In other words, the level of instruction is neither too easy nor too difficult for the students. Therefore, if teachers do not adapt their curriculum to suit a particular child with a disability, that child might not be able to learn whatever is being taught. When the task is too difficult children may be discouraged and they might think they are not capable of learning. But this might not be the case if instruction is adapted to suit the level of the child.

From Table 2, it is seen that 69.0% of teachers strongly agreed that they deliver lessons in an orderly and systematic manner and 31.0% agreed. In the same manner, 53.3% of the teachers scored above average, 30.0% scored average with only 16.7% scoring below average. To the statement that "Teacher uses vivid images and concrete examples to illustrate a point", 44.8% of the teachers strongly agreed, 51.7% agreed while the remaining 3.4% were undecided. With the observation, 46.7% of the teachers scored above average, 40.0% had average and 13.3% scored below average. It is, however, clear that in terms of lesson delivery majority of teachers use vivid images and concrete examples to deliver their lessons in an orderly and systematic manner.

From the QAIT model, according to Slavin (1994), the quality of instruction refers to the degree to which information or skills are presented so that students can easily learn them. The quality of instruction is largely a product of the quality of the curriculum and of the lesson presentation itself. Slavin again maintained that if teachers can instructionally make sense to students during instruction, then they must: (a) Present information in an

orderly and systematic manner; (b) Provide smooth transitions to new topics or lessons; (c) Use vivid images and concrete examples; and (d) Ensure necessary repetition and reinforcement.

On the assertion that teachers ensure necessary reinforcements of students' ideas during instructional period, 24.1% of the teachers strongly agreed while 69.0% and 6.9% responded agreed and uncertain respectively. From the classroom observation, on the same statement, 50.0% of the teachers had average, 46.7% scored below average but only 3.3% scored above average. There is disparity between the teachers' response and the observational score. But, it can be seen that with the teachers' response the majority (69.0%) agreed while on the observational scale the majority (50.0%) also scored average. However, a relatively competitive number (46.7%) scored below average. This therefore suggests that teachers' reinforcements in the classroom are not enough.

Incentive is the degree to which a teacher ensures that students are motivated to work on instructional tasks and the material which is being presented. This is the third element in the QAIT model (Slavin, 1994). Cheney (1989) suggests that instructional modifications should address three general goals which include the learners' motivation. It must also be noted that rewarding the efforts of students is a feature of positive classroom discipline (UNESCO, 2006). Considering the fact that reinforcement in the classroom is keen to motivating children to learn, teachers need to improve upon their reinforcements. This is because highly competitive 46.7% of the teachers scored below average giving a negative indication of teachers' use of reinforcement in the classroom.

From Table 2, 44.8% of the teachers agreed that they make assignments, exercises or assessments less complex for students whose learning needs demands adaptations (pupils with disabilities). On the same statement 31.0% of the teachers strongly agree, 10.3% strongly disagreeing, another 10.3% disagreed and the 3.4% remained undecided. The standard deviation for the teachers' response was 1.3 which indicates that their stands varied or are diverse although a higher mean of 3.7. On the other hand, the classroom observation made it clear as the tremendous 100% of the teachers scored below average. This finding is also in line with the findings of Kuyini and Desai (2008) about teachers using more generic teaching practices with few or limited adaptations. Yekple and Avoke (2006) also found that in Ghana teachers are not able to meet the learning needs of children with disabilities in the classroom. Looking at the fact that teachers scored higher from the social angle, one might be tempted to challenge the findings of Yekple and Avoke. On the other hand, it can be said that children with disabilities do not only need to be considered socially but in totality including instructional practices.

Gyimah (2011) found that in setting instructional objective(s) to cover all children including those with Special Educational Needs (SEN) and disabilities, 54.9% of the teachers responded sometimes, 9.2% never with only 35.9% responding most often. This finding is also in conformity to finding of the present study. Looking at the findings of Gyimah, it is not surprising that the teachers do not make assignments, exercises or assessments less complex for pupils with disabilities. That is, because most of the teachers do not consider children with disabilities when setting instructional objectives, there is the likelihood of not adapting instruction, left alone considering them when

giving assignments. This explains why Gyimah found that 48% of the teachers never let children with SEN and disabilities work at different activities when assignments are given. In keeping with Gyimah, this may mean that not all the children had access to the school curriculum. This suggests that children with disabilities appeared to have bad times in the regular classrooms as they were unable to do tasks that commensurate with their abilities. This is also a threat to their self-concept development.

Children with disabilities need teaching techniques that are appropriate in order to enhance their performance. Cheney (1989) suggests that instructional modifications should address three general goals. These are: (a) the level of achievement of the students and the level of instructional materials; (b) the characteristics of the learner and the response modes required by the material or the techniques; and (c) the motivational aspect of the learner and the materials. To the issue of adapting instruction, Cheney suggests that teachers should informally assess their instructional programmes to ensure that students with disabilities and those without disabilities are learning at a satisfactory level.

Beech (2010) maintains that task adaptations reduce the complexity of the practice or test items and make assignments or test items more accessible. This statement suggests that if teachers are not making adaptations, then, their lessons will not be accessible to children whose learning needs demand. Beech added that teachers should only use task adaptations in the initial stages of instruction, but then fade them so that the student has the opportunity to learn the concept or skill at the required level of proficiency.

One of the main reasons that can be assigned to why teachers do not adapt instruction towards meeting the needs of children with disabilities in the classroom is teacher's notion of inadequate time as put forth by one of the teachers. In explaining this, the teacher said that time cannot be spent on only one student at the detriment of the others. However, teachers must note that adapting instruction does not benefit only one child. It is also not time wasting because the child also has the right to benefit from what goes on in the classroom. According to the Salamanca Statement (UNESCO, 1994), every child has a fundamental right to education, and must be given the opportunity to achieve and maintain an acceptable level of learning. Those with special educational needs (including those with disabilities) must have access to regular schools which should accommodate them within child centred pedagogy which is capable of meeting these needs. According to Jordan et al. (2009) research has shown that an effective curriculum and instructional adaptations lead to more effective instruction, which benefit all students in the classroom, both those with and those without disabilities. Another reason why teachers do not adapt instruction could be the fact that teachers think more of preparing their children to pass examinations.

On the statement that teachers frequently use teaching strategies such as peer tutoring and cooperative learning, 37.9% of the teachers strongly agreed, 51.7% agreed while 10.3% were uncertain. From the teachers' point of view, the majority (89.6%) responded in a positive manner. However, on the observation scale, 50.0% scored average, 47.3% scored below average, with only 6.7% scoring above average. This findings mirror that of Gyimah (2011)

who found that 65.2% of teachers less frequently (or sometimes) asked children to help each other in the classroom. According to Gyimah (p. 51):

> In co-operative learning, children are put into groups of between five and eight to work on common tasks and to share outcomes equally. In peer tutoring, arrangement is made for peers who have mastered certain skills to teach those who have not. Both approaches encourage children's learning as none is left out.

Gyimah added that there are lots of advantages when pupils support each other. Citing Lorenz, Gyimah said that this gives the teacher ample time to give attention to those who have serious difficulties. Although the teachers seem to use peer tutoring and cooperative learning in the Ghanaian classroom, they should increase the frequency so as to get time to attend to other students who have serious learning difficulties.

Loking at the teachers' classroom practices from the instructional angle, one can say that the teachers do not specifically determine to consider students with disabilities. The main issue is their classroom practices suggest that they teach as if all children have the same characteristics. This was evident during the classroom observation.

Physically, how teachers consider children with disabilities in their classroom practices are as follows. For the statement "I prearranged classroom in such a way that students can walk through and get materials easily without disturbing others", 82.8% of strongly agreed while the remaining 17.2% agreed. In a similar to manner, on the observation scale, an awe-inspiring 76.9% of the teachers had above average score, 20.0% had

average with only 3.3% having below average. This means that majority of the teacher's prearrange their classrooms in a suitable manner.

This finding of the present study is in line with the finding of Gyimah (2011). Gyimah found that about 80% of the teachers in primary schools in Ghana ensured that the classroom environment was comfortable for all children; 72% planned for spacious classroom to allow for free movement. According to Gyimah, by implication, the teachers recognised the importance of a friendly environment if students' learning is to take place. Keeping the classroom's physical environment comfortable is essential in terms of promoting safe and healthy relationships between teachers and children, and also among students. This arrangement reduces the problems of stigmatisation and discrimination in the classroom. The absence of comfort compels a child to lose interest and drop out of school. Inferring from what has been said so far, it can be said that lowered self-concept can also result from an uncomfortable classroom physical environment.

According to Kaya and Donmez, (2010), Ginn suggests that classroom should be re-organized in a way that allows students can walk through and they can get materials easily without disturbing the others. A physical arrangement in the classroom is one of the important aspects of planning for effective instruction (Slavin, 1994). That is, if teachers do not take care of their physical arrangement, it can disrupt the attention of students and render their instructional efforts worthless. For example, Yekple (2005) posit that a major challenge that children with physical disabilities may face may be the poor physical environment and unconsidered physical structures that can retard their easy mobility. This can deprive such children of educationally

relevant experiences that children without disabilities may have, and it have negative influence on their total development including their self-concept.

Also, to the statement "I ensure good lightening system and ventilation in the classroom", 69.0% of the teachers responded that they strongly agree while the remaining 31.0% agreed. This response is not much different from their score on the observation scale. From the observation, 70.0% of the teachers had above average, 26.7% scored average whilst only 3.3 had below average. Although the teachers do their part in ensuring good lightening system and ventilation in their classroom, the lightening system and ventilation in most of the schools were not the best. This is because most of the classrooms have ventilation systems that cannot be easily manipulated. For example their windows were made of small fixed holes. Most of the classrooms also had no electricity or other artificial forms of lightening systems but they relied on the sun. For that reason, during cloudy weather conditions that the sun is not so bright to illuminate the classroom, children especially those with visual impairment may struggle in order to see clearly in the classroom.

Again on the physical classroom practices, 48.3% strongly agreed that they ensure that students' desk and chairs are properly maintained and/or modified to suit the needs of that student, 27.6% of the teachers agreed, 10.3% were uncertain but 13.8% disagreed. Although majority of the teachers were on the positive side with a high mean of 4.1, the standard deviation 1.1 shows that their responses were diverse in nature.

Also, to the assertion that teachers consider the characteristics of students especially those with disabilities in arranging seating arrangement in

the classroom, 79.3% of the teachers strongly agreed and the remaining 20.7% also agreed. From the findings above, it can be deduced that in terms of classroom seating arrangements, students' desk and chairs modification, teachers' classroom practices to a large extent favour all children.

Dean (1996) stated that, in the classroom, furniture must be arranged in a manner that allows children with physical disabilities to move easily. Desks and chairs need to be of the proper height for children, and the individual children may need a sloping surface for writing. In planning the physical arrangement, according to Deku (2000), teachers should consider typical student groupings, and storage needs for materials and equipment. It is, therefore, obvious from the current findings that teachers' classroom practices in terms of managing the physical environment are geared toward meeting the needs of children with disabilities in the classroom.

From Table 2, in the case of teachers' classroom management and organization, an overwhelming 58.6% of the teachers strongly agreed that their classroom rules are well established/ well-known and clear to students and 41.4% agreed. However, from the observation, it was a different situation. A large number of 53.3% scored below average with only 3.3% scoring above average. The remaining 43.3% had an average score. From the above, it can be said that most teacher's classroom rules are not well established/ well-known and clear to students.

Classroom management, according to Elliott et al. (2000), can be defined as the use of rules and procedures to maintain order so that learning may result. In this light, organising the classroom is the first step in effective classroom management. Teachers who give the impression of knowing what

they are doing and who are acting decisively, establish that someone is in control and this provides a sense of security. Inferring from what Elliott et al. put forth and the fact that a large number (53.3%) of the teachers scored below average, it insinuate that teacher's classroom management do not depict an ideal classroom for children with disabilities. This is because students with disabilities are susceptible to bulling in the classroom by other students (Sunal & Haas, 2008). For example, many children with visual impairment are rejected by their classmates (Jones & Chibaba as cited in Smith & Luckasson, 1995). Therefore, if teachers do not clearly establish rules in the classroom there is the like hood that some student will bully children disabilities in the classroom.

According to Elliot et al. (2000), a comprehensive classroom management includes both reactive response to problems and proactive planning for productive behaviour (proactive classroom management). Proactive classroom management is preventive rather than reactive and it combines methods that help students to behave correctly with procedures that promote achievement (Gettenger as cited by Elliot et al., 2000). In essence, setting classroom rules and regulations and making them clear to students will promote discipline in the classroom. No wonder Smith et al. (1995) posit that depending on the classroom rules, some students with disabilities have an easy or difficult time being successful. They added that classroom rules are part of the total set of expectations established by the teacher. These rules play an important role in the success of students. It is also possible for students to obey classroom rules. Therefore, it can be emphasized that teachers should set classroom rules and make it clear to students.

Elliot et al. (2000) added that, from a pedagogical standpoint, learning can occur only in an orderly classroom. “Orderly”, however, does not imply being rigid or quiet. An orderly classroom environment is one in which everyone (teacher and students) know exactly what is going on. Smooth running of a classroom can prevent disciplinary problems. That is, if children do not feel secure in the classroom, they will find it difficult to imbibe what they would be taught. Therefore, teachers should set classroom rules and make them clear in to the students. The rules can be pasted on the wall and students can be asked to periodically read through the classroom rules to refresh their memory on them. This act, when done, can help make the existing rules easier to abide by.

In response to the statement “I carefully consider the circumstances that surround misbehaviour and disciplines appropriately”, 31.0% of the teachers strongly agreed and the remaining 69.0% agreed. On the contrary, on the observation scale, majority of teachers (50.0%) scored below average. In addition, 33.3% of the teachers had an average score with only 16.7% scoring above average. The variations in the scores may be due to the teachers’ attitude towards observation. That is, trying to present themselves in a good way, they refused to discipline students appropriately during the observation. It is, therefore, not surprising that, according to UNESCO (2006), discipline is an often misused word by many teachers. To many teachers, discipline means punishment. There is, therefore, the indication that most of the teachers were caught up in that net, consequently they refused to discipline appropriately. However**,** discipline is the practice of teaching or training a person to obey

rules or a code of behaviour in both the short and long terms (UNESCO, 2006).

The teachers did not administer appropriate disciplinary measures due to the fact that their classroom rules were found not to be well established and clear to students. On the issue of establishing and making classroom rules clear to students, 53.3% of the teachers scored below average.

It can be seen from Table 2 that 44.8% of the teachers disagreed to setting explicit time limits for completion of tasks without giving attention to any student (e.g. students with disabilities). Again, 13.8% of the teachers strongly disagreed, 20.7% agreed, 6.9% strongly agreed and 13.8% were uncertain. Although majority of teachers 44.8% disagreed, meaning they do consider children with disabilities in terms of setting time limits for completion of tasks, they had a standard deviation of 1.2. This means that they had varied responses. Also, a relatively large number of the teachers (27.6%) agreed that they do not consider children with disabilities in that way. From the observational scale, an overwhelming 76.7% of the teachers scored below average, 13.3% had an average score and 10.0% scored above average. It is, however, clear that majority of the teachers set explicit time limits for completion of tasks, and they do not give consideration to any student.

One reason that can be assigned to teachers' failure of considering children with disabilities in the regular classroom is that mostly, children in the regular schools, with the exception of the inclusive schools, have mild disability conditions. Cook (2001) explained that when students have mild and hidden disabilities, teachers tend to still hold them to the same expectations of

their typically developing peers, therefore making the teachers to be intolerable towards them.

Gallegos and Gallegos (as cited in Smith et al., 1995) suggested twenty good teaching tips which are critical when dealing with students with disabilities in the classroom. Among the twenty include teachers being more understanding, putting students at where they belong and where the students can handle lessons at that level, being helpful in and out of the classroom and having patient with students. All these suggest that teachers should be considerate in the classroom. An example is that teaches should give students enough time to complete their given task.

From Table 2, it can be deduced that 48.3% of the teachers strongly agreed that it is important that their students see them as their friend and 42.4% also agreed. With the rest, 6.9% disagreed whilst 3.4 % remained uncertain. On the whole, it can be concluded that teachers' classroom management and organization, as depicted here, suggest an unfavourable atmosphere for children with disabilities.

Research Hypothesis One

The Relationship Between Teachers' Classroom Practices and Self-Concept of Children with Disabilities

This section talks about the relationship between teachers' classroom practices and the self-concept of students with disabilities. From Table 3, it can be seen that there was a statistical significant relationship between teachers' classroom practices and the self-concept of pupils with disabilities. There was a medium positive correlation between the two variables($r=.324$, $n=68$, $p<.05$) with high score of teachers' classroom practices associated with high score for the self-concept of pupils with disabilities (Cohen as cited in Pallant, 2005).

Table 3: Pearson Correlation between Teachers' Classroom Practices and Self-Concept of Pupils with Disabilities

	Number	(r)	Variance	P-Value
Teachers' classroom practises and self-concept of children with disabilities	68	.324	.10	.007 *

***Significant, p < 0.01** (An Alpha level of .01 was used for the statistical test)

The two variables (teachers' classroom practices and self-concept of children with disabilities) share only 10 percent of their variances. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected. This means that there is a significant relationship between teachers' classroom practices and the self concept of pupils with disabilities. To a large extent the findings of the current study supports previous findings of other studies. Rehman (2001) found that there is a significant positive (correlation) relationship between the classroom environment and self-concept of students. The value of the (correlation) relationship was 0.68. That is, the better the classroom environment, the higher the self-concept of the students.

Khor and Yeou (1986) concentrated on enhancing student's self-concept in the classroom with a series of 6 activities in the classroom. At the end of the programme, there were more students with higher self-concept scores while the scores of students with low self-concept had decreased. Khor and Yeou, therefore, concluded that a teacher can enhance the self-concept of his students with a series of well chosen activities, given that he is supportive and he holds favourable attitudes towards them.

The current finding supports the finding of Ishak et al. (2010) who examined the students' self-concept among adolescents in Malaysian

secondary schools. Ishak et al. found that external contextual factors have an impact on the self-concept of adolescent students. One of the external context factors is teaches' classroom practices. Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2002) maintain that reflected appraisal is one of the determinants of self-concept development. Reflected appraisal is how students think others perceive them, and this include teachers. For example, Kofi is more likely to develop a positive Mathematics self-concept if he perceives that his teacher thinks he (kofi) is good in Mathematics.

The current finding is also in line with how most personalities have viewed self-concept development. For the purpose of this discussion only that of Cooley and Rogers would be used. Cooley, as cited in Epstein (1973), introduced the concept of "looking-glass self" which refers to an individual seeing himself in the way that others perceive him or her. If teachers hold positive attitude and have an accommodative classroom practices, children or pupils will also see themselves in that direction, and vice versa.

Rogers (as cited in Jolly et al., 2009), also, theorized that at the beginning of their lives, children cannot distinguish between themselves and their environment. As they interact with their world, children begin to distinguish between the "me" and "not me." The self-concept continues to develop in response to our life experiences, though many aspects of it remain quite stable over time. That is, self-concept develops in response to life experiences which include teacher classroom practices.

The current finding also reaffirms what some authorities have written. Chauha (1996) argued that the school plays an important role in moulding the personality of children because a significant part of a child's life is spent in

school especially, between the ages of 6 and 20. Chauha added that the teacher is an important instrument in the instructional process, and he plays a very important role in shaping the personality of children. The way the teacher teaches and handles the students has an effect on the personality development of children, and this development includes their self-concept as well. The way a teacher carries out his or her role in the class will affect the emotional climate which in turn will influence the self-concept of the children.

However, the findings do not support the findings of Allodi (2000) who found out that global self-concept at school do not seem to be related to the model of special support. Applying this in the context of this study, it can mean the practices of teachers in terms of supporting children with disabilities do not influence the self-concept of the children.

On the other hand, Allodi (2000) reported that peer relations appear to be more important in the development of the self-concept of children with disabilities at school. He concluded that it could be interpreted as being a compensatory strategy to maintaining a good self-concept in spite of the difficulties children with disabilities face at school. This can be said to be in line with the findings of the current study. This is because teachers' classroom practices influences how pupils relate to one another. For example, teaching strategies such as grouping children for various assignments, cooperative learning and peer tutoring bring learners together thereby promoting healthy relationships among them.

With Elbaum and Vaughn (2009), they maintain that one way for teachers to have a positive impact on students' self-concept is to incorporate critical aspects of effective self-concept interventions into ongoing academic

instruction. Elbaum and Vaughn gave an example which is the use of cooperative learning structures with which students with disabilities collaborate with nondisabled peers on academic tasks and receive frequent feedbacks on their work from both the teacher and their classmates.

According to SWE-AWE-CASEE ARP Resources (2008), providing forums where students develop relationships with one another (e.g., small group work) may serve to increase sense of belongingness while, at the same time, providing students with additional peer support. That is to say that teacher classroom practices influence how students relate with one another. Therefore if peer relations can influence self-concept development, then teachers' classroom practices cannot be left out.

Research Hypothesis Two

Types of Disability and Self-Concept of Children with Disabilities

This subsection of the results and discussion centres on disability conditions and the self-concept of children with disabilities. Table 4 shows information on one-way analysis of variance on the type of disability and self-concept of pupils with disabilities

Table 4: One-Way Analysis of Variance on the Type of Disability and Self-Concept of Pupils with Disabilities

	Group	Mean	F	P-Value
Influence of Type of disability on self-concept of pupils with disabilities.	Physical disabilities	1.1	.81	.49**
	Hearing impairment	1.2		
	Visual impairment	1.2		
	Speech and language difficulty	1.1		

****Not significant,** An Alpha level of .05 was used for the statistical test

It can be seen from Table 4 that pupils with disabilities were divided into four groups (Group 1: Physical Disabilities; Group 2: Visual Impairment; Group 3: Hearing Impairment: Group 4: Speech and Language Difficulty). There was no statistically significant difference (p>.05) in self-concept scores of children with different types of disabilities [F(3,64)=.81, p=.49]. This means that types of disabilities have no influence on the self-concept of children with disabilities. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Research Hypothesis Three
Teachers' Classroom Practices by Gender and Self-Concept of Students with Disabilities

Research Hypothesis three deals with teachers' classroom practices by gender and the self-concept of pupils with disabilities. Table 5 displays information on Independent t-test for teachers' classroom practices by gender and self-concept of pupils with disabilities

Table 5: Independent t-Test for Teachers' Classroom Practices by Gender and Self-Concept of Pupils with Disabilities

Group	Mean	Std. dev.	T	p-value
Male	1.17	10.49	.31	.76**
Female	1.15	16.81		

****Not Significant, Number=68, degrees of freedom=66 .56,**

An Alpha level of .05 was used for the statistical test.

An independent sample t-test was used to test the difference between teachers' classroom practices by gender and the self-concept of children with disabilities. It can be seen from Table 5 that there was no statistical significant difference between scores for teachers' classroom practices for males (M=1.17, SD=10.49) and females (M=1.15, SD=16.81), t (68) =.31, p =.76 (two tailed), d=66 .56). This denote that teachers gender do not influence the

self-concept of their children with disabilities. Consequently, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Research Hypothesis Four
The Relationship between Gender of Students with Disabilities and their Self-Concept

This subsection of the results and discussion talks about gender of the pupils and their self-concept development. Table 6 shows information on a chi-square test of gender of children with disabilities and their self-concept.

Table 6: A Chi-Square Test of Gender of Children with Disabilities and their Self-Concept

	χ^2	d	P-Value
The relationship between gender of children with disabilities and their self-concept	5.69	1	.008*

***Significant, N= 68,** An Alpha level of .05 was used for the statistical test.

It can be seen from Table 6 that for the relationship between gender of pupils and their self-concept, a statistically significant relationship was obtained [χ^2 (1, N=68) =5.69, p= .008]. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. This means that there is a statistically significant relationship between gender of pupils and their self-concept. Table 7 gives information on gender of pupils and their self-concept development

Table 7: Gender of Pupils and their Self-concept Development

Gender	High self-concept		Low self-concept		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Males	28	65.1	15	34.8	43	100
Females	8	32.0	17	68.0	25	100

N=number

From Table 7, it can be seen that 43 (65.1%) of the males had high self-concept. It can also be seen that only 8 (32.0%) of the females had higher self-concept. It came out that 15(34.8%) of the males had low self-concept. On the part of the females, 17 (68.0%) out of the total number of respondents had low self-concept. It can therefore be deduced from the above analysis that more males have higher self-concept than females.

The current finding does not mirror the finding of Mishra, and Singh (2012) and Aihie (2009). Mishra and Singh (2012) did a comparative study of self-concept and self-confidence of sighted and visually impaired children. They found that there exists no significant difference between the self-concept of males and females. Aihie (2009) found no significant effect of sex on the self-concept of adolescents. Further analysis of Aihies' study also revealed no interactive effect of treatment and sex on the self concept of the adolescents.

On the other hand, there are some findings of the previous studies that partially mirror the current finding. Enam (2006) reported that multidimensional self-concept of young children was found to be conditioned by gender. However Enam found significantly higher self-concept for girls than boys.

Pierson and Glaeser (2002) compared adolescents by gender on self-concept. Findings were not significant when male and female adolescents were divided by class placement and rank within placement. However, one significant effect was found when analyzed without the division of class placement or rank within placement. Males scored significantly lower on social self-concept. The results suggest that there are differences between adolescent males and females on social self-concept.

On the other hand Rehman (2001) also found that male and female students exhibit different self-concept scores, and this is in line with the current finding. Rehmans' study further indicated that male students of his population have higher self-concept than female counterparts.

The finding of the study suggests that teacher's exhibit gender discrimination against females in the classroom. By implication, if teachers' classroom practices are positively related to the self-concept of students, then equal opportunities for both genders should yield results which are not different. The differences in the findings could also be attributed to the cultural settings. Because the school is part of the larger group, what goes on in the society at large is likely to be replicated in the classroom or school situation.

Tsikata and Seini (2004) posit that gender inequalities exist in Ghana. Baden, Green, Otoo-Oyortey and Peasgood (1994) wrote that the ethnic, cultural and agro-ecological diversity in Ghana make generalisation about gender relations and their consequences for women's access to resources, decision making and status extremely difficult. Baden et al. further added that violence against women is widespread at institutional, community and domestic levels, which takes a variety of forms. This discrimination in the Ghanaian society can lead to lowered self-concept development for women in general, and the classroom can mirror this condition.

Taking the classroom condition as a whole, various researchers and writers (e.g. Frawley, 2005) have it that females are being discriminated against. Dickman (1993) maintained that the quality of teachers' contacts varies between the genders. Boys receive more praise, criticism and

remediation. According to Fennema and Peterson (as cited in Dickman, 1993), from preschool onwards, the activities chosen for classes appeal to boys' interests and the presentation formats selected are those with which boys excel or they are encouraged more than are girls. The Graduate School of Arts and Sciences Teaching Center of Colombia University (n.d) also maintained that a large body of research shows that teachers:

1. Call on male students more frequently than female students.
2. Are more likely to use male students' names when calling upon students, and they attribute ideas advanced in discussion to males.
3. Ask male students more abstract questions but female students more factual questions.
4. Are less likely to elaborate upon points made by female students.

Hall and Sandler (as cited in Dickman, 1993) also reported that teachers ask female students easy questions; asking male students more difficult questions that require higher-order thinking. Teachers look at male students to answer questions before females (or males) even can raise their hands. In addition they added that teachers refer only to male contributions.

In terms of discipline, according to Saskatchewan Education (1991), males are disciplined more frequently and more harshly by teachers than females even when both genders misbehave in identical ways. Some teachers have different expectations concerning behaviour of females than they do for males. Females receive more encouragement to be quiet and passive than males.

It can be deduced from the above that teachers' classroom practices in Ghana might not be different from the conditions reported. Baden et al. (1994)

put forward that there exist gender biases in the curriculum. In an attempt to explain why literacy rates are much lower for women than men in Ghana, Baden et al. stated that there is the possibility that teachers give girls less attention in the classroom. This is, even, evident in the student's leadership positions at the pre-tertiary level (excluding the single sex schools) where the boys are referred to as the "School Prefects" and the girls being only the "Girls prefect".

From what has been discussed so far, it can be concluded that the differences in the self-concept of males and females suggest gender inequality in teachers' classroom practices. Therefore, it is imperative that curriculum planners consider this issue. Teachers must also be aware of the tendency to discriminate against females or girls in the classroom, and they ensure gender equality in the classroom. This also calls for gender advocacy groups to organize training workshops for teachers on how to ensure gender equality in the classroom, and this should also go for the community as a whole.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter focuses on the findings of the study. It also suggests recommendations to draw attention to the influence of teachers' classroom practices on the self-concept of children with disabilities.

Summary

Overview of the Study

The main purpose of the study was to investigate the influence of teachers' classroom practices on the self-concept of primary school pupils. The study also sought to investigate the extent to which teachers' consider children with disabilities in their classroom practices.

Expost facto or causal comparative research design was employed for the study. Questionnaire and an observational guide (checklist) were used to gather data on teachers' classroom practices. A structured interview guide (scale) was used to measure the self-concept of pupils. A total of 68 pupils and 30 teachers were used for the study. The study was carried out in the Tano North District of Ghana.

Key Findings

1. It was found that teachers differ in the extent to which they consider children with disabilities in their social, instructional, physical, organisational and management practices in their classroom. Socially, teachers' classroom practices were found to favour children with disabilities. Instructionally, it came out that teachers' classroom

practices were not geared toward meeting the needs of children with disabilities. Teachers' classroom practices from the physical angle were found to be favourable to children with disabilities. On classroom management and organisation teachers' practices were found to be less favourable to children with disabilities.

2. Teachers' classroom practices had a statistically significant positive relationship with self-concept development of children with disabilities. This means that the better or more favourable the classroom environment which is created by teachers' classroom practices, the more positive or high the self-concept development of children with disabilities or vice versa.
3. It came out that types of disabilities have no influence on self-concept development of children with disabilities as no statistically significant relationship was found. This means that the presence of a particular type of disability, for example, hearing impaired and physical disabilities, will not have an effect on the development of self-concept.
4. No statistically significant difference was found between teachers' classroom practices by gender and the self-concept development of children with disabilities. In other words, the self-concept of children with disabilities is not influenced by the gender of the child's teacher.
5. Gender of children with disabilities was found to bear a statistically significant relationship with their self-concept development. That is being a male or female is related to the self-concept development of children with disabilities. Also, the self-concept of males was found to be higher than that of females.

Conclusions

Considering the findings of the study, a number of conclusions can be drawn. Firstly, it can be concluded that teachers do not specifically or intentionally consider children with disabilities in their classroom practices. This weakness could be attributed to inadequate knowledge or less awareness of the existence of children with disabilities in the regular schools, and how to manage them.

Secondly, it can be concluded that the way teachers handle children with disabilities in their classroom practices have repercussion on the self-concept development of such children. Again, female students with disabilities seem to go through classroom experiences which are detrimental to the development of self-concept than their male counterparts.

Recommendations

Recommendations for Policy and Practice

Inferring from the findings of the study, the following recommendations are presented:

1. The Ghana Education Service (GES) should frequently organise in-service training for regular classroom teachers on how to identify and manage children with disabilities in the classroom. This will go a long way to influence teachers' classroom practices thereby having a positive influence on the self-concept development of children with disabilities in the primary schools.
2. Classroom teachers should be more sensitive towards meeting the needs of children with disabilities in their classroom

3. The Ghana Education service (GES), nongovernmental organisations philanthropies, etc. should organise workshops on how to maintain gender fairness especially, in the classroom, for teachers and the society as a whole. This will help eliminate gender biases in the classroom thereby promoting gender equality in all areas including self-concept development.
4. Institutions responsible for training teachers such as University of Cape Coast, University of Education Winneba and the Colleges of Education in Ghana should strengthen the study of Special Education in their teacher training programmes. That is, where necessary more attention should be given to this course (Special Education) since a special education teacher is a teacher for all.

Suggestion for Further Research

The following areas are recommended for further studies:

1. The influence of teacher classroom practices on the development of self-concept of children with disabilities should be studied at the Junior and Senior High Schools levels as well as in the tertiary institutions in Ghana.
2. Teachers classroom practices and the self-esteem of children with disabilities in the basic schools at all levels in the educational system in Ghana.
3. Assessment of the influence of Special Education courses which are offered in the various institutions responsible for training teachers in Ghana, on teachers' classroom practices.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Introductory Letter

APPENDIX B

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS

Questionnaire on the Teacher Classroom Practices In Primary Schools

This questionnaire is being used to solicit information on classroom practices of teachers in primary schools. I therefore seek your maximum co-operation and assure you that any information provided will be treated as confidential. Please respond by ticking [√] or providing appropriate responses and your comments where necessary. Thank you for your co-operation.

Name of school ……..

SECTION A
Background Characteristics

1. Gender Male[ ] Female [ ]
2. Highest educational qualification
   Master's Degree [ ] Bachelor's Degree [ ]
   Diploma [ ] Other(s), Please Specify……
   ……
3. For how many years have you been teaching?
   1- 5 years [ ] 6 – 10 years [ ]
   11 – 15 years [ ] 16 years and above [ ]

SECTION B: CLASSROOM PRACTICES OF TEACHERS

Indicate your level of agreement based on the following scales: Agree **(A)**; Strongly Agree (**SA**); Uncertain (**U**); Disagree (**D**); Strongly Disagree (**SD**).

	Table 1: Social Environment	**SA**	**A**	**U**	**D**	**SD**
1	My students find it easy to come to me for help when they need it.					
2	I make students understand or know how I feel about them.					
3	I try to help students when they are sad or upset.					
4	I teach or tell students to respect each others' opinions.					
5	I allow students to give names and tease others in class.					
6	I make sure that students do not say anything negative about others in class.					
7	I encourage competition in the classroom.					

8	I encourage students to get to know all the other students in class. For e.g. regrouping students for different take home assignments.					
9	I mostly call all students by their names.					
	Table 2: Instructional and Curriculum Practices	**SA**	**A**	**U**	**D**	**SD**
1	I do not adapt or modify the curriculum/syllabus content to suit a particular child or a group.					
2	I consider the characteristics, abilities, strengths and weaknesses of each individual student in class when teaching.					
3	I deliver lessons in an orderly and systematic manner.					
4	I provide smooth transition from one topic to the other/ link new lessons with previous knowledge.					
5	I use vivid images and concrete examples to illustrate a point					
6	I ensure necessary repetition of misunderstood concepts during instruction.					
7	I ensure necessary reinforcements of students' ideas during instruction.					
8	I make assignments, exercises or assessments less complex for students whose learning needs demands it.					
9	I frequently use teaching strategies such as peer tutoring and cooperative learning.					
10	I make sure I get students' attention before giving instruction(s).					
11	I give students the chance to express their views in class.					
12	I use the same lesson plans and activities year after year so I do not have to prepare in advance for my classes.					
13	I vary my teaching methods frequently to suit the situation of the class or students.					

	Table 3: Physical Environment	SA	A	U	D	SD
1	I prearranged classroom in such a way that students can walk through and get materials easily without disturbing others.					
2	Students are seated in such a way that students can easily be seen by the teacher.					
3	I ensure good lightening system and ventilation in the classroom.					
4	I consider the characteristics of students in arranging seating arrangement in the classroom.					
5	I consider students preferences in arranging seating arrangement in the classroom.					
6	I always ensure the classroom is attractive. For e.g. display of brightly coloured bulletin board, charts, graphs, etc.					
7	Generally, the physical environment of the classroom is nice and not cumbersome.					
8	Depending upon the class activity, my classroom may have many different arrangements.					
9	I ensure students desk and chairs are properly maintain and/or modified to suit the need of that student.					

	Table 4: Classroom Organization And Management	SA	A	U	D	SD
1	My classroom rules are well established/ well-known and clear to students.					
2	I consider the possible detrimental effects (e.g. on discipline in the classroom) of paring specific students or groups of students.					
3	I maintain routines and tell students what materials to bring to school.					
4	I make students aware of their progress or lack of progress with their academic performance.					
5	I make relationship between rules and consequences clear to students.					
6	I carefully consider the circumstances that sur-round misbehaviour and disciplines appropriately.					
7	I do not like to be interrupted when teaching is going on.					
8	I use the "soft reprimand" rather than raise my voice when a student errs.					
9	I use proximity to improve classroom control.					
10	I set explicit time limits for completion of tasks without giving attention to any student.					
11	It is important that my students see me as their friend.					

APPENDIX C

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS

An Observation Guide (Checklist) For Assessing the Teachers' Classroom Practices in Primary Schools

Section A: Background Characteristics

1. Name of school ……..
2. Date ……
3. Gender Male[ ] Female [ ]

Section B: Classroom Practices

The following statements look at classroom practices of teachers. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements by ticking [√] in the appropriate box. Indicate your level of agreement based on the following scales: Excellent, Good, Average, Below Average, Weak.

	Table 1: The Social Environment	**Excellent**	**Good**	**Average**	**Below average**	**Weak**
1	Teacher does not consider students opinion when making decisions in the classroom.					
2	Teacher tries to help students when they are sad or upset.					
3	Teacher encourages students to respect one another's opinion.					
4	Teacher ensures that students don't say anything negative about each other in class.					
5	Teacher encourages competition in the classroom.					
6	Teacher encourages students to get to know all the other students in class. For e.g. regrouping students for different take home assignments					
7	Teacher makes it obvious to the whole class when certain students are weak.					
8	Mostly, teacher calls all students by their names.					

	Table 2: Instructional and Curriculum					
1*	Teacher does not adapt or modify the curriculum/syllabus content to suit a particular child or a group.					
2	Teacher delivers lessons in an orderly and systematic manner.					
3	Teacher provides smooth transition from one topic to the other/ link new lessons with previous knowledge.					
4	Teacher uses vivid images and concrete examples to illustrate a point.					
5	Teacher ensures necessary repetition of misunderstood concepts during instruction.					
6	Teacher ensures necessary reinforcements of students' ideas during instruction.					
7	Teacher makes assignments, exercises or assessments less complex to students whose learning needs demands it.					
8	Teacher frequently uses teaching strategies such as peer tutoring and cooperative learning.					
9	Teacher gets students' attention before giving instruction(s).					
10	Teacher gives students the chance to express their views in class					
11*	Teacher demonstrates inadequate advance preparation before coming Class.					
12	Teacher varies his teaching methods to suit the situation of the class or students.					
	Table 3: Physical Environment					
1	The classroom is arranged in such a way that students can be easily seen by the teacher.					
2	Teacher ensures good lightening system in the classroom.					
3	Teacher always checks to make sure the Classroom is neat and tidy.					
4	Teacher always makes sure the classroom is attractive. For e.g. brightly coloured bulletin board displays, display of charts, etc.					
5	The General classroom arrangement is pleasant and not cumbersome.					

	Table 4: Classroom Organizational And Management	Excellent	Good	Average	Below average	Weak
1	Classroom rules are well established or well-known and clear to students.					
2	Teacher makes students aware of their progress or lack of progress.					
3	Teacher considers the potentially harmful effects of public praise that may lead to unintentional competition or ridicule.					
4	Teacher prefers students to learn to follow directions and not ask questions.					
5	Teacher makes relationship between rules and consequences clear to students.					
6	Teacher carefully considers the circumstances that surround misbehaviour and he disciplines appropriately.					
7*	Teacher does not like to be interrupted when teaching is going on.					
8	Teacher uses “soft reprimand" rather than raising his or her voice when a student errs.					
9	Teacher uses proximity to improve classroom control.					
10*	Teacher sets explicit time limits for completion of task without giving attention to any student.					

Note: SA=strongly Agree, AG=Agree, UN=Uncertain, DA=Disagree, SD=Strongly Disagree, AA=Above Average, AV= Average, BA=Below Average, MN= Mean, SN= Standard Deviation

*Scale (Mean): 1 – 1.9 = SD and BA; 2.0 – 2.9 = DA and AV; 3.0 – 3.9 = UN and AG; 4.0 – 5.0 = SA

APPENDIX D

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS

Structured Self-Concept Interview Guide for Primary School Pupils

Name of school ……..

Section 1: Personal Details

1. Gender Male [ ] Female [ ]
2. Date of Birth (DD/MM/YY) …… / ……. / ……
3. Type of disability condition.
   Physical and health [ ] Visual impairment [ ] Hearing impairment [ ] Speech and language disorder [ ]

Section 2: self-concept questionnaire

Instructions to Children

This is a chance to help me find out how you feel. It is not a test. There is no right or wrong answers and everyone will have different answers. I will ask you to tell me how you feel. Be sure your answers show how you feel about yourself. I will not show your answers to anyone. If you do not understand a sentence or a word in a sentence say so. Before we start, let's try a few examples. I will also tell you how a friend called Kofi answered each of these examples.

EXAMPLES:

1. General, I am neat and tidy. (Kofi answered agree because he is at most times very neat and tidy but not always).
2. I like to draw. (Kofi answered disagree as most times he does not like to draw but not always)

Scale: Yes Always (**YA**), Yes Sometimes (**YS**), Not Sure (**UN**), No Sometimes (**NT**), No Always (**NA**)

	Table 1: Academic Self-Concept	**YA**	**YS**	**UN**	**NT**	**NA**
1	I am good at solving mathematical problems.					
2	I am good at speaking English.					
3	I am good academically (school work)					
4	I don't like studying.					
5	I believe I can always pass my examinations.					
6	I like most of the subjects I do in school.					
7	I easily give out answers to posed questions in class.					
8	My teacher understands me.					

	Table 2: Non Academic Self-Concept					
1	People can rely on me.					
2	My parents like me.					
3	I am good at leading my classmates on various assignments.					
4	I am happy most of the time.					
5	My parents and I have a lot of fun together.					
6	My parents never had much respect for me.					
7	My parents treat me well.					
8	I am popular with my peers.					
	Table 3: General self-concept					
1	I am good looking (nice looking).					
2	Generally, I am not good at solving problems on my own.					
3	I am good at bringing together ideas in ways that others have not tried.					
4	General, most people like me.					
5	I can do a lot of things.					
6	I am mostly noted for doing something good in school.					
7	I can do things well as most people do.					
8	Generally, I can do something very important.					
9	Mostly, I believe everything shall go on well with me.					
10	Generally, people think I am a good person.					
11*	I prefer other people's ideas to mine.					
12	I am good at expressing myself.					

APPENDIX E
Names of Circuits and the School Used in the Tano North District

Circuit Name	Name of Schools Selected
Duayaw-nkwanta	Duayaw-nkwanta R/C 'A'
	Duayaw-nkwanta R/C 'B'
	Duayaw-nkwanta Ibrahimia
	Duayaw-nkwanta Methodist
	Duayaw-Nkwanta Presby 'B'
	Susuanho R/C
	Koforidua D/A
	Prince of Peace Academy
Total	**8**
Bomaa circuit	Bomaa SDA
	Bomaa Methodist
	Bomaa Presby
	Kwasuogya D/A
	Nkwantabisa D/A
	Tanokrom D/A
Total	**6**
Tanoso	Tanoso SDA
	Tanoso Methodist
	Susuanso R/C
	Ponwaakrom D/A
Total	**4**
Terchire	Adrobaa Methodist
	Christ the King Academy
	Terchire D/A
	Terchire SDA
	Terchire R/C
Total	**5**
Yamfo	Ahyiayeso D/A
	Nana Oppong Memorial School
	Rubi-Beposo Anglican
	Tano Ano D/A
	Yamfo Anglican
	Yamfo Islamic
	Yamfo Methodist
Total	**7**
Grand Total	**30**