

## Assignment No. 2

### Q. 1 Describe emotional characteristics of elementary level students.

The chart below provides a closer look at how preschoolers develop social-emotional skills at different ages. Remember that individual differences exist when it comes to the precise age at which children meet these milestones. Milestones should not be seen as rigid checklists to judge children's development, but rather as guides for when to expect certain skills or behaviors to emerge in young children so you are prepared to meet their changing needs. Think of these milestones as guidelines to help you understand and identify typical patterns of growth and development in children. You can use these milestones to meet the needs of the young children in your classroom. Although the skills highlighted in the chart develop in a predictable sequence over the preschool years, each child is unique. Your goal is to help all children grow and learn to their potential.

Age 3	Age 4	Age 5
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Copies adults and friends</li><li>• Shows affection for friends without prompting</li><li>• Takes turns in games</li><li>• Shows concern for a crying friend</li><li>• Dresses and undresses self</li><li>• Understands the idea of "mine" and "his" or "hers"</li><li>• Shows a wide range of emotions</li><li>• Separates easily from family members</li><li>• May get upset with major changes in routine</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Enjoys doing new things</li><li>• Is more and more creative with make-believe play</li><li>• Would rather play with other children than alone</li><li>• Cooperates with other children</li><li>• Plays "Mom" or "Dad"</li><li>• Often can't tell what's real and what's make-believe</li><li>• Talks about what he or she likes and is interested in</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Wants to please friends</li><li>• Wants to be like friends</li><li>• More likely to agree with rules</li><li>• Likes to sing, dance, and act</li><li>• Is aware of gender</li><li>• Can tell what's real and what's make-believe</li><li>• Shows more independence</li><li>• Is sometimes demanding and sometimes cooperative</li></ul>

### Preschoolers and Social-Emotional Development

As you study the chart, you may notice that the milestones are associated with different aspects of social-emotional development: Some are associated with children's ability to engage in relationships with others, whereas others are associated with positive self-awareness. Some milestones relate to children's ability to regulate or control emotions and others correspond with children's ability to perform various tasks independently. Let's take a closer look at these aspects of social-emotional development:

#### Relationships with others:

Preschool-age and Elementary age children engage in pretend play with friends and use words and sentences to express their feelings and thoughts. Even though they may still need adult support to share toys and materials with friends, they improve on their own as time passes. Preschoolers also improve in their ability to understand and appropriately respond to their friends' feelings. Children with healthy social-emotional development have a balance of all of these components.

**Self-awareness:**

Preschool-age and Elementary age children improve their ability to control their bodies during different activities throughout the day (e.g., sitting at circle time or playing in the gym), take turns and have conversations with peers, acknowledge and use their own names and the names of others, and self-evaluate and know when they made appropriate or inappropriate choices.

**Emotional regulation:**

Preschool-age and Elementary age children display a variety of emotions in different ways. For example, they may say, "I'm upset," they may match facial expressions to happy, mad or sad, or they may laugh when excited. At the same time, they also improve their ability to manage their emotions to match the situation and environment and to control their emotions (e.g., separate easily from family members). Although preschoolers are better than toddlers at regulating emotions, they still need a great deal of help and practice with developing these appropriate behaviors.

**Independence:**

Preschoolers with healthy independence will follow predictable daily routines and activities at school and at home, start identifying a favorite friend and ask that friend to play, independently play with toys and materials at home, school, or an outdoor playground, and complete many self-care tasks, such as getting dressed, going to the bathroom, eating snacks, feeding themselves, or getting ready for bed. Independent preschoolers will also tell caregivers about their day and learn and use new vocabulary daily.

**Q. 2 suggest some activities which may promote moral development at elementary school level.**

Moral development focuses on the emergence, change, and understanding of morality from infancy through adulthood. Morality develops across a lifetime and is influenced by an individual's experiences and their behavior when faced with moral issues through different periods' physical and cognitive development. In short, morality concerns an individual's growing sense of what is right and wrong; it is for this reason that young children have different moral judgments and character than that of a grown adult. Morality in itself is often a synonym for "rightness" or "goodness". It refers to a certain code of conduct that is derived from one's culture, religion or personal philosophy that guides one's actions, behaviors and thoughts. This term is related to psychology. There are other types of development such as social development, physical development and cognitive development.

Notions of morality development have been developed over centuries, the earliest came from philosophers like Confucius, Aristotle, and Rousseau, who all took a more humanist perspective and focused on the development of the conscience and sense of virtue. In the modern day, empirical research has explored morality through a moral psychology lens by theorists like Sigmund Freud and its relation to cognitive development by theorists like Jean Piaget, Lawrence Kohlberg, B. F. Skinner, Carol Gilligan and Judith Smetana.

The interest in morality spans many disciplines (e.g., philosophy, economics, biology, and political science) and specializations within psychology (e.g., social, cognitive, and cultural). In order to investigate how individuals

understand morality, it is essential to consider their beliefs, emotions, attitudes, and behaviors that contribute to their moral understanding. Additionally, researchers in the field of moral development consider the role of peers and parents in facilitating moral development, the role of conscience and values, socialization and cultural influences, empathy and altruism, and positive development, in order to understand what factors impact morality of an individual more completely.

Research on socioemotional development and prosocial development has identified several "moral emotions" which are believed to motivate moral behavior and influence moral development. These moral emotions are said to be linked to moral development because they are evidence and reflective of an individual's set of moral values, which must have undergone through the process of internalization in the first place. The manifestation of these moral emotions can occur at two separate timings: either before or after the execution of a moral or immoral act. A moral emotion that precedes an action is referred to as an anticipatory emotion, and a moral emotion that follows an action is referred to as a consequential emotion. The primary emotions consistently linked with moral development are guilt, shame, empathy, and sympathy. Guilt has been defined as "an agitation-based emotion or painful feeling of regret that is aroused when the actor actually causes, anticipates causing, or is associated with an aversive event. Shame is often used synonymously with guilt, but implies a more passive and dejected response to a perceived wrong. Guilt and shame are considered "self-conscious" emotions, because they are of primary importance to an individual's self-evaluation. Moreover, there exists a bigger difference between guilt and shame that goes beyond the type of feelings that they may provoke within an individual. This difference lies in the fact that these two moral emotions do not weigh the same in terms of their impact on moral behaviors. Studies on the effects of guilt and shame on moral behaviors has shown that guilt has a larger ability to dissuade an individual from making immoral choices whereas shame did not seem to have any deterring effect on immoral behaviors. However, different types of behaviors in different types of population, under different circumstances might not generate the same outcomes. In contrast to guilt and shame, empathy and sympathy are considered other-oriented moral emotions. Empathy is commonly defined as an affective response produced by the apprehension or comprehension of another's emotional state which mirrors the other's affective state. Similarly, sympathy is defined as an emotional response produced by the apprehension or comprehension of another's emotional state which does not mirror the other's affect, but instead causes one to express concern or sorrow for the other. The relation between moral action and moral emotions has been extensively researched. Very young children have been found to express feelings of care, and empathy towards others, showing concerns for other's wellbeing. Research has consistently demonstrated that when empathy is induced in an individual, he or she is more likely to engage in subsequent prosocial behavior. While emotions serve as information for children in their interpretations about moral consequences of acts, the role of emotions in children's moral judgments has only recently been investigated. Research from the social domain theory perspective focuses on how children actively distinguish moral from conventional behavior based in part on the responses of parents, teachers, and peers. Social domain suggests that there are different areas of

reasoning co-existing in development those include societal (concerns about conventions and grouping), moral (fairness, justice and rights) and psychological (concerns with personal goals and identity). Adults tend to respond to children's moral transgressions (e.g. hitting or stealing) by drawing the child's attention to the effect of his or her action on others, and doing so consistently across various contexts. In contrast, adults are more likely to respond to children's conventional misdeeds (e.g. wearing a hat in the classroom, eating spaghetti with fingers) by reminding children about specific rules and doing so only in certain contexts (e.g. at school but not at home).<sup>[37][38]</sup> Peers respond mainly to moral but not conventional transgressions and demonstrate emotional distress (e.g. crying or yelling) when they are the victim of moral but unconventional transgressions.<sup>[37]</sup>

Research from a socialization/internalization perspective focuses on the ways in which adults pass down standards or rules of behavior to children through parenting techniques and why children do or do not internalize those values. From this perspective, moral development involves children's increasing compliance with and internalization of adult rules, requests, and standards of behavior. Using these definitions, researchers find that parenting behaviors vary in the extent to which they encourage children's internalization of values, and that these effects depend partially on a child attributes, such as age and temperament. For instance, it showed that gentle parental discipline best promotes conscience development in temperamentally fearful children but that parental responsiveness and a mutually responsive parent-child orientation best promote conscience development in temperamentally fearless children. These parental influences exert their effects through multiple pathways, including increasing children's experience of moral emotions (e.g. guilt, empathy) and their self-identification as moral individuals. Development can be divided up to multiple stages however the first few years of development is usually seen to be formed by 5 years of age. According to Freud's research, relationships between a child and parents early on usually provides the basis for personality development as well as the formation of morality. Researchers interested in intergroup attitudes and behavior related to one's moral development have approached the study of stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination in children and adolescents from several theoretical perspectives. The plethora of research approaches is not surprising given the multitude of variables, (e.g. group identity, group status, group threat, group norms, intergroup contact, individual beliefs and context) that need to be considered when assessing children's intergroup attitudes. While most of this research has investigated two-dimensional relationships between each of the three components: stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination (e.g., role of stereotypes in intergroup prejudice, use of stereotypes to reason about intergroup discrimination, how prejudices manifest into discrimination), very few have addressed all three aspects of intergroup attitudes and behaviors together.

In developmental intergroup research, stereotypes are defined as judgments made about an individual's attributes based on group membership. These judgments are more complex than regular judgments as they require one to recognize and understand (e.g. gender, race, religion, culture, nationality, ethnicity) which group one individual belongs to as they might be treated differently deliberately because of the group they are associated with. Social psychologists focus on stereotypes as a cognitive component influencing intergroup

behaviors and tend to define them as being fixed concepts associated with a category. Prejudice, on the other hand is defined in terms of negative attitudes or affective expressions toward a whole group or members of a group. Negative stereotypes and prejudices can manifest into discrimination towards an out group and for children and adolescents, this may come in the form of exclusion from peer groups as well as the wider community. Such actions can negatively impact a child in the long term in the sense of weakening ones confidence, self-esteem as well personal identity. One explicit manner in which societies can socialize individuals is through moral education. It present evidence from a study that integrated both direct instruction and guided reflection approaches to moral development, with evidence for resultant increases in spontaneous prosocially behavior.

Culture can also be a key contributor toward differences in morality within society. Prosocially behavior, which is behavior that benefits others, is much more likely in societies with strong social goals rather than societies which emphasize the individual. For example, children being raised in China eventually adopt the collective communist ideals of their society. In fact, children learn to lie and deny responsibility for accomplishing something good instead of seeking recognition for their actions.<sup>[56]</sup> Early indications of prosocially behavior include the sharing of toys and comforting distressed friends, and these characteristics can be seen in an individual's behavior as young as infancy and toddlerhood. Starting in preschool, sharing, helping, and other prosocial behaviors become more common, particularly in females, although the gender differences in prosocial behavior are not evident in all social contexts.

**Q. 3 what is language development? Explain the transitions and signs of language development.**

Language development is the process by which children come to understand and communicate language during early childhood. From birth up to the age of five, children develop language at a very rapid pace. The stages of language development are universal among humans. However, the age and the pace at which a child reaches each milestone of language development vary greatly among children. Thus, language development in an individual child must be compared with norms rather than with other individual children. In general girls develop language at a faster rate than boys. More than any other aspect of development, language development reflects the growth and maturation of the brain. After the age of five it becomes much more difficult for most children to learn language.

Receptive language development (the ability to comprehend language) usually develops faster than expressive language (the ability to communicate). Two different styles of language development are recognized. In referential language development, children first speak single words and then join words together, first into two-word sentences and then into three-word sentences. In expressive language development, children first speak in long unintelligible babbles that mimic the cadence and rhythm of adult speech. Most children use a combination these styles.

Between birth and three months of age, most infants acquire the following abilities:

- seem to recognize their mother's voice

- quiet down or smile when spoken to
- turn toward familiar voices and sounds
- make sounds indicating pleasure
- cry differently to express different needs
- grunt, chuckle, whimper, and gurgle
- begin to coo (repeating the same sounds frequently) in response to voices
- make vowel-like sounds such as "ooh" and "ah"

Between three and six months, most infants can do the following:

- turn their head toward a speaker
- watch a speaker's mouth movements
- respond to changes in a tone of voice
- make louder sounds including screeches
- vocalize excitement, pleasure, and displeasure
- cry differently out of pain or hunger
- laugh, squeal, and sigh
- sputter loudly and blow bubbles
- shape their mouths to change sounds
- vocalize different sounds for different needs
- communicate desires with gestures
- babble for attention
- mimic sounds, inflections, and gestures
- make many new sounds, including "p," "b," and "m," that may sound almost speech-like

The sounds and babblings of this stage of language development are identical in babies throughout the world, even among those who are profoundly deaf. Thus all babies are born with the capacity to learn any language.

Social interaction determines which language they eventually learn.

Six to 12 months is a crucial age for receptive language development. Between six and nine months babies begin to do the following:

- search for sources of sound
- listen intently to speech and other sounds
- take an active interest in conversation even if it is not directed at them
- recognize "dada," "mama," "bye-bye"
- consistently respond to their names
- respond appropriately to friendly and angry tones
- express their moods by sound and body language
- play with sounds

- make long, more varied sounds
- babble random combinations of consonants and vowels
- babble in singsong with as many as 12 different sounds
- experiment with pitch, intonation, and volume
- use their tongues to change sounds
- repeat syllables
- imitate intonation and speech sounds

Between nine and 12 months babies may begin to do the following:

- listen when spoken to
- recognize words for common objects and names of family members
- respond to simple requests
- understand "no"
- understand gestures
- associate voices and names with people
- know their own names
- babble both short and long groups of sounds and two-to-three-syllable repeated sounds (The babble begins to have characteristic sounds of their native language.)
- use sounds other than crying to get attention
- use "mama" and "dada" for any person
- shout and scream
- repeat sounds
- use most consonant and vowel sounds
- practice inflections
- engage in much vocal play

### Toddlerhood

During the second year of life language development proceeds at very different rates in different children. By the age of 12 months, most children use "mama/dada" appropriately. They add new words each month and temporarily lose words. Between 12 and 15 months children begin to do the following:

- recognize names
- understand and follow one-step directions
- laugh appropriately
- use four to six intelligible words, usually those starting with "b," "c," "d," and "g," although less than 20 percent of their language is comprehensible to outsiders
- use partial words
- gesture and speak "no"

- ask for help with gestures and sounds

At 15 to 18 months of age children usually do the following:

- understand "up," "down," "hot," "off"
- use 10 to 20 intelligible words, mostly nouns
- use complete words
- put two short words together to form sentences
- chatter and imitate, use some echolalia (repetitions of words and phrases)
- have 20 to 25 percent of their speech understood by outsiders

At 18 to 24 months of age toddlers come to understand that there are words for everything and their language development gains momentum. About 50 of a child's first words are universal: names of foods, animals, family members, toys, vehicles, and clothing. Usually children first learn general nouns, such as "flower" instead of "dandelion," and they may overgeneralize words, such as calling all toys "balls." Some children learn words for social situations, greetings, and expressions of love more readily than others. At this age children usually have 20 to 50 intelligible words and can do the following:

- follow two-step directions
- point to parts of the body
- attempt multi-syllable words
- speak three-word sentences
- ask two-word questions
- enjoy challenge words such as "helicopter"
- hum and sing
- express pain verbally
- have 50 to 70 percent of their speech understood by outsiders

After several months of slower development, children often have a "word spurt" (an explosion of new words). Between the ages of two and 18 years, it is estimated that children add nine new words per day. Between two and three years of age children acquire:

- a 400-word vocabulary including names
- a word for most everything
- the use of pronouns
- three to five-word sentences
- the ability to describe what they just saw or experienced
- the use of the past tense and plurals
- names for body parts, colors, toys, people, and objects
- the ability to repeat rhymes, songs, and stories
- the ability to answer "what" questions



Children constantly produce sentences that they have not heard before, creating rather than imitating. This creativity is based on the general principles and rules of language that they have mastered. By the time a child is three years of age, most of a child's speech can be understood. However, like adults, children vary greatly in how much they choose to talk.

#### Preschool

Three to four-year-olds usually can do the following:

- understand most of what they hear
- converse
- have 900 to 1,000-word vocabularies, with verbs starting to predominate
- usually talk without repeating syllables or words
- use pronouns correctly
- use three to six-word sentences
- ask questions
- relate experiences and activities
- tell stories (Occasional stuttering and stammering is normal in preschoolers.)

Language skills usually blossom between four and five years of age. Children of this age can do the following:

- verbalize extensively
- communicate easily with other children and adults
- articulate most English sounds correctly
- know 1,500 to 2,500 words
- use detailed six to eight-word sentences
- can repeat four-syllable words
- use at least four prepositions
- tell stories that stay on topic
- can answer questions about stories

#### School age

At age five most children can do the following:

- follow three consecutive commands
- talk constantly
- ask innumerable questions
- use descriptive words and compound and complex sentences
- know all the vowels and consonants
- use generally correct grammar

Six-year-olds usually can correct their own grammar and mispronunciations. Most children double their vocabularies between six and eight years of age and begin reading at about age seven. A major leap in reading comprehension occurs at about nine. Ten-year-olds begin to understand figurative word meanings. Adolescents generally speak in an adult manner, gaining language maturity throughout high school.

### **Common problems**

Language delay is the most common developmental delay in children. There are many causes for language delay, both environmental and physical. About 60 percent of language delays in children under age three resolve spontaneously. Early intervention often helps other children to catch up to their age group.

Common circumstances that can result in language delay include:

- concentration on developing skills other than language
- siblings who are very close in age or older siblings who interpret for the younger child
- inadequate language stimulation and one-on-one attention
- bilingualism, in which a child's combined comprehension of two languages usually is equivalent to other children's comprehension of one language
- psychosocial deprivation

Language delay can result from a variety of physical disorders, including the following:

- mental retardation
- maturation delay (the slower-than-usual development of the speech centers of the brain), a common cause of late talking
- a hearing impairment
- a learning disability
- cerebral palsy
- autism (a developmental disorder in which, among other things, children do not use language or use it abnormally)
- congenital blindness, even in the absence of other neurological impairment
- Klinefelter syndrome, a disorder in which males are born with an extra X chromosome

Brain damage or disorders of the central nervous system can cause the following:

- receptive aphasia or receptive language disorder, a deficit in spoken language comprehension or in the ability to respond to spoken language
- expressive aphasia, an inability to speak or write despite normal language comprehension
- childhood apraxia of speech, in which a sound is substituted for the desired syllable or word

### **Parental concerns**

Language development is enriched by verbal interactions with other children and adults. Parents and care-givers can have a significant impact on early language development. Studies have shown that children of talkative parents have twice the vocabulary as those of quiet parents. A study from the National Institute of Child Health

and Human Development (NICHD) found that children in high-quality childcare environments have larger vocabularies and more complex language skills than children in lower-quality situations. In addition language-based interactions appear to increase a child's capacity to learn. Recommendations for encouraging language development in infants include:

- talking to them as much as possible and giving them opportunities to respond, perhaps with a smile; short periods of silence help teach the give-and-take of conversation
- talking to infants in a singsong, high-pitched speech, called "parentese" or "motherese" (This is a universal method for enhancing language development.)
- using one- or two-syllable words and two to three-word sentences
- using proper words rather than baby words
- speaking slowly, drawing-out vowels, and exaggerating main syllables
- avoiding pronouns and articles
- using animated gestures along with words
- addressing the baby by name
- talking about on-going activities
- asking questions
- singing songs
- commenting on sounds in the environment
- encouraging the baby to make vowel-like and consonant-vowel sounds such as "ma," "da," and "ba"
- repeating recognizable syllables and repeating words that contain the syllable

When babies reach six to 12 months-of-age, parents should play word games with them, label objects with words, and allow the baby to listen and participate in conversations. Parents of toddlers should do the following:

- talk to the child in simple sentences and ask questions
- expand on the toddler's single words
- use gestures that reinforce words
- put words to the child's gestures
- name colors
- count items
- gently repeat correctly any words that the child has mispronounced, rather than criticizing the child

Parents of two to three-year-olds should do the following:

- talk about what the child and parent are doing each day
- encourage the child to use new words
- repeat and expand on what the child says
- ask the child yes-or-no questions and questions that require a simple choice.

**Q. 4 explain the associative theories of learning.**

**Associative learning can be defined as a type of learning in which a behavior is linked to a new stimulus.** It highlights that our ideas and experiences are connected and cannot be recalled in isolation. Psychologists point out that in most situations our learning is a connected experience. According to them, associative learning can take place through two types of conditioning. They are,

1. Classical conditioning
2. Operant conditioning

The term conditioning came into psychology with the Behavioral perspective. Psychologists such as Pavlov, Skinner and Watson stressed that human behavior was an important feature in psychology. With the theories of conditioning, they pointed out how behavior can be altered, or new behavior can be created with the assistance of new stimuli from the surrounding environment. In associative learning, this line of thought is pursued.

Through **classical conditioning**, Ivan Pavlov pointed out how a completely unrelated stimulus can create a response in an organism through the use of a dog and a bell. Usually, a dog would salivate at the sight of food, but not at the hearing of a bell. Through his experiment, Pavlov highlights how a conditioned response can be created for a conditioned stimulus.

Skinner in his experiments of **operant conditioning** presented how rewards and punishments can be used to train new behavior. In Associative learning, this pairing of a new stimulus with behavior can thus be examined.

Cognitive learning can be defined as **the learning processes where individuals acquire and process information**. The key difference between associative learning and cognitive learning is, unlike in associative learning where the focus is on the behavior and external stimuli, in cognitive learning the focus is on the human cognition.

According to cognitive learning theories, people learn things both consciously and unconsciously. When consciously learning the individual makes an effort to learn and store new information. In the case of unconscious learning, this naturally takes place.

When speaking of cognitive theories there are mainly two types. They are,

1. Social cognitive theory
2. Cognitive behavioral theory

According to the **social cognitive theory**, personal, environmental and behavioral factors influence learning. On the other hand, in the **cognitive behavioral theory** of Aaron Beck, he points out how cognition determines the behavior of the individual.

Definitions of Associative and Cognitive Learning:

**Associative Learning:** Associative learning can be defined as a type of learning in which a behavior is linked to a new stimulus.

**Cognitive Learning:** Cognitive learning can be defined as the learning processes where individuals acquire and process information.

### **Characteristics of Associative and Cognitive Learning:**

#### **Focus:**

**Associative Learning:** The focus is on the impact of new stimuli.

**Cognitive Learning:** The focus is on the mental processes.

#### **Types:**

**Associative Learning:** Classical conditioning and Operant conditioning can be considered as types of associative learning.

**Cognitive Learning:** Social cognitive theory and cognitive behavioral theory are two theories that explain cognitive learning and different variables included in the learning process.

### **Q.5 what do you mean by individual differences?**

Meaning of Individual Differences:

Dissimilarity is principle of nature. No two persons are alike. All the individuals differ from each other in many a respects. Children born of the same parents and even the-twins are not alike. This differential psychology is linked with the study of individual differences. Wundt, Cattell, Kraepelin, Jastrow and Ebbing Haus are the exponents of differential psychology. This change is seen in physical forms like in height, weight, colour, complexion strength etc., difference in intelligence, achievement, interest, attitude, aptitude, learning habits, motor abilities, skill. Each man has an intellectual capacity through which he gains experience and learning. Every person has the emotions of love, anger, fear and feelings of pleasure and pain. Every man has the need of independence, success and need for acceptance.

#### **Causes of Individual Differences:**

There are various causes which are responsible in bringing individual differences. They are narrated below:

##### **i. Heredity:**

Some heretical traits bring a change from one individual to other. An individual's height, size, shape and color of hair, shape of face, nose, hands and legs so to say the entire structure of the body is determined by his heretical qualities. Intellectual differences are also to a great extent influenced by hereditary factor.

##### **ii. Environment:**

Environment brings individual differences in behaviour, activities, attitude, and style of life characteristics. Personality etc. Environment does not refer only physical surroundings but also it refers the different types of people, society, their culture, customs, traditions, social heritage, ideas and ideals.

##### **iii. Race and Nationality:**

Race and Nationality is one cause of individual difference. Indians are very peace loving, Chinese are cruel; Americans are very frank due to race and nationality.

##### **iv. Sex:**

Due to sex variation one individual differs from other. Men are strong in mental power. On the other hand women on the average show small superiority over men in memory, language and aesthetic sense. Women excel the men in shouldering social responsibilities and have a better control over their emotions.

**v. Age:**

Age is another factor which is responsible in bringing individual differences. Learning ability and adjustment capacity naturally grow with age. When one grows in age can acquire better control over our emotions and better social responsibilities. When a child grows then this maturity and development goes side by side.

**vi. Education:**

Education is one major factor which brings individual differences. There is a wide gap in the behaviors of educated and uneducated persons. All traits of human beings like social, emotional and intellectual are controlled and modifies through proper education. This education brings a change in our attitude, behaviour, appreciations, Personality. It is seen that uneducated persons are guided by their instinct and emotions where as the educated persons are guided by their reasoning power.

**Educational implications of Individual differences are listed below:**

- i. Aims of education, curriculum, method of teaching should be linked with individual differences considering the different abilities and traits individual.
- ii. Curriculum should be designed as per the interest, abilities and needs of different students.
- iii. The teacher has to adopt different types of methods of teaching considering individual difference related to interest, need, etc.
- iv. Some co-curricular activities such as Drama, music, literary activities (Essay & Debate Competition) should be assigned to children according to their interest.
- v. Teacher uses certain specific teaching aids which will attract the children towards teaching considering their interest and need.
- vi. Various methods such as playing method, project method, Montessori method, story telling methods are to be used considering/discovering how different children respond to a task or a problem.
- vii. The division of pupils into classes should not be based only on the mental age or chronological age of children but the physical, social and emotional maturity should be given due consideration.
- viii. In case of vocational guidance the counselor is to plan the guidance technique keeping in view the needs and requirements of the students.