CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Theoretical Orientation of the Problem

In India, the National Sample Survey (2003) reported 837 per 100,000 Hearing Impaired Children. Its occurrence is more in rural areas than in urban areas. There is a need not only for their early identification but also of prevention, education and training. The National Sample Survey (2003) estimated Hearing Impaired Children 837 per 100,000 persons in India in the age group 0-14yrs. The word hearing impaired comes out from the category of ‘exceptional’ child. Exceptional child is the one who deviates physically, intellectually, emotionally and socially very markedly from normal growth and development. Without using language, an individual is no better than an animal because language is the chief advantage the man has over animals. It is only through hearing that the human child acquires information and knowledge of the outer world and about the happenings within the immediate physical environment. Hearing deals with stimuli that could be at a great distance from us, just as the stimuli for sound sensation for vibration of the air particles. These vibrations take place in the form of wave motions. Hearing is the auditory perception of sound. The ear transmits the perceived sounds to the nervous system. If there is a defect in the hearing mechanism, there is also a problem in perception. Any impairment in auditory perception causes hearing impairment. It is the main sensory pathway through which speech and verbal communication develops. If a child hears imperfectly, he is likely to speak incorrectly. Hearing also influences learning and other aspects of maturation. Early detection of hearing impairment is important for child’s overall development. Hearing Impairment is defined as a hearing loss, which hampers oral-aural communication. Brill (1986) has
described that hearing impairment is a generic term indicating hearing disability that may range in severity from mild to profound and it includes the subset of deaf and hard of hearing. According to Macneil (1986) a deaf person is one whose hearing disability precludes successful processing of linguistic information through audition, with or without hearing aid. Newman (1986) views that the person who is hard of hearing, with the use of a hearing aid, has residual hearing sufficient to enable successful processing of linguistic information through audition. The main aim of education of the hearing impaired is the social integration into the individual’s own family, through which integration into the hearing world can be expected for the vast majority of such persons. Many hearing impaired and deaf individuals can be educated in regular schools, provided the communicative skills have been developed in time, the parents are cooperative and qualified assistance is available. There are two types of hearing loss i.e. Prelingual-deaf and post lingual- deaf. Prelingual deaf child is the one who is born with little or no hearing. His impairment is marked before speech and language patterns are acquired. Post lingual-deaf child is the one who becomes deaf owing to environmental forces. His hearing impairment is marked after he has attained speech and language pattern. Being dissatisfied with the aforesaid definitions and classifications of loss of hearing, the medical people have classified it into five categories: Mild, marginal, moderate, severe, profound. The loss of hearing imposes certain limitations on people. The nature and severity of these limitations depend upon the type and degree of the hearing impairment. Naturally, these limitations cause certain changes in behaviour. There are some important characteristics of hearing impaired socially handicapped, problems in personal and social development, psychological characteristics, linguistic difficulties, less academic achievement, abnormal emotional behaviour and personality problems. After characteristics, the question arises, how can we identify
these children? These children turn head-on on side to hear well. They are unable to follow directions. In the classroom they always request to repeat instructions, questions, etc. They always hesitate to participate in group discussions. They display restlessness. Deafness occurs due to some defect in the auditory organs. The main causes are; causes of deafness before birth, deafness in pregnancy, hearing capacity is lost during pregnancy due to mother’s illness, effect of poison, wine, etc. Contaminated food taken by the mother is also an important cause. There is also an effect of heredity. Sometimes deafness is caused by hereditary factors which lead to defects in the auditory sense organs. Genetic factors account for the deafness caused by heredity. Marriage among close blood relatives has been observed to produce more hearing-impaired children than other types of parents. Causes of deafness at the time of birth, the experiences faced during birth may cause hearing problems. These causes are full time delivery followed by anoxia problems, use of forceps in delivery, premature delivery followed immediately by jaundice, defective blood circulation, and inappropriate ratio of white blood cells in the blood creates obstacles in the development of auditory senses. Causes of deafness after birth are illness and accidents. Sometimes deafness is psychological and emotional too. Age and ageing both affect the hearing capacity of the Individuals. The most crucial problem of hearing impaired is their language limitation. Lip-reading and preferential seating are recommended. It will be profitable to employ well-trained teachers to teach language skills to children. Home based programmed, use of hearing aid, special schools, special classes and regular class combination, auditory training nursery education, vocational training, vocational placement, classroom arrangements, speech reading, role of parents, role of school, least restrictive environment setting and sign language etc are several measures which can be undertaken to assess incidence or prevalence of deafness. Education is a purposefully
designed process aiming at fostering the harmonious and healthy development of individuals as productive, successful and well-adjusted persons in society. The various forms of physical and intellectual impairment result in special educational needs. For example, a child with intellectual impairment requires more concrete experiences, practice and time to learn. A hearing impaired child requires more visual presentation and written explanation within the range of its vocabulary. A visually impaired child needs more auditory and kinetic inputs in communication in the classroom. The concept of special-needs education has evolved into a still broader and natural concept of inclusive schooling in recent years. In developed countries, school systems which have historically parallel general and special schools are moving from mainstreaming and integration towards evolving inclusive schools (Ainscow, M. 1994). The goal for both is to organize effective schools for all children, including those with special needs. The fundamental principle of the inclusive school is that “all children should learn together, wherever possible, regardless of any difficulties or differences they may have. Inclusive schools must recognize and respond to the diverse needs of their children, accommodating both different styles and rates of learning and ensuring quality education to all through appropriate curricula, organizational arrangements, teaching strategies, resource use and partnerships with their communities.” (UNESCO 1994). The school is to follow the child – centered teaching strategy (Jangira 1995a). It envisions a continuum of support and services to match the continuum of special needs encountered in every school. This trend report has been visualized in the context of meeting special educational system as a whole and not within the institutional dichotomy of general and special institutions. The policy will draw strength from inclusive schooling in the legislation for disabled persons. The research explicitly focused characteristics of learners in the conventional categories of disabled persons like blind
and VH, deaf and hearing-impaired, persons with mental retardation and the learning-disabled. Parenting of such children is very challenging task. There are a lot of factors contributing as a barrier to good parenting and very few factors are making conducive environment for parenting.

**Parenting**

To know the parenting of these children, it is required to know the process of parenting. Parenting is a process that includes nourishing, protecting and guiding the child through course of development. Oxford English Dictionary (1996) defines parenting as the single winded unconditional desire to provide a loving, caring home. Parent involvement is consistently ranked high among the key components of effective schools by researchers, practitioners and policy makers and as a result is one of the brightest prospectuses for the future of public education. The American Heritage Dictionary (2000) defines parenting as the rearing of a child or children, especially the care, love and guidance given by a parent. Parenting and child-rearing practices are strongly related to the attitudes, beliefs, traditions and values of the particular culture or ethnic group to which the family belongs. Consequently, many differences in parenting as well as similarities exist among different cultural groups. For example, Chinese adults describe their own child-rearing practices as more controlling than Caucasian American parenting practices (Chao, 1982). Whereas Chinese parents tend to be less emotionally expressive and stress the importance of family obligations, in Israel, parents value independence and self-confidence and expect their children to be adventurous and mischievous. It is the German mothers who are more likely to employ power assertions
to discipline their children. It is evident that many variations exist among parenting practices, but parents tend to rear their children in ways that encourage competencies and successful functioning within their culture and society (Ogbu, 1987). Differences between mothers’ and fathers’ influence on adolescent development have revealed that fathers may have a greater impact as compared to mothers. Parke and Buriel (1998) claimed that fathers provide the model for separateness, mothers the model for connectedness. Thus, fathers may convey to their adolescent children a sense of identification and autonomy by their more playful and egalitarian exchanges. Even through fathers’ presence in the family is far less than that of mothers; they make a unique contribution to the child’s socialization and to his or her development of both cognitive and social skills in early and middle childhood as well as in early and mid-adolescence. Moreover, the expression of emotions in a family or in a relationship appears to be one of the major pathways to the acquisition of social competence in children. The exchange between parents and children about emotions, both positive and negative, is another aspect that emerged has a new access for understanding differences in the development of children. Fathers are the important partners in parent-child relationships and can assist their sons to regulate anger and aggressive tendencies. Parent-adolescent relationships have been categorized according to either parenting styles, such as authoritarian or liberal attitudes toward child rearing, or communication behaviours, such as verbal support, interruptions or supplementary comments or integrative or distancing communications during discussions. Baumrind (1991) found differences in adolescents’ development between authoritarian and disinterested styles on the other. Whereas adolescents from families with a democratic or authoritative style show more pre-social and socially competent behaviour, take fewer
drugs and have less internalization or externalization symptoms, take drugs, display more antisocial behaviours and have a low degree of individualization. Communication styles between parents and adolescents have been defined as being either enabling or constraining in light of different outcomes in adolescents development, such as identity formation, self-esteem, perspective-taking skills or social competence (Hauser, Powers & Noam 1991). Gender differences were also discovered when dyadic designs with mother-daughter or mother-son relationships were analyzed. During adolescence, fathers tend to accept their sons striving for autonomy, if this is crucial; the sons level of identity is high. Sons tend to introduce their disagreements directly and father’s communication behaviour in discussions appears to be quite different. Fathers interrupt their daughters more often and less often accept their opinions. Differences occur in the quality of the mother-son and father-daughter relationship. Most parent-adolescent distress is reported from mother-son and father-daughter dyads, with mother-son distress occurring most during early adolescence, and distress between fathers and daughters occurring most during mid-adolescence, even when the influence of adolescents is feel more accepted by their mothers than by their fathers, However when the influence of adolescent gender on outcome variables, such as school achievement, was investigated together with variables like maternal warmth, monitoring or autonomy giving, gender was only a weak moderator variable as compared to the impact of differences in mothers’ parenting style. Mixed result characterizes the existence of gender differences in parent-adolescent relationships.

A complex pattern was identified when identity strength was examined for all four possible gender-specific family dyads.
Maternal working patterns in the family have an enormous impact on the adolescents’ approach to sharing child care and socialization tasks. In families where mothers enter the workforce when children are still very young (3 years old), youth between 8 and 12 years old experience greater father involvement as compared to single-earner families. It should be noted, however, that an over-arching secular trend tends to blur all kinds of differences found for single and dual-earner families. As more and more children grow up in dual-earner homes, other variables than just the fact of having a working mother apparently become more relevant. For example, the degree of general parental involvement, the quality of the home environment and last but not least, the quality of the parent-parent relationship appear to be of greater importance for children’s and adolescents’ developmental pathways. In general, maternal employment seems to facilitate changes in the mother-adolescent relationship during the transition period. Parenting as the style of child upbringing refers to a privilege or responsibility of mother and father, together or independently to prepare the child for society and culture (Veeness 1973) which provides ample opportunity to, a child to find roots, continuity and a sense of belonging (Sirohi and Chauhan 1991) and also serves as an effective agent of socialization. Parenting pattern as defined in Wikipedia is a psychological construct representing standard strategies parents use in raising their children. Parenting is a term that summarizes behaviour used by the mother or father to raise a child. The parents’ role is to provide the child with a safe, secure, nurturing, loving and supportive environment, one that allows the youth to develop the knowledge, values, attitudes and behaviours necessary to become an adult, making a productive contribution to self, family, community and society. Parenting is a complex activity that includes many specific
behaviours that work individually and together to influence child outcomes. Diana Baumrind’s has given the concept of parenting style. The construct of parenting style is used to capture normal variations in parent’s attempts to control and socialize their children. Two points are critical in understanding this definition. First, parenting style is meant to describe normal variations in parenting. In other words, the parenting style typology developed should not be understood to include deviant parenting, such as might be observed in abusive or neglectful homes Baumrind(1991). Baumrind assumed that normal parenting revolves around issues of control. Although parents may differ in how they try to control or socialize their children and the extent to which they do so, it is assumed that the primary role of all parents is to influence, teach and control their children. Parenting style captures two important elements of parenting: Parental Responsiveness and Parental Demandingness (Maccoby & Martin 1983). Parental Responsiveness refers to the extent to which parents intentionally foster individuality, self-regulation and self-assertion by being attuned, supportive and acquiescent to children’s special needs and demands. Parental Demandingness refers to the claims parents make on children to become integrated into the family as a whole, by their maturity demands, supervision, disciplinary efforts and willingness to confront the child who disobeys. Though parenting, as a perception of parents of their own attitude towards the child, happens to be of a great significance in the dynamics behaviour for socio-psychological researches, but how a child perceives his/her parenting, always remains a neglected phase of researches and should be deemed most important as he is the one whose process of socialization stands for furtherance. Individual experiences not only help in making sense of self identity and self ideal but may also lead him to perceive, think and act in a self directed manner.
So it appears that child’s perception of parental attitude towards himself should be of great concern in the dynamics of behaviour and may open new avenues of research for deeper probe in the domain of parent-child relationship. The two distinctive roles of parents include both mothering and fathering. A child bestows on both mother and father, together or independently, the responsibility of upbringing him/her. These perceptions may be referred to apparently direct and immediate knowledge associated to their conscious or unconscious experiences by which they initiate and control behaviour enormously. It is important to note that most of the children have a fairly definite, clear-cut concept of father which differs markedly from their concept of mother. (Meltzer, 1943) Therefore, it appears to be of utmost importance to study perceptions regarding their fathering and mothering separately as well as parenting as a whole on different dichotomous modes of parenting. Parenting pattern can be classified into two categories i.e. fathering and mothering. The role played by father to raise and educate the child is known as fathering. The role of father in individual’s upbringing stands as a bridge by which the child comes into the contact with the outside world, encourages curiosity and a will to face the challenges of the world and appears as a symbol of assertive, independent, emotional and psychological support in the realization of truth. In the dominant kinship system of the United States, rights over children are based on biological connections symbolized by blood. Fathering means begetting, where as mothering means giving birth and nurturing, both of which are devalued. Rothman, Jagger and Glenn have argued for a new definition of fathering and mothering as a social relationship in which one individual nurtures and cares for another. The three dominant dimensions used to measure father involvement (engagement, accessibility and responsibility)
the research indicates that there is a trend of convergence in the amount of time mothers and fathers give to the first two. To love children is predominantly a feature of fathering in non-deviant families and relates to acceptance, satisfaction and differentiating experiences in the children that can also be deemed as conditional one because it is acquired or earned by the child’s performance of duty, obedience and fulfillment of father’s expectations (Fromm 1956). On the other hand, inadequate fathering is usually understood to be a prime source of maladjustment, truancy, guilt, self-devaluation and dependency (Coleman 1970). The role of mother is largely associated with congenial development of personality because the child first comes in contact with mother and always depends on her to satisfy his basic needs. The role of mother shows better control over the children and stands for friendship with less punishment and dominance. (Pleck and steuve 2001) Women continue to carry most of the responsibility dimension that involves the planning, scheduling, orchestration and co-ordination of family activities. Among the problems parents face is identifying the specific nature of the child’s talent and deciding how to respond. In some instances, the talents may be multiple, compounding both the identification and the response problems. Some children are easy to parent; they rarely get ill, breeze through their milestones precisely on schedule and are photogenic to boot. Parenting can salute the mothers for whom parenting provides special challenges day after day. Parents of a child with a disability often experience shock, guilt and feeling of loss, because they were expecting a normal child. Emotionally, a child is easily threatened by anyone bigger, older or more confident than he is, whereas, a pattern of inadequate maternal behaviour seem to be responsible for the problem of children’s behaviour and chemical dependence (Bharadwaj 1995d) and tend to inhibit the
exploration of child’s personality in the environment. Categorizing parents according to level of parental demandingness and responsiveness creates a typology of four parenting patterns, these are indulgent, authoritarian, authoritative and uninvolved (Maccoby & Martin 1983). Each of these parenting styles reflect different, naturally occurring patterns of parental values, practices and behaviours (Baumrind 1991) and a distinct balance of responsiveness and demandingness. Indulgent Parents (also referred to as permissive or nondirective) are more responsive than they are demanding. They are nontraditional and lenient, do not require mature behavior, allow considerable self-regulation and avoid confrontation (Baumrind 1991). Indulgent parents may be further divided into two types, democratic parents, who though lenient, are more conscientious, engaged and committed to the child and others are nondirective parents. The indulgent type can be considered a variant of normal nondeviant parenting. Authoritarian parents are highly demanding and directive but not responsive. They are obedience-oriented and status-oriented and expect their orders to be obeyed without explanation (Baumrind 1991). These parents provide well-ordered and structured environment with clearly stated rules. Authoritarian parents can be divided into two types, no authoritarian-directive, who is directive, not intrusive or autocratic in their use of power and authoritarian-directive, which are highly intrusive. Authoritative parents are both demanding and responsive. They monitor and impart clear standards for their children’s conduct. They are assertive, but not intrusive and restrictive. Their disciplinary methods are supportive, rather than punitive. They want their children to be assertive as well as socially responsible and self-regulated as well as cooperative (Baumrind 1991) while uninvolved parents are low in responsiveness and demandingness. In extreme
cases, this parenting style might compass rejecting–neglecting and neglectful parents. This style is still within the normal range of parenting, with an aspect of neglect or rejection that may border on the deviant range of parenting. Because parenting pattern is a typology, rather than a linear combination of responsiveness and demandingness, each parenting pattern is more than and different from the sum of its parts (Baumrind 1991). In addition to differing on responsiveness and demandingness, the parenting styles also differ in the extent to which they are characterized by a third dimension, i.e. psychological control. Psychological and emotional development of the child (Barber 1996) is influenced through use of parenting practices such as guilt induction, withdrawal of love or shaming. One key difference between authoritarian and authoritative parents places high demands on their children and expect their children to behave appropriately and obey parental rules. Authoritarian parents, however, also expect their children to accept their judgments, values and goals without questioning. In contrast, authoritative parents are more open to a give and take with their children and make greater use of explanations. Thus, authoritative parents tend to be low in psychological control, while authoritarian parents tend to be high. Research in the field of parenting pattern has been strongly influenced by Baumrind (1991) proposed model having four parenting style prototypes: indulgent, authoritative, authoritarian and uninvolved. Previous studies based on western cultures have consistently shown that children reared by authoritative parents experience the most favorable outcomes, while authoritarian and permissive child rearing has a negative impact on children’s outcomes. There are two types of behaviour shown by parents. These are deviant and nondeviant behaviours. Deviant Behaviour is the one where if a person is called and he is engaged in deviant behaviour that is a
recognized violation of cultural norms. It also means not doing what the majority does or alternatively, doing what the majority does not do. For instance, behaviours caused by cultural difference can be seen as deviance. It does not necessarily mean criminal behaviour. Nondeviant behaviour is the behaviour which is in accordance with cultural norms. In this the person does not deviate from the normal behaviour. Since norms themselves are social constructions, varying across historical and cultural locations, what is considered normal and deviant depend upon social context; what is deviant to some, may not be deviant to others in different places or time periods.

Parenting can be deviant or non-deviant. The non-deviant parenting has positive parenting functions. The deviant parenting has less of positive and more of negative parenting functions. Positive dimensions of parenting are: Love, Encouragement, Acceptance, Progressivism, Democratism, Independence and Dominance. Negative dimensions of parenting are: Hate, Discouragement, Rejection, Conservatism, Autocratic, Dependency and Submission. The relationship between parents and children may establish patterns for behaviour that they will use. Parenting pattern may influence children’ self-efficacy, self-esteem and self-concept, and these motivational components of self-regulated learning may in turn influence children’s involvement in self- regulated learning literature, that parenting pattern may play a mediation or facilitative role in relation to self-regulated learning. Therefore, parenting pattern can be a predictor of the quality of self-regulation in performance. After parenting, now we shall attempt to find out how much parents stimulate their children. Before this we ought to understand the meaning of cognitive stimulation.
**Cognitive Stimulation**

Cognitive stimulation is a process of utilization of planned stimuli to arouse the mental activities for learning like recognition, comprehension, memory and thinking etc. There is no doubt that a specific parenting behaviour influences the development of a child, increases comfort of the child and confidence level but it also has a significant impact on stimulating the mental activities of a child. The cognitive perspective emphasizes the ways in which people mentally process incoming information, evaluate it and decide how to respond to it. Cognitive science is usually defined as the scientific study either of mind or of intelligence (Luger 1994). The cognitive perspective views humans as active and rational problem solvers, as information processing systems whose actions are governed by conscious thought and planning. Psychology has been concerned with cognitive processes from its very beginning. An important assumption of present day cognitive psychology can be traced back to the philosopher, who stated that the way we receive information from the world is strongly influenced by the existing contents of the mind. In the later years several important schools of psychology developed, each of which had its own way of studying mental processes. The cognitive perspective views humans as rational information process and problem solvers whose higher mental processes allow them to think, judge, imagine and plan. Jung noted that there are two major kinds of mental processes. One is perception, a process of becoming aware of something. In the perceptive process, there is some sort of stimulation and we gather or access information. Jung called this an irrational process, since the awareness simply comes to us. The cognitive perspective emphasizes the role of perceptual and mental process in aggression. Guilt about aggressing can be reduced through self-justification, displacement and diffusion of responsibility and dehumanization. The cognitive perspective gives us a far more active role
in shaping our own behaviour than the biological and psychological perspectives do. Cognitive process refers to all the process by which the sensory input is transformed, reduced, elaborated, stored recovered and used (Neisser, 1967). It represents a group of processes by which the organisms obtain knowledge of various objects of their environment and make use of this knowledge to achieve solutions to their problems. These processes range from the simple perceptual to the more complex thinking and reasoning processes. Recognition, labeling, analysis, categorization and planning are considered some of the basic cognitive processes. The dictionary meaning of stimulation means more active, motivate, encourage and rouse to action. Stimulation is the action of various agents by which activity is evoked. Stimulation in general refers to how organisms perceive incoming stimuli. Cognitive Stimulation is based on information of outings, reading, playing and parental role in teaching a child. Cognitive stimulation is a system of permanent quality of motivation which draws upon neo-behavioral, cognitive and information-processing theories. It includes the instructional strategies which are used by the parents to affect the cognitive level of the children, so that the child may not feel disheartened at a particular point of difficulty. Parents can have a major impact on children’s lives by taking an interest in the children learning and by showing that they believe in the children. This kind of support can make the critical difference that helps children succeed in school and achieve their goals. Parents can give such support in many different ways, beginning with the child’s first years of life and continuing throughout adolescence. Parents therefore have such a monumental influence on the development of child’s views. Parental cognitive stimulation exerts the major influence on the development of the child from birth to maturity.

Parental cognitive stimulation is mental stimulation of recognition, comprehension, memory and thinking by parents that influence a child’s
outcomes and activities. It is a mental process of parents which mediates between stimulus and response. Specific parenting behaviour influences child development and parental cognitive stimulation might function through an increase in the child's comfort and confidence level. Children are typically dependant on their parents for information about the world, including themselves. Since parents are the earliest providers of such information, the ways in which they present it not only influences the order of child's thinking but it also has a profound effect on the way the child structures and develops later information. The home occupies the first and the most significant place for the development of the child among various social groups and formations. At home children need to engage in activities that stimulate their cognitive abilities. Parental cognitive stimulation as the style of child upbringing refers to a privilege or responsibility of mother and father, together or independently, to stimulate the child for society and culture. This provides ample opportunity to a child to find roots, continuity and a sense of belonging and also serves as an effective agent of socialization. Parenting, as an awareness of the parents of their own attitude towards the child, happens to be of great significant affect in the behaviour of child. In the words of Rossi (1965), when father and mother approve or appreciate any activity related to education or revoke any hurdle felt by the children in the process or guide him about the right and wrong, it is immensely educative for the child. This entire spectrum activity comes within the purview of parental cognitive stimulation.

It is the process of child rearing that encourages parents to invest energy in cognitively stimulating their children. There are two types of parental cognitive stimulation: Paternal cognitive stimulation and maternal cognitive stimulation. Paternal cognitive stimulation means paternal instinct that causes and encourages a given response against a stimulus. The role of paternal cognitive stimulation stands as a
bridge by which the child comes into contact with outside world (Meerto, 1968). To stimulate child is predominantly a feature of paternal cognition in non-deviant families and it relates to acceptance, satisfaction and differentiating experiences in the children. Shinn (1978) argued that father’s absence in the home increased anxiety, reduced stability and decreased parental attention. On the contrary, the father’s presence in the home and his engagement in cognitive stimulation direct teaching and play had a positive impact on the cognitive performance of their child. Maternal cognitive stimulation is a complex activity that includes many specific behaviours that work actively, individually and together to influence, the child’s outcomes. Maternal cognitive stimulations are largely associated with congenial development of personality because the child first comes in contact with mother and always depend on her to satisfy his basic needs. Maternal cognitive stimulation plays an important role in making a child more productive and imaginative. Mothers are more likely to be involved and spend more time in meeting the needs of children as compared to fathers. There are different levels of parental cognitive stimulation: High parental cognitive stimulation and less parental cognitive stimulation. High parental cognitive stimulation means high recognition, comprehension, memory and thinking by parents that influence the child’s outcomes and activities. High parental cognitive stimulation generally has a positive effect on children’s behaviour and attitude. Parents with high cognitive stimulation include taking children on outings, reading, playing and teach them in the course of normal daily activities. Emotional support includes parents and children interaction between them i.e. parents talking to the children while working. Blankenhorn (1995) identified four benefits of high parental cognitive stimulation in children’s lives. These include parental nurturing, physical protection, material support and transmission of cultural knowledge and ways of behaving that are needed for the child to be successful for and in a society. Less parental cognitive stimulation
means less recognition, comprehension, memory and thinking by parents that influence the child's outcomes and activities negatively. Parents having less cognitive stimulation neglect their children and parent's negligence becomes frustrating for the child, makes him unresponsive and defensive. Less parental cognitive stimulation leads the children towards the illness, psychologically as well as physically. Shinn (1978) argued that low parental cognitive stimulation influences the children's attitude pessimistically. Parental cognitive stimulation refers to a relationship that is established between children and their parent's mutual communication and interaction. It has several dimensions; acceptance, rejection, encouragement, discouragement, reward and punishment. Parental encouragement means an attitude on the part of the parents which is characterized by keen interest in love and affection for the child. On the other hand it is the continuous discouraging attitude of unwillingness to encourage the child for whatever he does. Discouragement is characterized by indifference towards the child. Sears and Nowlis revealed that warm, democratic and encouraging parents had brighter children than those who were cold and discouraging. Parental encouragement is one of the aspects of parent treatment pattern. In encouragement, the parents help the child, guide him and care for him, so that he may not feel disheartened at any point of difficulty. Parental encouragement is of great significance in developing psychological as well as academic behaviour of a child. Thus, the children are greatly influenced in their attitude by parents. An encouraging parent regards his child as a person with feeling and he respects the child’s right and need to express these feelings. Children do not become emotionally disturbed because the child is able to express negative feeling towards their parents. Parents keep communication channels open and listen with open mind the child’s side of a problem where there is a conflict. On the other side, a discouraging parent does not appreciate the child the way he is, emphasizes his faults and defects and has no faith in him.
Parents’ negligence may make the child frustrated, unresponsive and defensive. A child who constantly hears favorable appraisals of other comes to believe that he is inferior and good for nothing. Boys generally become aggressive when either or both parents consistently discourage them. Discouragement is the most serious and negative experience a child can have. Acceptance is an attitude, on the part of the parents, of warmth and helpful assistance towards child. Rejection is just the reverse, manifesting itself in hostility, crossness or indifference. Parent’s acceptance for a developing personality who needs love and understanding, helps him towards his growth. These parents create a homely atmosphere of rapport and democratic attitude where no member dominates or is given undue attention. Rejecting parents are mostly themselves a product of disturbed home-environment. The tolerant parents stand for giving, instead of taking from the child. A parent gives time, thought and efforts instead of material things. He tolerates the child’s early ideas and ambitions instead of imposing his own upon him. He encourages the child to play with other children. He makes the child feel accepted, strong and shows tolerance and understanding of the child’s weaknesses. The child as, he grows up, not only depends on physical environment and social behaviour but also on in his parent’s cognitive stimulation. This modifies the child’s intellectual and mental behaviour. Parents can stimulate cognitive development by taking an interest in the children’s learning, by believing in the child and by providing a cognitively rich environment. Parent’s cognitions about their role have been identified as a major contributor to their willingness to engage in supportive parenting. Cognitive stimulation of parents helps in forming different level of cognitive behavior among children.
COGNITIVE BEHAVIOUR

The behavioral perspective is rooted in a seventeenth century school of philosophy known as British Empiricism. The empiricists believed that all ideas and knowledge are gained through empiricism. The human mind is initially a tabular Rasa, a blank slate, on which our experiences make imprints. Human beings thus behave according to the dictates of their environment. Cognitive behaviorism is an attempt to combine the behavioural and cognitive perspectives into a more comprehensive theory. Cognitive behaviorists believe that the environment exerts strong effects on behaviour, but that it does so through the influence of thought. Cognitive behaviorists further believe that environment affects behaviour through the intervening influence, not only by our immediate environment but also by our memories of the past and our anticipations of the future. In this view, our learning experiences do not automatically stamp in responses, but rather give us the information through our memories. Cognitive behaviorists believe that a more comprehensive and useful conception of human behaviour and its causes will emerge by combing cognitive and behavioural perspectives. The behavioural perspective stresses present stimulus conditions and previous learning, particularly the rewarding and punishing consequences of previous aggressive acts. Cognitive behaviorists have emphasized the importance of modeling in the learning of aggression. There is substantial evidence that viewing televised aggression can increase the tendency to behave aggressively. Cognitive Behaviour Therapy is based on the idea how we think (cognition), how we feel (emotion) and how we act (behaviour), that all interact together. Our thoughts determine our feelings and our behaviour. Therefore, negative thoughts can cause us distress and result in problems. For example if someone, after making a mistake, thinks that he is useless and cannot do anything right. This thinking and feeling has negative impact on
people, their mood and make them feel depressed, further they worsen the problem by reacting to avoid activities. As a result, they reduce their chance of successful experience, which reinforces their original thought of being useless. In therapy, the latter example could be identified as a self-fulfilling prophecy or problem cycle and the efforts of the therapist and client would be to work together to change this. This is done by addressing the way the client thinks in response to similar situations and by helping them to think more flexibly, along with reducing their avoidance of activities. As a result, they may escape the negative thought pattern and they will feel less depressed. They may become more active and succeed more often and further reduce their depression. Cognitive behaviour therapy is a kind of psychotherapy used to treat depression, anxiety disorders, phobias, delusional disorder and other forms of mental disorders. It involves recognizing unhelpful or destructive patterns of thinking and reacting, then modifying or replacing these with more realistic or helpful ones. Its practitioners hold that typically clinical depression is associated with negatively biased thinking and irrational thoughts. Cognitive therapy is often used in conjunction with mood stabilizing medications to treat bipolar disorder. Those who use behavioural treatment differ about its defining characteristics (Thoreson, 1980). In general, however, behavioural treatment rests on several important assumptions. Behaviour therapists assume that behaviour is the focus of treatment rather than a symptomatic manifestation of underlying pathological states, traits, and processes and they also assume that the reasons for current behaviour can be found in the individual’s learning history, environment, and in person’s biology. Again, the behaviour therapists also assume that all behaviour changes are as a result of consistent alterations in the individual’s environment and characterized by a heavy emphasis on evaluating treatment effects by repeated direct observation and recording of problem behaviour before, during, and after treatment. Behavioural treatments are based
primarily on two sets of principles (Reynolds, 1968). One set governs changes in operant behaviour, or voluntary behaviour, and the other governs respondent behaviour or reflexive behaviour. An additional set of principles is sometimes invoked under the heading of social learning theory, which gives special emphasis to modeling, imitation, and covert verbal mediation in governing behaviour change. The number of major principles required in explaining most behaviour change is quite small. However, the number of different treatment procedures that use behavioural principles is very large. Behavioural treatments are often classified as procedures to increase behaviour, decrease behaviour, or maintain behaviour and sometimes, as procedures to produce generalization or discrimination. Modeling, shaping, chaining and reinforcement are the primary procedures used to teach new behaviour or to increase the strength of operant behaviour. Extinction, timeout from reinforcement, response cost, punishment, reinforcement of low-rate or other behaviours, and over correction are common techniques for decreasing operant behaviours. Schedules of reinforcement can be arranged to teach behaviour that is resistant to extinction or that will be maintained at a level considered appropriate. The definition of exceptional behaviour that is based more firmly on civil rights then on pathology Roth (1980) is the behaviour reflecting the involvement in the activities, which deal with the mental process of acquiring, preserving, applying, reproducing and generating ideas. The decomposition of behaviour into its component parts or processes is known as behaviour analysis. For example, a child may cry because crying reliably produces important consequences such as a caregiver’s attention, or for both reasons in some combination. A behavior analysis of the child’s crying is concerned with identifying the relative contributions of these and other possible sources. The analysis will be effective only if there exists a sound taxonomy of types of behavior and behavioural processes. The main features of the contemporary experimental analysis of behavior
grew out of the research of the American psychologist, B.F. Skinner (1904-1990). The philosophy of science upon which it is based is sometimes called radical behavior as a derivative or index of something else such as cognition or mind, behavior, as the interaction between the organism and its environment, is worthy of study in its own right.

Another distinctive feature of the experimental analysis of behavior is its emphasis on the behavior of the individual. Procedures that generate large and reliable effects can be conducted with only a few subjects and the results of one experiment can be confirmed in later research that extends the original findings. Experimental analysis is cumulative, in the sense that successive procedures depend on what has gone before. If experiments produce variable results, solutions are sought not by averaging over an increased number of subjects but by refining details of procedure to identify sources of variability. These characteristics make behavior, as in education and behavioural medicine. The applied analysis of behavior is notable for both effectiveness and accountability.

Some behaviour is instinctive or innate and other behavior is acquired or learned during the organism’s lifetime. One task of an experimental analysis is to distinguish behavior that arises from the organism’s evolutionary history, its phylogeny, from behavior that originates from the organism’s experience. Its ontogeny. Imprinting in ducklings provides an example of behavior analysis that involves distinguishing between phylogenetic and ontogenic sources of behavior. Imprinting occurs when a duckling sees its mother or some other moving object shortly after hatching. The moving stimulus acquires special significance for the ducking. This then follows the mother wherever she goes.
The analysis shows that what is given phylogenically in imprinting is not a special relation between the imprinted stimulus and the following; instead, it is the capacity of a moving stimulus seen early in the duckling’s life to acquire special significance. Behaviour analysis has been applied to a vast range of phenomena, including the relative contributions of verbal and nonverbal processes to complex human behavior. Although CBT has been supported by empirical evaluations of its merit consideration. Studies have found cognitive-behavioural therapies to be effective for other psychological disorders besides anxiety and depression. Our final perspective presents a completely different conception of human nature from those we have seen so far. As different as the psychodynamic and behavioural perspectives might seem, they do share a belief that human behavior is predictably controlled and that human freedom is an illusion. The behavioural approach rejects the instinct theories of aggression. Rather, it views aggression as a learned response. Positions on the body-mind problem have ranged from dualism to monism. The cognitive perspective views humans as rational information processors and problem solvers whose higher mental processes allow them to think, judge, imagine, and plan.

The above discrimination directs to know how a child thinks, feels and acts in different situations, and how his cognitive behavioural problems can be solved through cognitive behavioural therapy.

1.2 Significance of the Problem

To conduct the present study is very significant now a days because scanty attention has been paid to the Hearing Impaired Children by the researchers in India. The rehabilitations of the handicapped are a major social economic responsibility of every nation. It is a very normal educational process and large numbers of interacting variables add to the problem. There are very few schools in India, which
can ensure quality education to the deaf children through trained and dedicated teachers. The educational output of the children does not always correspond to the inputs given through the educational process, because of the fact that, the education of hearing handicapped children is very complex and several factors influence their educational status. It has been also observed that a considerable number of parents have a low level of positive attitude towards their deaf children and majority of the parents do not take proper action after noticing the problem of deafness in their children. Parenting is a central factor in children’s growth and learning. There is no doubt that a specific parenting behaviour influences the development of a child, increases comfort of the child and confidence level but it also has a significant impact on stimulating the mental activities of a child. It is anticipated that parenting directly relates to children’s school achievement. The investigator feels that everybody is busy now a days, even than how much time is spent by parents with children and whether they stimulate their child or not. Academic success depends upon devoted teachers, supportive parents and the hard work of the children themselves. It is anticipated that the parents provide very low parental input or support to their deaf children in education. Owing to the above considerations, the investigator came out with the problem to be investigated, as stated below.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

PARENTING, COGNITIVE STIMULATION AND COGNITIVE BEHAVIOUR OF HEARING IMPAIRED CHILDREN
1.3 Operational Definitions of the Terms

**Hearing Impairment**

Impairment may be defined as a defect in hearing due to hereditary and/or environmental factor. Owing to this impairment, the child cannot use his/her hearing for ordinary purposes. Thus, disability arises out of impairment. Because of this the child cannot enjoy the normal process of hearing sounds.

**Cognitive Stimulation**

Cognitive learning consists of not only the acquisition of knowledge, but also different mental abilities and skills that enable the children to apply his knowledge in a problem solution. The process that encourages the child to acquire such knowledge and skills is cognitive stimulation.

**Cognitive Behaviour**

The behaviour reflecting the involvement in the activities, which deals with the mental processes of acquiring, preserving, applying, reproducing and generating ideas, is called cognitive behaviour.

**Parenting**

Parenting is a process that includes nourishing, protecting and guiding the child through the course of development.

**1.5 Objectives**

The investigator formulated the following objectives keeping in mind the significance of the problem and the research work already done in the area.
1. To find out the level of cognitive behaviour of hearing impaired children and normal children of Punjab

2. To study the cognitive stimulation of hearing impaired children and normal children given by parents

3. To find out the parenting pattern of hearing impaired and normal children of Punjab

4. To explore the interactive impact of cognitive behaviour and cognitive stimulation on academic performance of hearing impaired children and normal children

5. To prepare and standardize cognitive stimulation scale for parents

6. To prepare and standardize cognitive behaviour scale for children.

1.6 Delimitations

1. The study was delimited to the hearing impaired and normal children of 8-12 years as the study required school going children.

2. 10 schools from the 5 districts constituted the sample as only these districts of Punjab have schools for hearing impaired children.