

Summary of PYC2602 (updated syllabus for 2016 and onwards)

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Cognitive Development

Infancy

Infants progress from reflexive responding and they increasingly understand objects and start using symbols such as words and gestures.

Piaget's Theory

a) Sensorimotor stage

Infants who obtain their information through sensory input and motor activities. They gradually develop the ability to coordinate information, this mainly occurs through **circular reaction**, where the infant repeats pleasurable or interesting situations.

- *Substage 1: Reflexes (birth – 1 month)*. They respond to whatever stimuli are available. E.g grasping or sucking.
- *Substage 2: Primary Circular Reactions (1-4 months)*. The coordination between listening and looking, looking and reaching, reaching and sucking, ie exploring the world, and this is done through repetition.
- *Substage 3: Secondary Circular Reactions (4-8 months)*. Infants begin to repeat an action intentionally to trigger a response in the environment. It's similar to operant conditioning – if the action receives positive feedback, it is repeated, e.g shaking a rattle and mom gets excited, then baby does it again.
- *Substage 4: Coordination of Secondary Reactions (8-12 months)*. It is purposeful behaviour where there is a means to an end, e.g. push something out the way to get a toy. They modify and coordinate different schemas to find one that works. It is the beginning of understanding the cause and effect relationships.
- *Substage 5: Tertiary Circular Reactions (12-18 months)*. Infants vary their circular reactions to discover new methods of meeting challenges. They start to walk at this age, which makes exploring their environment easier.
- *Substage 6: Mental Representation (18-24 months)*. It is the beginning of insight and real creativity, the infant develops the ability to use mental symbols such as words, numbers or images to represent objects, events or actions.

b) Cognitive skills in the sensorimotor stage

- The sensorimotor stage is **object permanence** – the understanding that objects or people continue to exist when they cannot be seen anymore.
- If you hide a baby's toy under container A where he or she will discover it several times, then before his/her eyes hide it under container B, the infant usually looks for it under container A, this is called A-not-B error or perseverating search.
- Even in Substage 5, infants can still have problems with object permanence
- Substage 4 is the development of imitation, the ability to copy someone else's behaviour.
- A more developed form of imitation is developed in Substage 6 and is called deferred imitation – to imitate behaviour after they have been exposed to it.

c) Evaluating Piaget's view point

- Piaget's sample was too small and thus not representative (his observation was on his three children)
- His methods were too simplistic
- Measurement of brain activity was not available

Information Processing Theory

- Information processing theorists contend that their skills develop week by week or even day by day in the first year of their life, which contrasts with the six Substages proposed by Piaget.
- Information processing researcher use sensitive technology, as well as the infant's

	<p>habituation and visual and auditory processing abilities to explore infants' information-processing capabilities.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Habituation occurs when babies are exposed to the same stimulus repeatedly and gradually start showing less interest in it (they become habituated). • Dishabituation occurs when new stimulus appears and they start paying attention to this. • Visual preference refers to infants' tendencies to spend more time looking at one object rather than another, while visual recognition refers to the ability to discriminate between a familiar and unfamiliar object . • Auditory discrimination refers to the ability to differentiate between sounds. <p>Memory</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Refers to the acquisition, storing and retrieval of information. • <i>Short-term memory (STM)</i> refers to the temporary storage of immediate information and thus includes the working memory. • <i>Long-term memory (LTM)</i> refers to the permanent or semi-permanent storage or episodic (memories of events), semantic (memory of facts and general knowledge), procedural (memory on how to do things and includes procedural, motor and cognitive activities). • <i>Implicit memory</i> refers to memories of which one is not necessarily aware e.g. habits and routines and <i>explicit memory</i> refers knowledge required through conscious effort, such as words and concepts. • Memory is tested by recognition and recall. Recall memory becomes possible usually around nine months, when brain structures in the middle temporal lobes become functional. • Distributed learning is more effective for babies – three 6-minutes sessions. • Infants' visual recognition memory seems to be related to various cognitive measures, including IQ scores, in later childhood. <p>Language development</p> <p>a) Phases of language development</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Receptive language</i> (understanding language) precedes <i>productive language</i> (the ability to speak it) • However, before babies speak intelligible words, they go through several phases of vocalisation (called <i>prelinguistic speech</i>) • Babies of nine months can possess an elementary receptive vocabulary. • First 6 months of productive language is relatively slow (12-18 months) • Between the ages 16-24 months the learning of words increases rapidly, thus a vocabulary spurt occurs.
<p>Early Childhood</p>	<p>In early childhood their thinking becomes more sophisticated, organised and elaborated.</p> <p>Piaget's Theory: the preoperational stage</p> <p>The term operation indicated an action or mental representation carried out through logical thinking. Preoperational thinking refers to illogical thinking, which means they are not yet ready to engage in logical mental operations. The preoperational stage lasts from the ages two – seven and is generally subdivided into the symbolic or preconceptual period (characterised by the increasingly complex use of symbols or mental representations and is between the ages two – four) and the intuitive period (where children begin to use primitive reasoning and what they know to answer all kinds of questions, and is between the ages four –seven).</p> <p>a) Advances of preoperational thought</p> <p>A major development during this stage involves symbolic or mental representation.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Deferred imitation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Refers to the ability to repeat the behaviour of a model that is no longer

present.

- Symbolic play or 'pretend' play
 - Refers to substituting imaginary situations for real ones
- Spoken language
 - Thinking occurs through representations of actions

b) Immature aspects of preoperational thought

- Perceptual centration
 - Refers to the tendency to attend to only one attribute of what one observes and to ignore the rest
 - Often make perceptual errors
 - They don't understand conservation – the understanding that matter can change in appearance and not in quantity
 - Look at table 4.1 on page 159 to get a clearer understanding
- Irreversibility
 - Refers to an inability to reverse an operation, they don't understand the logic behind simple maths (reversal) problems such as $2+3=5$ therefore $5-3=2$.
- Egocentrism
 - Refers to the tendency of young children to view the world from their own perspective.
 - They fail to realise that others can have different points of view.
- Animistic thinking
 - To assume that non-living objects such as the sun, moon, rocks and dolls have thoughts, feelings and motives.
- Transductive reasoning
 - Refers to preoperational thinkers' tendency to reason from one particular instance, linking two events that occur close together in a cause-and-effect fashion – whether it is logical or not.

By the end of the pre-operational period, children are able to **classify** and **categories** object on the basis of one dimension, such as colour. They are not capable of **multiple classification**. They do not have basic number skills such as ordinality (comparing qualities); cardinality (numerical number or size); number transformations (simple +/-) and estimation.

c) Evaluation of Piaget's view

- Current research findings do not support Piaget's portrayal of young children as being as animistic, illogical or egocentric.
- Children seem to be less egocentric than Piaget believed, pre-schoolers are able to display empathy and awareness of how others feel.
- Researchers have indicated that children's number concept and ability to classify develop much earlier than Piaget indicated.

Neo-Piagetians

Theorists who have expanded on Piaget's theory

- They have challenged Piaget's claim that clearly defined cognitive structures associated with distinct stages play a major role in determining children's problem solving abilities.
- Cognitive psychologists Robbie Case and Kurt Fischer have studied children's cognitive development from a more **domain, task and context-specific perspective**.
- Fischer believes cognitive development should be described for each skill and in every different context and he emphasises environmental support for the child.
- Case believes that children's thinking develops in stages. He also believes that children's

thinking is influenced by what he calls **executive processing space**, which refers to active, temporary, conscious (or short-term) memory and therefore, to the maximum number of schemes children can activate at any one time. Case believes there is a limit on how many schemes may be attended to in this executive processing space and refers to the maximum number as **operational efficiency**.

The child as theorist

Children develop their own theories on how the world works – called **naïve theories**

- a) Naïve physics
 - Refers to a person's understanding of objects and their properties
 - Infants are aware of many important basic facts about objects
 - Infants rapidly create a reasonably accurate theory of some basic properties of objects – a theory that helps them expect that objects such as toys will act in predictable way.
- b) Naïve biology
 - The distinction between living (animate) and non-living (non-animate) objects
 - By 12-15 month, infants have determined that animate objects are self-propelled, can move in irregular paths and act to achieve goals.
 - Elements include: Movement, growth, internal parts, inheritance, healing
- c) Naïve psychology and theory of mind
 - **Naïve psychology** refers to individual's tendencies to try and explain why people act as they do
 - **Theory of mind (ToM)** specifies to a set of opinion constructed by a child (and adult) to explain other people's ideas, beliefs, desires and behaviour.
 - Henry Wellman believes that children's theory of the mind develops through three stages during the preschool years:
 - Earliest phase (two-year-olds) children are aware of their desires and often communicate these desires, and link their desires to their behaviour. They know others also have desires.
 - At the age of three, they distinguish the mental world from the physical world, they also emphasise desires when trying to explain why people act as they do.
 - At the age of four, they understand that their own and other's behaviour is based on their beliefs about events and situations, even when these beliefs are wrong.
 - In all false-belief tasks, a situation is set up so that the child has accurate information, but someone else does not. Look at Figure 4.3 on page 165.
 - A theory of the mind generally provides the preschool child with a powerful tool to explain, predict and manipulate other people's behaviour. It is closely related to social-cognitive functioning, language development, fantasy, pretend play, prosocial behaviour and understanding and regulation of emotion.
 - However they do not understand **reciprocal thought** – that others can think about them.
 - Prior developments necessary for the acquisition of the theory of mind are the following:
 - *Self-awareness* – child's recognition of his/her own mental states.
 - *The capacity for pretence* – a powerful imagination from the second year on.
 - *The ability to distinguish reality from pretence* – this does not become reliably established until the fourth year.
 - *Understanding emotions*
 - *Executive functions*
 - Cross-cultural differences did not reflect differences in rates or extent of mastering theory of mind.

Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory

- a) Zone of proximal development
 - Refers to the difference between the level of performance a child may achieve when working independently and the higher level of performance when working under the guidance of more skilled adults or peers.
 - Places emphasis on potential for intellectual growth rather than intellectual abilities.
 - **Scaffolding** - temporary assistance provided by one person to a less-skilled person when learning a new task.
 - **Guided participation** refers to the participation of an adult in a child's activity in a manner that helps to structure the activity.

- b) Language and thought
 - He disagrees with Piaget views - Vygotsky believes language ability reflects almost every aspect of child's thought, thinking is not possible without language
 - Piaget's "egocentric speech" (plays no role in cognitive development) differs from Vygotsky's "private speech" (children's self-talk, viewing it as an intermediate step towards the self-regulation of cognitive skills).
 - As children gain a greater skill, private speech becomes **inner speech**, at the age 6 or 7.
 - Children show better performance levels when they speak to themselves rather than keeping silent, and can help children with ADHD and with autism.

- c) Mechanisms of development
 - Vygotsky focused on change and its mechanisms, more than on the outcome or level of performance of the child.
 - Development follows a dialectical process of *thesis* (one idea), *antithesis* (an opposing idea) and *synthesis* (resolution)

- d) Evaluation of Vygotsky's theory
 - His main theoretical contribution is the account of the relation between development and learning – as children learn, they achieve a higher level of development.
 - He fails to address the interactions between intrinsic and cultural forces adequately

Theory of Information Processing

The information-processing theorists take their inspiration from modern technology

- Short-term memory (STM)
 - They are increasingly able to hold more material in the short-term memory
- Long term memory
 - Can be stored in LTM when the experience was repeated and became a routine, however, the particulars of specific occasions become clouded with a general memory of a routine – this generic knowledge is called **script knowledge**.
- Memory strategies
 - Consist of deliberate mental activities to improve the processing and storing of information.
 - Rehearsal (repeat the target information) and retrieval (the process of accessing information and entering it into consciousness)
 - Retrieval consists of two forms: recognition (memory that notices whether a stimulus is

	<p>identical or similar to one previously experienced) and recall (remembering stimulus that is not present)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Metamemory and metacognition <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -<i>Metamemory</i> refers to the knowledge of memory skills and the appropriate use of these strategies. -<i>Metacognition</i> refers to knowledge about and control of thought processes. • Executive functioning – the conscious control of thoughts, emotions and actions to accomplish and solve problems
<p>Middle Childhood</p>	<p>Piaget’s theory: concrete operational stage</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The concrete operational stage spans 7 to 11 and signifies the stage in which children start using mental operations to solve problems and to reason. • Mental operations are strategies and rules that make thinking more systematic and more powerful and they apply to numbers, to categories of objects and to spatial relations among objects. • Of all operations Piaget thought the most critical was reversibility and to understand hierarchies of classes. • Horizontal décalage – they don’t readily transfer what they have learnt about one type of conversation to another type, even if the underlying principals are the same. • Preoperational children are egocentric. • Thinking abstractly and hypothetically is beyond the ability of concrete operational thinkers, their thinking is limited to the tangible, the real, to the here and now. <p>Development of information-processing skills</p> <p>a) Memory</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Working memory improves and advances in 1) the phonological loop (stores up sounds and verbal material) and 2) the visual-spatial sketchpad (stores visual material). • Long term memory is well developed by the end of middle childhood. • Memory strategies: rehearsal (mental or vocal repetition), organisation (categorisation, grouping ideas, objects or words into meaningful units), and elaboration (embellishing information to make it more memorable). • Look at table 5.1 on page 231. <p>b) Processing speed</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The speed with which one can carry out cognitive processes. • Increases with age. <p>c) Automatic processing / automaticity</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Refers to the cognitive activities that require virtually no effort. • Advantage: makes more cognitive capacity available to perform other cognitive tasks. <p>d) Knowledge base</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In middle childhood there is a growth of knowledge base (i.e. what children know). • The more a person knows about a topic the better he or she can learn and remember. <p>e) Control processes / executive functions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The processes that pull memory, processing speed and knowledge base together • Enable the individual to plan and organise, make decisions, think abstractly and

	<p>solve new problems.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Involves prefrontal cortex. • Attention, intention, knowledge, thinking and memory strategies. • The metacognition is important because it allows a person to evaluate a cognitive task and to monitor its performance. • Metacognition is related to metamemory (an informal understanding of memory) <p>f) Theory of mind</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Refers to individual knowledge of the mind and how it functions • In middle childhood, it becomes more elaborate and refined – this may be attributed to improved metacognition, improved metamemory and an improved ability to reflect on their mental life • Children become increasingly adept at understanding emotion, such as understanding display rules and mixed emotion <p>g) High-order cognitive tasks</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Includes reasoning, decision-making, problem solving and thinking, as well as academic skills such as reading, writing and arithmetic. <p>Language development</p> <p>a) General language development</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language skills increases rapidly up to the ages of four and five, thereafter, language development occurs at a slower pace. • The length and complexity of the sentences that schoolchildren use increase and certain grammatical forms, such as the passive voice, are completely mastered at school. • Multiple meanings of words are mastered at school. • At the age of 8 or 9, children are beginning to grasp sarcasm, irony and understand metaphorical (figurative) language • With the older children, humour based on wordplay and the double meaning of words also becomes prominent • They begin to display and understands a greater use of facial expressions • Their ability to adapt language to the social context in which it is used improves (e.g. Politer language used when speaking to a teacher).
Adolescence	<p>Theories of Cognitive Development</p> <p><i>A Constructive perspective: Jean Piaget</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assumes that individuals must continually interpret or make sense of all experiences – whether listening or recognising a familiar face. • According to this viewpoint, events remain ambiguous until we respond to them • Children around 11 or 12 enter the formal operational stage of cognitive development - it is the last stage of cognitive development and extends into adulthood. During this stage, children develop the capacity for abstract, scientific thinking • Characteristics of formal operational thinking: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Hypothetico-deductive reasoning <ul style="list-style-type: none"> → Refers to the cognitive ability to develop alternative ways to hypotheses to solve a problem, to be able to reason from the general to specific . → An example of this reasoning ability is illustrated by Piaget’s classic pendulum problem, where middle childhood and adults are given strings of different lengths, objects of different lengths, objects of different weights and a bar which to hang the strings (see on page 326). Adults were able to conclude that only the length of

the strings were able to make a difference in the speed with which the pendulum swings – they are able to apply **scientific reasoning**. Children in middle childhood, couldn't separate the effects of each variable.

-Propositional thinking

→ It means that formal operational thinkers can evaluate the logic of verbal statements without referring to real-world circumstances.

→ They understand that reality is not the only possibility

-Combinatorial analysis

→ Refers to the ability to organise various possible combinations inherent in a problem

→ Concrete operational thinkers test variables haphazardly, by trial and error

-Relativistic thinking

→ To concrete thinkers, absolute right answers exist and are known by authority – this is called realism

→ The formal operational thinker can take other perspectives into account – thus thought is relative.

→ Young adults tend to be more dualistic – the answer is either right or wrong, with no other possibilities.

- Six conceptual skills emerge during the stage of formal operations
 1. Adults can manipulate mentally more than two categories of variables at the same time
 2. They can think about changes that come with time
 3. Adults are able to hypothesise
 4. They are able to anticipate the consequences of their actions
 5. They are able to detect the logical consistency or inconsistency in a set of statements, they can test the truth of statements
 6. They can think in relativistic ways about themselves, others and their world
- Evaluation of Piaget's theory
 - Piaget's predictions about adolescents' thinking were overly optimistic – in contrast to his overly pessimistic estimates of young children's abilities
 - Piaget underestimated how much effort, energy and knowledge it takes to use formal operations – people will often not use it even if they have the capacity to do so
 - It was generally accepted that in many cultures formal operational thought does not develop and that this was true in cultures that do not have formal schooling

A componential approach: The information-processing view

This approach refers to the breaking down of thinking process into various components. An example would be the information-processing approach.

Progressive changes with age occur in the following areas:

- *Attention*
 - Adults are better adapted to the changing demands of a task.
 - This includes *selective attention* (the ability to focus on one relevant information and to ignore the rest) and *divided attention* (the ability to pay attention to more than one aspect simultaneously)
- *Processing information, speed, capacity and automaticity*
 - Have all increased with a greater awareness and control of an increase knowledge base and this produces a more effective form of thinking.
 - An adult can process more information, this is related to two developments:
 1. Structural Capacity which refers to cognitive ability, adults can handle more information and are thus able to have more efficient short and long term memories

2. Functional capacity which refers to making efficient use of existing mental abilities such as attention and mnemonic aids (memory strategy)

- *Knowledge base, encoding, storing and retrieving information*
-This allows them to have a greater flexibility of thought and enables them to shift their attention from one aspect of a problem to another
- *Metacognition and cognitive self-regulation*
-Metacognition expands, leading to new insights into effective strategies for acquiring information and solving problems.
-Cognitive self-regulation improves

Sternberg takes a view on cognitive functioning and accounts for individual differences in problem-solving abilities and knowledge base in terms of three processes or components that operate on information:

- *Metacognition*: monitor a person's progress, it includes higher order cognitive functions that determine what information is needed to select or construct the particular strategy that should be used.
- *Performance components*: carry out the actual procedures selected by the metacomponents.
- *Knowledge acquisition components*: acquire new information, as it is needed.

According to Sternburg, all ages use the same components in cognitive functioning but spend different amounts of times on each.

Evaluation of the information processing approach

- Main criticism is against the reductionist approach, which means the breaking up a phenomena into different parts to the extent that the meaning becomes lost. This means that the holistic perspective, characterised by Piaget's work, becomes lost.

The Psychometric approach: Intelligence

- Most Psychologists would agree that intelligence refers to the ability to profit from experience, which implies the ability to behave adaptively and to function successfully in a particular environment.
- This approach focuses on individual differences in the general abilities that contribute to intelligence which is measured by IQ (intelligence quotient).
- Gardner defines intelligence in terms of one's ability to solve problems as they arise, but the range of problems that he accepts as legitimate for studying intelligence is much broader.
- Gardner recognises 8 multiple intelligences:
 - Musical – Musician, music teacher
 - Bodily-kinaesthetic - dancer, sports person, actor
 - Logical-mathematical - Scientist, teacher
 - Linguistic – writer, lawyer
 - Spatial – Artist, designer
 - Interpersonal (understanding others) – teacher, sales person
 - Intrapersonal (understanding oneself) – writer, poet
 - Naturalist – chef, farmer

Practical cognition: The effects of adolescents' cognitive abilities on certain areas of their development

Cognitive development in adolescents functions as an *organisational core* that affects all areas of thinking.

Implications in the classroom

- Courses in maths, science and literature require increasingly abstract and logical thought and requires inductive and deductive reasoning.
- Inductive reasoning - reasons from particular to general
- Deductive reasoning – reasoning from general to particular
- Adults are better at identifying gaps in their knowledge.
- Most adolescents at least have the potential to succeed in one area

Argumentativeness, idealism, and criticism

The ability to use abstract and hypothetico-deductive reason results in adolescents to gather facts and to build a case – which can result in arguments. This could affect the parent-child relationship in the following ways:

- Adolescent still want to make their own decisions without guidance because of their need for independence
- If parents fail to provide reasons to them or if they do not accept that adolescents have their own views, there could be conflict
- Due to their inexperience, they often have grand, idealistic visions – they leave no room for the shortcomings of everyday life.

Social Cognition

- Social cognitive refers to the way in which we think about other people, social relationship and social institutions.
- **Perspective-taking** is the ability to consider a situation from a point of view other than one's own and it develops around the age of 6-8.
- Children of the ages 10-12 become capable of **mutual perspective-taking**, which means just as you understand that another person has a view that is different to your own, you also realise that other persons understand that you have a view that is different from their own.
- By late adolescence **social and conventional system perspective-taking** develops, meaning that adolescents come to realise that their social perspective and those of others are influenced not just by their interaction with one another, but also by their roles in the wider society.
- **Implicit personality theories** involve making judgement about what other persons are like and why they behave in the way they do.
- People of all ages form implicit personality theories, but these theories change in a variety of ways from childhood to adolescence:
 - Children aged 6-7 tend to describe others in terms of concrete, external characteristics and egocentrically (by referring to themselves).
 - By middle childhood (8-10), children describe others in terms of internal traits and abilities, rather than in terms of their external characteristics only.
 - Adolescents' descriptions of others tend to be more abstract, describing others in terms of abstract personality traits.

Self-consciousness and self-focusing

- Piaget believed that adolescents have the inability to distinguish the abstract perspectives of self and other.
- Adolescent egocentrism includes two distorted images of the relation between the self and others – the **imaginary audience** (belief that they are the focus of everyone else's attention) and the **personal fable** (an intense investment in one's own thoughts and

feelings and a belief that these thoughts and feelings are unique; it is built on imaginary audience; they feel like nobody understands them, because their experiences are unique; they also believe they are invisible).

- People of all ages experience optimistic bias, which is the tendency to assume that accidents, diseases and other misfortunes are more likely to happen to others than to themselves.

Planning and decision-making

- Adolescents are better at cognitive self-regulation, which means planning what to do first and what to do next, monitoring progress towards a goal and redirecting actions that prove unsuccessful.
- One of the most prominent perspectives on adolescent decision-making is the behavioural decision theory. It includes:
 1. Identifying the range of possible choices
 2. Identifying the consequences that would result from each choice
 3. Evaluating the consequence
 4. Assessing the likelihood of each consequence
 5. Integrating this consequence
- Competent decision-making involves cognitive components and psychosocial components.

Personality development*

Infancy

Personality development should be regarded as important in infancy because:

- Emotional deprivation in infancy is linked to personality change
- Limited experience of environment inevitably affects personality,
- Personality traits that are in an active phase of development can be affected
- The development of self-concept occurs during infancy and
- Some behaviours established during infancy are permanent.

a) Emotions

All people experience basic emotions (joy, sadness, anger, fear). Emotions have adaptation/protective functions (e.g. infants crying when hungry). Emotions mobilise action in emergencies. Emotions promote exploration of the environment. People feel certain emotions more than others and all react differently to situations, which is why emotions form a basic element of a person's personality.

Development of emotions

Studying emotions in infancy is difficult because (1) emotional responsiveness is not clearly differentiated after birth, (2) outward emotions don't always reflect internal emotional experience (which could be physiological), and (3) they don't have language. There are many explanations for the origins of emotions: (1) Biologically-based explanations (emotions originate in the genetic blueprint), (2) Cognitive-socialisation explanations (cognitive processes act as mediators that bridge the gap between environmental stimuli and the emotion/response the child expresses, for example past experiences with dogs will effect how the child reacts to ones presence), and (3) Contextual explanations (emphasize the positive or negative of emotions and their intensity). *When do emotions appear?* Basic emotions, like signs of contentment/interest/distress, appear soon after birth. Within 6 months, these develop into joy, sadness, disgust, anger and fear. Emotions involving the self (self-conscious emotions), like embarrassment/empathy/ jealousy arise once children have developed self-awareness, between 15 and 24 months of age. Self-evaluative emotions like pride/shame/guilt emerge at age 3. Lastly, emotions involving others, like empathy emerges during the second year and depends on social cognition.

Emotional expression

The earliest displays of basic emotion are crying and smiling. The smile initially occurs in REM sleep. As they grow older they start reacting to stimuli, so now the child smile during states of wakefulness (non-selective social smile). Smiles then become reserved for familiar people (selective social smile). Laughing occurs at around 4 months old. This shift shows the maturation of the cerebral cortex. Smiling influences the parent-child interaction, creating a supportive relationship that promotes the child's developing tendencies. Crying is another common infant emotion. Newborns cry primarily for discomfort. Three patterns of cry are identified: the basic cry (hungry cry – rhythmical, noise, pause, breath), then the angry cry (extra force in the noise part of the basic cry), and the pain cry (long vocalisation, longer silence as they hold breath, and then gasp). By two months old, crying patterns become fussy/irregular. For babies, crying is a vital form of communication/exercising control of their lives. Babies that are quickly comforted cry less by the end of the first year. Babies who are ignored or scolded become more aggressive and fretful.

Emotional Communication Between Parent and Child

A baby's cry or smile is one of the first social actions and it usually stimulates a two-way communication process. A baby's smile will elicit the parent's reaction, while a parent's emotional reaction influences the baby's emotional reaction. At about 2-3 months old babies start to respond to the facial expressions of others. The ability to read emotions is important in babies' social and emotional development, as it contributes towards the establishment of attachment bonds. As they grow older, babies start making use of social referencing, they actively seek approval or disapproval for their actions from people they trust. This also indicates their realisation that other people have

	<p>feelings or thoughts. Social referencing plays an important role in the indirect learning of behaviour (for example, a mothers anxious facial expression will show a child not to do something). When parents give conflicting signals babies show anxious behaviours, but adapt quickly if parents give like signals.</p> <p><i>Emotional Regulation</i> Are strategies used to adjust/change our emotional state to a comfortable level, in order to accomplish our goals. Infants have a basic capacity to regulate their emotions, seen in self-soothing behaviour (sucking). They also engage in mutually regulatory interactions with their mothers (attention diversion). Emotional development is induced by the development of the cerebral cortex. Once a baby anticipates soothing, they learn that emotions can be controlled. Babies who aren't soothed may fail to develop properly, resulting in an anxious, reactive temperament.</p> <p>b) Temperament</p> <p>Temperament is the inherent characteristic way in which a person reacts to stimuli, and refers to that specific aspect of personality that has to do with feelings and the expression thereof. Temperament traits are regarded as the core of personality. Temperament plays a key role in the psychological adjustment of children. Temperament is changeable and that environmental factors can modify the child's reactions and behaviour.</p> <p>There are 9 dimensions of temperament: activity level, rhythm, distractibility, approach or avoidance, adaptability, attention span or persistence, intensity of reaction, responsiveness threshold and quality of mood. Most babies can be placed in one of three groups: easy child, difficult child and slow to warm up child. There are three core dimensions of temperament: effort control, negative affectivity and extraversion (see table 128: 3.4).</p> <p>How stable is temperament? Some traits show structural developmental changes, while some remain stable (like agreeableness, shyness, activity level and irritability). However, to a large extent, temperament may be influenced by environmental variables like good quality caregiving and stable family relationships, or vice versa. The term <u>goodness-of-fit</u> is used to refer to the nature of interaction between the baby's temperament and his or her environment. Optimal development will take place when the baby's temperament and environmental influences are in tune with each other. If not, problematic behaviour may result. If a difficult baby is also in a difficult environment, that baby could have developmental issues. Goodness-to-fit is also evident in cultural differences (some value an active temperament and some don't).</p> <p>c) The Self Concept</p> <p>Self-concept consists of the unique set of traits and characteristics an individual considers true about him/herself (the view they have of themselves). For infants, the self-concept consists of the subject self, which is the "I", the objective self, which is the "Me/Mine", and the emotional self, which refers to children's abilities to understand and regulate their own emotions. Several characteristics contribute towards their growing self-awareness:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Self-agency (action will bring out a reaction), 2. The development of object permanence (differentiating familiar from unfamiliar and that they are separate) 3. Self-recognition (recognising themselves in a photo or mirror) 4. Self-description (describe themselves as a separate object), and emotional self-awareness (understanding of/ability to control emotion). 5. Emotional self-awareness develops as a result of cognitive maturation and self-exploration.
<p>Early Childhood</p>	<p>Theories of personality development As children go through preschool, their personalities take on a clearer definition. According to the psychoanalytic theory, during the ages of 3-6, initiative develops. Children become more resourceful,</p>

tackle new problems, and activities with peers. If parents constantly discourage or punish children's developing initiative, they could develop unnecessary guilt feelings. According to the social-learning theory, external rewards/punishments/role models shape a child's behaviour. According to the social cognitive development perspective, children learn more and more complex concept, and learn to reject some and accept others (race/friendships).

Emotions

Self-development contributes to the development of self-conscious emotions, like guilt/shame/pride. Children become more aware of their own/others feelings. Understanding their own emotions helps children to guide their behaviour/control expression/be sensitive to other's feelings. From the age of 4-5, they are able to refer to causes, consequences and behavioural signs of emotions. They emphasise external factors (like food making them happy) rather than internal, but this changes with age. Pre-schoolers become good at predicting friend's behaviour (theory of mind development), and formulate good ways of reducing negative behaviour (like hugging). However, they still have difficulty understanding conflicting emotions, which coincides with their cognitive ability to focus on one aspect only. Family relationships also influence understanding. Pre-schoolers who experience secure attachment relationships are more advanced in their emotional understanding. Pre-schoolers who grow up in families that frequently talk about feelings are better at judging emotions at a later stage.

Emotional expression: Basic emotions:

- a) **Happiness:** By the end of the second year, children will jump, clap, run, laugh, and hug to express their joy. However, during the socialisation phase, kids are taught to control their emotions and not get too boisterous in certain situations and behave freely in others.
- b) **Fear and anxiety:** The cause of fear may either be the presence of a threat or the absence of safety. Fear is influenced by contexts, individual differences in temperament and by experience (age and maturity also play a role). Younger children fear animals, the dark, imaginary creature, sudden intense stimuli and being separated from their parents. How can children cope with their fears: Encouraged to talk about them, associate fearful object with something positive, see others handling fearful object without fear, be gradually brought into contact with fearful object, teach them skills for handling fearful situations, explain the fearful situation, ensure the child they are loved, don't allow too much television, and parents should be a haven for their fear.
- c) **Anger:** Early reactions may be caused by objections to routines (dressing or eating), conflict with parents over authority, disagreement with peers over possession, and physical discomfort. As they grow older, there is a shift from uncontrolled violent reaction/tantrums to more subdued and controlled responses. Children learn to control anger through the process of socialisation. To keep children's angry feelings from erupting into harmful actions, this formula should be used: Acknowledge feeling – set limit – example for appropriate action.

Emotional expression: Involving the self

By the second year, **self-conscious emotions** (embarrassment, shame, guilt, envy, pride) develop as children's self-concepts become more defined. These emotions also require an understanding of the perspective of another person. Lowering of the head/eyes, or the covering of the face shows these emotions. At around the age of 3, self-conscious emotions become increasingly linked to **self-evaluation**. This means that self-conscious emotions may serve as a guideline for behaviour. Complex emotions also play an important role in children's performance-related behaviour (repeating a task that evoked pride) and their moral behaviour (guilty after transgression, therefore avoid repeating such behaviour).

Emotional expression: Involving others

Empathy (another complex emotion), emerges during early childhood, and is related to the child's developing self-awareness, language, and cognitive skills. Children become increasingly aware of/able to express concern for another situation.

Emotion regulation

Due to increasing mobility and improvement in social/cognitive development, pre-schoolers learn **avoidance strategies** (avoid situations that lead to negative emotions). They also blunt emotions by restricting sensory input (close their eyes/block their ears). Older children use **language strategies** (self-comfort) and **cognitive strategies** (trying not to think of thing) to control negative emotions. **Masking** is another strategy, where they pretend an emotion state for certain situations. Masking is related to **display rules**, which are cultural guidelines for when, how and to what degree emotions may be displayed. Parents play an important role in helping their child regulate their emotions. Parent who have an **emotion-coaching approach** monitor their kid's emotions, view negative emotions as teaching opportunities, assist them in labelling emotions and coach them on how to deal with them. Parents who have an **emotion-dismissing approach** view their role as one to deny, ignore or change negative emotions. These children show poorer regulation of emotion, are less focused and have more behaviour problems than the children of emotion coaching parents do.

Gender

Males and females are actually psychologically more alike than different. The only notable differences are, boys are more aggressive, boys have better visual-spatial awareness, girls are better at decoding social messages and visual cues. **Gender stereotypes** are inaccurate beliefs that certain characteristics and activities pertain only to a specific gender.

Gender Role Development

Gender role refers to the patterns/attitudes that are viewed as appropriate or typical for a male or female of a specific society. **Gender-role development includes** three processes:

1. The acquisition of **gender identity** (the knowledge that they are male/female, but they do not understand that this will never change – **gender constancy**).
2. The development of **gender stereotypes** (what colours and toys are meant for boys and for girls (which are absolute rules that fade in adolescence).
3. The development of **gender-typed behaviour** patterns (the display of the typical behaviour of their gender, having same sex friends and beginning to segregate from the boys).

Theories of Gender-Role Development**a) Social influences**

According to **social learning theory**, children learn gender roles in two ways, firstly through

1. **Differential reinforcement** (children are encouraged and rewarded for gender appropriate behaviour and punished for gender-inappropriate behaviour – boys and girls are treated differently, like gendered play – parents and others influence gendered behaviour)
2. **Observation and modelling** (imitation) of behaviour (children are exposed to a number of models at home, in the outside world and in the media, that set the example for children as to how girls should act and how boys should act) . This theory offers a good explanation for the acquisition of gender-appropriate behaviour through the processes of modelling and reinforcement. However this viewpoint does not consider the children's own input into their gender-role development, like the cognitive perspective does.

	<p>b) Cognitive influences</p> <p><u>The cognitive developmental theory</u></p> <p>Children’s gender typing develops after they have acquired a concept of gender. Firstly, gender-role development is dependent on cognitive development. This means that children must first understand gender before they can be influenced by their social experiences. Secondly, children are actively involved in their own socialisation. They are not passive recipients of social influences. There are 3 stages that must occur before a child can understand what it means to be male or female:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Gender Identity (children’s knowledge of themselves as male or female, which develops around age 3) 2. Gender stability (gender identity remains stable over time, boys will become men and girls will become women, which occurs at around four years old) 3. Gender constancy (at age 7 they realise that gender is unchangeable, no matter the situation, and the concept of gender is established). This theory is criticized because it assumes that gender constancy needs to be attained before children seek information regarding gender-appropriate behaviour. <p><u>The gender schema theory</u></p> <p>This theory emphasises the importance of the development of gender identity and children’s intrinsic motivation to act in a gender-typical way. Children actively seeking knowledge regarding values, attitudes and activities related to their view of a specific gender reach this. This means they actually socialise themselves. Self-socialisation begins when children have developed a basic gender identity at approximately 2-3 years old. A gender schema is a cognitive structure that organises the social world into male and female. First, children develop a same gender and opposite gender schema (appropriate behaviour for boys and girls). Second, they develop an own-gender schema, which serves as a basis for guidelines for gender appropriate behaviour. These schemas are powerful mechanisms for organising their social world, gender schemas may also cause distortion of information that does not fit in the schema.</p> <p>Racial and ethnic identity</p> <p>The term race is a socio-political construct and is used to describe observable differences in people (skin colour/features). The term ethnicity is used to describe one’s cultural background, which is typically associated with a specific (language) group. Preschool children become aware of their surroundings at a very young age. Children’s ethnic identity develops according to 5 components:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Ethnic Knowledge: a child’s knowledge that their ethnic group has certain distinguishing characteristics. 2. Ethnic self-identification: a child’s categorisation of themselves as members. 3. Ethnic constancy: a child’s understanding that the distinguishing characteristics of their ethnic group will never change thus they will always be members. 4. Ethnic-role behaviours: a child’s engagement in the behaviours of their ethnic group. 5. Ethnic feelings and preferences: a child’s feelings about belonging to their ethnic group and their preferences for its characteristics. <p>Children don’t really understand that race is a lasting feature of themselves until they are about 8.</p>
<p>Middle Childhood</p>	<p>Theories of Personality Development</p> <p>Freud believed that children between the ages of 6-12 concentrate on developing social/academic skills and friendships with members of the same gender (latency stage). Erikson called it the industry versus inferiority stage (competence/ confidence or not in their abilities). Competence is defined as demonstrating a pattern of effective adaption to the environment, and is developed in four areas: Adjusting to school, Establishing peer relationships, Learning to play by the rules, achieving academically.</p>

	<p>Self-understanding: The Development of Self-concept and self-esteem</p> <p>Children start describing themselves in terms of psychological traits. Children’s descriptions of themselves become increasingly differentiated (good at some stuff bad at other stuff), meaning their descriptions are more realistic. Differentiation is caused by social comparisons. Cognitive development affects the changing structure (combining typical experiences/behaviours into psychological characteristics) and content (cognitive capacities and social feedback play a role – improved prospective-taking skills, the formation of their ideal self and their real self) of self-concept. Furthermore, in Middle Childhood, self-esteem differentiates and becomes more realistic, but their judgements on themselves are compartmentalised/separate (FIGURE 5.1 (PAGE 258)). Each section does not contribute equally to the child’s general self-esteem (it depends on which area means the most to the child). APPLICATION: HOW CHILDREN’S SELF ESTEEM CAN BE INCREASED (PAGE 259). Next, Self efficiency refers to the child’s belief in their ability to do well, even though it does become more realistic in middle childhood, children notoriously believe they achieve better than the really do, thus parents must help shape this concept.</p> <p>Emotional Development</p> <p>Children show an increased understanding of complex emotions like pride/shame. They understand that more than one emotion can be experienced in a particular situation. They see how events lead to emotional reactions. They improve in emotional suppression/concealment (self-regulation due to high social competence and low problem behaviour). They understand emotions and display rules. They refine self-initiated strategies for redirecting feelings. Towards the end of this phase they understand the role of cognition (morality) in emotions (RESEARCH FOCUS: Children’s Coping Strategies For Fearful Events pg260). Also, Emotional Intelligence (EI) starts developing in this phase. EI involves four main areas: (1) developing emotional self-awareness (like separating feelings from actions), (2) managing emotions (like controlling anger), (3) reading emotions (like empathy), and (4) handling emotions (solving conflict). Children that have skills associated with EI seem to: enjoy better physical health, score higher academically, have a higher IQ, get along better with friends, have fewer behavioural problems, increased emotional respect, better self-worth/self-acceptance, make better decisions involving sex/alcohol/drugs, and have better coping skills. Parents and teachers play a key role in the development of kid’s EI, so it is important that they too have developed EI. Listening, paying attention and respecting a child’s emotions are valuable skills in emotional training. EI has been criticised because it is not easy to measure, acquire, and needs to be separated for different genders and cultures.</p>
Adolescents	<p>Theories of Personality Development</p> <p><u>Temperament and Personality traits:</u> See Table 6.3 AND Table 6.4 on page 340. Our temperament and personality traits are not only formed by our genes, but also by environmental context, and life experiences (which are particularly important as they alter the connection between emotional reactions to event, conceptualisations of events and strategies for coping with events).</p> <p><u>Adaptive Functioning:</u> There are 3 processes (SOC) that together make up an effective strategy of maximising adaptive functioning over the course of development: (1) selection (identifying one’s goals, committing to them and limiting oneself to a smaller number of tasks), (2) optimisation (directing one’s effort, energy time and other resources towards one’s chosen goals), and (3) compensation (efforts directed at overcoming limitations or lack of resources). Therefore, to determine adolescents’ functionality, one should consider the following: what they do when deciding to pursue goals, how they develop knowledge/skills/resources to attain their goals, and how they deal with the diversity of outcomes their actions will produce/how they deal with failure/disappointment.</p> <p><u>The Psychoanalytic Perspective:</u> Freud believed that in adolescence you are in the final stage of development (the genital stage), and psychosexual maturity is reached, thus libido (sexual drive) needs to be channelled into a healthy sexual relationship. On the other hand, Erikson believed that the central crisis faced in adolescence was the development of an identity, where role confusion or identity confusion may result.</p>

Identity Development

Erikson's theory: Identity versus identity confusion: This is the best account of identity growth during adolescence, and Erikson was the first theorist to mention the formation of a **personal identity** which was a key step in the formation of a productive and happy adult.

(a) *The development of an identity* – **Identity development** implies that adolescents need to define who they are, what is important to them and what directions they want to take in life. **Identity crisis** is a temporary period of confusion values and goals are questioned. **Psychosocial moratorium** is the period of time where adolescents find themselves and their roles as adults through experimentation. In order to develop an own identity, adolescents have to master the following tasks:

- **Ego Synthesis** (form a continuous, integrated, unified image of the self)
- **Socio-cultural identity** (their identity must include value-orientations of their culture)
- **Gender-role identity** (accepting the changes of sexual maturity, and identify their gender)
- **Career identity** (becoming realistic in their abilities and achievements)
- **Own value system** (they must form an own basic philosophy, serving as a life anchor)

(b) *Identity Confusion* – occurs when adolescents are indecisive about themselves and their roles. This confusion and lack of self-confidence cause anxiety and hostility. Identity confusion could result in: (1) **Identity Foreclosure** (identity crisis is resolved by making a series of premature decisions about one's identity, based on other's expectations of what one should be), and (2) **Negative Identity** (they form an identity contrary to the cultural values and expectations).

(c) *Evaluation of Erikson's view of Identity Formation* – research has revealed the following shortcomings to Erikson's findings: (1) the term *crisis* implies an active search for identity, creates the impression of an intense traumatic experience and implies that identity development occurred at a specific point. Which is why modern researchers prefer the term *exploration*. (2) Identity development occurs much later than Erikson suggests. (3) Identity doesn't form as a unified whole as Erikson suggests (one may know what career they want but not their gender identity).

James Marcia's theory: The Formulation of identity statuses: Based on Erikson's theory, Marcia emphasises the identity statuses or the way the identity crises may be resolved. The identity status of adolescents is determined according to the *crises* they have already worked through, and by the degree of *commitment* to these choices. **Table 6.5 pg345**. Marcia noted 4 identity statuses:

(1) **Identity achievement** (the person has passed through the crisis and has a strong commitment to a career and a value system), (2) **Identity moratorium** (the person is still in a crisis period and is actively investigating alternatives), (3) **Identity foreclosure** (no crisis is experienced, but there is commitment to goals/values from parental influence), and (4) **Identity diffusion** (a crisis may/may not have been experienced, but the individual isn't committed to anything and doesn't attempt any commitment. Adolescents will fluctuate between the various statuses until they reach a final identity. Normally they begin in the foreclosure/diffusion statuses, they then experience the moratorium status and then finally the identity achievement status. (Page 345 – can read why some adolescents develop differently from others, but the most important part of this section is the identity statuses). Also, the following may contribute to identity formation:

- **Cognitive development** - development of abstract reasoning and information processing
- **Parenting** – Strong parent child attachment bonds, secure base, open communication
- **Peer interactions** – provide support/role models/opportunities' to explore careers
- **Schools and communities** - enriching and varied experiences
- **Personality** - whether you are flexible/open-minded or lack in confidence plays a role
- **Socio-cultural/Socio-Political events** – like the end of apartheid, effects psychological identity

Forming a group identity: An individual identity indicates what one has in common with others and leads to group identity/feeling of sameness/belonging to a group. A secure ethnic/cultural identity is generally associated with high self-esteem/optimism/sense of mastery over the environment. Exploring ethnic heritage/learn about other cultures in an atmosphere of respect fosters identity achievement in many areas of social and emotional development, like ethnic tolerance. **RESEARCH FOCUS: Identity development of South African adolescence in a democratic society pg347.**

Self-conceptions: Adolescence Understanding of Self

Adolescents start thinking of themselves in terms of abstractions (I am sensitive/cheerful/reserved)

The actual self, possible self and false self:

- **Actual Self** – is the real self, who they actually are. Awareness of the actual self provides motivation to strive for their ideal self and avoid becoming their feared self.
- **Possible Self** – includes the ideal self and the feared self, and exists in abstractions. Discrepancies between the real and possible self may result in feelings of failure/depression.
- **Ideal Self** – is who the person would like to be
- **Feared Self** – is the person the adolescent imagines it is possible to become
- **False Self** – is related to the increasing complexity of self-conception, this is the self they present to others while realising it is not actually what they are thinking or feeling. It is a way to impress others and conceal what they don't want others to see. Adolescent self-understanding becomes increasingly complex, because they are able to describe themselves in contradictory ways

Self-Esteem: Adolescents self esteem changes as several new dimensions are added to themselves and need consideration, like changing physical appearance/sexuality/social relationships/career choices. Initially their self-esteem will decline, and then once they have adjusted to these changes, self worth is restored. The three main aspects of self-esteem to take note of:

- **Overall self-esteem** – includes all areas where self-esteem can be drawn from. Adolescents do not need to have a positive self-esteem in all domains to have a high global self-esteem. Each domain of the self-esteem influences global self-esteem only to the extent that the adolescent views that domain as important.
- **Baseline self-esteem** – is the stable/enduring sense of worth and well-being a person has. People with a high baseline self esteem are positive about themselves on most days. People with low baseline self-esteem tend to have a poor opinion of themselves.
- **Barometric self-esteem** – is the fluctuating sense of worth and well-being people have as they respond to different thoughts, experiences and interactions in the course of a day. Adolescents feel these variations most intensely.

Culture and the Self: A distinction is made between the independent self, promoted by individualistic cultures and the interdependent self, promoted by collectivistic cultures. Because differences between individualism and collectivism are difficult to explain, an explanation incorporating the concept of optimism was suggested. Optimism refers to the attitude that things happen for the best and that peoples wishes/aims will ultimately be fulfilled. (can read up more about this on pg353-354, but its common knowledge about the difference between individualism/collectivism ie Western/African)

Emotion

Adolescents experience certain emotional changes because of their physical, cognitive, personality and social development. Adolescents are inclined to experience fewer extremely positive emotions and more negative emotions than younger children. They are also inclined to have more mood swings than children/adults, which implies that they are less emotionally stable (gender plays a role here). These changes should be attributed to hormonal, cognitive and environmental factors. Adolescents tend to be more focused on themselves, which is why they are more susceptible to emotions like anxiety, guilt, and embarrassment. Conversely, because of their ability to think in a more abstract and complex way, they are more inclined to show insight into their own and other people's feelings (development of empathy). Learning emotional management in adolescence prepares them to deal with emotional upheavals during adulthood.

Social Development	
<p>Basic Concepts of child and Adolescent Development</p>	<p>Social Development- involves the development of the individual's interactions and relationships with other people. Mustn't be confused with <i>socialisation</i> (Which is an aspect of social development where the individual acquires socially acceptable behaviour through social interactions with other.</p> <p>Albert Bandura: Social cognitive theory</p> <p>Sometimes children learn without reinforcement or punishment using:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Imitation -Modelling -Observational learning <p>Was originally social learning theory but then realised there was cognitive factors so it changed to social-cognitive theory. As children decided which behaviour to model and was influenced by children's own expectations like personal standards and value system. Self-efficacy (belief in their own abilities and potential) play an important role in modelling.</p> <p>Lev Vygotsky's: socio-cultural theory</p> <p>He focused on the way adult's convey to children the beliefs, customs and skills of their culture. He believed that because a fundamental aim of all societies is to enable children to acquire essential cultural values and skills. Vygotsky suggested that a child's learning of new skills is guided by an adult or older child, who models and structures the learning experience. Zone of proximal development refers to tasks which are too difficult for a child to do alone, but which he or she can manage with the help of an adult.</p>
<p>Infancy</p>	<p>The first social relationship is usually with the parents and is also a period of increasing socialisation, in which the child learns the correct behaviour.</p> <p>Attachment</p> <p>An emotional bonding that takes place between individuals. <i>Psychoanalysts Sigmund Freud and Rene Spitz</i> believe that the infant becomes attached to the person who provides them with oral satisfaction. But <i>Harlow Harry</i> refuted this notion in a classic study with the <i>Rhesus monkeys</i>. Where regardless of which surrogate mother provided food, all young monkeys showed a definite preference for the cloth mother. Where only the wire monkey could provide food. Harlow showed that the hunger drive does not play such an overwhelming role in the development of attachment as initially thought. The provision of comfort, warmth and softness is of vital importance. The monkeys also needed social interaction for normal social development. The trust vs mistrust stage of development is key in which attachment is formed.</p> <p>John Bowlby: The development of attachment</p> <p>This theory emphasises the importance of the formation of attachment with a primary caregiver, specifically the security that develops from such a relationship.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The pre-attachment phase - (2-3 months and Indiscriminate responsiveness to humans) .The baby's behaviour is characterised mainly by genetically determined relax responses. Babies reaction towards strangers and familiar people tend to be the same • The attachment-in-the-making - (3-6 months and focusing on familiar people). It is characterised by baby's different reactions to familiar and unfamiliar people. The greater the attachment that develops between babies and their primary caregivers is particularly noticeable. Babies become upset if separated from their mother. • The phase of clear-cut attachment – (6 months to 2 years and active proximity seeking). Attachment to caregivers is clearly noticed. Because babies are able to walk/crawl they will always try to be where there caregivers are. Cry when caregiver leaves the room.

Attachment to primary caregivers is unique can still develop attachment to other family or friends.

- **Formation of a reciprocal relationship** – (starts at about 2 years and is partnership behaviour). Development of cognitive, social and emotional behaviour. Attachment between babies and caregivers is much more complex during this phase. Characteristics is the attempt made by babies to influence the behaviour of their caregivers to make them more responsive to their own needs.

Mary Ainsworth and Bowlby: Types of attachment

Strange Situation Test was to measure the quality of a baby's attachment in the laboratory.

- **Secure attachment** – Babies use their mothers as a security base from which they explore their world. Distressed when mother gone/ happy when their mother returns. Welcome physical contact with their mother. Positive reaction to strangers when mother is present
- **Avoidant attachment** – Babies are usually not upset when the mother leaves and when mother returns, babies usually avoid them. They do not attempt to explore their world with their mothers, not upset with strangers but sometimes avoid them like their mothers.
- **Ambivalent (or resistant) attachment** – babies become anxious even before mother leaves and becomes extremely upset when the mother does leave the room. When their mother return they behave ambivalently, also very wary of strangers even in mothers presence.
- **Disorganised attachment** – Greatest insecurity and is most likely to occur in infants whose mothers are insensitive, intrusive or abusive. Greet mother brightly when she returns but turns away and tends to show variety of confused contradictory behaviour.

Factors influencing attachment

Social interact forms an important component of attachment, however not all result in a healthy attachment

- **Attachment seeking behaviours** – such as crying, sucking, smiling, clinging or looking, usually leads to a response from the caregiver.
- **The mother's personality and her relationship with her baby** – plays an important role in attachment relationship. Mother babies who show a positive attachment are friendlier, more supportive, more helpful, more affectionate and more playful towards their children than mother whose children don't show a positive attachment. The more sensitive and responsive the greater the bond
- **The temperament of the infant** – also an important factor in the attachment between child and mother. If a baby is a difficult baby, this may have such a negative effect on the mother that the development of attachment bonds is not that simple. Baby's temperament and parents personalities, expectations and wishes could play a role.
- **A Working mother** – may also hinder the development of attachment in certain cases. Children are not harmed by the fact that the mother was employed. When a healthy relationship exists between the child and mother and between child and the rest of the family. The fact that mother work should not have a negative influence on the child. But if the mother feels guilty and lacks family support, the situation could be harmful to the child.
- **Psychosocial factors** – Such as unhappy marriage, social adversity, trauma and loss, and a lack of social support, may be responsible for unsatisfactory bonds of attachment. Main reason is the mother take up so much time, energy and attention coping with these negative conditions they don't have time to form proper strong bonds with their child. Low levels of stimulation and unable to help baby with emotional regulation.
- **Mental problems** – such as post-partum depression (experienced after the birth of an infant) are also related to problems in mother-infant relationship.

Long-term effect of attachment

The stronger a baby's attachment to their mother, the easier it is for the child to be separated from her. Children who feel secure are more inclined to move away from the mother in order to explore their environment. Security enables them to try new things. Attachment bonds seem to effect social, emotional and cognitive competence.

- Securely attached to mother more like to obey their mother than insecurely attachment infants
- Securely attached also have a larger , more varied vocabularies than insecurely attached infants
- Securely attached infants are more sociable and have more positive interactions with peers whereas insecurely attached infants show more negative emotions (fear, anger and distress) where securely attached infants show more joyfulness in even the same situation.
- Securely attached children at the age of four they are also more inquisitive, more responsive to play mates
- Intimacy of secure attachment seem to prepare children for the intimacy of friendships, they have more stable friendships whereas insecurely attached infants often have later problems

Should be treated with caution for the following reasons

- Firstly, attachment is only one of a variety of factors that could influence a child's development. Secure attachment alone, does not ensure self-confidence and self-reliance
- Secondly, Child's subsequent adjustment problems are not the result of earlier unsatisfactory attachment, but rather the outcome of the poor quality of a child-rearing practices children received throughout their earlier years. It is possible for insecurely attached children can change into securely attached.

Role of the Father

Babies develop a stronger attachment to their father than was initially thought. Father may physically care for their children just as well as mother do and that father are just as sensitive and response to the baby's difficulties as are the mothers. Generally the mother feeds and nurtures the child while the father generally spends time playing with their child. Fathers often do unusual and unexpected things that babies find exciting. Fathers can be very powerful figures for attachment figures who can have a powerful influence on their children's social and emotional development. Sensitive and challenging playing of fathers with their children is associated with children's later positive attachment bonds. The quality of the father-child relationship is of far greater importance than the mere physical presence of the father. Both husband and wife believe that men are capable of nurturing infants.

The role of the caregiver

Various societies in Africa and in India show that children have numerous caregivers and form close emotional bonds with a number of people, not only with the mother. Despite the variety of attachment bonds, these children display healthy emotional development. **Allo-parenting** – refers to a social system in which other members of the society help to support children who are not their own. The view of dyadic attachment model (i.e mother-child attachment) seriously limits the inclusion of the cultural variation that occurs in reality in attachment formation.

Stranger anxiety

The fear that some babies show in the presence of a stranger. Generally starts after 6 months and reaches climax at 8 to 12 months and gradually diminishes from 12 to 15 months.

May influence infants' reaction to strangers

- Stranger anxiety occurs most frequently when the baby's mother is not present and least when the mother holds the child.
- If babies are given time to get used to strangers, they are more likely to allow strangers to

- pick them up
- Babies tend to react more positively to a stranger when the stranger is a child and not an adult
 - Children who experience secure attachments seem to experience less stranger anxiety than those who do not.
 - Children who are cared for by many caregivers experience less stranger anxiety.
 - Culture also plays a role. As mentioned elsewhere, children in some cultures are socialised to act friendly towards strangers. These children will then either react neutrally or welcoming towards strangers.

The different viewpoints of stranger anxiety

- **The cognitive viewpoint** – Baby realises that the stranger's face is different from other familiar faces and that this leads to incongruity.
- **The Behavioural viewpoint** – A baby is obliged to do something when he or she is confronted with an unfamiliar stimulus. A familiar face elicits a familiar response and the baby's distress decreases. If there is an unfamiliar face the baby becomes tense to the point where they will cry.
- **The contingency viewpoint** – When a baby is exposed to a stranger, the interaction becomes unpredictable. There is thus the possibility that the stranger will not behave in accordance with the baby's expectations. Fear and its accompanying behaviour now occur because the baby feels that he or she has lost control of the social environment.
- **The evolutionary viewpoint** – Stranger anxiety is regarded as part of a universal behavioural system. The assumption is that it will keep the baby from the unknown, and in this way, the baby will be protected
- **Culture** – Various traditional African cultures in south Africa believe that should the baby show discomfort towards a specific stranger, this is a sign that this particular person is bad or bewitched.

Separation anxiety

Refers to the fear and accompanying behaviour that babies demonstrate when the mother, father or caregiver leaves them for a short while. Separation usually occurs around 8-12 months and disappears between 20-24 months. Reaction to separation vary, depending on the situation in which the separation occurs. Separation anxiety is less likely to occur if the baby is left with familiar faces. Babies demonstrate separation anxiety because they have a concept of a permanent object. This means that they understand that objects and people continue to exist, even if they are out of sight. The baby realise that the caregiver continues to exist in another location away from him or her. Separation anxiety is shown because the baby would like to be with the caregiver, probably because an attachment bond has formed.

Socialisation

Child learns to conform to the moral standards, role expectations and requirements for acceptable behaviour of his or her particular community and culture. Socialisation during infancy is aimed primarily at the elimination of undesirable behaviour and the learning of desirable behaviour. Parents or caregivers are the most important socialisation agents.

Parents influence them in 3 ways

- Parents socialise their children through direct teaching, for instance by showing them how to eat and how to dress.
- Parents act as important role models through their interaction with their children. Parents who are loving, warm and responsive will have children who are warm and responsive towards others.
- Parents who control certain aspects of the child's social life that could have an influence on their social development, such as the neighbourhood in which they live and the organising of visits to friends.

Parenting styles and discipline

- **Positive reinforcement** – Which includes rewarding children for correct behaviour

- **Induction** – Which includes reasoning, explaining and the setting of clear limits
- **Scaffolding** – Which refers to parental support of their children's efforts, allowing the children to be more skilful than they would be if they were rely on their own abilities
- **Power assertion** – Which includes physical punishment, forceful commands and the removal of objects and privileges
- **Love withdrawal** – When the parent ignores the child or reacts coldly towards his or her behaviour

Positive reinforcement, induction and scaffolding seems to lead to behaviour in children that is more acceptable, while assertion of power often leads to negative behaviour especially when this is the only means of discipline. Psychologist never recommend the withdrawal of love as child comply with their wishes but will generally tend to avoid them. In the first year parents generally reaction more physically and use verbal commands. The most important milestone that children reaches during socialisation is **Acquisition of toilet skills** – toilet training should not begin before children have reached the necessary level of neuromuscular maturity. This development normally starts at the age of 18 months old. The later the toilet training begins, the faster the child will learn the desirable behaviour, so like 20-24 months. Parents should be attentive to the cues that indicate that their child is biologically and psychologically ready. A relaxed supportive and accepting attitude with sufficient positive reinforcement each time the child achieves success is much more likely to produce positive results.

Sibling interactions

Sibling play an important role in the infant's attachment formation. In the stranger Situation Test, babies who become upset turned to their siblings for help. Indications that siblings are more powerful socialisation agents in certain situations than their parents. In some cultures, older children act as caregivers for their younger siblings. A new baby is often upsetting for younger children as their mother has to spend a lot their time looking after the new born baby and gives less attention to the other children. Some children act negatively toward the new baby and some children will be proud of their new brother or sister. Father can play an important role by increasing their interaction with the older siblings.

Peer interactions

Refers to a companion who is approximately of the same age and developmental level. Peers function as equals, it is primarily among equals that children acquire such social skills as compromising, competing and cooperating. Peers provide a natural comparison against which children can measure their own accomplishments. The way in which children relate to their peers undergoes significant developmental changes. Children's peer network start out small, but as they enter day-care and school and as their cognitive, language and social skills develop, their peer networks expand and their relationships with peers grow intensity. At 3 months they get excited to see another baby, 6 months give more specific signals like smiling, touching and other facial features.

Peer relations in infancy seem to develop through three phases

- During the first phases, the contact is object-centred. This means that the interaction is elicited by a common toy and attention in centred on it. Negative reactions are usually attributable to conflict over toys
- During the second phase, babies try to elicit response from another. For instances, a baby will offer another baby toy
- During this phase, babies are able to exchange roles. For instance, babies will take turns in offering one another a toy.

The long-term effects of peer relations in infancy are unclear.

Early
Childhood

Family relationships

Parents or caregivers

- **Attachment** – By 12 months infants have normally developed a clear attachment. Pre-schoolers continue to show powerful attachments to their parents, but the manifestation of this bond begins to change. By 2/3 years the attachment becomes less visible. They understand that they will leave and come back. By 3/4 years they may also use communication offered by the parents to say they'll be coming back. **Goal-corrected partnership** – infant's goal is always to have the attachment figure within sight or touch. While the pre-schooler's goal is to still be in contact with the parents, this contact no longer requires a constant physical presence. The relationship continues even if they are not together. Securely attached pre-schoolers seem to experience fewer behavioural problems.
- **Parenting styles** – Conflict between parent and child may arise. *Dimensions of parenting* : - **Warmth and nurturance** – Children with warm and nurturing parents are generally more securely attached than children of cold and detached parents. They generally show positive development in most areas. **Consistent control** – Parents who set clear rules and consistently apply them, usually have children who are much less likely to be defiant or noncompliant. **Expectations** – Children of parents who have high expectations of them, also tend to fare better, specifically regarding their self-esteem and altruistic. **Communication** – Open, clear and regular communication between parent and child has been linked to positive outcomes. Listening to the child is just as important as talking to him or her. **Parenting styles**
- **The authoritative parenting style** – These parents meet the standards of all four dimensions mentioned above. It involves high acceptance and involvement, adaptive control techniques and the granting of appropriate autonomy. The most successful approach.
 - **The authoritarian parenting style** – This style is high in control and expectation, but low in nurturance and communication. They appear cold and rejecting. They frequently degrade their children by putting them down and shouting and commands. Children generally become negative.
 - **The permissive parenting style** – These parenting show much warmth and nurturance, but fail as far as expectations, control and communication are concerned. Little control of the children's behaviour will result in that child having to make their own decisions at an age when they are not capable of doing so. Children become impulsive, disobedient and rebellious.
 - **The uninvolved parenting style** – These parents don't meet any of the expectations of any of the parenting styles. They tend to be emotionally detached. Tend to have little or no energy left to cater to their children's needs. This style disrupts virtually all aspects of development, including attachment, cognition and emotional and social skills.
- **Sibling relationships** – Infants become attached to their older siblings. Sibling conflict increase significantly after 18 months. A cognitive and social understanding develops, siblings tend to become more constructive and the younger sibling participants in attempts to reconcile conflict. The conflict is generally over rights of possession. Parents should intervene. This intervention takes place in the form of teaching children appropriate ways to deal with disputes. If they behaviour is unchecked it can lead to behaviour problems at school. The *direct* influence stems from parents' treatment of siblings. Siblings tend to get on more with each other if they believe parents have no favourites and treat all sibling fairly. The *indirect* influence stems from the quality of the parents' relationship with each other. Many older siblings enjoy helping their parents take care of infants.

Peer relationships

The development of friendships with peers is one of the most important aspects of pre-schoolers'

social development. As they develop more self-awareness, become more effective in communicating, and better at understanding the thoughts and feelings of other.

Play – is an excellent example of the interdependence among the dimensions of development. Communication allow for the children to talk about what they are doing and how to play together. Gives children the opportunities in visual spatial skills, thus enhancing their cognitive skills. **Types of play :**

- **Functional play** – refers to repetitive activities such as skipping, jumping, rolling clay or moving toy cars. This type of play involves activity and does not have the goal of creating some end result. Involves fine motor development and body movement.
- **Constructive play** – Involves children manipulating objects or toys to make something such as tower of blocks. In courage’s children to practise their fine motor and cognitive skills.
- **Social pretend (Socio-dramatic or Fantasy play)** – They use make-believe to change the function of the objects. Creating imaginary situations and enact pretend roles. These play activities reflect children’s growth in cognitive, perspective-taking and communication skills.
- **Games-with-rules** – such as hide-and-seek, board games and hop-scotch, provide opportunities for cognitive development and social understanding.

Children’s play proceeds in sequence from **solitary play** in which a child playing individually and apart from other children, to **parallel play** where children play near other children but do not try to influence their behaviour, to **cooperative play** where children interact by sharing, following one another and making suggestions. Concern often raised by parents is an **Imaginary friend**. This is common and normal phenomenon reflects the richness of the child’s fantasy play. Cultural variations do seem to occur. Cultural beliefs about the importance of play also effect early play behaviour.

Aggressive behaviour – refers to the physical or verbal intended to injure or harm someone else.

- **Instrumental aggression** – refers to aggression being used as a mean to an end. Children are usually not deliberately hostile, but shout, push or attack someone in order to get something
- **Hostile aggression** – on the other hand, is intended to hurt someone deliberately by hitting, kicking or insulting him or her. Aggression is no longer a means to an end, but an end in itself.

Usually emerges at 2 years, at the age where children begin to interact. Disputes over objects, privileges and territorial space are usually the instigators. Instrumental aggression diminishes as pre-schoolers grow older because they develop greater aggression. The increase in hostile aggression is related to children’s increasing ability to recognise the intentions of other. Occasional aggression is to be expected and is normal. Excessive aggression may cause problems for the child’s development. Aggressive tendencies tend to remain stable.

Causes of aggression

- **Instinct theories** – aggression is part of the evolutionary survival process of humans and therefore we are programmed to act aggressively in certain situations. These theories assume that aggression is an inherent response characteristic of the whole species. Psychologist today no longer accept aggression to be evolutionary.
- **Biological factors** – reactions to stimuli are activated by biological systems. Certain brain areas and hormones play an important role in the tendency to act aggression. Genetic factors also seem to play a role.
- **The frustration-aggression hypothesis** – individuals experience frustration when the attainment of their goals is blocked. Their inevitable reaction to this is aggression. Theorists realise not all aggression is caused by frustration and not all frustration leads to aggression.
- **Cognitive factors** – Children’s interpretations of their social environment, as well as their

views and assumptions regarding aggression. **One of the core determinants of aggression is the child's understanding of the intentions of the other person.** When children believe that their peer are deliberately hostile, they will be more inclined to retaliate with aggression than when they believe the action was accidental. **Aggression is caused by an inability to process social information adequately.** Children tend not to consider all available social cues, but focus on the aggression cues. **Aggressive children view the outcomes or results of aggression differently to non-aggressive children.** Aggression may lead to tangible rewards eg by getting what they want. Aggressive children do not seem to be concerned with the consequences of aggression. Child interpretation is that aggression holds no negative consequences for him or her.

- **Social factors – Parents** – they play an important role in aggressive behaviour. 2 dimensions of parenting style play a vital role. Nurturance of the child and disciplinary strategies that parents follow. Parents that are cold, negative, hostile and rejecting towards them tend to make them aggressive, then parents that are warm and positive. Parents that use strict and punitive disciplinary strategies have children that show aggressive interaction styles. Through their parent's actions, children learn that they can control other by hitting or threatening them. Permissive parents are often inconsistent in applying punishment, which means that children are sometimes punished for aggression and at other times not. Children therefore receive confusing messages as to which behaviour is permitted and which is not. Children might not learn that aggressive behaviour is unacceptable.
- **Community violence** - Exposure to community violence may have an important influence on the aggressive behaviour of both parent and their children. Influences parenting styles: parents are more aggressive, punitive and rejecting toward their child. The more children witness community violence, the higher their levels of aggression.
- **The media** – Violence portrayed on television and in electronic games has an important influence on children's behaviour.

Children start watching television fairly regularly at 6 months and by 2/3 years they are already ardent television viewers. Television viewing reaches a peak during late preschool years. Another peak is reached just before adolescent, followed by a decline during high school. It's not the amount of time but it's the content of programme material especially the violence and its effect on children, adolescents and adults. Another concern is the amount of violence in the media portrayed in the news and in reality shows. The violence in the media seem to be increasing.

- **The desensitisation effect** – refers to the reduction or eradication of cognitive, emotional and ultimately also behavioural responses.
- **The aggressor effect** – Some children and adults tend to become meaner, more aggressive and more violent as a result of exposure to violence.
- **The victim effect** – Both children and adults tend to see the world as a scarier place, become more fearful and initiate more self-protective measures.
- **The bystander effect** – Both children and adults tend to become more desensitised to violence, and more callous and less sympathetic to victims of violence
- **The appetite effect** - Both children and adults tend to develop an increased appetite for seeing more violent entertainment.

Children under the age of 8 are more vulnerable to television violence because children do not understand the concept. Aggressors who kick, hit and shoot are not necessarily the 'bad guys' and they do not always recognise that the aggressors are brought to justice. Video games appear to increase aggressive thoughts and feelings, physiological arousal and aggressive behaviours, as well as decreasing prosocial behaviours.

- **Controlling aggression :**
 - Parents are powerful models. They should therefore ensure that their own interaction styles are not aggressive.
 - Firmness is of utmost importance. Parents should never give in to a child's aggressive behaviour.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Parents should make less use of power assertion and more of induction • Children’s cognitions regarding the consequence of aggression can be changed by explaining to them that their behaviour harms other people • Children should be encouraged to practise prosocial behaviour • Parents should investigate the cause of their children’s behaviour in order to understand their children’s aggression • Children should be granted opportunities to verbalise their feelings in an appropriate manner • Parents could influence their children’s TV viewing habits • Parents should evaluate a video or internet game before a child is allowed to play. The following question should be asked : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> → Does the game involve some characters trying to harm others? → Does this happen frequently – more than once or twice in 30 minutes? → Is the aggression/violence rewarded in any way? → Is the aggression/violence portrayed humorously? → Are non-violent solutions absent or less ‘fun’ than the violent ones? → Are realistic consequences of violence absent from the game? <p>If two or more answers are ‘yes’, parents should think carefully about the lessons taught before allowing the child assess the game.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Should children persist with high levels of aggressive behaviour despite the abovementioned guidelines, it would be advisable to seek professional help. <p>Prosocial behaviour</p> <p>Prosocial behaviour is any voluntary action that is intended to benefit another individual. It includes positive social actions such as empathy and altruism. Certain prosocial behaviours such as taking turns and helpfulness seem to increase with age, while others such as comforting someone seems to be more common among pre-schoolers and children in primary grades than among older children. Longitudinal studies indicate that prosocial behaviour in the preschool years tends to continue into adulthood.</p> <p>Moral development</p> <p>Refers to a set of principles or ideas that enables individuals to differentiate between right and wrong to direct their behaviour accordingly. Building blocks of moral development in the first few years of life are emotions, self-regulation and conscience. Children should learn two lessons:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> → To experience negative emotions when they violate rules → Control their impulses to engage in prohibition behaviours. <p>This means that 18-24 months children are beginning to internalise rules and to anticipate disapproval when they fail to comply with them. Limited degree, to exert self-regulation in order to resist temptation. Reparative behaviours (trying to correct wrongdoing) seem to be linked to empathy, which develops even before the second year of life.</p>
<p>Middle Childhood</p>	<p>The role of the family</p> <p>Children in middle childhood spend much more time away from home. The child’s home is still the place that offers the most security and the family is still the pivot on which his or her life hinges. Children in middle childhood make huge demands on their parents. Many parents have to transport their children, help them plan for the day and the week. Help supervise and assist with their homework. Parents also face new financial pressures. Parents often have to protect the child, and they are responsible for teaching their children moral, religious and cultural values. Children gradually becomes less dependent on their parent in term of active help. They want more opportunities to make decision affecting their lives. They are also better able to compare different</p>

aspect of their family life with those of other families.

Parent-child relationship

It seems that parents, who have managed to establish an authoritative parenting style during the early years, may find parenting somewhere easier. This is due to engaging in **co-regulation**: Parents are still the main controllers and supervision, but permit children to be in charge of moment-by-moment decision-making. In turn, children inform parents of their whereabouts, activities and problems, so that parent may intervene when necessary

Models of influence in the family

Three different models represent different ways of thinking about directions of influence in the family

- **The Parent effects model** – This model assumes that influences run one way, from parents to child. The assumption is that the behaviour, parenting style, mood, emotion and circumstance of a parent may have a major influence on the development of the child.
- **The child effects model** – This model highlights instances in which children influence their parent rather than vice versa. As children mature into older children and adolescents, parents generally become less restrictive, because they assume that children become increasingly capable of making their own choices. Another example of a child effect is that a child's personality or temperament may affect the parents' behaviour. Behaviour problems in children may bring out a negative **coercive behaviour pattern** in their parents. It refers to an environment in which family members are locked in power struggles, each trying to control the other through aggression tactics such as threatening, shouting and hitting. This ultimately results in the parents giving in to the child's demands. Children's behaviour with their parents can be affected by their perceptions of their parents' attitudes toward them.
- **The bi-directional model** – Parent and child are seen to influence each other reciprocally; they tend to reinforce and perpetuate each other's behaviour. Many problems may evolve if the relationship between the parent and child deteriorates as the two interact over time.

Parents' role in children's social development

- **Parents as direct instructors** – Parents are responsible for transmitting values and attitudes to their children. Parents may do this by directly teaching their children the required rules and values, and explicitly inform and advise them on various issues. Another important element of the directive role of parents involves their efforts to scaffold their children's social development.
- **Parents as indirect socialisers** – Parents provide indirect socialisation through their own behaviour with and around their children. If children experience security in their first social relationship, they internalise these experiences to develop an **internal working model** for future relationships. This means if the early attachments were positive, this could affect future relationships positively.
- **Parents as social managers** – Parents manage their children's experiences and social lives, including their exposure to various people, activities and information. Parents are instrumental in the type of environments they choose for their children, such as the home, neighbourhood and school. Parents orchestrate children's out-of-home activities in ways that will promote their goals for their children's development. **Parenting from a distance** becomes increasingly prominent with children's developing autonomy and involvement in many new social settings.

Discipline

Controlling the child's behaviour and teaching the child to follow basic rules. Refers to the methods of teaching children character, self-control, moral values and appropriate behaviour. Punishment does not promote self-discipline; it only stops behaviour for that moment. Focus on

the positive discipline

See table for the difference between discipline and punishment page 267

- **Parental behaviours** – Parents have to provide leadership and be in charge. If a parent does not take control, the child will. Parents are powerful. Parents are powerful models: They cannot expect good behaviour from their children if they behave badly.
- **Establishing rules and setting limits** – Children need rules to guide their behaviour. Limits give children a sense of security, protection and containment. A calm reasoned discussion gives parents an opportunity to express warmth and compassion to the child and an opportunity to demonstrate positive ways to handle conflict. By using **inductive techniques** such as discussion and explanation, rather than **power assertion** such as spanking and shouting, parents lay a foundation of love and care and are generally respected by their children.
- **Offering choice** – Allowing children to make age appropriate choice empowers them and gives them some control over their lives. Parents decide the options and present the alternatives that they are prepared to allow.
- **Consistency and follow-through** – Parents and caregivers need to communicate clearly what the rules are – also what the consequences will be for disobeying them. If parents follow through with predictable and reliable action towards their children's behaviour, the results will mostly be effective.
- **Positive feedback** – Most powerful and the easiest tool we have to encourage and improve behaviour and build self-esteem.
- **Punishment that teaches**
- **Punishment should be used properly**
- **Parents usually tend to get back what they put in, also with respect to punishment** – Example shouting at children increases the chance that child will shout back.
- **How parents use disciplinary tactic is more important than what tactic they use :**
 - Reducing temptations to misbehave
 - Set clear rules and limits
 - Praise good behaviour
 - Use explanation and reasoning when misbehaviour occurs
- **Offer them opportunities to make amends**

Discipline refers to techniques to teach children appropriate behaviour. The emphasis is therefore on teaching rather than on punishing.

Sibling relationships and only children

Sibling rivalry tends to increase as the children grow older. The child who gets less parental affection, more disapproval or fewer material resources, is likely to be resentful. **Sibling bullying** may occur. It is linked to conflictual, competitive and hostile relationships with siblings. Children in middle childhood continue to rely on one another for companionship and assistance.

See table on positive sibling relationships page 273

Researchers have identified several patterns or styles of sibling relationship:

- **Caregiver relationship**
- **Buddy relationship**
- **Critical or conflictual relationship**
- **Rival relationships**
- **Casual relationships**

They do better in school and attain higher levels of education.

Peer relationships

Children become more inclined to interact with other children of the same gender and age. They also terminate a relationship with another child when they are no longer satisfied with interaction.

Nature and function of the peer group

Function on very a flexible foundation. Anyone who wants to join a group to play is permitted to do so. Different statuses are attached to the various roles fulfilled by the members of the peer group. Peer group often plays more important roles than the parents. The most important functions a peer group fulfils are the following:

- **The peer group provides comradeship**
- **The peer group provides opportunities for trying out new behaviours**
- **The peer group facilitates the transfer of knowledge and information**
- **The peer group teaches its members obedience to rules and regulations**
- **The peer group helps to reinforce gender roles**
- **The peer group causes a weakening of the emotional bond between the child and his/her parents**
- **The peer group provides its member with experience of relationship in which they can compete with other (their peers) on an equal footing.**

Friendships

Children's friendships typically progress through the following 3 phases

- **Play-based friendship** – (3 to 7 years) Play-based friendships are the most common for younger children.
- **Loyal and faithful friends** - (8 to 11 years)
- **Intimate friends** – (Adolescence and beyond)

Children tend to have fewer friends than during pre-school and tend to select friends similar to themselves in age, gender, race, personal characteristic, attitudes and beliefs.

Play in middle childhood

Read table on page 277

Peer acceptance

Refers to the extent to which a child is viewed by a group of age-mates as a worthy social partner. It differs from friendship in that it is not a mutual relationship

Researchers study peer acceptance through **socio-metric techniques** - methods for determining who is liked and disliked in a group:

- **Popular** –well-liked by most, rarely disliked
- **Rejected** – rarely liked, often disliked
- **Neglected** – Neither liked nor disliked; these are isolated and ignored children who seem to be invisible to their classmates
- **Controversial** – liked by many but also disliked by many

Most **popular children** are kind and considerate, although some are admired for their socially adept yet belligerent behaviour. Therefore, popular- antisocial children largely tough boys with aggressive manner and shrewd but devious social skills. Peers perceive their toughness as 'cool'

Peer victimisation

Verbal and physical attacks. **Bullying** may be defined as a deliberate, conscious desire to hurt, threaten and frighten someone.

- **Physical bullying**
- **Emotional bullying**
- **Verbal bullying**
- **Non-verbal bullying or gesture bullying** – offensive signs, pulling faces, degrading looks
- **Relational bullying or exclusion bullying**
- **Extortion bullying** – demands for money or property of others

→ **Sexual bullying**

3 types of bullying can be distinguished

- **The aggressive bully** – These bullies direct their aggression towards any person, irrespective of that person's authority or position. They tend to be physically and emotionally strong, are insensitive to other people's feelings and have a good self-image.
- **The anxious bully** – Anxious and aggressive, have a poor self-image, are uncertain, and have few friends.
- **Group adherents** – They are easily dominated, tend to be passive rather than aggressive, generally show empathy towards other, and therefore tend to feel guilty after acts of bullying.

Only infringes upon the victim's rights to human dignity, privacy, freedom, and security, but also has an influence on the child's physical, emotional, social and educational well-being.

Consequences such as psychosomatic symptoms and loss appetite and poor posture have often been reported. Emotional problems include depression, suicidal tendencies, social withdrawal, anxiety and fear. May result absenteeism, loss of concentration and deteriorating academic achievement may develop.

The following are proposed as guidelines for intervention

- School authorities have a legal obligation to care for learners
- Extensive anti-bullying programmes
- Role plays in this phenomenon – law enforcers, educators, parents and learners- should be involved in order to :
 - Create an awareness of nature, prevalence and consequences of bullying
 - Enhance positive peer relations
 - Develop clear guidelines and strategies to prevent intimidation and bullying
 - Develop an attitude of zero tolerance towards bullying or any form of violence

Media influences

- **Television** effects socialisation of children are the following :
 - **Family values** – unrealistic views on family (loving and caring) and children may have authority in shows therefore they may not want to listen to parents
 - **Family interaction** – Could stimulate discussions. May inform younger children on issues they may not understand.
 - **Violence and aggression** – most problematic forms of the media violence includes: Attractive perpetrators who go unpunished, no significant harm to victims is shown and humour.
 - **Sexual attitudes**
 - **Drugs** – Advertising of tobacco has been banned in South Africa
- **Computer technology** – The 6-8 year age groups reported basic knowledge and occasional usage, mostly for game playing and activities. The 9-12 year age groups use the computer and internet for homework, projects and games. Younger children were unaware of social networking or chat rooms. Older children can be exposed to pornography. The internet does not appear to isolate children from their families, peers and communities. Internet is a powerful communication tool. Other studies indicate that internet use was negatively related to family time and positively related to family conflict. Children will have more difficulty distinguishing what is real and what is simulated.
- **Cell phones** – Young children primarily use the cell phone to communicate with family and friends, to let their parents know about their whereabouts, 'convenience' calls and emergency calls. Anonymous nature of text messaging may encourage people to say things they would not normally say – this is called **online disinhibition effect**. A particular concern is children's easy access to pornography, but they are often motivated by curiosity to explore this material. Cyber bullying and inappropriate photography have also become problems in schools.

Moral Development

Morality refers to a set of principles that enables individuals to differentiate between right and wrong. **Moral development** refers to the process by which children learn the principles that enable them to judge behaviour in a particular society as good or bad and to direct their own behaviour in accordance with these principles. Every society has ethical codes for the approval or disapproval of practices in that particular society. **Moral education** is aimed at maintaining the social order, while giving the individual the opportunity to function optimally within his or her culture. The ability to differentiate between right and wrong is the most important development task to be mastered during middle childhood years.

Moral Emotions

Moral decision making is often quite emotional. Children gradually come to understand the emotional consequences of different actions. The **psychoanalytic theory** focuses on the relationship between the child and his or her parents as the basis of developing moral emotions.

According to Freud, the child learns moral rules by identifying with the same-gender parent during the phallic stage of development (ages 3-6). The rules a child learns from the child's **superego**, which has two parts, a **conscious** and an **ego-ideal**.

Erikson's views on moral development are similar to Freud's, although he believed that children learn moral rules from both parents. He believes that pride is just as important to moral development as guilt and shame.

Emotions, such as empathy may be very powerful in moral development. Another skill is perspective-taking; the better children understand the thoughts and feelings of other people, the most willing they will be to share and help others. It seems the emotional setting helps determine whether children act altruistically (helping others) or not. These settings are:

- Feelings of responsibility – when they feel responsible for someone in need
- Feelings of competence – children act altruistically when they feel that they have the skills necessary to help the person in need
- Mood – children act more altruistically when they are happy or feel successful

Moral behaviour

Learning theorists propose that children learn to behave morally through reward, punishment, and modelling, e.g. Skinner's operant conditioning. According to Skinner adults reward children for morally accepted behaviour with praise and morally unacceptable behaviour with punishment. Bandura believes that children learn more from observing others.

However, an approach that combines punishment with reasoned explanation (induction) may be more effective.

Moral Reasoning

It refers to the process of making judgements about the rightness and wrongness of specific behaviour.

- a) Jean Piaget's theory of moral realism and moral relativism
 - Piaget developed his theory by observing children playing games.
 - He believes that moral development is linked to cognitive development
 - He regarded children younger than about five years of age as **pre-moral**, children either play without rules or they create their own rules
 - During middle childhood, children develop an enormous respect for rules, that should be obeyed at all times – this stage is called **moral realism** stage, and they believe that rules can't be changed because they come from authority.

	<p>-Moral absolutism – when no mitigating circumstances or intentions are taken into account (e.g. exceeding the speed limit to rush someone to hospital may be seen as wrong in their eyes)</p> <p>-Immanent justice is another characteristic of this phases (e.g. boy falls off of counter when trying to reach the cookies)</p> <p>-The last phase is moral relativism – this is when children think less egocentrically and display more moral flexibility, they now believe that rules can be questioned and even changed.</p> <p>- According to Piaget, cognitive maturation and social experience, plays a role in the transition from moral realism to moral relativism.</p> <p>-Piaget’s theory has been criticized for underestimating the moral understanding of younger children and for not taking the cultural and socio-economic differences between children into account.</p> <p>b) Lawrence Kohlberg’s theory of moral reasoning</p> <p>-Was inspired by Piaget’s work</p> <p>-Kohlberg believed that children go through different stages of moral development and that it is based on cognitive development and relevant social experiences.</p> <p>-He believed that perspective taking – the ability to understand the psychological perspectives, motives and needs of others – is essential.</p> <p>-He was interested in the reasoning underlying the choices rather than the choice itself.</p> <p>-He distinguished three levels of moral development :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Pre-conventional (the term conventional refers to rules that certain members abide to, and it usually occurs in middle childhood) ○ Conventional ○ Post-conventional <p>-The order of levels and stages are invariant, this means that all individuals move through the same stages in the same order, however the pace may differ.</p> <p>-Look at table 5.8, page 292 for summary of all the stages</p> <p>c) Eisenberg’s theory of prosocial reasoning</p> <p>She presented children and young people from per-school to Grade 12 with prosocial dilemmas. These dilemmas depicted situations in which helping someone else would require some kind of pro-social sacrifice. Eisenberg proposed that prosocial reasoning develops through certain levels. She does not regard these levels as universal, she states that emotional factors and environmental factors and culture, affect the development and use of prosocial reasoning.</p> <p>Look at table 5.9 on page 293</p> <p>Promoting morally competent behaviour in children</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Family factors Include parenting and discussion styles, and parenting facilitation of prosocial behaviours, giving children age-appropriate chores, contributing towards family welfare – this in turn promotes prosocial behaviour. ● Peer factors Children often get involved in conflicts over how games should be played, and what rules should be followed, they have to compromise – and this in turn develops their perspective-taking ability ● Developing a sense of empathy
Adolescence	<p>The parent-adolescent relationship</p> <p>a) Parent-adolescent conflict</p> <p>The changes in the parent-adolescent relationship are characterised primarily by the</p>

questioning of parental values, rules and regulations set by parents, distancing and argumentativeness. Parents frequently feel upset about these sudden changes in their adolescents and react by becoming more controlling, which results in further conflict. Conflict tends to occur more between adolescents and their mothers than their fathers because mothers are more involved on a day to day basis. The reason for the changes in interactional patterns during early adolescence are related to:

- The biological changes during puberty, when hormonal secretion may cause mood swings
- Cognitive changes, which cause increased questioning
- Adolescent egocentrism – perception of their parent's attitudes towards them
- The development of identity – experimentation
- Social development - increase in independence

Storm and stress view and generation gap (i.e. differences in viewpoints, attitudes and values between parents and children) are exaggerated.

b) Autonomy and attachment

Conflict between parent and child can be related to the adolescents' increasing need for autonomy (independence), which may lead to rebelling. The need for autonomy as a necessary developmental task and not necessarily as a rejection of parental authority. In the process of becoming independent, adolescents strive to achieve the following goals:

- **Cognitive autonomy** – decision making
- **Behavioural autonomy** – choices regarding friendships
- **Emotional autonomy** – being self-reliant and independent
- **Moral or value autonomy** – forming an own value system that service as a guideline for their own behaviour

Adolescents' autonomy also means the end of the parents' meaningful roles as educators, while simultaneously becoming aware of their increasing age. One way to make this development easier for both parents and adolescents is to relinquish power gradually.

Attachment bonds to parents provide adolescents with a secure base from which to explore their world and to master increasing social demands. Adolescents may also experience **separation anxiety**. Adolescents who experience secure attachment with their parents are likely to cope with this separation.

Parenting styles

Social maturity during adolescence depend largely on the parenting styles of their parents.

- **Authoritative parents**
- **Authoritarian parenting**
- **Permissive parenting**

Apart from the various parenting styles, two dimension of parental behaviour may be distinguished, i.e. the love-hostility dimension and the autonomy-control dimension:

- **The love-hostility dimension** – loving behaviour of parents is characterised by acceptance, understanding and approval. When parents behave in a hostile manner and neglect or reject their children
- **The autonomy-control dimension** – refers to parents who allow their children realistic freedom as opposed to those who exercise exceptionally strict control over their children.

Parenting is a two-way process: parents influence their adolescents' behaviour, adolescents also influence their parents' behaviour. Adolescents who are difficult, stubborn and uncooperative often make it difficult for parents to maintain a positive disposition. This is referred to as **reciprocal or bi-directional effects** between parents and children. In traditional cultures, parents expect to be obeyed because of socialisation, where the status and authority of parents and other elders are constantly emphasise directly and indirectly, adolescents are much less inclined to question

authority. However, overall, adolescents seem to value parental guidance.

Peer group relationships

a) The structure of the peer group

According to this model, peer group formation during adolescents proceeds follows:

Stage 1: formation starts, cliques which usually consist of 5-7 members of the same age and the same gender.

Stage 2: Gender cliques provide a safe base from which members can interact with members of the opposite gender.

Stage 3: Popular members of boy and girl cliques begin to form mixed

Stage 4: The rest of the girl and boy cliques form heterosexual cliques, thus forming a new member group structure, known as a crowd.

Stage 5: Towards late adolescence, the crowd gradually starts to disintegrate. Individual couples will still go out with other couples as a group.

(Look at figure 6.4 on page 369)

Characteristics that lead to a greater acceptance by the peer group are intelligence, attractiveness, a sense of humour, self-confidence and prosocial behaviour. Also adolescents' *perception* of the social world may have a significant influence on their mental and physical well-being.

b) Conformity

Conformity refers to the degree to which a person is willing to change his or her behaviour, attitudes or beliefs in order to fit in with a group (peer pressure). They may not yet have developed sufficient self-confidence and independence to make their own choices. The peer group seems to influence adolescents' choice of clothes, music, language use, social activities, leisure activities, hobbies and relationships with the opposite gender. Stormy parent-child relationships, do not provide them with the necessary skills, with the result that they only find acceptance in those peer groups which follow a **counter-culture** (a culture against the values of parents and society)

c) Friendships

Adolescents have friendship based on shared activities and loyalty, and are inclined to choose their friends based on similar interests, attitudes, values and personalities that match their own. Adolescents also develop a greater need for **intimacy** and **self-disclosure** (i.e. emotional attachment, trust and understanding each other). Friends may provide each other with the following types of support:

- Close friendships can help teenagers to cope with the stressors of adolescents
- Close friendships counteract loneliness and isolation
- Self-disclosure and honest communication and also to be sensitive towards others.

Intimate relationships with friends may lead to a **distancing effect** from their parents. It is usually on temporary and does not necessarily imply that adolescents' feelings for their parents diminish. During late adolescents, the degree of intimacy and emotional intensity between close friends start to decline as adolescents become more aware of their own identity and are able to act more independently.