

TAMIL NADU TEACHERS EDUCATION UNIVERSITY

Chennai – 600 097

Course Material for B.Ed.(First Year)

(2016-2017)

Course 1: Childhood and Growing Up

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Stages and Dimensions of the Development
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B.Ed I Year

COURSE 1: CHILDHOOD AND GROWING UP

UNIT I: GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE CHILD

Objectives:

After completion of the unit, the learners will be able to:

1. understand the concepts of growth and development
2. know the principles of growth and development
3. differentiate growth and development
4. identify the factors influence growth and development of a child and
5. analyze the impact of nature and nurture on child development.

Introduction:

In general, childhood is the age span ranging from birth to adolescence. It is the time for children to be in school and at play, to grow strong and confident with the love and encouragement of their family and an extended community of caring adults. It is also a precious time in which children should live free from fear, safe from violence and protected from abuse and exploitation. As such, childhood means much more than just the space between birth and the attainment of adulthood. It refers to the state and condition of a child's life to the quality of those years.

Growth and Development:

Change is the law of nature. Animate or inanimate objects are all subject to change. In human being, life starts with the conception in the mother's womb as a result of the process of fertilization of the ovum of the mother by the sperm cell of the father. The mother's womb then becomes the site and the means for the growth and development of the new life and it is only after about nine months that the baby is able to come into the world as a newborn. The process of growth and development are thus the medium and the means for bringing about changes in the organisms.

Growth: Meaning and Definition

The term “growth” denotes the process of physical maturation resulting an increase in the size of the body and various organs. It occurs by multiplication of cells and an increase in intracellular substance. It is quantitative changes of the body. It can be measured in kg, pounds, meters, inches etc.

The Encyclopedia of Britannica defines ‘growth’ as an increase in the size or the amount of an entity. The word growth is used for all those structural and physiological changes that takes place within individual during the process of maturation.

Growth is change in size, in proportion, disappearance of old features and acquisition of new ones (Hurlock, 1959)

Growth refers to structural and physiological changes. (Crow & Crow 1962)

Development: Meaning and Definition

The term “development” specifies maturation of functions. It is related to the maturation and development of the nervous system and indicates acquisition of a variety of skills for optimal functioning of the individual. It is a qualitative change in the child’s functioning. It can be measured through observation.

The Encyclopedia of Britannica defined the word ‘development’ as the progressive change in size, shape and function during the life of an organism by which its genetic potential (genotype) are translated into functioning adult systems (phenotype). This means that development includes the increase not only in size but also in the function of an organ.

Development means a progressive series of changes that occur in an orderly predictable pattern as a result of maturation and experience. (Hurlock, 1959).

Development is concerned with growth as well as those changes in behavior which results from environmental situations (Anderson, J.E. 1950).

Development refers to a process of change in growth and capability over time, as function of both maturation and interaction with the environment. (Liebert, Poulos and Marmor, 1979).

Principles of Growth and Development

Hurlock (2015) in her book on “Child Development” listed the 10 fundamental facts about development and named it as principles of development.

1. Development involves change
2. Early development is more critical than later development
3. Development is the product of maturation and learning
4. Developmental pattern is predictable
5. Developmental pattern has predictable characteristics
6. There are individual differences in development
7. There are periods in the developmental pattern
8. There are social expectations for every developmental period
9. Every area of development has potential hazards
10. Happiness varies at different periods in development

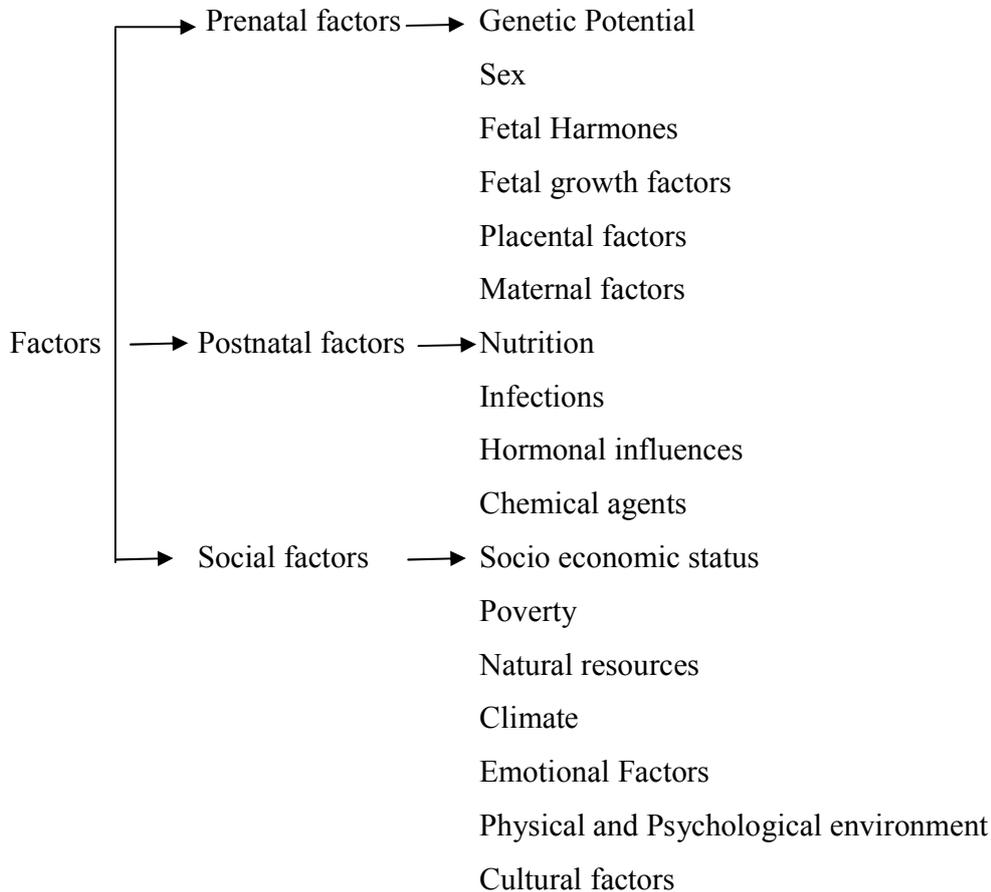
Difference between Growth and Development

Most people use the terms ‘growth’ and ‘development’ in the same meaning. But there is a difference between these two terms. The term ‘growth’ refers to the change in the physical or physiological structure, whereas the term ‘development’ refers to change in the function and activities of different organs. This shows that ‘growth’ is physiological change and ‘development’ is psychological change.

	<i>Growth</i>	<i>Development</i>
1.	Growth is quantitative	Development is qualitative
2.	The term is used in purely physical sense. It generally refers to increase in size, length	Development implies overall change in shape, form or structure resulting its improved working or functioning
3.	Growth does not continue throughout life. It stops when maturity has been attained	It continues throughout life and is progressive
4.	The changes produced by growth are the subject of measurement. They may be quantified	Development implies improvement in functioning and behavior and hence bring qualitative changes. It can be measured by observation
5.	Growth is cellular. It takes place due to the multiplication of cells.	Development is progressive and orderly.

Factors influencing Growth and Development of the Child.

Growth and development depends upon multiple factors or determinates. They influence directly or indirectly by promoting or hindering the process.



Impact of nature and nurture on child development

Developmental change is continuous throughout our life span. It has been described as a lifelong process of gains and losses. In the past, hereditary and environmental factors were considered to be ‘black and white’ or operating separately each other. It was one or the other – nature (heredity) or nurture (environment). This led to very heated arguments about which were more important.

Today it is generally agreed that heredity and environment are both important factors and development is a combination of both. A Child’s genetic make-up determines its developmental potential, but reaching that potential is very much dependent on the environment in which the child grows up. In addition, environmental factors can influence biological change. The idea

that hereditary and environmental factors continually interact to influence developmental change is known as an interactionist approach.

Nature Vs Nurture

“Nature Versus Nurture” is a psychological term related to whether heredity or the environment most impacts human psychological development (behaviour, intelligence, personality and so on).

In the Nature Vs Nurture debate ‘nature’ refers to an individual’s innate qualities and ‘nurture’ refers to personal experiences.

The question of whether a child’s development is most influenced by genetics (nature) or environment (nurture).

There are number of argument that biological and environmental factors have strongest influence on child development.

John Locke (1632-1704) viewed the child as a tabula rasa (blank slate). According to this idea, children begin as nothing at all; their characters are shaped entirely by experience. Locke saw parents as rational tutors who can mould the child in any way they wish through careful instruction, effective example, and rewards for good behavior. According to Locke development as continuous. Adult like behavior are gradually built up through the warm, consistent teaching of parents. His view of the child as a tabula rasa led him to champion nurture – the power of the environment to shape the child.

Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712 – 1778) introduced a new view of child. Rousseau claimed, children are not blank slates or empty containers to be filled by adult instruction. Instead, they are noble savages, naturally endowed with sense of right and wrong and an innate plan for orderly, healthy growth. It was a child centered philosophy in which the adult should be receptive to the child’s needs at each of four stages: infancy, childhood, late childhood and adolescence

Rousseau’s philosophy includes two influential concepts ie. stage and maturation. Maturation refers to a genetically determined, naturally unfolding course of growth. Rousseau saw children as determining their own destinies. He viewed development as a discontinuous, stage wise process that follows a single, unified course mapped out by nature.

Genetic Disorders

Currently there are over 7000 known genetic disorders. Most genetic disorders affect development and may ultimately contribute to one or more of the following. Physical illness, mental illness and mental retardation. Notable examples include Down Syndrome, Fragile Syndrome and Alzheimer's diseases etc.

Down Syndrome: Fragile X Syndrome and Alzheimer's disease due to genes

Autism probably caused by a combination of genetic and environment factors

Twin studies: Non identical twins

Jim Lewis and Jim Springer identical twins separated early in life and reared apart. The Minnesota Twins Study, which highlighted the genetic and environmental connections that underline developmental change.

Jim Lewis and Jim Springer discovered some amazing similarities in their lives.

- As children, both had been fretful sleepers and nail-biters
- Both suffered from migraines, haemorrhoids and high blood pressure.
- Both had pet dogs named Joy
- Both had married women named Linda, and both had divorced and then remarried women named Belty.
- Jim Lewis named his first son James Allen and Jim Springer named first son James Alan
- Both worked as Sheriff's deputies
- Both liked to go to the same Florida beach on holidays, drink the same brand of beer and smoke the same brand of cigarettes.

The Minnesota Twins study found that identical twins raised together or apart were far more similar on many psychological tests than non-identical twins and siblings raised in the same family. The Jims twins, for example scored strikingly similar scores on a series of personality and intelligence tests and even had very similar handwriting. (Tollegenetal 1998).

The roles of both heredity and environment are extremely complex and very difficult to separate. The extent to which heredity and environment influence developmental change is now the question. Both clearly play a role, but how much of a role? In many cases, genes produce a predisposition and the environment further determines the outcome. Perhaps "nature Vs nurture" should be changed as "nature and nurture.

Questions for Discussion and Reflection

1. Define the terms 'growth' and 'development'.
2. List out the principles of growth and development.
3. Distinguish between growth and development.
4. Explain the factors influencing growth and development of a child.
5. Write an essay on the impact of nature and nurture on child development.

UNIT II: STAGES AND DIMENSIONS OF DEVELOPMENT

Objectives:

After completion of the unit, the learners will be able to:

1. know the various stages of child development
2. understand the periods of pregnancy and
3. understand the physical, cognitive and social and emotional development of the child from infancy to adolescent.

Introduction

Birth is not beginning of life. Instead, it is merely an interruption in the developmental pattern that began at the time of conception. It is the time when the individual must make a transition from the internal environment of the mother's uterus to the world outside the mother's body.

The time when the transition is being made – the prenatal experience – and the necessary adjustments to it are known as 'infancy' – a term suggesting complete helplessness.

Infancy is divided in two periods.

Period of parturition → the time when the birth process is actually taking place.

Periods

Period of neonate → derived from the Greek word, 'neos', meaning 'new' and the past participle of the Latin verb, 'nascor' meaning 'born'.

Period of the parturition: The period covers the first 15 to 30 minutes after birth

Period of the neonate: The period covers the remainder of the infancy period.

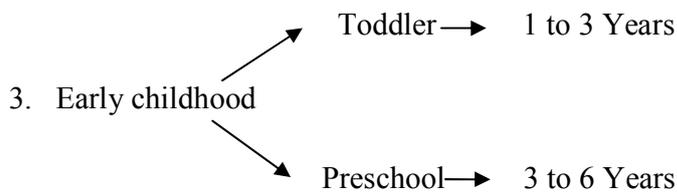
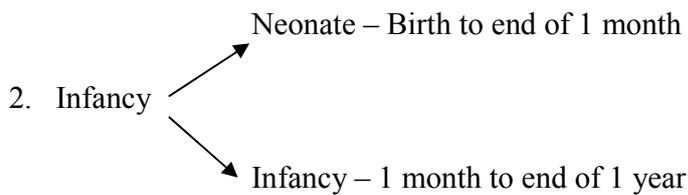
According to the medical criteria, it ends with the falling off of the umbilical cord, about 2 weeks after birth.

According to the psychological criteria, it ends with the regaining of lost birth weight and indications of resumption of development.

Stages of Growth and Development

Researchers usually use the following age periods, as each brings new capacities and social expectations that serve as important transitions in major theories.

1. The prenatal period: From conception to birth. In this 9 month period, the most rapid time of change, a one-celled organism is transformed into a human baby with remarkable capacities for adjusting to life in the surrounding world.



4. Middle childhood – school age → 6 to 12 Years.

5. Late childhood – Adolescent – 13 Years to approximately 18 Years.

1. Prenatal Period

With conception, the story of prenatal development begins to unfold. The vast changes that take place during the 38 weeks of pregnancy are usually divided into three period.

- a) The period of zygote
- b) The period of embryo and
- c) The period of the fetus

a. The Period of Zygote

The period of zygote last about two weeks, from fertilization until the tiny mass of cells drifts down and out of the fallopian tube and attaches itself to the wall of the uterus. The zygotes first cell duplication is long and drawn out; it is not complete until about 30 hours after conception. Gradually, new cells are added at faster rate. By the fourth day, 60 to 70 cells exist

that form a hollow, fluid-filled ball called a blastocyst. The cells on the inside of the blastocyst called the embryonic disk, will become the new organism; the thin outer ring of cells, termed the trophoblast, will become the structures that provide protective curing and nourishment.

b. Period of Embryo

The period of the embryo lasts from implantation through the eighth week of pregnancy. In the first week, the embryonic disks forms three layers of cells.

- a) The ectoderm, which will become the nervous system and skin
- b) The mesoderm, which will develop the muscles, skeleton and circulating system.
- c) The endoderm, which will become the digestive system, lungs, urinary tract and glands.

At 3 ½ weeks, the top swells to form the brain. At the end of first month the curled embryo - only ¼ inch long - consists of millions of organized group of cells with specific functions.

In the second month, eyes, ears, nose, jaw and neck form. At 7 weeks, production of neurons begins deep inside the neural tube at the astounding pace of more than 250000 per minute. At the end of this period, the embryo about 1 inch long and 1/7 ounce in weight.

c. Period of the Fetus

The period of the fetus, from the ninth week to the end of pregnancy, is the longest prenatal period. In the third month, the organs, muscles, and nervous system start to become organized and connected.

Prenatal development is sometimes divided into trimesters or three equal time periods. At the end of third month, the first trimester is complete.

By the middle of the second trimester, between 17 and 20 weeks, the new being has grown large enough that the mother can feel its movements. At the end of the second trimester, many organs are well – developed. Brain weight increases tenfold from the twentieth week until birth.

During the final trimester, a fetus born early has a chance of survival. The brain continues to make great strides. The fetus gains more than 5 pounds and grows 7 inches.

2. Infancy

Infancy extends from birth to 1 year. It is a time of extreme dependence on adults. Many activities, such as language development, symbolic thought, sensory motor coordination, and social learning are, just beginning.

Neonate

Infancy is divided into two periods i.e. period of parturition and the period of neonate. The period of parturition covers the first 15 to 30 minutes after birth.

The period of neonate covers the period of birth to end of one month.

Physical Development	Cognitive Development	Social And Emotional Development
<p>Physical development refers to physical changes in the body and involves changes in bone thickness, size, and weight, gross motor, fine motor, vision, hearing, and perceptual development.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Proceeds from head to foot and central part to extremities • Develop basic reflexes needed to survive • Keep their hands clenched in fists most of the time. • Cannot organize their hands and eyes to work together. 	<p>Cognitive development refers to the ways children reason, develop language, solve problems, and gain knowledge.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Watch an object about 12 – 15 inches away. • Smiles selectively at mother’s voice. • Shows startle reflex to sudden noise • Distinguish smells and taste. They may prefer sweet – tasting liquids and will recoil from unpleasant smells. 	<p>Learning to relate to others is social development. The expression of feelings about self, others, and things describe motional development. Social and emotional development are often described and grouped together because they are closely interrelated growth patterns.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Neonate will sleep, on average, between 17 and 19 hours a day. • Begin to recognize their primary caregivers.
Infancy		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Smile at familiar faces and voices. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Move their heads toward different colors and changes in lighting. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Infants respond with a smile when someone smiles at them.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Infants begin to keep their hands open. • Focus their eyes and track a moving object or caregiver • Move their arms and legs in a squirming fashion and kick their legs out. • Their first teeth (milk teeth or deciduous teeth) many come • Turn their head towards sound and movement. • They can support a bottle on their own during a feeding. • With a little help, they can hold a sitting pose. • Touch genitals • They can turnover on their own when on a flat surface • Put everything in their mouth • Begin to creep, crawl on their bottom. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attracted to people's voices • They reach toward the sound of toys that make noise. • Infants anticipate being fed and may open their mouth when food is in sight. • They start to copy the expressions or movements of caregivers. • They may be able to focus on only one toy at a time. • Infants will imitate spoken words or sounds made by their caregivers. • They speak their first words • Aware of their caregiver's name and react when it is called • Begin to interact verbally with their caregivers. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They enjoy being gently tickled and jiggled. • A familiar voice can soothe them when they are upset. • Infants have a strong attachment to their primary caregivers. • They understand that they are separate from their caregivers. • Start to show stranger anxiety around unknown adults. • Respond negatively if a toy is taken from them. • Infants will try to keep their primary caregiver in sight • Become attached to favourite toy • May show separation anxiety crying when a caregiver leaves. • They may share belongings with other infants. • More demanding and assertive, emotionally volatile
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<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Manage to drink from a cup with a little help.• They can sit up by themselves• They can crawl on stairs and flat surfaces.• They can walk while being supported by someone else• Pass objects from hand to hand• Uses index and middle fingers with thumb in pinur grip to pickup small items.• The infant will double his /her birth weight by 4 – 5 months and triple it by 10 – 12 months or age (2.5 to 3.5kg)• Height increases about 3 cm during the 1-3 months, then it increases 2 cm at the age 4 – 6 months, further it increases 1 ½ cm during the 7 – 12 months (47.5 - 53. 75cm)		<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Will play alone• Temper tantrums may start.
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3. Early Childhood (Pre –School Years)

Early childhood extends from the end of infancy to about 6 years. During this period, children become more sufficient, develop school – readiness skills, and spend many hours with peers.

Toddler (1 to 3 years)

Physical development	Cognitive Development	Emotional and Social Development
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Walks alone• Stoops and stands up again• Climbs up on furniture• Feeds self with fingers• Chews most foods well• Runs stiffly• Asks for food and drink by vocalizing and gesturing• jumps in place• Holds pencil with thumb and forefingers.• Builds tower of 6 – 8 cubes• Dresses with supervision• Eat with fork and spoon	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Understand the word 'no'• Points to picture in books• Enjoys simple stories• Speaks 50 or more words• Verbalizes toilet needs• Points to body parts.• Gives full name when asked• Recognizes familiar people at 6 metres.• Matches two or three primary colors.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Shows strong dependence on primary caregiver with increasing difficulty separating.• Wants to have caregiver nearly all the time.• Imitate adult activities• Plays alone or beside other children.• Enjoys role playing• Claims and defends ownership of own things• Likes praise• Has auditory fears• Shows sympathy, pity, modesty and shame.• Enjoy other children's company but reluctant to share toys.

Pre-school (3 – 6 Years)

Physical development	Cognitive Development	Emotional and Social Development
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Growth during the period is relatively slow. • Preschooler gains approximately 1.8 kg / year. • Doubles birth length by 4 -5 years of age. • Pulse: 80 – 120 beat /min • Respiration: 20 - 30 C /min • BP: 100/67 +24/25 • Can brush own teeth 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Copy a circle and a cross • Use scissors, colour within the borders • Write some letters and draw a person with body parts • Building with small blocks • Playing a board game • Matches two or three primary colours • Knows time of day for basic activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Begins to be able to give reasons for this belief and actions, but not true cause – effect relationship • Fears the dark • Expresses aggression through physical and verbal behaviors • Shows signs of jealousy of siblings • Tolerates short separation • Less dependent on parents • Attachment to opposite sex parent
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hit a ball with a bat 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Matches symbols, letters, and numbers. • Imitates adult speech 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • According to Erikson theory the preschooler is in the stage where he/she develops a sense of initiative, where

		he/she wants to learn what to do for himself, learn about the world and other people.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most toilet trained 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask questions like What? Why? and How? • Form letters and writes own name. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inability to perform self-care tasks, hand washing, simple dressing, daytime toileting. • Lack of socialization • Able to form firm friendship • Self-directed in many activities.

4. Middle Childhood – School Age (6 -12 Years)

Between the ages of 6 and 12, the child’s world expands outward from the family as relationships are formed with friends; teachers, caregivers and others. Because, their experiences are expanding, many factors can alter children’s actions and impact how they learn to get along. Some situations can create stress and affect self- esteem. The middle childhood period is a time to prepare for adolescence.

Physical development	Cognitive Development	Emotional and Social Development
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Growth is slower than in preschool years, but steady 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Names all colors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Has poor ability to modulate things
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School – age child gains weight about 3 – 8 kg/year 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identifies similarities and differences among pictures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shows jealousy of others

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School – age child gains height about 5 cm/year • Pulse: 90 +15/min • Respiration: 21 + 3cm/min • BP: 100/60 + 16/10 • Ties own shoes • In the later stages of middle childhood body changes indicate approaching puberty. • Has well developed hand – eye coordination. • Has well – developed small muscles. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Matches words • Uses simple measurement • Speaks fluently • Understands cause-effects relationships • Learns to solve addition and subtraction combinations. • Likes to use big words. • Shows various enjoyment of reading. • Prefers silent reading • Likes to read for facts and information 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Frequently frustrated • Becomes quiet and sullen when angry • Frequently disappointed by own performance. • Anxious to please others • Appears emotionally more stable • Enjoy sharing secrets and discussing mysteries with friends. • Believes friends over parents • Shows frequent anger • Tends to have sincere, trusting, and physically affectionate relationship with mother.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rides bicycle 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participates in discussion of social 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tends to have positive, adoring, admiring

	and world problems	relationship with father <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Often resolve conflict through peer judges who accept or reject their actions
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Becomes interested in competitive sports • Girls and boys tend to be even in size and sexual maturity. • Baby teeth will come out and permanent one will come in • Eyes reach maturity in both size and function. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enjoys memorizing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To win, lead, to be first is valued. Children try to be the boss and are unhappy if they lose.

5. Adolescence

Adolescence is a transition period from childhood to adulthood and it begins around ages 13 and ends around 18. It begins with the appearance of secondary sex characteristics and ends when somatic growth is completed and the individual is psychological mature.

Physical development	Cognitive Development	Emotional and Social Development
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pluses: 60 – 80 beats/min 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Through formal operational thinking adolescent can deal with a problem. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This period is accompanied usually by changes in emotional control.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Respiration : 16 – 20 c/min 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developing ability to think abstractly. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adolescents exhibit alternating and recurrent episodes of disturbed

		behavior with periods of quite one. He may become hostile or ready to fight, complain or resist everything.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Secondary sex characteristics in boys • Increase in size of genitalia • Growth of pubic, axillary, facial and chest hair • Change in voice • Rapid growth of shoulder breadth • Production of spermatozoa • Secondary sex characteristics in girls • Increase in transverse diameter of the pelvis • After initial breast budding around the age of 10, girls breasts gradually begin to swell • Change in the vaginal secretions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Becoming more globally aware • Choices relating future education and careers being thought about • Fluid intelligence peaks in 20s declines thereafter. • Crystallized intelligence improves until 30s, then declines slowly afterwards 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He needs to know “who he is” in relation to family and society i.e. he develops a sense of identity. • Adolescents shows interest in other sex • He looks for close relationships • Body changes can upset self esteem • Some are more assured about changes in settings. • Wants to spend more time with friends than family • Psychologically distance self from parents • Identity with peer group • Social acceptance depends on conformity to observable traits • Ambivalent about sexual relationships
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pubic and axillary hair begin to grow darken and become curlier. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sexual behavior is exploratory
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First menstruation occurs between 12 to 13 years. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Friendships based on loyalty, understanding, and trust

		<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Self-conscious about physical appearance• Engage in activities for intense emotional experience• Rely on peer group for support.• Blatant rejections of parental standards.• Examination of others values, beliefs.
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Questions for Discussion and Reflections

1. Explain the three major periods of pregnancy
2. Compare the physical, cognitive, social, and emotional development of the early childhood and middle childhood
3. Discuss the physical, cognitive, social, and emotional development of the adolescence.

UNIT III: THEORIES OF CHILD DEVELOPMENT

Objectives:

After completion of the unit, the learners will be able to,

1. learn the implications of Erikson's theory of Psycho-social stages.
2. explain how children's thinking difference at each of Piaget's four stages of development.
3. describe the Kohlberg's stages of moral development.
4. identify the Vygotsky's Socio-cultural perspective of Cognitive development.
5. know the Bronfenbrenner's of Ecological system theory .

Erikson's Psycho Social Theory

Several of Freud's followers took what was useful from his theory and improved on his vision. The most important of these neo-Freudians is Erik Erikson (1902-1994), who expanded the picture of development at each stage. Psychosocial theory, Erikson emphasized that in addition to mediating between id impulses and superego demands, the ego makes a positive contribution to development, acquiring attitudes and skills that make the individual an active, contributing member of society. A basic psychosocial conflict, which is resolved along a continuum from positive to negative, determines healthy or maladaptive outcomes at each stage. As Figure-1 shows, Erikson's first five stages parallel Freud's stages, but Erikson added three adult stages. He was one of the first to recognize the lifespan nature of development.

Erikson's Eight Stages of Psychosocial Development

Trust vs Mistrust	0 - 18 months		Infant
Autonomy vs Shame & Doubt	18 months - 3 years		Toddler
Initiative vs Guilt	3 - 5 years		Pre-Schooler
Industry vs Inferiority	5 - 13 years		Grade-Schooler
Identity vs Role Confusion	13 - 21 years		Teenager
Intimacy vs Isolation	21 - 39 years		Young Adult
Generativity vs Stagnation	40 - 65 years		Middle-Age Adult
Integrity vs Despair	65 years onwards		Older Adult

source: www.whaddayaknowabout.com

Table 1

Erikson's Psychosocial Stages

Sl. No.	Approximate Age	Erikson's Psychosocial Stage
Stage 1	Birth-1 year	Basic trust versus mistrust: From warm, responsive care, infants gain a sense of trust, or confidence, that the world is good. Mistrust occurs if infants are neglected or handled harshly.
Stage 2	1-3 years	Autonomy versus shame and doubt: Using new mental and motor skills, children what to decide for themselves. Parents can foster autonomy by permitting reasonable free choice and not forcing or shaming the child.

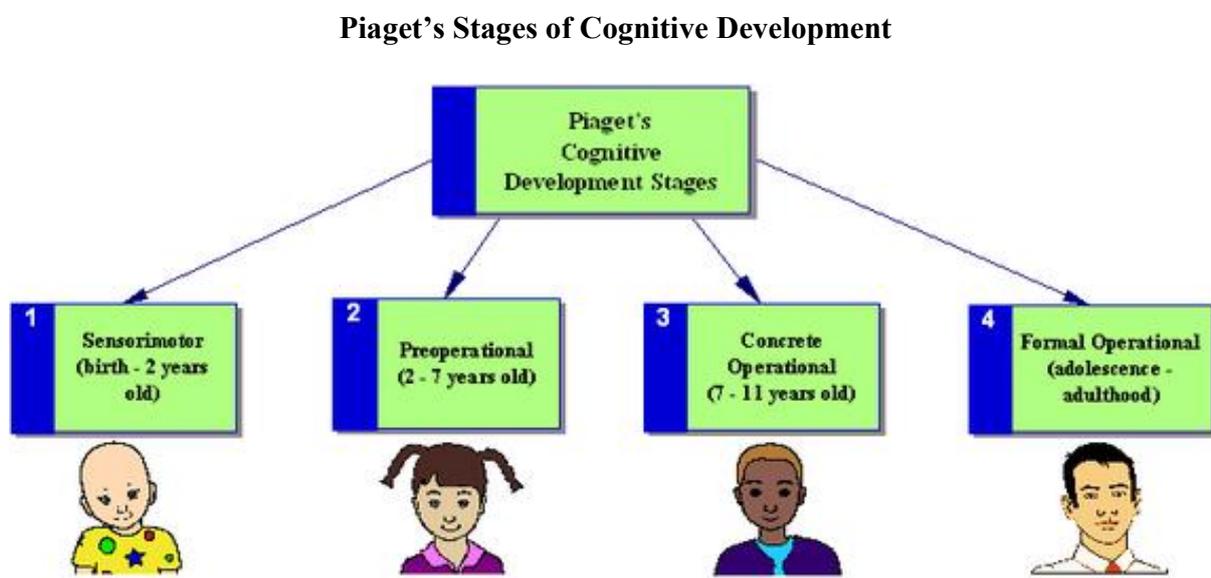
Sl. No.	Approximate Age	Erikson's Psychosocial Stage
Stage 3	3-6 years	Initiative versus guilt: Through make-believe play, children gain insight into the person they can become. Initiative—a sense of ambition and responsibility—develops when parents support their child's sense of purpose. But if parents demand too much self-control, children experience excessive guilt.
Stage 4	6-11 years	Industry versus inferiority: At school, children learn to work and cooperate with others. Inferiority develops when negative experiences at home, at school, or with peers lead to feelings of incompetence.
Stage 5	Adolescence	Identity versus role confusion: By exploring values and vocational goals, the young person forms a personal identity. The negative outcome is confusion about future adult roles.
Stage 6	Young adulthood	Intimacy versus isolation: Young adults establish intimate relationships. Because of earlier disappointments, some individuals cannot form close bonds and remain isolated.
Stage 7	Middle adulthood	Generativity versus stagnation: Generativity means giving to the next generation through child rearing, caring for others, or productive work. The person who fails in these ways feels an absence of meaningful accomplishment.
Stage 8	Old age	Integrity versus despair: Integrity results from feeling that life was worth living as it happened. Older people who are dissatisfied with their lives fear death.

As you can see, some of psychology's best-known thinkers have developed theories to help explore and explain different aspects of child development. While not all of these theories are fully accepted today, they all had an important influence on our understanding of child development. Today, contemporary psychologists often draw on a variety of theories and perspectives in order to understand how kids grow, behave, and think.

Piaget's Cognitive-Developmental Theory

According to his cognitive-developmental theory, children actively construct knowledge as they manipulate and explore their world. In piaget's theory, as the brain develops and

experiences expand, they move through four broad stages, each characterized by qualitatively distinct ways of thinking. Following figures on provides a brief description of piaget’s stages.



source: <https://www.google.com/>

Piaget’s Stages of Cognitive Development

- **Sensorimotor (Birth-2 years)**
 - Infants “think” by acting on the world with their eyes, ears, hands, and mouth. As a result, they invent ways of solving sensorimotor problems, such as pulling objects into and taking them out of containers.
- **Preoperational Stage(2-7 years)**
 - Preschoolchildren use symbols to represent their earlier sensorimotor discoveries. Development of language and make-believe play takes place. However, thinking lacks the logic of the two remaining stages.

- **Concrete operational Stage(2-7 years)**

- Children's reasoning becomes logical and better organized. School age children understand that a certain amount of lemonade or play dough remains the same even after its appearance changes. They also organize objects into hierarchies of classes and subclasses. However, thinking falls short of adult intelligence. It is not yet abstract.

- **Formal operational Stage(11 years on)**

The capacity for abstract, systematic thinking enables adolescents, when faced with a problem, to start with a hypothesis, deduce testable inferences, and isolate and combine variables to see which inferences are confirmed. Adolescents can also evaluate the logic of verbal statements without referring to real-world circumstances.

Conclusively the results of Piaget's work changed the way that teacher, parents and all those who work with and around children observe the children's behavior and response to their environment. Piaget's work specifically had an impact on the teaching of education in schools. It was also found by later studies that Jean Piaget's work and results of his work with children held true children from different countries, especially his results from early development. Even though some of his studies and study techniques have been criticized Jean Piaget's work started a trend within the study of children's behavior in their environment and their development. Piaget made important contributions to our understanding of normal intellectual development. Piaget theories provide a fundamental starting point for understanding childhood cognitive development.

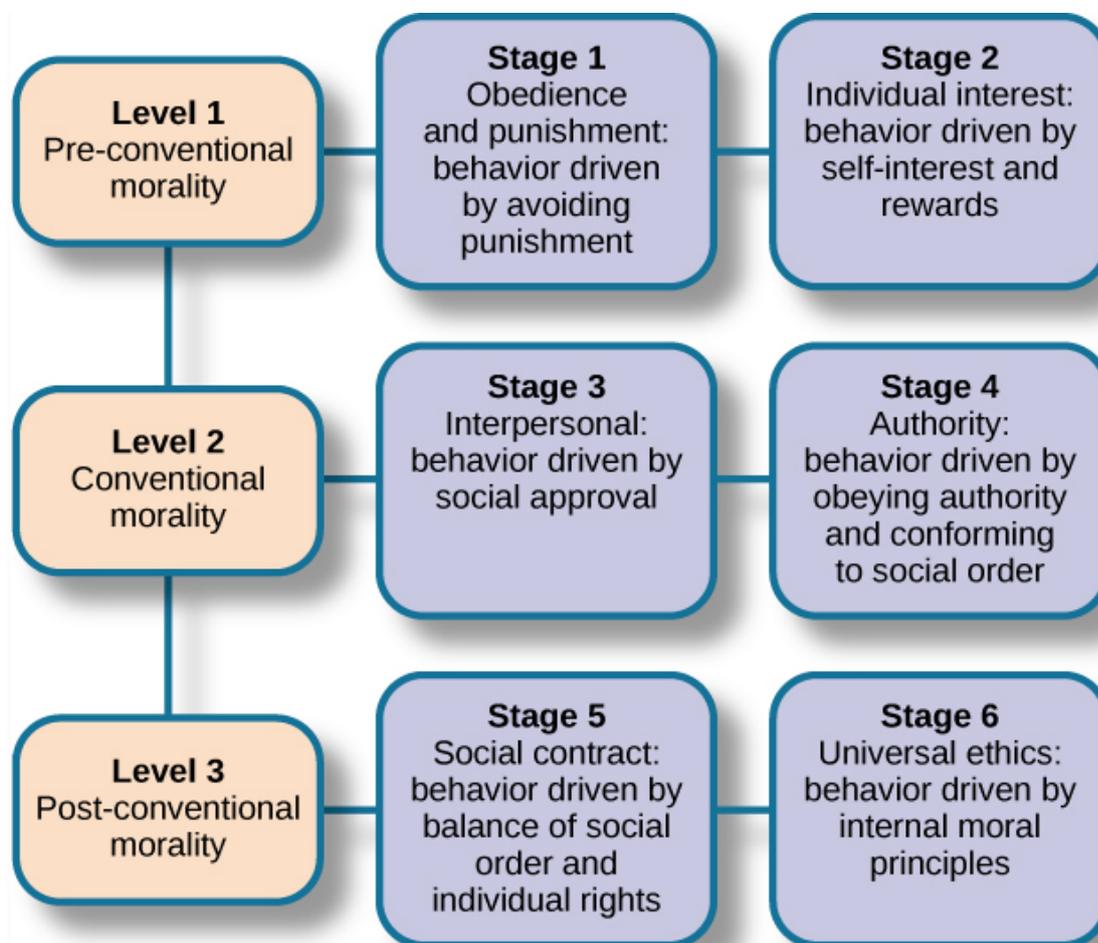
Kohlberg Stages of Moral Development

Moral development is an important part of the socialization process. The term refers to the way people learn what society considered to be "good" and "bad," which is important for a smoothly functioning society. Moral development prevents people from acting on unchecked urges, instead considering what is right for society and good for others. Lawrence Kohlberg (1927–1987) was interested in how people learn to decide what is right and what is wrong. Lawrence Kohlberg expanded on the earlier work of cognitive theorist Jean Piaget to explain the moral development of children. To understand this topic, he developed a theory of moral

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development that includes three levels: pre-conventional, conventional, and post-conventional. Kohlberg believed that moral development, like cognitive development, follows a series of stages.

Kohlberg's Stages of Moral Development



Source:<https://www.boundless.com/psychology/textbook/boundless-psychology-textbook/human-development...>

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Kohlberg's Stages of Moral Development

Kohlberg identified three levels of moral reasoning: pre-conventional, conventional, and post-conventional. Each level is associated with increasingly complex stages of moral development.

Level 1 - Pre-Conventional Morality

At the pre-conventional level (most nine-year-olds and younger, some over nine), we don't have a personal code of morality. Instead, our moral code is shaped by the standards of adults and the consequences of following or breaking their rules. Authority is outside the individual and reasoning is based on the physical consequences of actions.

- **Stage 1. Obedience and Punishment Orientation.** The child/individual is good in order to avoid being punished. If a person is punished, they must have done work.
- **Stage 2. Individualism and Exchange.** At this stage children recognize that there is not just one right view that is handed down by the authorities. Different individuals have different viewpoints.

Level 2 - Conventional Morality

At the conventional level (most adolescents and adults), we begin to internalize the moral standards of valued adult role models.

Authority is internalized but not questioned and reasoning is based on the norms of the group to which the person belongs.

- **Stage 3. Good Interpersonal Relationships.** The child/individual is good in order to be seen as being a good person by others. Therefore, answers relate to the approval of others.
- **Stage 4. Maintaining the social Order.** The child/individual becomes aware of the wider rules of society so judgement concern obeying the rules in order to uphold the law and to avoid guilt.

Level 3 - Post-Conventional Morality

Individual judgment is based on self-chosen principles, and moral reasoning is based on individual rights and justice. According to Kohlberg this level of moral reasoning is as far as most people get.

Only 10-15% are capable of the kind of abstract thinking necessary for stage 5 or 6 (post-conventional morality). That is to say most people take their moral views from those around them and only a minority think through ethical principles for themselves.

- **Stage 5: Social Contract and individual Rights.** The child/individual becomes aware that while rules/laws might exist for the good of the greatest number, there are times when they will work against the interest of particular individuals.

The issues are not always clear cut. For example, Heinz's dilemma the protection of life is important than breaking the law against stealing.

- **Stage 6. Universal Principles.** People at this stage have developed their own set of moral guidelines which may or may not fit the law. The principles apply to everyone. E.g. human rights, justice and equality. The person will be prepared to act to define these principles even if it means going against the rest of society in the process and having to pay the consequences of disapproval and or imprisonment. Kohlberg doubted few people reached this stage.

Lawrence Kohlberg's theory gives structure to an otherwise difficult to understand phenomenon. His development of morality influenced the theory of moral development in women proposed by Carl Gilligan and continues to circulate in academic circles worldwide. His work finds value not only in the world of psychology but in the world of education as well. Comprehension of his stages of moral development is important when attempting to understand the behavior and decisions made by students. Accurate assignment to a stage of development can help teachers understand why students do the things they do and how to best approach them. For example, it is useless to attempt to convince that she should sit quietly in her seat when the teacher is gone if she is in stage one of her moral development. The teacher must instead find a way to maintain then illusion of an authoritative figure while absent from the classroom. Ultimately, the teacher with the tools necessary to manage the classroom, thus enhancing the potential success of the lessons.

Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory

The field of child development has recently seen a dramatic increase in studies addressing the cultural context of children's lives. Investigations that make comparisons across cultures, and between ethnic groups within cultures, provide insight into whether developmental pathways apply to all children or are limited to particular environmental conditions (Goodnow, 2010).

- Vygotsky theory is that social interaction plays a very important in cognitive development.
- Did not focus on the individual child but on the child as a product of social interaction, especially with adults.
- Focus on dynamic interactions rather than child by himself.
- People thinking differs dramatically between cultures because different cultures stress different things.

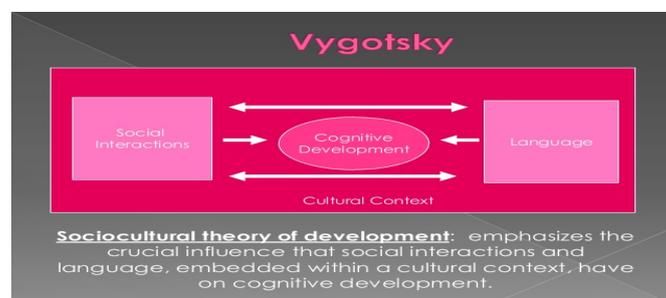
Sociocultural Theory

Vygotsky was concerned primarily with how children come to understand their social world. He believed that learning is acquired through a gradual process of social interactions between children and parents, teachers, and other members of the culture.

Vygotsky emphasized that social learning occurs within a zone of proximal development which refers to the range between the skills children can currently perform and those they could perform if they received proper guidance and instruction from people with greater expertise.

Scaffolding is tailoring the degree and type of instruction to the child's current level of ability or knowledge.

Vygotsky Sociocultural Theory



source: <https://www.google.com/>

Vygotsky's (1934/1987) perspective known as sociocultural theory, focuses on how culture –the values, beliefs, customs, and skills of a social group-is transmitted to the next generation. According to Vygotsky, social interaction-in particular, cooperative dialogues between children and more knowledgeable members of society- is necessary for children to acquire the ways of thinking and behaving that make up a community's culture. Vygotsky believed as adults and more –expert peers help children master culturally meaningful activities, the communication between them becomes part of children's thinking.

Vygotsky's theory has been especially influential in the study of children's cognition. Vygotsky agreed with Piaget that children are active, constructive beings. But whereas Piaget emphasized children's independent efforts to make sense of their world, Vygotsky viewed cognitive development as a socially mediated process, in which children depend on assistance from adults and more – expert peers as they tackle new challenges.

In Vygotsky's theory, children undergo certain stage wise changes. For example, when they acquire language, they gain in ability to participate in dialogues with others, and mastery of culturally valued competencies surges forward. When children enter school, they spend much time discussing language, literacy, and other academic concepts- experiences that encourage them to reflect on their own thinking (Bodrova& Leong, 2007; Kozulin, 2003). As a result, they gain dramatically in reasoning and problem solving.

Vygotsky emphasized the influence of culture, peers, and adults on the developing child. He believed that children will acquire ways of thinking and behaving that make up a culture by interacting with a more knowledgeable person. They suggests that social interaction leads to continuous step by step changes in a child's thought and behavior that can vary greatly from culture to culture. Clearly, in order to achieve the highest level of development possible, believers in Vygotsky's theories would advise that parents expose their children to a variety of social situations, since each interaction is considered a learning experience. It is especially important to introduce children to people and ideas that operate above their current knowledge level, giving them access to new ideas and concepts. Guiding children to look for answers by imitating what they see in others, listening to instruction and working as part of a group all provide opportunities for them to expand their current base of knowledge. And if Vygotsky is

correct and development continues until death, parents themselves may wish to look for opportunities to keep on learning and growing.

Ecological Systems Theory

Urie Bronfenbrenner (1917-2005) is responsible for an approach to child development that has moved to the forefront of the field because it offers the most differentiated and complete account of contextual influences on children's development. Ecological system theory views the child as developing with in a complex system of relationships affected by multiple levels of the surrounding environment. Bronfenbrenner envisioned the environment as a series of nested structures that form a complex functioning whole, or system. These include but also extend beyond the home, school, and neighborhood settings in which children spend their everyday lives (see Figure 1). Each layer of the environment joins with the others to powerfully affect development.

Structure of the environment in ecological system theory

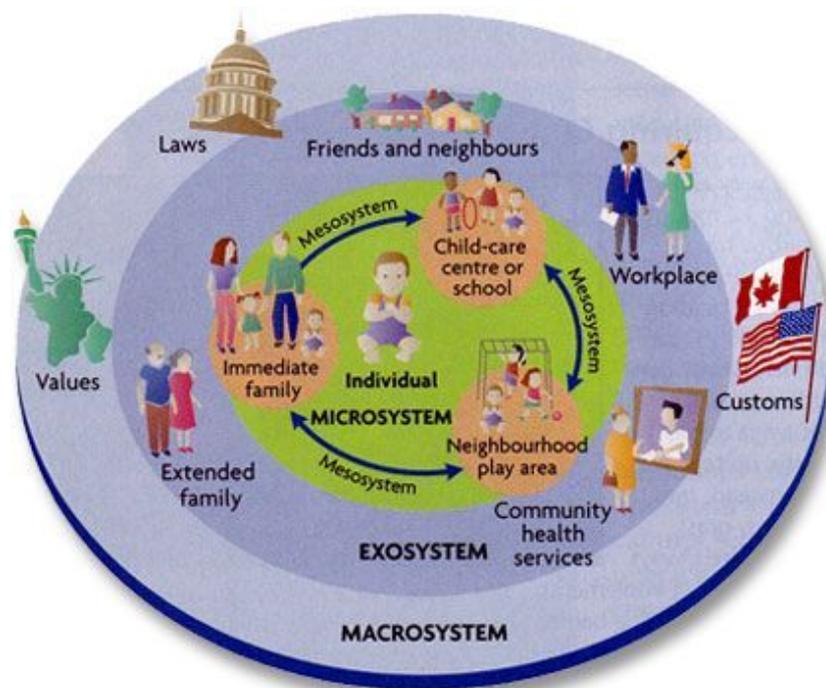


Figure 1. Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory (in Berk & Roberts, 2009, p. 28)

The Five Environmental Systems

The ecological systems theory holds that we encounter different environments throughout our lifespan that may influence our behavior in varying degrees. These systems include the micro system, the mesosystem, the exosystem, the macro system, and the chronosystem.

- **The Microsystem:** The innermost level of the environment, the microsystem, consists of activities and interaction patterns in the child's immediate surroundings. The micro system's setting is the direct environment we have in our lives. Your family, friends, classmates, teachers, neighbors and other people who have a direct contact with you are included in your micro system. The micro system is the setting in which we have direct social interactions with these social agents. The theory states that we are not mere recipients of the experiences we have when socializing with these people in the micro system environment, but we are contributing to the construction of such environment.
- **The Mesosystem:** The second level of Bronfenbrenner's model, the mesosystem, encompasses connections between microsystems, such as home, school, and neighborhood, and childcare center. The mesosystem involves the relationships between the microsystems in one's life. This means that your family experience may be related to your school experience. For example, if a child is neglected by his parents, he may have a low chance of developing positive attitude towards his teachers. Also, this child may feel awkward in the presence of peers and may resort to withdrawal from a group of classmates.
- **The Exosystem:** The exosystem consists of social settings that do not contain children but that nevertheless affect children's experiences in immediate settings. The exosystem is the setting in which there is a link between the context where in the person does not have any active role, and the context where in is actively participating. Suppose a child is more attached to his father than his mother. If the father goes abroad to work for several months, there may be a conflict between the mother and the child's social relationship, or on the other hand, this event may result to a tighter bond between the mother and the child.

- **The Macrosystem:** The outermost level of Bronfenbrenner's model, the macrosystem, consists of cultural values, laws, customs, and resources. The macrosystem setting is the actual culture of an individual. The cultural contexts involve the socioeconomic status of the person and/or his family, his ethnicity or race and living in a still developing or a third world country. For example, being born to a poor family makes a person work harder every day.
- **The Chronosystem:** The chronosystem includes the transitions and shifts in one's lifespan. This may also involve the socio-historical contexts that may influence a person. One classic example of this is how divorce, as a major life transition, may affect not only the couple's relationship but also their children's behavior.

The Ecological theory instigates that environmental factors play an important role in the development process. In particular, Bronfenbrenner emphasizes on the need to enhance primary relationships in family setups or in immediate spheres of life where a child receives direct influence (Kail & Cavanaugh, 2007). It is also vital to foster societal values as well as attitudes accorded by teachers, siblings, extended family, work supervisors or legislators which have direct influence on positive development of children. Thus political and economic policies which give importance to parental role in proper child development and upbringing need be put in place.

Questions for Discussion and Reflections

1. Explain Erikson's theory of psychological stages.
2. Discuss briefly Jean Piaget's theory of cognitive development and bring out its educational implications.
3. Mention the contribution of Kohlberg's to stages of moral development theory.
4. Describe Vygotsky's Socio-Cultural theory.
5. Explain the Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems theory.

UNIT IV: SOCIALIZING AGENCIES OF CHILD DEVELOPMENT

Objectives:

After completion of the unit, the learner will be able to:

1. build partnerships between caregivers and parents and families.
2. understand how child development relates to classroom practices, children's self-concept, social development and positive guidance.
3. analyze the importance of the peer group in terms of childhood and adolescent socialization.
4. enable students to provide needed assistance to community agencies and to the people served by the agencies.

Introduction

Socialization is a process by which culture is transmitted to the younger generation and men learn the rules and practices of social groups to which they belong. Through it that a society maintains its social system. Personalities do not come ready-made. Socialization agents are the sources from which we learn about society and ourselves people and groups that influence our self-concept, emotions, attitudes, and behavior are called agents of socialization. They are our socials. People who serve as socializing agents include family members, friends, neighbors, the police the employers, teachers, political leaders, business leaders, religious leaders, sports stars, and entertainers. Socialization agent's also can be fictional characters that we read about or see on television or in the movies. Every social experience we have affects us in at least a small way. The process that transforms a child into a reasonably respectable human being is a long process. Hence, every society builds an institutional framework within which socialization of the child takes place. Culture is transmitted through the communication they have with one another and communication thus comes to be the essence of the process of culture transmission. In a society there exists a number of agencies to socialize the child. To facilitate socialization different agencies play important roles. These agencies are however interrelated.

Family

Family is the first agent of socialization. Mothers and fathers, siblings and grandparents, plus members of an extended family, all teach a child what he or she needs to know. For example, they show the child how to use objects (such as clothes, computers, eating utensils, books, bikes); how to relate to others (some as "family," others as "friends," still others as

"strangers" or "teachers" or "neighbors"); and how the world works (what is "real" and what is "imagined"). As you are aware, either from your own experience as a child or your role in helping to raise one, socialization involves teaching and learning about an unending array of objects and ideas.

According to Robert. K. Merton, "it is the family which is a major transmission belt for the diffusion of cultural standards to the oncoming generation". The family serves as "the natural and convenient channel of social continuity.

Day care

Nearly 10 million children 5 years old or younger have mothers who work away from home. This includes 48 percent of the mothers of children 3 years old or younger. For these children, day care is an important agent of socialization. In 1982 there were more than 30,000 day-care centers, ranging from informal arrangements at the home of a neighbor to large nurseries run by schools, churches, charities, corporations, and occasionally employers (Lindsey, 1984). The primary child care arrangements for children under age 5 whose mothers work outside the home.

When the ratio of staff to children is at least one to ten or lower, when the groups of children are not larger than 20, and when caregivers are trained in early childhood development and are attentive to the children, the children who attend day care do very well (Collins, 1984; Lindsey, 1984). Children from very low income families have benefited considerably over the long term as a result of federally financed Head Start and other early day-care programs.

Effects of Family Socialization

Erikson's stages of development offer another model for understanding socialization. In each stage there are influences or agents of socialization who have an impact on the child and the messages of socialization being received. As the child develops and advances in psychosocial development, the agents become stronger or weaker in their capacity for influence. Early in a child's development, the family is, of course, the strongest agent, but as the child advances to preschool age, programs or schools begin to exert influence. At school age, peers are active

socialization agents. For the first eight years, family, school, community, and peers play a role in the following aspects of a child's socialization:

- The development of trust
- The development of independence
- The tendency to take initiative
- The sense of competence and ambition
- Decisions about who one is
- Relationships with others
- Decisions about future generations
- Reflections on one's life

Schools

The school is the second agency of socialization. In the school the child gets his education which moulds his ideas and attitudes. A good education can make the child a good citizen, while a bad education can turn him into a criminal. Education is of great importance in socialization. A well-planned system of education can produce socialized persons.

Schools socialize children by teaching them their formal curricula but also a hidden curriculum that imparts the cultural values of the society in which the schools are found. One of these values is the need to respect authority, as evidenced by these children standing in line.

The important agent of childhood socialization is the school. Of course, the official purpose of school is to transfer subject knowledge and teach life skills, such as following directions and meeting deadlines. But students don't just learn from the academic curriculum prepared by teachers and school administrators. In school, we also learn social skills through our interactions with teachers, staff, and other students. For example, we learn the importance of obeying authority and that, to be successful, we must learn to be quiet, to wait, and sometimes to act interested even when we're not.

Peer

A peer group is made up of people who are similar in age and social status and who share interests. Peer group socialization begins in the earliest years, such as when kids on a playground teach younger children the norms about taking turns or the rules of a game or how to shoot a basket. As children grow into teenagers, this process continues. Peer groups are important to adolescents in a new way, as they begin to develop an identity separate from their parents and exert independence. Additionally, peer groups provide their own opportunities for socialization since kids usually engage in different types of activities with their peers than they do with their families. Peer groups provide adolescents' first major socialization experience outside the realm of their families. Interestingly, studies have shown that although friendships rank high in adolescents' priorities, this is balanced by parental influence.

The playmates and friends also are an important agency of socialization. The relation between the child and his playmates is one of equality. It is based on cooperation and mutual understanding. They are mostly of similar age. As told above, the child acquires something from his friends and playmates which he cannot acquire from parents. From them he acquires cooperative morality and some of the informal aspects of culture like fashions, fads, crazes, modes of gratification and

Community

Virtual or online communities show that far from disappearing, communities are changing. Traditional communities are neighborhood or village-based. In the age of globalization, disappearing borders and unprecedented movements of population around the globe, communities are not disappearing but reconfiguring into geographically dispersed networks. According to Jeffrey Boase and al (2006), such geographically dispersed communities are facilitated by new electronic communication technologies, such as emails and the Internet. Moreover, research shows that new communications technologies extend our social connections but deepen them as well. People who interact face-to-face also tend to call each on the phone and exchange messages via emails or instant messages or text messages. This phenomenon of using multiple media to communicate is called media multiplexity.

Questions for Discussion and Reflections

1. Explain family as socializing agency in child development.
2. Discuss the role of school child development.
3. Describe peer group as social agency in child development.
4. Explain the important qualities of social agency of community.

UNIT V: GENDER STEREOTYPES AND GENDER ROLES

Objectives:

After completion of the unit, the learner will be able to:

1. understand the characteristics of gender stereotypes
2. know interaction of gender roles with social structures, time, race or ethnicity.
3. differentiate the gender stereotypes in early childhood , middle childhood and adolescents
4. analyse biological and environmental influence on gender stereotype
5. frame the strategies to develop non gender stereotyped children

Introduction

Gender stereotypes are widely held beliefs about characteristics deemed approach for males and females. Gender roles are the reflection of these stereotypes in everyday behavior. A third, gender identity, is the private face of gender – perception of the self as relatively masculine or feminine in characteristics. Finally, gender typing refers broadly to any association of objects, activities, roles, or traits with biological sex in ways that conform to cultural stereotypes of gender and, therefore, encompasses all the gender - linked responses

Individual and group differences in gender stereotyping and discuss the relationship between gender stereotyping and gender – role adoption.

- “Women is more compassionate than man and has a greater propensity to tears... but the male ... is more disposed to give assistance in danger, and in more courageous than the female.”
- “A man will say what he knows a woman says what will please.”
- “Man with the head and woman with the heart; Man to command and woman to obey; all else confusion.”
- “Love is a mood – no more – to a man, and love to a woman is life or death.”
- “Men do not confront a relationship problem unless absolutely necessary because the risk is that they’ll make things much worse... Women seek out even small problems to prevent them from becoming more serious.”

Instrumental traits, reflecting competence, rationality, and assertiveness, were regarded as masculine; expressive traits, emphasizing warmth, caring, and sensitivity, were viewed as feminine.

Besides personality traits, other gender stereotypes exist. These include physical characteristics (tall, strong, and studious for men; soft, dainty and graceful for women), occupations (truck driver, insurance agent, and chemist for men; elementary school teacher, secretary, and nurse for women), and activities or behaviors (good at fixing things and at leading groups for men; good at child care and decorating).

The variety of attributes consistently identified as masculine or feminine, their broad acceptance, and their stability over time suggest that gender stereotypes are deeply ingrained patterns of thinking.

Gender Stereotyping in Early Childhood

Children label their own and others' sex, using such words as boy and girl and lady and men. As children sort out what these categories mean in terms of activities and behaviors, gender stereotypes appear and expand rapidly. Before age 2, children have begun to acquire subtle associations with gender that most of us hold – men as rough and sharp, women as soft and round.

Preschoolers associate toys, articles of clothing, tools, household items, games, occupations, colors (pink and blue), and behaviors (relational and physical aggression) with one sex or the other. They have even acquired gender – stereotyped metaphors – “bears are for boys”; “butterflies are for girls”.

During early childhood, gender – stereotyped beliefs strengthen – so much so that many children apply them as blanket rules rather than flexible guidelines. When children were asked whether gender stereotypes could be violated, half or more of 3 – and 4 – year olds answered “no” to clothing, hairstyle, and play with certain toys. Furthermore, most 3 – to 6 – year olds are firm about not wanting to be friends with a child who violates a gender stereotype (a boy who wears nail polish, a girl who plays with trucks) or to attend a school where such violations are allowed.

Preschoolers usually relied only on the gender label in making judgments, ignoring the specific information “Tommy is a boy. Tommy’s best friend is a girl, and Tommy likes to play house,” children under age 6 nevertheless said that Tommy would much rather play with cars and train engines than with sewing machines and dolls.

The rigidity of preschoolers’ gender stereotypes helps us to understand some commonly observed everyday behaviors. Most preschoolers do not yet realize that characteristics associated

with being male or female – activities, toys, occupations, hairstyle, and clothing – do not determine a person’s sex. They have trouble understanding that males and females can be different in terms of their bodies but similar in many other ways.

Gender Stereotyping in Middle Childhood and Adolescence

By age 5, gender stereotyping of activities and occupations is well established. During middle childhood and adolescence, knowledge of stereotype increases in the less obvious areas of personality traits and achievement. At the same time, because older children realize that gender – stereotypic attributes are associated – but not defining – features of gender, their beliefs about possible male and female characteristics and capacities become more flexible.

Personality Traits

To assess stereotyping of personality traits, researchers ask children to assign “masculine” adjectives (tough, rational, cruel) and feminine adjectives (gentle, affectionate, dependent) to either a male or a female stimulus figure. Middle childhoods are children good at sizing up people’s dispositions.

To assess stereotyping of personality traits, researchers ask children to assign “masculine” adjectives (“tough, rational, cruel”) and “feminine” adjectives (“gentle, “affectionate” childhood are “dependent”) to either a male or a female stimulus figure. Middle childhoods are children good at sizing up people’s dispositions. Stereotyping of personality traits increases steadily in middle childhood, becoming adult like around age 11. The pattern of children’s trait learning and found that the stereotypes acquired first reflected in – group favoritism. Kindergartners through second graders had greatest knowledge of trait stereotypes that portrayed their own gender in a positive light. Once trait stereotyping is well under way, children characterize the in – group and the out- group as having both positive and negative qualities. Though both boys and girls view each gender as having more positive than negative traits, this effect is stronger for the in – group favoritism and out- group negativity than boys. Perhaps girls more readily pick up the widely held general impression of girls as “sugar and spice and everything nice” and of boys as “nakes and snils and puppy dog tails”.

Achievement Areas

Shortly after entering elementary school, children figure out which academic subjects and skill areas are “masculine” and which are “feminine”. They often regard reading, spelling, art, and music as more for girls and mathematics, athletics, and mechanical skills as more for boys.

These stereotypes influence children's preferences for and sense of competence at certain subjects. Boys tend to feel more competent than girls at math, science, and athletics whereas girls feel more competent than boys at language arts – even when children of equal skill level are compared.

Math as a “feminine” subject language art traditionally as largely “feminine.” Although school age children are knowledgeable about a wide variety of gender stereotypes, they also develop a more open-minded view of what males and females can do a trend that continues into adolescence. Children from ages 5 to 10, regardless of the degree of early gender stereotype rigidity, flexibility increased dramatically age on 7. As they develop the capacity to integrate conflicting social cues, children realize that a person's sex is not a certain predictor of his or her personality traits, activities, and behavior. Similarly, by the end of the school years, most children no longer view gender – typed behavior (especially that of girls) as inborn and fixed. Rather, they see it as socially influenced – affected by home rearing environments.

Between ages 7 and 13, children of both genders became more open minded about girls being offered the same opportunities as boys. This change, however, was less pronounced for boy's school age children seem well aware of the power of such male in group favoritism to limit girls' access to high status opportunities. When 5 to 10 year olds were asked why only men had been elected to the U.S. presidency, their most frequent explanation was that men would not vote for a woman candidate.

Influences on Gender Stereotyping and Gender Role Adoption

Biological influences

According to an evolutionary perspective, the adult life of our male ancestors was largely oriented toward competing for mates, that of our female ancestors toward rearing children. Therefore, males became genetically primed for dominance and females for intimacy, responsiveness, and cooperativeness. Two sources of evidence have been used to support the role of biology (1) cross cultural similarities in gender stereotypes and gender role adoption and (2) the influence of hormones on gender role behavior.

A close look at cross cultural findings reveals that most societies promote instrumental traits in males and expressive traits in females, for example, in Nyansongo, a small agricultural settlement in Kenya, mothers work four to five hours a day in the gardens, while older siblings

care for young children tend the cooking fire, and wash dishes. Because these duties are assigned to children of both sexes, girls do not have total responsibility for feminine task and have more time to interact with age mates. Their greater freedom and independence lead them to score higher than girls of other tribal and village cultures in dominance, assertiveness, and playful roughhousing. Boys' care giving responsibilities mean that they often display help giving and emotional support. Because cross cultural findings are conclusive, scientists have turned to a more direct test of the importance of biology: the impact of sex hormones on gender typing.

Sex Hormones and Gender Typing

Sex hormones also affect brain development and neural activity in many animal species, and they do so in humans' as well. Throughout the school years, children continue to show a strong preference for same sex peers. Hormones affect play styles, leading to rough, noisy movements among boys and to calm, gentle actions among girls. During the preschool years, girls increasingly seek out other girls and like to play in pairs because of a common preference for quieter activities involving cooperative roles. Boys come to prefer larger group play with other boys, who share a desire to run, climb, play fight, compete, and build up and knock down

Environmental Influences

Environmental forces provide powerful support for gender role adoption. Adults view boys and girls differently and treat them differently. In addition, children's' social contexts – home, school, and community offered many opportunities to observe males and females behaving in gender stereotyped ways and beginning in early childhood, peers vigorously promote gender typing.

Perceptions and Expectations of Adults

When adults are asked to observe neutrally dressed infants who are labeled as either boy or girl, they “see” qualities that fit with the baby's artificially assigned sex. In research of this kind, adults tend to rate infants' physical features and their personality traits in a gender stereotyped fashion. Boys, for example, are viewed as firmer, larger, better coordinated, and hardier, girls as softer, finer featured, more delicate, and less alert.

During childhood and adolescence, parents continue to hold different perceptions and expectations of their sons and daughters. They want their preschoolers to play with “gender appropriate” toys and, with respect to child rearing values, describe achievement, competition, and control of emotion as important for sons and warmth, “ladylike” behavior, and closely supervised activities as important for daughters when asked about attitudes toward “cross gender” behavior, parents of preschoolers responded more negatively to the idea of boys than girls crossing gender lines.

Gender Identity

Besides biological and environmental influences, another factor eventually affects gender stereotyping and gender – role behavior: gender identity, a person’s perception of the self as relatively masculine or feminine in characteristics. In middle childhood, as self-concepts emphasize psychological dispositions over concrete behaviors, researchers can measure gender identity by asking children to rate themselves on personality traits. A child or adult with a “masculine” identity scores high on traditionally masculine items and low on traditionally feminine items (affectionate, cheerful, and soft spoken). Someone with a “feminine” identity does the reverse. Although most people view themselves in gender typed terms, a substantial minority (especially females) have a gender identity called androgyny, scoring high on both masculine and feminine personality characteristics.

Gender identity is a good predictor of psychological adjustment. “Masculine” and androgynous children and adults have higher self-esteem than “feminine” individuals androgynous individuals are more adaptable able to show masculine independence or feminine sensitivity, depending on the situation.

Gender Identity in Middle Childhood and Adolescence

During middle childhood, boys’ gender identities follow different paths. Self – ratings on personality traits reveal that from third to sixth grade, boys strengthen their identification with the “masculine” role, while girls’ identification with “feminine” characteristics declines. While still leaning toward the “feminine” side, girls are more androgynous than boys more likely to describe themselves as having “other “gender” characteristics.

These changes are due to a mixture of cognitive and social forces. School age children of both sexes are aware that society attaches greater prestige to “masculine” characteristics.

- Gender typicality – the degree to which the child feels similar to others of the same gender. Although children need not be highly gender typed to judge themselves as gender typical, their psychological well being depends on feeling, at least to some degree, that they “fit in” with their same sex peers.
- Gender contentedness – the degree to which the child feels comfortable with his or her gender assignment, which also promotes happiness and satisfaction with oneself.
- Felt pressure to conform to gender roles – the degree to which the child feels parents and peers disapprove of his or her gender – related traits. Because such pressure reduces the likelihood that children will explore options related to their interests and talents, children who feel strong gender – typed pressure are likely to be distressed and dissatisfied.

Third through seventh graders, gender – typical and gender – contented children gained in self esteem. The arrival of adolescence is typically accompanied by gender intensification – increased gender stereotyping of attitudes and behavior, and movement toward a more traditional gender identity.

When gender intensification is evident, it seems to be stronger for adolescent girls. Although girls continue to be less gender – typed than boys, some may feel less free to experiment with “other – gender” activities and behaviors than they did in middle childhood. Some girls struggle with gender – typed social pressures to act in ways inconsistent with their actual beliefs, avoiding conflict by suppressing their honest thoughts and feelings. Eighth grade girls who compromised their authenticity – by withholding their true opinions and emotions to avoid parental or peer disapproval – were less likely than their more authentic age mates to display the typical adolescent rise in self – esteem. Social environment is a major force in promoting gender – role flexibility in adolescence.

Gender Schema Theory

Gender schema theory is an information – processing approach that explains how environmental pressures and children’s cognitions work together to shape gender typing. It also integrates the various elements as of gender typing – gender stereotyping, gender identity, and gender – role adoption – into a unified picture of how masculine and feminine orientations emerge and are often strongly maintained.

At an early age, children pick up gender – stereotyped preferences and behaviors from others. At the same time, they organize their experiences into gender schemas, or masculine and

feminine categories, that they use to interpret their world. As soon as preschoolers can label and appreciate the stability of their own gender, they select gender schemas consistent with it and apply those categories to themselves. Their self – perceptions then become gender – typed and serve as additional schemas that children use to process information and guide their own behavior.

Gender – schematic thinking is so powerful that when children see others behaving in “gender – inconsistent” ways, they often cannot remember the behavior or distort their memory to make it “gender – consistent” for example, when shown a picture of a male nurse, remembering him as a doctor. Over time, children learn much more about people, object and events that fit with their gender schemas than they do about “cross – gender” activities and behaviors.

Training school – age children in cognitive skills that counteract gender biased social messages reduces their tendency to view the world in gender – schematic terms. When researchers taught 5 – 10 year olds that ability and interest, not gender, determine whether a person can perform an activity well, children gained in stereotype flexibility and memory for “gender – inconsistent” information

Strategies for Development Non-Gender – Stereotyped Children

Stereotyped ideas about what’s suitable for boys or girls can limit children’s opportunities to learn and develop. Here some strategies that teachers can do to help create an environment which encourages children to think of themselves as individuals, rather than editing their choices through a gender filter.

Create a safe space

School should be a safe environment to learn and explore – you can help children by affirming unconventional choices, reassuring them that it’s OK to be different and encouraging a culture of acceptance.

Provide a range of role models

Give children real-life examples that counter stereotypes, both in your own activities, and in topic work and external visitors. “Where possible we also try to get visitors who challenge stereotypes so we always ask if we can have a female firefighter or police officer or a male nurse... We’re also trying to get some of our male staff to help with things like knitting club (they’re willing but need to learn the basics!) and more women playing football.” Teacher.

Make the most of books

Take a look at the stories and factual books in your classroom. Are there examples of working women, caring fathers, active girls and creative boys?

Make sure there aren't 'girls' jobs and 'boys' jobs

Who gets asked to do what? Is it always 'three strong boys' who move the chairs? Or 'two trustworthy girls' who take a message? It's easy to fall into a pattern – mix it up and try asking someone different. "EVERY assembly I've attended has had all major parts performed by girls even when they don't need to be. Drives me CRAZY." Jenny, London "I asked some Year 4 girls to put out the chairs. They said 'great – we never get asked to do that' – so I think they do notice the different ways in which genders are treated." Teacherpick other ways to divide up the children

Encouraging children to work in mixed pairs or groups can have benefits too. "Working in mixed pairs and groups challenges them – they have to be more adventurous about talking and learning from each other. They stay on task more and talk in full sentences. It keeps them on their toes because it is different from the playground where they tend to play in single sex groups. Some children object but we usually find they are the ones it's most effective with!"
Teacher

Use inclusive language

Small changes, like saying 'children' instead of 'girls and boys' or 'parents and careers' or 'families' rather than 'Mums and Dads' can help to affirm the things we have in common rather than our differences.

Think about rewards and sanctions

Are boys and girls rewarded differently, or given different sanctions for similar behaviour? Do rewards imply that you think boys and girls can't like the same things?

Conclusion

It could be said that the roles of the male and female derived from their assumed characteristics. These are a reflection of our society in terms of the roles that men and women are supposed to take on and by repeatedly showing such stereotypical assumptions on the respective gender roles, it would give the idea to children that they are supposed to act and is the natural state of things, when in reality gender is subjective and comes in various forms and shapes.

Questions for Discussion and Reflection

1. Explain the gender schema theory
2. What are the influences of gender stereotyping?
3. Describe gender stereotypes in early, middle childhood and adolescence.
4. Discuss the strategies for development of non-gender stereotyped children

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