

Psychosocial Development in Middle Childhood and Early Adolescence

A Handbook for Icehearts' Educators

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Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to all children through all times and to my wonderful wife who always believes in me.

Mottoes:

“It is never the child’s fault” (Turkka 2015)

You do not need to know everything!
You just need to know where you can find the information.
(German adage)

ABSTRACT

Christian Bode. Psychosocial Development in Middle Childhood and Early Adolescence: A Handbook for Icehearts' Educators. Helsinki 2015, 157 pages plus appendices. Diaconia University of Applied Sciences, Helsinki. Degree Programme in Social Services.

The aim of this study was to develop a handbook for Icehearts' educators, a Finnish third sector organization for children and youth work, and for other educators and caregivers. The focus lies on major psychosocial development phases during middle childhood and adolescence.

This study is a functional thesis. The thesis product is based on an adapted literature review method and on qualitative data analysis techniques for the analysis of literature. Various textbooks and scientific articles were used for the study.

The handbook introduces a framework model for the psychosocial development, describes important theories and concepts, and highlights development processes per year of age. An information database developed for the literature review and the literature analyses complements the information in the handbook.

The thesis product outlines various psychosocial development domains and proposes focus areas for future children and youth work. It is a platform for the development of training concepts for educators and it is a knowledge basis for further Icehearts' studies on external influence factors during children's and adolescents' development.

Keywords: psychosocial development, middle childhood, adolescents, temperament, internalizing and externalizing behavior, personality, social cognitive development, social learning, moral development, attachment, handbook

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PREFACE

My initial interest in writing this thesis was the gathering of information which seem to be important for those who are involved in and engaged with the education and the work with children and adolescents including the goal to have this information available any time when needed. At this point I want to thank the not only domestically well-known Finnish organization Icehearts ry Finland for giving me the opportunity to work out my ideas in cooperation with their highly engaged educators and member of the management.

My second interest sprouted out during the development of the thesis. By gaining more information about the psychosocial development of children and adolescents one question started to follow my thoughts for the thesis development – How can parents, caregivers, communities and societies ensure that all children get the needed preventative support early enough by assuring that children are not excluded based on cognitive, academic or behavioral development parameters or by personal, cultural and origin based presumptions by decision makers? Even though this question is entirely out of scope for this thesis it has, however, influenced the development of this thesis indirectly. Beside an academic and structured approach the mentioned question in mind might have had some influence towards decisions made during the development process of the thesis.

During my work on this thesis and my cooperation with Icehearts ry Finland I recognized that Icehearts represents a symbiosis of child welfare and community development work. A symbiosis of working with the individual circumstances of the children by cooperating with important caregivers and agencies in the community. Icehearts ry Finland and other non-profit child work and child protection organizations in the Finnish third sector are building a bridge of confidence for children towards parents, peers, the community, and the society. And they are offering children places for belonging and spaces for growing. Following Tuan (1977, 3) who says: "*space is freedom, place is security*".

These organizations have an active role in community development as they are offering preventative help for children in a manner that they get those by themselves eagerly awaited chances to grow up as an active and productive member in their families, communities, and societies. Those organizations show children examples how to live the values of our communities and societies without the children and adolescents having to demonstrate any cognitive, mental, academic or physical preconditions, talents, or gifts. The children learn how to find their role in a community and how they can contribute to it. The offering of space and place supports the well-being of children by assuring social belonging. David Conradson (2012) writes that over 40 years of research has helped to understand aspects how socially connected communities provide well-being. Gordon Jack (2012) writes about psychological processes which are involved in building attachment to places, how important those attachments are for the development of the child's personal identity and the child's feeling of security and belonging, and about the potential of space attachments for improving children's well-being.

As already mentioned this thesis does not directly focus in form and content to the important aspect of community development and the implicit development of well-being for our children but I hope I can provide a little piece of support for all those who are engaged and working hard to make our planet a better place for our children.

I would like to thank Ville Turkka and Miika Niemelä from Icehearts ry for giving me the opportunity to write this thesis and for all their support. Further I would like to thank my tutor Mika Alavaikko from the Diaconia University of Applied Sciences for his academic support.

Helsinki, November 2015

1 INTRODUCTION

Before introducing the thesis an important ethical aspect needs to be outlined. In this thesis work the specification of ages for psychosocial development processes and stages are based on researches and studies and are average data. The reader of this work has to realize that any development, physical, cognitive or psychosocial is unique for every child. Some children develop in certain areas faster than others but that does not mean that a slower or a faster development than the average is atypical. The data in this thesis should give the reader an indication about the psychosocial development of children and adolescents. For the practical work with the handbook the reader should always bear in mind that the data indicates only a direction about when certain development processes begin and end but the children's individual development is unique and differ from child to child.

This study is a development orientated thesis and its aim is to develop products that ease the access to information about the psychosocial development of children and adolescents in the age between 6 and 18 years. The thesis products have been created for the Finnish third sector non-profit organization Icehearts ry.

Icehearts ry works with vulnerable children and adolescents at risk between 6 and 18 years in teams of 10 (core team) to 25 (extended team) children or adolescents. Icehearts' educators and child welfare experts select, form and build up the teams together when the children are approximately 6 years old. Icehearts' educators supervise the same team for 12 years until the children reach the age of 18 years. Physical and psychosocial support determines the Icehearts operational model. Beside the supervision of physical activities Icehearts educators co-

operate closely together with children's parents, teachers, headmasters, and welfare experts. Icehearts' teams are established in many cities and rural areas in Finland.

The purpose of a development orientated thesis, also called *functional thesis*, is

to produce guidelines or guidance for practical work, to organize or systematise work, or to design, model and implement new products and services (Diaconia University of Applied Science 2012, 33)

The Diaconia University of Applied Sciences (2012) distinguishes in their guidelines for thesis work between product development thesis and development projects thesis. The former thesis is engaged in the development of new products or a new services whereas the latter is engaged in the development and testing of new working methods and new models for operation as a part of a project or program. As the output of this thesis is a guidance tool for Icehearts' educators and as it has a link to professional practice and promotes professional growth, this thesis is according to the Diaconia University of Applied Sciences' guidelines a product development thesis. The thesis outlines the product development processes in chapter five which includes the description of the requirements for the product and an assessment of the outcome.

The scope of the thesis products has been agreed with the Icehearts' management team. The agreement was preceded by several discussions with Icehearts' educators and special school teachers during a seven week placement with teams in Helsinki, Vantaa, Espoo, and Lahti. Finally it was agreed with the Icehearts' management that the educators should get tools which support the educator's daily work. The products shall deliver basic information about the psychosocial development of children and adolescents.

The products ought to outline the main psychosocial development steps and processes during middle childhood and adolescents structured and sorted by age-ranges. The thesis focuses on typical psychosocial development processes because the reader of the thesis and the user of the product shall get an introduction

of the multifaceted development processes by concentrating on a typical development. Once the typical development processes are understood the reader is able to recognize early signs of atypical growth. Another reason is that atypical development is very often triggered by external influencing factors from family, school and peer interactions. These external factors should be analyzed in separate researches by utilizing the results of this thesis as a foundation to cover all aspects of the psychosocial development. However, critical development processes which are influencing atypical growth such as emotional learning problems, low self-esteem, internalizing and externalizing problems, antisocial behavior problems, or attachment problems have been outlined if internal development factors have a major share in the development.

The products of this thesis are a *Handbook for Educators* (the handbook) about the psychosocial development of children and adolescents and a *Psychosocial Development Information Database* (the *Information database*). The content of the handbook is included in this thesis report as chapters two, three and four. The *Information database* is described in chapter five and the user manual for the database is attached to the appendices.

The chapters of the handbook are designed and developed in such a way that the reader of the handbook and the user of the *Information database* has the possibility to search information from a very detailed development process of a certain year of age in chapter four and then explore further background information and theories described in chapter three to get an overview in form of a model as the basis for this thesis that is described in chapter two (bottom-up approach). Or the reader starts with the model and explores more detailed information in chapters three and four (top-down approach).

The chapter two describes the thesis underlying *Interactive Model of Personality* originally proposed by Boyd and Bee (2014) as *possible synthesis*. The model proposes a way to describe and virtualize the interaction of biological development, learning development and psychoanalytic aspects in the milieu of the family and its environment for the development of the individual personality of the child.

It is important to understand that this model supports a methodology to learn and understand the complex system of psychosocial development in such a way how geographically maps help to navigate towards a point of interest. For this thesis the model is used as a navigation support to lead the reader to the point of interest in the complex system of the children's and adolescents' psychosocial development processes. The *Information database* is structured according to the model.

The chapter three outlines the scope and important terms of the psychosocial development. The chapter ought to give the reader an understanding what domains of the thesis subject are covered by the handbook and the *Information database*. The chapter includes definitions of terms and concepts, the description of selected theories and it outlines the theoretical scope of the handbook by its content. This chapter contains the background information which are needed to understand the single development processes described in chapter four.

Chapter four gives the reader of the handbook and the user of the *Information database* an overview about the most important development processes per year of age. The chapter starts with a description of the early development processes between the ages zero and five. The development processes during this phase have major influence to later development and therefore are important to be mentioned. More detailed information about the development processes described in chapter four can be found in the *Information database*.

The development process of the handbook, the Information database, and the used methodologies are described in chapter five. The chapter includes Ice-hearts' requirements for the thesis product and outlines the development process. An important aspect is the method of data acquisition, the selection criteria (include and exclude criteria) and the analyses of the data. The data acquisition for the thesis product is based on an adapted literature review method which is described in detail in the same chapter. The data selected and stored in the *Information database* are exclusively quotations from several textbooks and studies

related to the psychosocial development of children and adolescents. All quotations are referenced to first- and secondary literature sources and the reader has the possibility to search for more details in the source literatures.

Chapter six includes a critical reflection and discussion about the thesis products and their development process. The chapter also outlines recommendations about how the thesis products could be implemented in Icehearts' working processes and how the products could be used for further researches about Icehearts' working model.

Last but not least it needs to be mentioned that the thesis products do not consider the economic system environment which has originally been coined by Uri Bronfenbrenner (1979). Even this domain defines major influence from the environment (family systems, school education, peer groups, neighborhood, social wellbeing systems, etc.) to the children's and adolescents' development, a separate examination of this domain might be advisable for further researchers on Icehearts' working model. This thesis is elaborating the psychosocial development of children with the focus on the individual perspective whereas the economic system environment describes the impact of the outside systems to the individual development. The incorporation of the two different views would bust the frame of this thesis. Further theses may elaborate this domain for the practical support of educators.

2 THE FRAMEWORK MODEL

The framework model for this thesis is based on a proposal for "A Possible Synthesis", described in Boyd & Bee (2014, 278, 293-294, FIGURE 4) and on the literature review described in the chapter 6.3 Information acquisition. The model is outlined in the FIGURE 1. An Interactive Model of Personality. The model is based on a proposal for "A Possible Synthesis", originally described by Boyd & Bee (2014, 293-294, FIGURE 4; Boyd & Bee 2014, 278, 293) and shows the development domain *Personality* in the center of the model and interactions with and between the domains of *Temperament*, *Self-scheme*, *Environmental Influences* and the *Parents outside Experiences*. The genetic and biological base is not explicitly described in this work. However, there are some influences especially to the domain temperament, instinct and emotions which will be described or outlined in chapter 2 of this work and with more details in the *Psychosocial Development Information Database (Information database)*. The domain *Parents outside Experiences* has been added for the sake of completeness but it is not a subject of this work. The reason for including this domain is to highlight that this domain has also a high impact to the psychosocial development and should not be underestimated nor excluded from evaluation of children's or adolescent's psychosocial development. The link between *Inborn Temperament* and the *Personality* has been drawn as a footnote for the arrow 1 description. The key *Temperament Dimensions* and the *Big Five Personality Traits* have been described in more detail in the chapter 3 of this work.

As already mentioned the model in FIGURE 1. An Interactive Model of Personality. The model is based on a proposal for "A Possible Synthesis", originally described by Boyd & Bee (2014, 293-294, FIGURE 4; Boyd & Bee 2014, 278, 293) is based on a proposal by Boyd and Bee:

An Interactive Model of Personality

Here is one version of a complex interactive model describing the formation of individual personality. The effects of inborn temperament and Environmental Influences are not merely additive. That is,

the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. Each affects the other, helping to create the child's unique self-scheme, which is itself influenced by parents' own life experiences. What developmentalists think of as personality is a complex product of all these forces (Boyd and Bee, 293.)

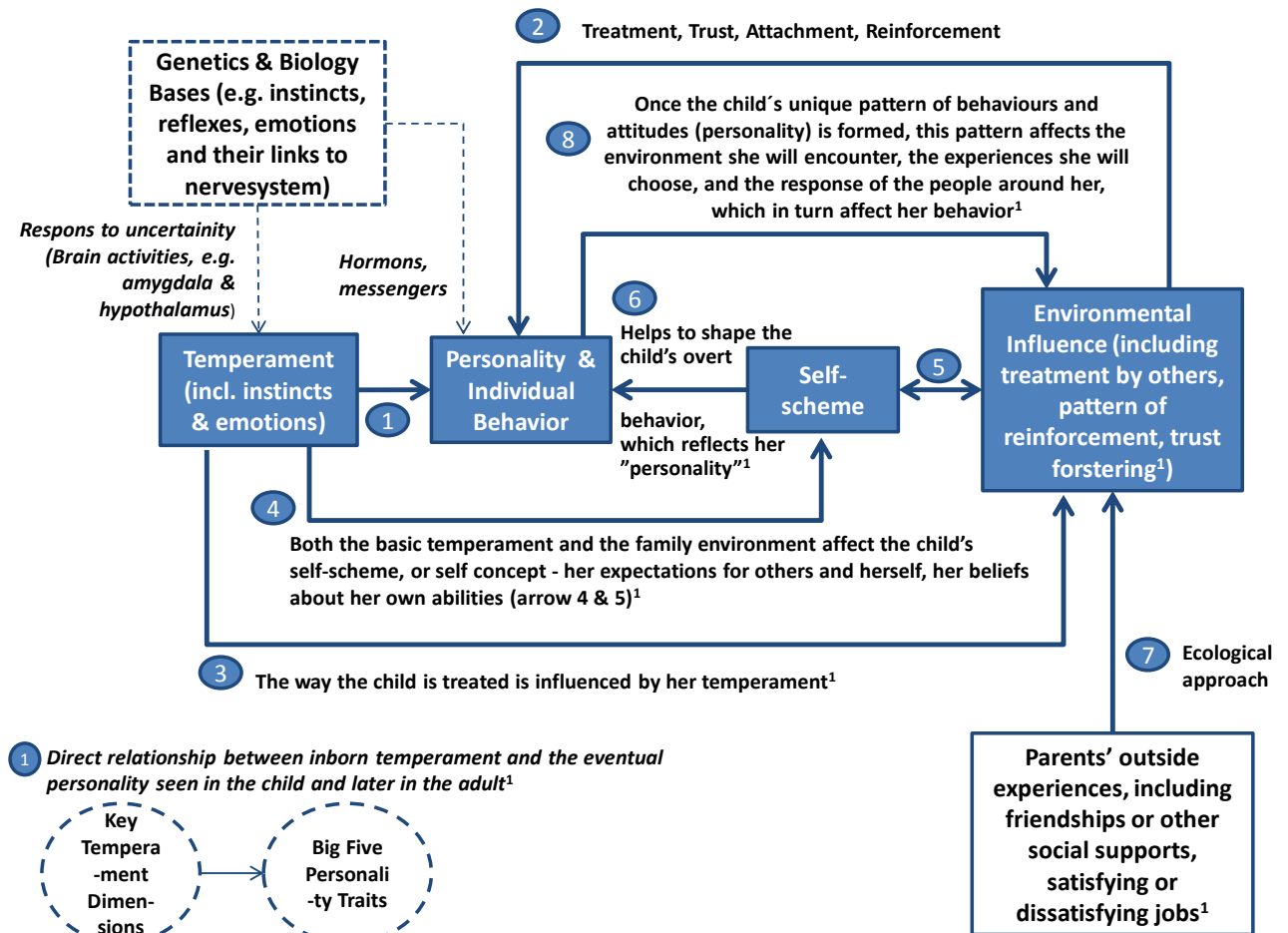


FIGURE 1. An Interactive Model of Personality. The model is based on a proposal for "A Possible Synthesis", originally described by Boyd & Bee (2014, 293-294, FIGURE 4; Boyd & Bee 2014, 278, 293)

The model starts with the relationship between the inborn temperament of the child and the final personality of the child in his later adulthood (arrow 1). This direct effect is also highlighted in the model as the relationship between the key temperamental dimensions and the Big Five personality traits. This relationship is outlined in the chapter *Personality versus Temperament and the Big Five* (subchapter 3.6.1).

The next direct influence to the personality and the social behavior of children is from the environment (arrow 2). This work concentrates only on some of the most important aspects of the Environmental Influences which are attachment, friendship & peer relationship, and social status which are defined in the chapter *Environmental Influences* (subchapter 3.8.). These aspects have been chosen because these Environmental Influences have a direct effect to the child's personality whereas the parents' outside experiences (arrow 7) as described by Uri Bronfenbrenner (1979) as the economic system environment. As already mentioned the latter is not part of this work but has to be considered when drawing an understanding about the children's or adolescent's situation under certain circumstances.

One of the most obvious child's influences towards how his environment recognizes and threatens him is his temperament (arrow 3). The *Environmental Influences* including from the family, the teacher, other caregiver, and peer groups are usually affected by the temperament of the child. Children with "difficult" temperament are treated by the environment differently than children with "easy" temperaments. As outlined in the chapter about Prosocial- and Antisocial Behavior (chapter 3.7.4) a power struggle between a child and his parents might escalate to an antisocial behavior of the child or the adolescent. The definition of temperament is summarized in chapter 3.4.

The child's expectations for himself and for others, his beliefs about his own strengths and abilities and the child's sense of self-efficacy, also called the child's self-scheme, is affected by the child's temperament (arrow 4) and by the environment (arrow 5). The temperament of a child has influence on how the child sees his own abilities. For example children or adolescents with internalized behavior problems (very shy) or externalized behavior problems (very aggressive) might have low self-efficacy and low self-esteem because the environment has not threatened the child according to his temperament. The term "Goodness of Fit" in the context of temperament promotes an adequate response from parents to child's behavior and temperament. The response from the environment in relation to the child's temperament affects the self-scheme of the child. The development

domain self-scheme and its components are defined in the corresponding chapter 3.5.

The development of the self-scheme in turn has influence on the personality of the child (arrow 6). The self-scheme affects the child's individual behavior which reflects and describes his personality.

The reciprocal relationship between the child's personality and the environment is finalized once the child's personality is shaped (arrow 8). The child's attitude and his individual behavior which both form his personality, have a great impact on the experience he actively or passively chooses in his environment. They affect what kind of people he will meet and the way how he will treat people around him. The response from the environment in turn affects his personality as described already above.

The FIGURE 2 outlines the five chosen development domains: *Temperament, Personality, Individual Behavior, Self-scheme and Environmental Influences*. Some development domains are combined. The domain Temperament includes Instinct, Reflexes and Emotions because all have genetic and biological bases. The domains Personality and Individual Behavior are combined by Boyd and Bee (2014) as the learning of behavior (see Individual Behavior in chapter 3.7) and the psychoanalytic explanations (see Personality in chapter 3.6) together define the personality of a child. FIGURE 2 further outlines the structure of the subdomains underneath the development domains on a high level. The detailed structure has been built into the *Information Database*. The complete structure has been developed based on the model framework described above and by the literature review process for the product development, which took a major effort of this work. The literature review is described in the chapter for the Information Acquisition of the product development process (chapter 6.3.). Some but not all important themes from subdomains have been highlighted. The themes in the dotted frame line boxes are highlighting the most important influences from another development domain.

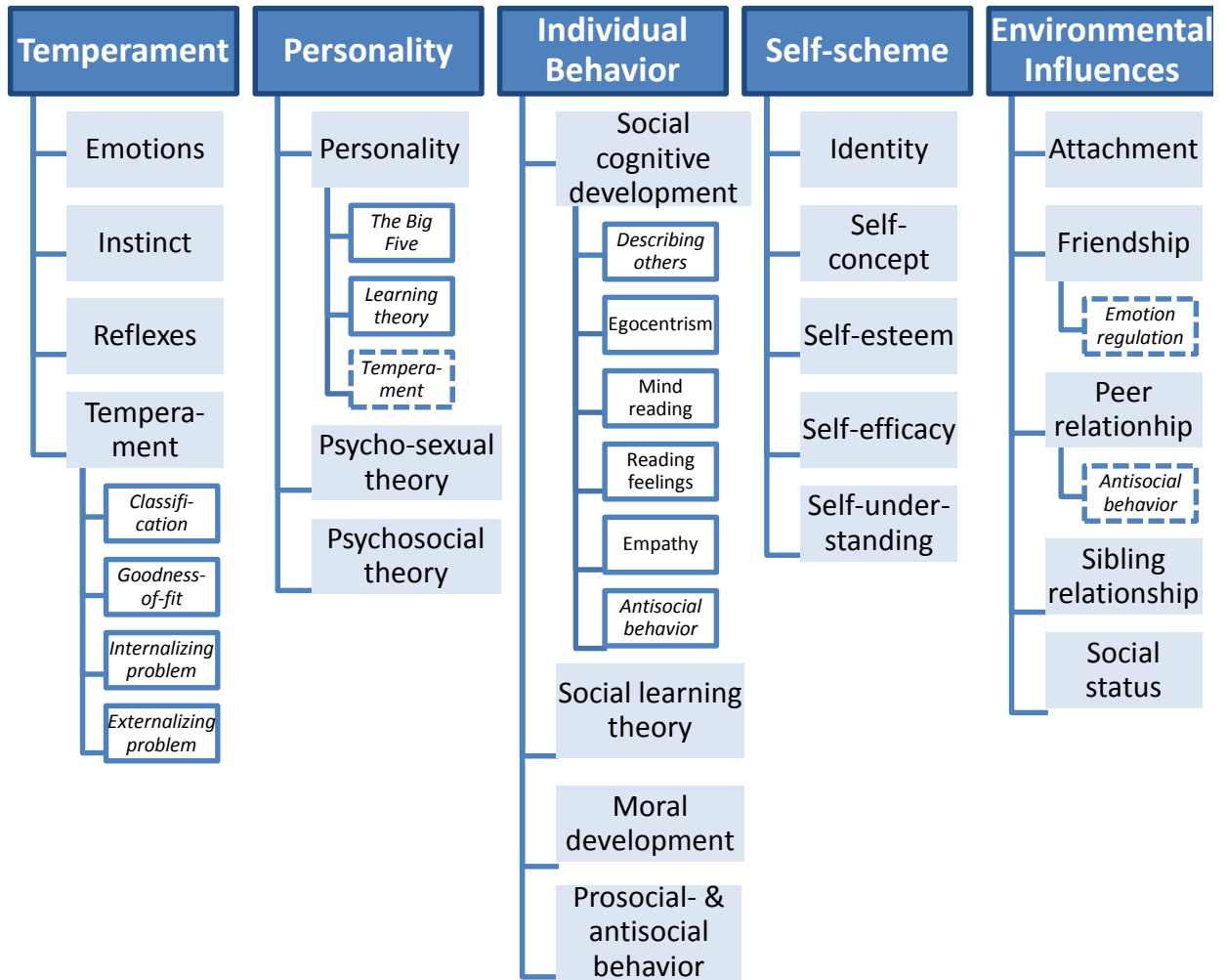


FIGURE 2. Psychosocial Development Domains and Subdomains

3 IMPORTANT TERMS IN PSYCHOSOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

The development of a person is multidimensional and multidirectional (Sugarman 2001). In order to get an understanding of the dimensions of human development it is beneficial to define significant development domains. However, when following his approach one should never forget that development is always complex and intertwined. The development in one domain might have major impact to the development in other domains. According to Sugarman (2001) typical domains in the development psychology are:

- *Physical development.* Includes the physical growth of all components of the body and changes in motor development, the senses, and in bodily systems.
- *Cognitive development.* Includes all changes in the intellectual processes of thinking, learning, remembering, judging, problem solving, and communication.
- *Personal development.* Includes the development of the concept of self; the development of attachment, trust, security, love, and affection; and the development a variety of emotions, feelings, and personality traits.
- *Social development.* Includes the development of interpersonal relationships with family members, peers, and other members of the community (Sugarman 2001, 14.)

This thesis deals with the last three domains defined by Sugarman, the cognitive development, the personal development and the social development. The thesis focuses on the age range between 6 and 18 years. The peak of the physical development spurt lies basically before this time span.

3.1 Cognitive Development

Sometimes it is helpful to get first a broad understanding about a new theme when acquiring knowledge about it. As the term cognition invites readers to shift away their concentration, I tried to find simple but clear definitions of the term which underlines the important function of the cognitive development for any other development dimensions. For example the Oxford Dictionary defines cognition as a:

[M]ental action or process of acquiring knowledge and understanding through thought, experience, and the senses (Oxford Dictionaries).

The internet page of Merriam-Webster defines cognition in a nutshell as following:

Cognition: conscious mental activities: the activities of thinking, understanding, learning, and remembering (Merriam-Webster).

Raiker (2007) defined the term cognitive in relation to development in the following compact way:

Cognitive development can simply be defined as the structured growth of mind. The process begins before birth. Once a child is born this embodiment of a new generation is subsumed within the old, receiving and absorbing the past and present knowledge of its culture. The child learns facts, ideas, beliefs and behaviours. The production and use of signs, symbols and artefacts become part of the child's repertoire of individual and social accomplishment (Raiker 2007, 74.)

Raiker (2007) further writes that children gain knowledge by two methods, systematically and unsystematically. Systematic or formal learning occurs for example in school education. Unsystematic or informal learning happens outside formal education by observation and interactions within families, peer groups, and other social interactions. Two major directions of thoughts are engaged with the question how the mind absorbs knowledge and keeps it in memory. *Behaviorism* teaches that all learning is based on habits. Like a dog learns to follow the instruction of the owner, a similar conditional controlled stimulus-response reaction is the basis for all verbal and non-verbal learnings. Boyd and Bee (2014) explain that radical behaviorists believe that variations in behavior and personality are

based on classical conditioning. In other words, learning happens only by stimulating of the senses and by the conditioning and the controlling of the responses. The second school of thought is located at the opposite end of the scale. The *cognitivism* proposes that:

Learning is concerned with a person's internal representation of the world and how these are organised in the mind (Raiker 2007, 74).

Raiker (2007) explained that it is all about the interpretation of this internal representation of the person. Learning processes can only be understood indirectly by observations and by knowledge about the structure and the function of the brain.

The most dominant and influencing developmentalist was the cognitivist psychologist Jean Piaget (1896-1990). The domain of *cognitive psychology* is concerned with the research of mental processes, for example the study of the memory, the perception, or the decision making processes. In terms of education the cognitive psychology is engaged with the questions how children gain knowledge and how they process and organize the new knowledge. Piaget was the first developmentalist who observed and defined stages in the child's cognitive development.

According to Harris (2008) development stages are characterized by qualitative changes which mean the ability of doing something different and not just more of it. A second characteristic of stages is that they are connected via transition phases. During a transition phase the children apply aspects of the new stage but do not fully give up all aspect of the previous phase. New and old aspects are used parallel until the old ones are given up completely. The third characteristic is that the transition between stages is typically relative quick which make it easy to observe and recognize a spurt in the development.

Raiker (2007) writes that Piaget discovered and described cognitive structures (also so called patterns) and schemata for mental and physical behavior and that he identified age-related appearance of intelligence. The following table describes the stages of the cognitive development of the children.

TABLE 1. Piaget's Stages of Cognitive Development (Raiker 2007, 77; Santrock 2014, 170)

PIAGET'S STAGES OF COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT			
Age of child	Stage	Description of schemata by Raiker (2007)	Description of schemata by Santrock (2014)
0-2 years	Sensorimotor	Children are learning that physical actions (motor) result in sensed responses, that is by one or more of the five senses. In this can be discerned the stimulus-response relationship of classical conditioning.	Infants gain knowledge of the world from the physical actions they perform on it. Infants coordinate sensory experiences with these physical actions. An infant progresses from reflexive, instinctual action at birth to the beginning of symbolic thoughts toward the end of the stage.
2-4 years	Pre-operational (Pre-conceptual)	During this stage children are egocentric. They see the world purely from their own perspective. They cannot 'decentre', that is see the world from another's point of view.	The child begins to use mental representations to understand the world. Symbolic thinking, reflected in the use of words and images, is used in this mental representation, which goes beyond the connection of sensory information with physical action. However, there are some constraints on the child's thinking at this stage, such as egocentrism and centration.
4-7 years	Intuitive	Children are beginning to perceive sets of things, similarities and differences. They are beginning to classify thought this is not deliberately, hence the term 'intuitive'.	
8-11 years	Concrete operational	Children are beginning to think logically. They begin to understand that things and events can be ordered and that some can be reversed. They begin to classify deliberately and organise.	The child can now reason logically about concrete events, understands the concept of conservation, organizes objects into hierarchical classes (classification), and places objects in ordered series (seriation).
12-15 years	Formal operational	Children begin to move away from things that can be sensed, that is that are concrete, to abstractions.	The adolescent reasons in more abstract, idealistic, and logical (hypothetical-deductive) ways.

According to Raiker (2007) Piaget believed that learning is caused by activities because children learn when they are "ready to learn" and the readiness is raised by activities.

Assimilation is the practicing or repeating of new knowledge until the knowledge has changed the existing schemata in child's mind and has been accommodated

into the new schemata; for example in the child's existing schemata everything that drives on the street is a car but then he learned that a motorbike is not a car, and a truck is also not a car either and he starts to practice until he is able to identify a motorbike and a truck by his own, so the child accommodated the new knowledge. Children can assimilate only when teacher, parents and other people structure new knowledge in a way the child is able to assimilate the information and repeats and practices the new knowledge as long as it has been accommodated.

Piaget's stage theory explains why children around the age of 4 count objects on a table correctly but have to recount the same amount if the objects have been rearranged. However, Robert Siegler's (1998) studies have shown that during the concrete operational stage between 8 and 11 years the children use many different strategies to solve for example a mathematical problem. First and second graders might retrieve the result for an addition problem from the memory after some practicing but for new addition problems they might count the results from their fingers. They learn different strategies such as the already mentioned finger counting and retrieval strategy, the minimum strategy, where the children start a counting problem with the larger number and add the smaller number by counting one by one to the larger number, and the more advanced decomposition strategy, where the children start to derive an addition or multiplication problem from an similar, already known result (e.g. $9+4 = 10+4-1$), and they might use different strategies at the same time. For example, in higher grades children use less and less the counting and more the retrieval-, min- or decomposition theory and they use different strategies for different mathematical problems during one day. Siegler (1998) criticizes Piaget's stage theory and argues that shifts from one stage to another are not that systematic as Piaget thought. He rather proposes the so called "overlapping wave" model. Children have individual strategies which they may use for different problems. Over the time the children change their strategies to more advanced and complex ones, just as Piaget observed, but these changes are not step-like, they appear like waves. If the children recognized during practicing and repeating that another strategy is more effective they start gradually to drop the older, less effective strategies in favor for a more effective one.

Socio-cognitivism is another important school of thought related to cognitive development. One of the most influential theorists was Lev Vygotsky (1896-1934). Raiker (2007) describes socio-cognitivism as cognitive development within a social context. Lev Vygotsky and other theorists propose that social interaction, both formal and informal, mediated by language are the basis for the learning and reasoning development. Vygotsky had a very different notion about language and its function. Piaget believed that language has no links to structural thinking. Vygotsky suggests that social interactivities, including written and spoken language, are building mental structures. These mental structures, which include cultural derivations, control how the individuals see their world. Once an individual has internalized a language, he can construct his own world. Raiker infer that individuals' perception of reality is incomplete until the semantic system of their culture is developed.

Words are not simply verbal or written symbols. They form part of the thought process and their meanings evolve throughout life. Therefore adults and/or children will ascribe different subtleties of meaning, and communication could be adversely affected (Raiker 2007, 80.)

An important implication is that children and educators should have a common shared language in order to support the children's learning process. Vygotsky (1986) defined the term *Zones of Proximal Development* which means the place where a child's rich portfolio of experience based perceptions, ideas and notions (concepts) encounter the adult's systematic and logical reasoning. Raiker (2007) interprets the *Zone of Proximal Development* as the difference between what the child learns alone and what he could achieve with the help of adults. Genetic and environmental factors as well as prior learning have an impact to the extent of the zone. Unlike Piaget, Vygotsky suggests that an educator can influence and make a difference to the child's learning rate. However, Raiker (ibid.) point to the work of Balacheff and colleagues (Balacheff 1980; Balacheff & Laborde 1984; cited in Hoyles 1985) who suggest that older children tent to evaluate the clarity of their own explanations rather on the basis of how precise and clear it seems for themselves than on the basis how their peers received the explanation. And they found also that discussions in the peer groups about the "decoding" of the message is

more effective in order to reach a mutual understanding than the explanation of the teacher. Raiker (ibid.) interprets these findings as a close relationship between children's success to find solutions for problems and the discussion about appropriate definitions and meanings for word inside the peer groups in order to assess and describe the problem, the situation and possible solutions for the problem. During this process the learners search, test and agree on the meaning of words. Raiker (ibid.) suggest that teachers and youth worker should assure that their language which seems clear to themselves produce the same clarity in the children's mind.

3.2 Instincts and Reflexes

Even the phrase "acting by instinct" is frequently used this term is not anymore widely used in the child development literature. However, Freudian psychoanalytic theories are using the term instinct as inborn biological forces which are motivating and influencing our behavior in a way we are not aware of. For example a young girl might be seeking security from her mother when she is acting like a small baby, or a boy is compensating his aggressiveness and his sexual urges by his devotion for bodybuilding.

Nowadays the term instinct is embedded or even dissolved by the debate about whether development is initially biological inherited (nature) or mostly influenced by environmental factors (nurture).

Reflexes by newborns are automatic inborn responses to environmental events for survival purposes. For example, if an infant's mouth is touched it moves automatically his head toward the side from where it was touched and starts effort to find something to suck.

3.3 Emotions

Santrock defines emotions as a:

[F]eeling, or affect, that occurs when people are in a state or an interaction that is important to them, especially one that influences their well-being. In many instances emotions involve people's communication with the world (Sandtrock 2014, 282).

Emotions or feelings have a biological foundation (Calkins 2012; Kagan 2013). Brain scientists have found evidence that the biological foundation of emotions are linked to an area in the human brain stem system that is equivalent to the brain system of birds and reptiles which cause self-regulation and communication in those animals. The human brain system has additional specific features that allow the development of a complex communication of emotional states and mental activities (Panksepp 2009; Porges 2009). According to Trevarthen (2011) the brain has been formed with all preconditions for the functioning of those features before birth.

When a child develops, his unpredictable mood swings decrease and his capability to regulate his emotions increases due to the maturation of his neurobiological system, especially the cerebral cortex in the frontal region in the brain (Cuevas et al. 2012). According to Thompson (2013b, c, d) and Ursache (et al. 2013) caregivers are having a significant role for the regulation of a child's emotions (cited in Santrock 2014, 283). For example they can reduce child's stress hormones if they are soothing him when he is distressed or in a crisis (Gunnar & Quevado, 2007 cited in Santrock 2014, 283).

Emotions occur if an individual tries to adjust to a specific situation or a requisition (Saarni & others 2006 cited in Santrock 2014, 283). Therefore, emotions are context bound and commonly interpersonal. Context bounded means that the respond occurs from a specific situation which might have happened some times before the emotion evoked.

According to Eisenberg, Spinrad and Eggum (2010) children learn *emotion regulation* during early childhood which is to learn how to understand own emotions and how to regulate the expression of emotions.

Impulse control (also called inhibitory control) is an important aspect of this learning process. As Kochanska & Aksan (2006) explain *Impulse control* is the children's and adult's ability to hold back an emotional response. For example a child is able to control his anger and yells rather than hits others. Or the child is able to hold back crying even though he is feeling like crying immediately. Parents help their infant to regulate their feelings when they are soothing or cuddling him when he is upset. Or parents remove the infant from the situation which caused the upsetting. Over the years the child learns to modulate and get control over his feelings by internalizing the soothing strategies of the parents. As Sroufe (1996) wrote by age of 2 children still have only basic capabilities to control their feelings and their behaviors but during preschool at age the of 5 or 6 most children have learned to control their strong feelings and to hold back their intention of hitting someone or something because they got upset, or getting inconsolably because they got frustrated, or getting sulky because they have been rejected.

Emotion control is the second aspect of emotion regulation children learn during early and middle childhood and include the understanding that the expression of emotions underlies social rules. As Liew, Eisenberg and Reiser (2004) observed, children around the age of 3 or even younger gradually begin to learn that they ought to show different emotional expressions than those they would show according to their current feelings. They begin to show a "social smile" which is clearly different from his natural, bright smile even if they feel rather unhappy. Thompson and Goodvin (2011) write that children learn to adapt their emotional expression appropriated to the situation. They start to show pleased surprise when they get a present from an adult or they are not laughing during a funeral. Boyd and Bee (2014) describe preschoolers who use purposeful emotional expression in order to get what they want and that they are able to smile or cry depending on what is beneficial in a certain situation.

Researcher proposing a link between self-control abilities learned in early childhood and the range of various social skills. For example Kochanska and Aksan (2006) revealed that self-control in early childhood has an effect on the child moral reasoning, how he follows moral rules and his understanding of right and

wrong. Researches by Eisenberg and colleagues (Eisenberg et al. 1999, cited in Bee & Boyd 2014, 307; Eisenberg et al. 2005) revealed a relation between controlling of negative emotions and behavior problems in middle childhood and adolescents. The more young children are able to control their negative emotions the lower is the probability that they show behavior problems later during their school years. Thompson and Goodvin (2011) found that children who have low capabilities of controlling their negative emotions suffer from low popularity within their peer groups.

According to Houck and Lecuyer-Maus (2004) the acquiring of emotional control is a process where the child gets slowly the control over his emotions from his parents if they interact with the child's traits. Schmitz and colleagues (Schmitz et al. 1999) found that a child who consistently shows exhibited difficult behavior during infancy will more likely show emotion control problem during early childhood. And Carson, Klee and Perry (1998) and Schothorst and van Engeland (1996) revealed that children with delayed language development by age of 2 years or infants who are born prematurely are more likely to show self-control difficulties during early childhood.

The temperamental characteristic *effortful control* should get special attention in parenting and supportive work with children. *Effortful control* belongs to the temperamental dimension of self-regulation – the capability to prioritize a subdominant response over a current dominant response for planning purposes and for the detection of errors (Rothbart & Bates 2006). This includes the capacity to stay focused or to shift the focus (attention) when required and the active planning to suppress inappropriate action (Zentner & Bates 2008). Some theorists suggest that the capacity to stay focused contributes to adapt skills which are demanded in the schooling. According to Rothbart (2004) individual's actions are driven by negative and positive emotions which are again influenced by individual's temperament. However, it seems that individuals can adapt approaches which are cognitive and flexible in order to deal with worried and anxious circumstances (Santrock 2014). A high level of *effortful control* predicts and support the capability to regulate emotions in order to reach goals and the ability to master tasks, to

reach academic achievements, to cooperate, to reach moral maturity (for example to be concerned about wrongdoing and to be willing to apologize) and to be helpful and willing to share (Santrock 2014).

3.4 Temperament

In the 1980s modern child temperament research became a major part of the contemporary developmental psychology. In comparison to other development theories it is a young discipline with (still) various schools of research. Zentner & Bates (2008) described in their article the most important research approaches for a proposal of an integrated view on temperament components which are appearing during childhood. In order to get an understanding about what temperament is and how temperament seems to be linked to physiological and psychological process it is helpful to get an overview about the most important research approaches.

3.4.1 Definition

Based on their NYLS study (The New York Longitudinal Study) the researcher Alexander Thomas, Stella Chess and colleagues (Thomas, Chess, Birch, Hertzog, and Korn 1963, cited in Zentner & Bates 2008, 8) developed a list of nine temperamental dimensions: a) *activity level*, b) *rhythmicity*, c) *approach/withdrawal*, d) *adaptability*, e) *sensory threshold*, f) *intensity of reaction*, g) *quality of mood*, h) *distractibility*, and i) *attention span/persistence*. Later Thomas and Chess (1991, cited in Santrock 2014, 292) organized different temperament traits into three types of child temperaments – a) *the “difficult” child* (negative reaction, cries often), b) *the “slow-to-warm-up” child* (low level of activity, to some degree negative reactions, low intensity of mood), and c) *the “easy” child* (mostly in positive mood, establishes regular routines, seeks for new experiences). Further they recognized that parental responses as well as cultural values, attitudes and practice have influence to child’s behavior which leads to the classification of their

temperament into one of the three types. Therefore they defined the term *goodness-of-fit* which promotes an adequate response of parents to child's behavior and temperament. Skilled parents and educators who recognized that the "difficultness" of a child is based on the child's temperament and not on the child's willfulness are able to find adequate measures which will help the child to cope better with their future life challenges.

The researcher Buss and Plomin (1975, 1984) were thinking about *temperament* as to be the constitutional part of individual's personality. They support the notion that traits are equal to temperament if they are individual and not of cultural origin. The essence of this individuality can be crystalized by observations of the animal world. For example in the world of primates four temperament traits are shared: fearfulness, aggressiveness, affiliativeness (involvement with and caring for others), and impulsiveness (sudden unpredictable actions without careful thoughts). To be defined as temperament, traits have to appear during the first two years of life, are heritable, show continuity and predicts to later development and relicts of the traits can be found in later personality. Buss and Plomin (1975, 1984, cited in Zentner & Bates 2008, 9) defined three traits which are fulfilling those mentioned criteria: a) *emotionality* (easily distressed and upset), b) *activity*, and c) *sociability* (being with others or being alone, not shyness).

The researchers Goldsmith and Campos (1982; see also Goldsmith 1993, cited in Zentner & Bates 2008, 10) defined temperament as individual differences in the experience, the expression and the regulation of positive and negative emotions (similar to effortful control). Behaviors and their expression (incl. vocal, facial, and motor) are a direct source of those individual differences. The process of emotion regulation occurs during or after the appearance of an emotion event (e.g. avoidance of anger expression). Goldsmith and Campos developed a complex laboratory to measure motor activity, anger, fearfulness, pleasure and interest/persistence as temperament components.

Rothbart was also interested in the mechanism of emotion and their regulation but with the focus on attention and involved neurobiological processes. According

to Rothbart (Rothbart & Derryberry, 1981, cited in Zentner & Bates 2008, 11) the difference in *reactivity* on the one side and *self-regulation* on the other side are defining the temperament of an individual. Reactivity is the behavioral reaction of a biological process which includes the activation of the central nervous system. For example individuals change their behavior if they become aware that they are being observed. The differences in individual reactivity are being measured by the level, the delay, the intensity and the recovery time of the reactivity. The self-regulation either corrects or anticipates the behavior which was caused by reactivity processes. Behaviors which are linked to self-regulations are avoidance (e.g. the escape from a situation), inhibition (e.g. the impossibility to express thoughts, emotions or desires or any activities to prevent undesirables), and approach (e.g. the way to come closer to individuals or objects). Rothbart and colleagues (Posner & Rothbart, 2007; Rothbart & Bates, 2006; cited in Zentner & Bates 2008, 11) identified three dimensions of temperament by this approach: a) *surgency-extraversion* (e.g. sensation seeking, activity level, positive anticipation), b) *negative affectivity* (e.g. social discomfort, fear, anger/frustration) and c) *effortful control* (e.g. the ability to focus or to shift attention, the sensitivity to any changes which appear in the individual's environment, distinguishing between important and unimportant information).

Based on Kagan's longitudinal studies (Kagan, Reznik, & Snidman, 1988; Kagan, Snidman, Zentner, & Peterson, 1999, cited in Zentner & Bates 2008, 12-13) and based on many tiny facts he and his colleagues defined the temperament categories a) *high-reactive* and b) *low-reactive*. These definitions are based on studies about behavior to unfamiliar situations. A 2-year-old infant who tried to escape from a situation (avoidance) where an unfamiliar individual is involved or who shows distress to such a situation tend to preserve this behaviors until 7 years of age. A 2-year-old infant who shows only minimal tendencies to avoidance and distress will also preserve these behaviors until the age of 7 years. Kagan recognized that high-reactive temperaments and the environment where individuals are embedded (social culture, family, social class, historical era) are the constitutions for many different personalities.

Zentner & Bates (2008) devised based on their studies of the different approaches for temperament research a proposal for basic temperament traits of young children: a) *behavioral inhibition (fear)* (inhibited and nervous in social situation with unknown persons, including negative emotionality), b) *irritability/frustration* (easy to distress due to minimal uncomfortable feelings), c) *positive emotionality* (smiling, positive expectations, seeking for novel situation, seeking for sensation), d) *activity level* (amount of motions and level of energy), e) *attention/persistence* (persistent focusing on the important), and f) *sensory sensitivity* (reaction to low value sensory impulses, tendency to feel uncomfortable by visual, auditory or tactile impulses).

As conclusion temperaments are inborn traits, are heritable, with links to biochemical processes and are a kind of a constitutional system for the later developing personality. Temperament cannot be changed by breeding or education. But adequate response to behaviors which are emerging from an individual temperament (*goodness-of-fit*) may have influence to a positive development of an individual personality. Some of the described definitions of temperamental dimensions and components might change due to future research outcomes but for the time being the listing above could help to focus on possible child's problematic development and the cause in order to find the *goodness-of-fit* to help and empower the child for future challenges.

3.4.2 Dimensions and Typology of Temperament

As mentioned earlier the research of temperament is still a young discipline. The various definitions might be one sign that researchers still have different notions based on different serious scientific researches. An important step towards common accepted theories in a research area is the definition of structures. For the research of temperament it is the definition of truly independent and fundamental dimensions of temperament. It means that temperament dimensions have a clear structure of components, subcomponents and characteristics which have clear defined relations dimensions. Depending on the author of a study some temper-

ament dimensions are defined as fundamental and others as derivative of a fundamental dimension. As long as there are still different notions we have to deal with different views on how temperament components are interlinked with each other.

Another way to organize temperament dimensions is the definitions of types of temperament characteristics which are similar for a group of people (Zentner & Bates (2008). For example Zentner and Bates made the following proposal for children:

Undercontrolled child: willful, restless, inattentive, impulsive
 Overcontrolled child: shy, obedient, self-critical, liked by adults
 Resilient child: self-confident, able to concentrate, self-reliant and open (Zentner & Bates 2008, 23.)

Another example of typology can be found in the description of Alexander Thomas and Stella Chees' approach above ("difficult", "slow-to-warm" and "easy" child).

3.4.3 Internalizing and Externalizing Problems

According to a literature review by Zentner and Bates (2008) and other authors (see Santrock 2010, 302-303; Bee & Boyd 2004, 243) there is a link between most significant temperament dimensions and adjustments (changes, improvements) or maladjustments (inadequate adjustment) in later life stages. Particular temperament characteristics in early childhood lead to behavior problems in middle childhood or adolescence. Two major maladjustments are *internalizing-problems* and *externalizing problems* (see also definition by Zentner and Bates in *Dimensions and Typology of Temperament*):

When children have externalizing problems, or undercontrolled disorders, they act out in ways that disturb other people and violate social expectations. They may be aggressive, disobedient, difficult to control, or disruptive [...] Internalizing problems, or overcontrolled disorders, involve inner distress; they are more disruptive to the child than to other people and include anxiety disorders (such as persistent worrying about separation from loved ones), phobias, severe shyness and withdrawal, and depression. Negative emotions are internalized, or bottled up, rather than externalized, or expressed. (Sigelman & Rider 2012, 528.)

Zentner and Bates (2008) highlighted the characteristics of aggression and rule-breaking to *externalized-problems* and anxiety and depression to *internalizing-problems*. They wrote that early temperament dimensions can predict later adjustment failure like internalizing and externalizing problems. Three linkage patterns demonstrate that a) early unmanageable temperamental proneness with either a strong form (dimension: *positive emotionality*) or a weak form of effortful-control (dimension: *attention/persistence*) or both predict later externalizing problems; b) fearfulness or inhibition (dimension *behavioral inhibition*) are risk factors for later internalizing problems; c) temperamental negative emotionality or irritability (dimensions: *behavioral inhibition & irritability/frustration*) are risk factors for both externalizing and internalizing problems.

3.5 Self-scheme

The term *self-scheme* comprise *self-concept*, *self-understanding*, *self-efficacy* and *self-esteem* as the development in all of these areas contributes to the image a child has about himself and his possible self.

Thompson, Winer and Goodvin (2011) for example outlined an early psychological self-representation of preschoolers. According to their work preschoolers gradually begin to develop a sense of a multidimensional and complex self-representation which is influenced by the notion and beliefs of the child how other children regard them. Children between 4,5 and 7,5 years of age are able to evaluate their own academic competences, motivation for achievements, social competence, the acceptance by peers, depression-anxiety and aggression-hostility. Children between 4 and 5 years of age evaluate timidity, agreeableness, positive self-concept and negative affect. Children around 5,5 years are able to describe aspects about their self-control and self-acceptance via achievement and affiliation. And 4 and 5 years old children are able to evaluate their self-concept in terms of physical appearance, peers, parents, and verbal and mathematical skills.

3.5.1 Self-concept

The term *self-concept* is used when a child evaluates himself in certain domains. Children can evaluate themselves in many different domains separately. For example they evaluate separately their own academic performance and their athletic and physical appearance and performance (Santrock 2014). Knowledge about the self in specific domains (collection of memory structures) is stored into the long term memory. The knowledge is created by experience and by appraisals done by the child him-self and by the others (Stein et al. 1998). The self-evaluation is more than self-understanding as the children not just define and describes attributes about themselves but they also evaluate these attributes (Santrock 2014).

3.5.2 Self-understanding

Self-understanding is the capability to describe attributes for the self. The self is not just given by their parents or by the culture around him but the child also constructs his self. The child defines himself and describes attributes about his self. During the development of the child the understanding of the self is changing (Santrock 2014).

3.5.3 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is the belief that one is able to master a situation and to create a positive and “good enough” outcome. According to Dale Schunk (2012) a child with high self-efficacy beliefs that he is able to understand and to learn the subjects in the class and he believes that he is doing well at any activities. Children with low learning self-efficacy try to avoid learning tasks, especially challenging tasks. High self-efficacy children are more likely to invest more time and effort on tasks and persistently working on it than low self-efficacy children. Betz (2004) suggests that high self-efficacy children have a higher level of confidence to look into more challenging career options.

According Bandura, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Gerbino and Pastorelli (2003) self-efficacy has an important role for individuals' self-regulation processes. Believed and received self-efficacy has not only direct impact to individuals' actions but also influence their affective, cognitive, decisional and motivational functions.

Beliefs of personal efficacy influence what self-regulative standards people adopt, whether they think in an enabling or debilitating manner, how much effort they invest in selected endeavors, how they persevere in the face of difficulties, how resilient they are to adversity, how vulnerable they are to stress and depression, and what types of choices they make at important decisional points that set the course of life paths (Bandura, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Gerbino and Pastorelli 2003, 769.)

3.5.4 Self-esteem

Self-esteem is about the global evaluation of the child's self and how he accepts himself, his self-worth or self-image (Santrock 2014), whereas *self-efficacy* is the belief or confidence of mastering a situation or a task. If a child has a low self-efficacy in a certain domain it does not mean that the child has low self-esteem. For example if the child has low learning self-efficacy but high physical and sportive self-efficacy the child can still have a high self-esteem. The difference between self-concept and self-esteem is that the term self-concept describes the image a child has about himself in different domains (Santrock 2014). According to Susan Harter's research on self-esteem (Harter 1987, 1998, 1999, cited in Boyd & Bee 2014, 315), she suggests that self-esteem is formed by two internal assessments. Harter (2006a) suggest that first assessment is an experience of discrepancy between "likes to be" and "believes to be" which each child is facing – a gap between ideal self and the child's belief of his real self. Harter proposed (2006a) that the child's self-esteem is usually high if the gap between the ideal self and the believed real self is low. Is the gap high the child sees himself as failing and not able to live up his values and goals. The child's self-esteem is only rising if the gap between what the child desires and what he believes what he has achieved is small. If a child does not value his skills and his achievements his self-esteem would not raise. According to Harter (2006a) the child's self-esteem

is considerable influenced by the child's over-all feeling about the quality of support he gets from important people around him. Boyd and Bee (2014) explain that the child's values and self-judgment come from the child's experiences of success and failure in different domains. Caregivers' and peer's attitudes and values manipulate the child's notion of values he attaches to skills and achievements. Also the peer's and cultural standards of appearance have an influence. Children and teens compare themselves with the standards and if they believe they do not reach the standard they get a feeling of inadequacy. Similarly to the cultural pressure the child's self-esteem is also influenced by the pressure from caregivers for well-performing in certain domains. If the child does value the skills and the achievements in those domains his self-esteem most probably rises. If the child does not value any skills and achievements in the domains emphasized by caregiver and parents his self-esteem would not rise.

3.6 Personality

The development of the personality is complex and it seems to depend on the particular schools of scientific how and if personality develops at all. For example theorists of temperamental development may merge temperament and personality development. Other emphasizes the notion that biology and heredity play a stronger role in the development of personality. And then there is the long lasting and still not disproved argument of the psychology, based on Freud's and Erikson's theories. For this handbook the development of personality is one of the major development dimensions for a child. Therefore the next subchapters describe the views of the temperamental developmentalists and emphasize the still strong arguments of the psychoanalytical theorists.

3.6.1 Personality versus Temperament and the Big Five

According to Boyd and Bee (2014) most developmentalists agree on the definition that personality is the individual's everlasting practice of interactions and response to others and the environment. During a long lasting discussion over the

past twenty years developmentalists have found a consensus about the most important principles for the development of the personality: (1) The temperament of the infancy has substantial influence to the later appearance personality and (2) During early and middle childhood five personality traits crop up as the kernel of the child's personality and they have quite stable influence across adolescence and later life stages. They further wrote that:

Temperament is now widely seen as a set of built-in, behavior tendencies that form the emotional substrate of personality (Boyd & Bee 2014, 295).

At this point we have to get an understanding about the thin link between temperament and personality as seen by Boyd and Bee (2014). Other authors like Santrock (2014) do not define personality at all or Berk (2014) who just refers to Freud's and Erikson's theory when describing personality development stages from infancy to adolescence. Boyd and Bee (2014) are using an analogy about the differences between a genotype and a phenotype in order to describe the thin line between temperament and personality. They write:

The distinction between temperament and personality is a little like the difference between a genotype and a phenotype. The genotype sets the basic pattern, but the eventual outcomes depends on the way the basic pattern is affected by specific experience, one component of which is the cultural context in which the child grow up (Boyd and Bee 2014, 276.)

Karreman and colleagues (et al. 2010), who investigated in their study about which aspects of temperament and behavior problems are related, assume that the personality in later childhood, adolescence and adulthood mirror how the basic temperamental pattern has been influenced by countless life experiences. Boyd and Bee (2014) concluded that if the model of interaction between build-in temperamental pattern and experience is correct, variations in temperament should appear similarities and shine through personality in later adulthood, but probably without perfect match. Weiner and colleagues (2012) represent a similar view about the influence of temperament to personality.

According to Boyd and Bee (2014) researchers agreed on a common view that the so-called *The Big Five* - a definition of five personality dimensions which allows to rank the personality traits of each individual across all the five dimensions (several measurement methods and tools exist) –sufficiently describe the personality in childhood and later in life. The five dimensions, or as also called *The Big Five Personality Traits*, are described in the table below.

TABLE 2. The Big Five Personal Traits (Caspi 1998, 316; John et al., Table 1, 161; McCrae and Costa 1994; in Boyd & Bee 2014, 277)

THE BIG FIVE PERSONALITY TRAITS		
Traits	Basic Features(s)	Qualities of Individual High in the Trait
Extraversion	The extent to which a person actively engages the world versus avoiding social experiences	Active, assertive, enthusiastic, outgoing, talkative
Agreeableness	The extent to which a person's interpersonal interactions are characterized by warmth and compassion versus antagonism	Affectionate, forgiving, generous, kind, sympathetic, trusting
Openness/Intellect	Reflect the depth, complexity, and quality of a person's mental and experiential life	Artistic, curious, imaginative, insightful, original, having wide interests
Conscientiousness	The extent and strength of a person's impulse control	Efficient, organized, planful, reliable, responsive, thorough, able to delay gratification in the service of more distant goals
Neuroticism; also called emotional (in)stability	The extent to which a person experiences the world as distressing or threatening	Anxious, self-pitying, tense, touchy, unstable, worrying

Beside the psychological approach, which has been explained above, many researchers maintain the notion that biology and heredity play a strong role in the development of personality. Boyd & Bee (2014) concluded that this notion is strongly supported by evidence from many researches. The theory is a powerful counterweight to the long term dominating psychoanalytic and learning theories which are described in the next subchapter. However, this approach is not purely

biological because the reciprocal influence and interaction between the initial biological behavioral tendencies and the responses of the environment has been accepted by many biological oriented temperament theories. This though creates new problems for definitions and measurements which make the comparing of research results difficult because the myriad interaction of behavior and environment has to be considered in the research setup. Another problem is that these theories are not fundamental developmental - meaning they do not systematically define the development for different ages and the influence of other age-based development processes like cognitive development of an individual.

3.6.2 Psychoanalytic Explanation

The central assumption of the psychoanalytic theory is that all individual's behavior is controlled by conscious and unconscious processes. Further all individuals move through fundamental stages and they are confronted with conflicts between social expectations and biological drives. In each stage they are faced with a particular form of tension or a particular task which they try to reduce or resolve as best as they can. The way how they work out the tension or the task determines the individual's ability to learn, to cope with anxiety and to get along with others. The early experiences of a child during the first 5 to 6 years of life, especially those with parents and other primary caregivers, are the critical viewpoints of psychoanalytic theories. Sigmund Freud (1856-1939) is the originator of the psychoanalytic approach (1905, 1920, in Boyd & Bee 2014, 19). As a physician he treated adults with emotional problems by letting them talk freely about painful events in their childhood. Another prominent psychoanalytic theorist is Erik Erikson (1902 – 1994). He was a follower of Freud and the most important improver of Freud's theory. He and Freud have probably the largest influence on the psychologists' view of personality development. TABLE 3 shows a comparison of Freud's and Erikson's stage based theories.

TABLE 3. Freud's Psychosexual Stages and Erikson's Psychosocial Stage Compared (Berk 2014 Table 1.2, 13)

FREUD'S PSYCHOSEXUAL STAGES AND ERIKSON'S PSYCHOSOCIAL STAGES COMPARED

Approximate Age	Freud's Psychosexual Stage	Erikson's Psychosocial Stage
Birth – 1 year	Oral: The new ego directs the baby's sucking activities towards breast or bottle. If oral needs are not met, the individual may develop such habits as thumb sucking, fingernail biting, overeating, or smoking.	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.
1 – 3 years	Anal: Toddlers and preschoolers enjoy holding and releasing urine and feces. If parents toilet train before children are ready or make too few demands, conflicts about anal control may appear in the form of extreme orderliness or disorder.	Autonomy versus shame and doubt: Using new mental and motor skills, children want to decide for themselves. Parents can foster autonomy by permitting reasonable free choice and not forcing or shaming the child.
3 – 6 years	Phallic: As preschoolers take pleasure in genital stimulation, Freud's Oedipus conflict for boys and Electra conflict for girls arise: Children feel a sexual desire for the other-sex parent. To avoid punishment, they give up this desire and adopt the same-sex parent's characteristic and values. As a result, the superego is formed, and children feel guilty when they violate its standards.	Initiative versus guilt: Through make-believe play, children gain insight into the person they can become. Initiative – a sense of ambition and responsibility – develops. But if parents demand too much self-control, children experience excessive guilt.
6 – 11 years	Latency: Sexual instincts die down, and the superego strengthens as the child acquires new social values from adults and same-sex peer.	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.
Adolescence	Genital: With puberty, sexual impulses reappear. Successful development during earlier stages leads to marriage, mature sexuality, and child rearing.	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 role.
Early adulthood	-,-	Intimacy versus isolation: Young adults establish intimate relationships. Because of earlier disappointments, some individuals cannot form close bonds and remain isolated.

FREUD'S PSYCHOSEXUAL STAGES AND ERIKSON'S PSYCHOSOCIAL STAGES COMPARED		
Approximate Age	Freud's Psychosexual Stage	Erikson's Psychosocial Stage
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.
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.

Freud's psychosexual theory is based on the existence of the so-called *Libido*, a term which describes the basic, instinctual and unconscious sexual drive of energy in each individual. According to Freud this energy basically drives all human behavior. Beside the sexual drive (libido) Freud emphasized two other instinctual drives: the life-preserving drives which include avoidance of pain and hunger and the aggressive drives. The way how the parents or the primary caregivers managed the child's sexual and aggressive drives in the first years of his years has, according to Freud, crucial effects to the child's healthy personality development.

TABLE 4. Freud's Stages of Psychosexual Development (Boyd & Bee 2014, Table 2, 288)

FREUD'S STAGES OF PSYCHOSEXUAL DEVELOPMENT				
Stage	Age (years)	Sensitive Zones	Major Developmental Task (potential source of conflict)	Personality Traits of Adults "Fixated" at This Stage
Oral	0-1	Mouth, lips, tongue	Weaning	Oral behavior, such as smoking and overeating; passivity and gullibility

FREUD'S STAGES OF PSYCHOSEXUAL DEVELOPMENT				
Stage	Age (years)	Sensitive Zones	Major Developmental Task (potential source of conflict)	Personality Traits of Adults "Fixated" at This Stage
Anal	1-3	Anus	Toilet training	Orderliness, stinginess, obstinacy, or the opposite
Phallic	3-5	Genitals	Oedipus conflict; identification with same sex-parent	Vanity, recklessness, or the opposite
Latency	5-12	No specific area; sexual energy is latent	Development of ego defense mechanisms	None; fixation does not normally occur
Genital	12-18 and adulthood	Genitals	Mature sexual intimacy	None; adults who have successfully integrated earlier stages should emerge with a sincere interest in others and mature sexuality.

Further Freud proposed that through various defense mechanisms, used by all individuals every day, we produce unconscious material which influences our behavior. Some of the most important defense mechanisms are described in the following table:

TABLE 5. Some Common Defense Mechanisms (Boyd & Bee 2014 Table 1, 20)

SOME COMMON DEFENSE MECHANISMS		
Mechanism	Definition	Example
Denial	Behaving as if a problem does not exist	A pregnant woman fails to get prenatal care because she convinces herself she cannot possibly be pregnant even though she has all the symptoms.
Repression	Intentionally forgetting something unpleasant	A child "forgets" about a troublesome bully on the bus as soon as he gets safely home from school every day.

SOME COMMON DEFENSE MECHANISMS		
Mechanism	Definition	Example
Projection	Seeing one's own behavior or beliefs in others whether they are actually present or not	A woman complains about her boss to a co-worker and comes away from the conversation believing that the co-worker shares her dislike of the boss, even though the co-worker made no comments on what she said.
Regression	Behaving in a way that is inappropriate for one's age	A toilet-trained 2-year old starts wetting the bed every night after a new baby arrives.
Displacement	Directing emotion to an object or person other than the one provoking it	An elderly adult suffers a stroke, becomes physically impaired, and expresses her frustration through verbal abuse of the hospital staff.
Rationalization	Creating an explanation to justify an action or to deal with a disappointment	A man stealing money from his employer says to himself, "They won't give me a raise. So what if I took \$50?"

Freud also proposed a structure – the *Id*, the *Ego* and the *Superego* - for the personality, which develops until school ages. The *Id* is the inborn and primitive part of the personality and supplies and triggers the *Libido*. It holds the energy that permanently drives for immediate gratification. The *Ego*, keeps the person engaged with the reality. For example thoughts and language are functions of the *Ego*. The *Superego* is the center of moral and conscience and contains parental and societal attitudes and values, which are absorbed or integrated during the childhood. According to Freud's theory infants and toddlers are just driven by the *Id*, meaning only by instincts and desire without any influence from *Ego* or *Superego*. In the years from 2 to 4 or 5 of age the *Ego* begins to control the *Id*. This can be observed by the learning progress the child is making over time as he finds and adapts strategies to restrain immediate gratifications. During the preschool years, just before middle childhood starts, the *Superego* begins to develop. The child absorbs and internalizes the moral and the values of the family or primary caregiver and of the society.

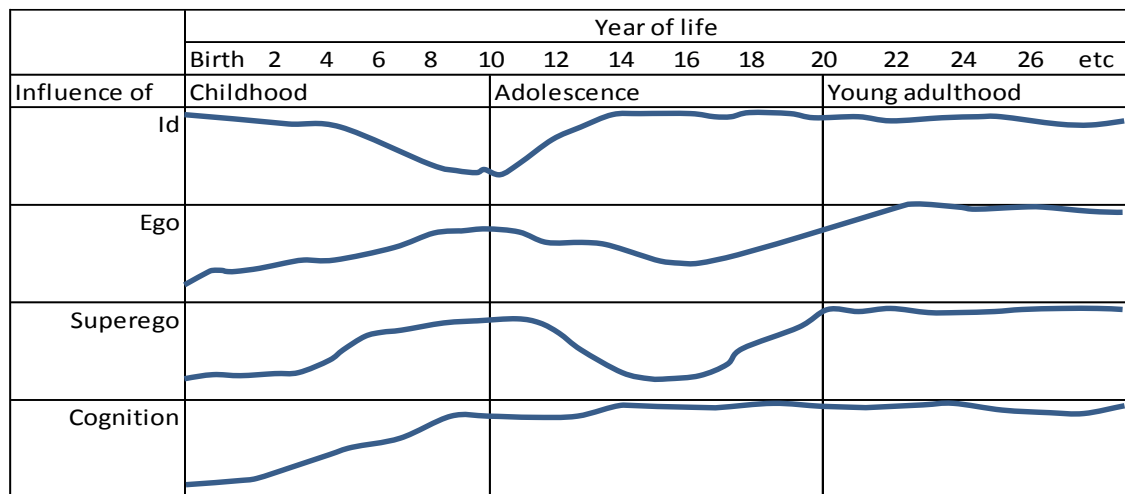


FIGURE 3. Schematic illustration of the influence of psychic apparatus (id, ego, superego) and cognition during the first two decades of life, especially during adolescence (Elzer & Gerlach 2014, 53)

Erikson built up his **psychosocial theory** on Freud's psychosexual theory but he emphasized that beside interventions and intermediations between the *Id's* impulses and the *Superego's* demands, the *Ego* has another important function. It contributes to developments which give the child the possibility to acquire attitudes and skills in order to develop to an active and contributing member of the society. Like Freud Erikson proposed a stage- based development, called psychosocial stages. But Erikson emphasizes the drive of a person for identity which demands cognitive skills and support. Accordingly to Erikson's theory each stage has fixed tasks and all individuals resolve these tasks with more or less success. Boeree (2009) explained that each task has two terms. For example the task for development stage at infancy is called "trust – mistrust". These terms might indicate that the child must learn "trust" but Erikson made very clear that the child has to gain a right balance between the extreme positive and the extreme negative ends of the stage task. For sure is that the child has to learn mostly trust, but he also has to learn and understand mistrust in order to avoid becoming naïve and over-trustfully. Erikson suggested that each stage and their included task have its optimal time to be learned. It does not gain anything to push a child into

adulthood as it is common for parents or caregivers who are obsessed with success. But it is neither possible to hold back or slow down a development in order to protect the child from life's demands. If the child managed a stage well, he gains and carries further a value, a psychological strength or call it a tool, which helps him to manage the challenge of the next stages. But on the other side if the child does not manage a stage so well, he may develop *maladaptation* and *malignancies* as a result. A maladaptation – a trait that is more harmful than helpful – is not quite as bad as a malignancy and defines that a child has gained too much of the positive aspect of the stage. If we take the example of “trust – mistrust”, the child who gained too much of the positive and too little of the negative might become a person who trusts other persons too much. The malignancy result is more serious and worse as the child got too much of the negative aspect of the development stage and too little of the positive. In our example the child gained too much mistrust such as a person who cannot trust others at all. Some consequences of the deviant development will be mentioned in the particular development stage, described in chapter four.

TABLE 6. Erikson's Psychosocial Stages of Development (Boyd & Bee 2014 Table 3, 290)

ERIKSON'S PSYCHOSOCIAL STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT		
Approx. Age	Ego Quality to Be Developed	Some Tasks and Activities of the Stage
0-1	Basic trust versus basic mistrust	Develop trust in mother or central caregiver and in one's own ability to make things happen, a key element in an early secure attachment
2-3	Autonomy versus shame, doubt	Develop walking, grasping, and other physical skills that lead to free choice; complete toilet training; child learns control but may develop shame if not handled properly
4-5	Initiative versus guilt	Learn to organize activities around some goal; become more assertive and aggressive
6-12	Industry versus inferiority	Absorb all the basic cultural skills and norms; including school skills and tool use

ERIKSON'S PSYCHOSOCIAL STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT		
Approx. Age	Ego Quality to Be Developed	Some Tasks and Activities of the Stage
13-18	Identity versus role confusion	Adapt sense of self to physical changes of puberty, makes occupational choice, achieve adult-like sexual identity, and search for new values
19-25	Intimacy versus isolation	Form one or more intimate relationships that go beyond adolescent love; marry and form family groups
26-40	Generativity versus stagnation	Bear and rear children, focus on occupational achievement or creativity, and train the next generation
41+	Ego integrity versus despair	Integrate earlier stages and come to terms with basic identity; accept self

Boyd and Bee (2014) concluded the major points of the psychoanalytic approach to personality as cited below:

- Proposition 1: Behavior is governed by unconscious as well as conscious motives and processes [...].
- Proposition 2: Personality structure develops over time, as a result of the interaction between the child's inborn drives and needs and the response of the key people in the child's world [...].
- Proposition 3: Development of personality is fundamentally stagelike, with each stage centered on a particular task or a particular basic need [...].
- Proposition 4: The specific personality a child develops depends on the degree of success the child has in moving through the various stages (Boyd & Bee 2014, 287.)

According to Boyd and Bee (2014) all of the major points are included in Freud's and Erikson's theory but with different emphasis. Freud for example suggests that the only motivation for the child to develop cognitive skills is because he needs them to gratify his drives. Whereas Erikson and many other psychoanalytical theorists believe that cognitive skills are a capacity of the ego with the function to assure an independent development of the child. Further Freud's theory is

more than Erikson's theory based on physical development as he believed that the shift from one stage to the next is driven by the development of the nervous system to more mature states. Freud argues that the attempt of the child to gratify basic physical and sexual driven needs, the sensitivity of the body parts moves from the mouth to the anus and further to the genital and therefore follows a neurological development process. These movements are structuring Freud's theory. Erikson recognized and accepted the physical process, but his theory emphasizes more on the moves of demands from the social environment. In his theory each development stage contains a special social conflict which evolves as a psychosocial crisis for the child. This crisis is recognized by the child and forces it unconsciously to solve the conflict. Erikson suggested that social demands drive the shift from one stage to the other.

3.7 Individual Behavior

According to Boyd & Bee (2014) the individual behavior defines a major part of the personality. In this work the individual behavior encompasses the social cognitive development including the capability of describing others, reading others minds and reading others feelings. Further the work includes the social learning theory which discusses the effect of environmental reinforcement on children's behavior and personality, the moral development including Kohlberg's moral development theory, moral feelings, moral thoughts, moral reasoning and moral behavior and the prosocial- and antisocial behavior theories.

3.7.1 Social Cognition Development

According to Rubin and colleagues (Rubin, Coplan, Chen, Baskirk, & Wojslawowica, 2005, cited in Boyd and Bee 2014, 369) and Selman (1980, cited in Boyd and Bee 2014, 369) *Social cognition* in a nutshell consists of the activities of thinking, understanding, learning, and remembering of the self, other people or relationships. Basically the same as general cognitive processes or skills as

described earlier but to a different topic. The child's capacity to utilize social cognition depends on his overall cognitive development, for example his perspective-taking skills. According to Boyd and Bee (2014) the general cognitive development principles apply also for the social cognitive development. The now following dimensions describe the development of the child's social cognition and are basically similar to the development of thinking about objects:

- From outer to inner characteristics. Younger children pay attention to the surface of things, to what things look like; older children look for principles, for causes.
- From observation to inference. Younger children initially base their conclusions only on what they can see or feel; as they grow, they make inferences about what ought to be or what might be.
- From definite to qualified. Young children's "rules" are very definite and fixed (such as sex-role rules); by adolescence, rules begin to be qualified.
- From observer's view to general view. Children become less ego-centric with time - less tied to their own individual views, more able to construct a model of some experience or some process that is true for everyone (Boyd & Bee 2014, 369-370)

However, objects like glasses of water or rocks (which are used for the research of children's general cognitive development) do not behave intentionally such as people do. Usually people are interested in trying to find out something about themselves, particularly from their relationships to other people. Therefore the "reading" of other people's thoughts is a key social-cognitive skill. But children must also learn about the motives and feelings of other people in order to prognosticate their responses and counter-actions. Further children have to learn cultural rule of social interactions like politeness or behavior in social hierarchies and they have to find strategies for behaviors which are in line with those cultural or environmental rules.

Describing others is a skill that develops during childhood and adolescence. According to Boyd and Bee (2014) researchers suggest a clear shift from a state where a child describes other people physically just by what he sees. During pre-school years the child starts to evaluate others globally as good or bad. At approximately 7 or 8 years of age the child starts to use personality traits for the

evaluations of others, around the time when his own personality grows and develops. And finally during adolescence he is able to build integrated personality profiles about other people.

Egocentrism is a typical character trait of young children. During the social cognitive development the child grows out of his egocentrism and develops a skill which is called *Social perspective taking* (also called role-taking skill). Blair (2003, cited in Sigelman & Rider 2012, 421) described *Social perspective taking* as the capability of a person to take up and reflect the perspective of another person, including the understanding of the other person's thoughts and feelings. *Social perspective taking* is an important skill which has effects on the child's and adolescent's interaction with peers and other relationships. It is important for children to get experiences out of the interaction with peers and other people because it sharpens *Social perspective taking*. But on the other hand the child needs advanced *Social perspective taking* skills in order to build relationships with peers and to be seen as sensitive and desirable person. According to Kurdek and Krile (1982) and LeMare and Rubin (1987) children with advanced *Social perspective taking* do enjoy more close relationships with peers and are more sociable than children with less advanced skills. A study by Burack, Flanagan, Peled, Sutton, Zygmuntowicz and & Manly (2006) revealed that maltreated children and adolescents are more egocentric and that the development of their *Social perspective taking* skills are more delayed than those of their non-maltreated peers. Another interesting finding was that maltreated children and adolescents with lower levels of internalizing or externalizing behavior symptoms exposed better interpersonal negotiation skills with an unfamiliar peer than those with higher levels of internalizing or externalizing behavior symptoms. Grizenko, Zappitelli, Langevin, Hrychko, El-Messidi, Kaminester, Pawliuk and Stepanian (2000, cited in Sigelman & Rider 2012, 421) revealed that the behavior of disruptive children can be improved by coaching them to increase their social perspective taking skills.

Mind reading, or also called the *Theory of mind* is another important social cognitive skills. Children need the *Theory of mind* for reading and understanding another person's feelings. The term *Reading feelings* will be explained later, first we

will look into the *Theory of mind*. Sigelman and Rider (2012) explain the theory of mind as follows: the child understands that other people's behavior is caused by their sensitivities (or mental states) such like beliefs, intentions, and desires and that these sensitivities cause their behaviors. For example if the child observes another child hiding a toy and leaving the room and he also observes that an adult person takes the same toy and puts it into another place and the child is now asked where the other child will search for his toy when he will enter the room again, at the place where the other child hid the toy or at the place where the adult put the toy? A child with advanced theory of mind is able to predict the thoughts of the other child and will answer that the other child will search for the toy at the place where he hid it originally. A child with less advanced theory of mind believes that the other child has the same information as he has and that the other child will search for the toy at the place where the adult put it (projection). This research scenario has been used in a well-known study by Simon Baron-Cohen, Alan Leslie, and Uta Frith (1985) with the aim to discover the level of *Theory of mind* in young children, children with autism and children with Down syndrome.

Reading feelings is another aspect of social cognitive development and it seems to be very important for children to learn this skill. There are some other skills involved in order to gain understanding in the emotions of other people. The child needs cognitive skills and a *Theory of mind* in order to be able to understand body signals and facial expressions. The child needs to understand different types of emotions and that a person can feel different emotions at the same. And the child needs good skills in *Theory of mind* in order to understand the context of the situation and the probable feeling of the person in that situation. For example a child understands that another child is sad because something that was very important to that other child did not go well (Boyd & Bee 2014). Researches by Pons, Harris, and deRosnay (2004) and by Thompson, Winer, and Goodvin (2011) propose that children gain knowledge about other people's feeling over time and gradually from approximately the first year of age until adolescence. Accordingly to Izard, Woodburn, Finlon, Krauthamer-Ewing, Grossman, and Seidenfeld (2011) it seems that the understanding of emotions develops separately

and in different time stages for each emotion separately. For example, a child understands that another person is angry, but he might have no idea about sadness at that time. However, not all children develop the same level of capability to read other people's feelings (also called emotional intelligence) and as already mentioned this skill is quite important for the development of social competences and also for the overall social development of the child. Fabes, Eisenberg, Hanish, & Spinrad (2001) suggest that pre-school children are more popular with their peers if they use more emotional-related word like sad, angry, and so forth. Another research by Izard, Schultz and Ackerman (1997, cited in Body and Bee 2014, 373) found that those pre-school children who had advanced and accurate knowledge about emotions exhibited later in the first grade fewer behavior problems and higher level of social competences. Another research by Gleason, Jensen-Campbell and Richardson (2004) reveals that the majority of violent adolescents have low skills in reading of other people's feelings and low levels of competences in reasoning social situations. Further the study suggests a relation between the personality dimension of agreeability and aggression of middle school children. According to DeRosier and Marcus (2005) violence in the adolescence can be prevented by addressing and mentoring deficits in *Reading feelings* skills (social intelligence) and in overall social competences.

Empathy, also an aspect of social cognition, appears to be critical for children to control their aggressive impulses. Strayer and Roberts (2004) suggest a link between *empathy* and aggressiveness as children with high level of *empathy* seems to have low level of aggressiveness. *Empathy* is the recognition of other people's feelings and the interpretation of the feelings on the basis of own corresponding or similar feeling (Bee & Boyd 2005). Empathy is a precondition for the feeling of sympathy which is the feeling of concern and sorrow for another person (Salquist, Eisenberg, Spinrad, Reiser, Hofer, Liew, Zhou & Eggum 2009). A research by Paul Harris and colleagues (1981, cited in Boyd and Bee 2014, 374) revealed that not before adolescence children fully understand that people can hide emotions or show different emotions from those they really feel. That suggests that younger children respond empathetic to body language and facial expression and later based on their internalized knowledge and the capability to interpret other

people's feelings. Empathy is, like kind behavior, fostered by parents and caregivers who explain their child the consequences of actions for other people together with explanations and discussion about emotions the other people might get caused by those actions (Miller, Eisenberg, Fabes, Shell & Gular 1989, cited in Boyd & Bee 2014, 375). Children who have high effort control (a temperamental capacity to control emotions and to stay focused in order to reach goals, see definition) have also a high level of empathy (Valentine, J., DuBois, D., & Cooper, H. 2004) and therefore tend to have a lower level of aggressiveness (Strayer & Roberts 2004).

3.7.2 Social Learning Theory

According to Boyd and Bee (2014) learning theorists examine how reinforcement from the environment has an effect to differences in children's behavior and personality. Reinforcement is an act of encouraging or strengthen someone to do something. It is obvious that reinforcement can have a positive or a negative impact to a person who receives the reinforcement actions. Social learning theorists agree that biological factors such as hormones or inherited biases such as temperament affect the development of an individual's behavior. However, social learning theorists stress the importance of the environment and its influence to behavior development.

The most influential social learning theorist is arguably Albert Bandura (1925-). In his early work he focused heavily on observational learning, also known as modeling, or imitation. Later Bandura placed emphasis on cognition, how we are thinking about ourselves and others and he stressed the importance of cognition in his theory. Therefore Bandura calls his theory social-cognition.

Different schools of thoughts are influencing the research of environmental reinforcement patterns. The radical behaviorists, as already mentioned in the subchapter for cognitive development, believe that learning is based on habits and that classical conditioning is the root cause for differences in individuals' behavior and personality. At the other end of the spectrum Bandura and others emphasize

additionally to reinforcement also observational learning and cognitive elements in the social learning theory. There is a strong link to the social cognitive theory which is described in the previous subchapter. However, by assigning the social learning theory to a separate subchapter the importance of this theory for child and youth work should be emphasized.

Boyd and Bee (2014) explain that four basic propositions are summarizing the approach of the social learning theory.

The *first proposition* claims that reinforcement strengthening behavior and that attachment patterns, competitiveness, shyness and sharing behaviors should be considered in the research of behavior and personality patterns. For example a child who is reinforced for competitiveness by his parents should show strong competitive behavior for example in schools or later on in the working life. Or if a caregiver or an educator only reacts if children behave aggressively they will see a growing aggressive behavior in the children over the time. A similar example if a child is reinforced to cling to the parents he will show more clinging patterns in another environment like to a teacher than children who are not reinforced for that behavior.

The *second proposition* claims that inconsistently reinforced behavior show more and strong resistance than consistently reinforced behavior. Parents show inconsistent or partly reinforcement when they praise or punish their child for particular behavior, but they do not praise or punish every time when the behavior occurs. Inconsistent rewarding causes a behavior which is describe by learning theorists as *highly resistant to extinction*.

The *third proposition* claims that children learn and copy behaviors primary through modeling. Bandura (1973, 1977, 2008) suggests that children do not only learn behavior by reinforcement but also on a high degree by observation of the behaviors of others. If children observe that their parents are hitting each other they will show more aggressive behavior towards others. Similarly if children observe that their parents are helping other people in need, they will most probably

copy and learn thoughtful behavior and generosity. Children learn from everything in their environment, from their peers, their siblings, their teachers, but also from television, movies, games, and other medial sources. They learn behavior from youth gangs in their neighborhood, from a shoplifting peer, from older boys hanging around the corner, and from drug dealer in their nearer environment. Observed and learned antisocial behavior models make it hard for parents to find adequate reinforcement patterns (see also Gerald Patterson's findings about power structure in families described in the subchapter about Prosocial- and Antisocial Behavior). Bandura (1973, 1977, 2008) emphasized that observational learning does not happen automatically but whether a child or an adult learn from the behavior of others depends on four preconditions. The first two preconditions are related to the cognitive capability of the individual i.e. toward what does the individual pay attention and what he is able to remember. The third and the fourth precondition is related to the physical condition and the motivation of the individual about what is he physically able to copy and motivated to imitate. In other words it depends on the child's physical, mental, and cognitive processes, such as memory and attention, what a child learns from a modeled event and it depends on the development of his learning processes during any given time together with and depending on other non-cognitive development processes.

The *forth preposition* claims that children learn from modeling and reinforcement not only behavior but also self-concept, internal standards, expectations and ideas. According to Bandura (1997) children learn from specific reinforcement and modeling own behavior standards and compare these standards with their own behaviors. And they also learn expectations about what is allowed and what is not. From reinforcement and modeling the child internalizes his learnings to his self-efficacy (see also subchapter Self-scheme).

According to Bandura and colleagues (2003) the behavior standards, expectations, and beliefs affect, once established, the child's behavior permanently and consistently and form the kernel of the child's personality.

3.7.3 Moral Development

What is morality? This question is very difficult to answer as many scientific disciplines are engaged in researches which include the concept of morality. Religious studies, science and philosophy of law, sociology, science of development and education are only some of those domains. And they all have a different approach and targets for their researches. However, a more pragmatic method to approach this concept would be to think about how a child learns to differentiate between right and wrong. Sigelman and Rider (2012) propose that the majority of us would support the notion that morality includes the ability to differentiate right from wrong, the ability to internalize this distinguishing and to act on it by experiences the feeling of proudness when acting right and feeling of guilt or shame when acting wrong. This definition helps to understand the development of morality by somehow neglecting the definition of what is right and what is wrong.

Developmental scientists are interested in three basic components of morality: (1) The emotional component of morality (*affective, moral feeling*) includes feelings like proudness, guiltiness, empathy which arise when doing something right or wrong and the motivation for moral actions and thoughts. One theory which focuses on this aspect of morality is the psychoanalytic theory (2) The way how we understand right and wrong and making decisions for or behavior based on our understanding (*cognitive, moral thoughts*) including social cognitive skills such as social perspective taking (role taking), theory of mind, reading feelings, or empathy. Cognitive developmental theories including social cognitive theories are focusing on this aspect of morality. (3) The way how we behave when we feel for example temptations to cheat or when we meet a person in need (behavioral component, moral behavior). A theory behind this aspect of morality is the *Social Learning Theory*.

Moral feelings or also so called moral emotions are positive or negative feelings which we are experiencing when we are doing something right or wrong. For example people might get a negative feeling like shame or guilt when they are lying

or cheating. Other people are experiencing negative feelings of anger, disgust, or unrighteousness if they are witnesses in injustice or harmful acts toward others. Positive feelings such as self-satisfaction or pride might come up when we help other people in need or when we donate money for charity's sakes. Children often feel proud if they behave the right way. Tangney, Stuewig, and Mashek (2007) suggest that a prerequisite of moral feeling is the ability to evaluate the exceeding or the underachievement of behavioral standard of another person. Accordingly to Sigelman and Rider (2012) individuals are basically motivated to act in a right, moral ways because they try to avoid negative moral feelings and usually tend to experience positive moral feelings. However, people are having different levels of positive and negative feelings surrounding right or wrong actions. The interesting question is now how these feelings evolve. According to Sigmund Freud (see subchapter Personality) the *Superego* – the conscience - of the personality structure is the guard of the morality. The function of the superego is to ensure that any actions committed by the rational *Ego* in order to satisfy the selfishly drives of the *Id* are fulfilling the moral standards of the person. The *Superego* is like a parental voice in the head of each of us and it guides our behavior still even the parents are not around to tell us what is allowed and what not. According to Freud the *Superego* forms around the age of 3 to 6 year during the *phallic stage*. Freud assumed that during this stage the child experiences an emotional conflict. A boy experiences a strong love and sexual desire for the mother (Oedipus complex) and a girl the same for the father (Electra complex). The emotional conflict is that on the one hand they love the parent of the opposite-sex but on the other hand they fear to lose the love of both parents and going to be punished for the unacceptable desire. Finally the child finds a way to solve the conflict by identification with the same sex parent. During this process the child internalizes the moral standards of the parents and changes from parental control to self-control. Even Freud's theory of moral development cannot be verified and lacks support, main motives have an important and serious influence to the contemporary research as (1) the moral feelings are seen as an influencing component of moral behavior and its motivation, (2) the parental relationship in the early years of the childhood has a strong influence to the child's moral development and (3)

in order to behave according to moral standards even the parents are not around, a kind of internalization process for moral standards seems to be a precondition.

Moral feelings, or also called moral emotions have recently drawn interest to researchers and developmentalists. As Freud predicted, the quality of relationship between the child and his parents influences the development of moral feelings. Koenig, Cicchetti and Rogosch (2004) concluded that abused children show a lower level of understanding for guilt and shame producing situations than non-abused children. They also found that abused children are more engaged in stealing behaviors; neglected children display more cheating behaviors, and abused girls show less guilt and less giveaway behavior than neglected girls. Together with Eisenberg Morries, McDaniel and Spinrad (2009) and Thompson (2013c, d, cited in Santrock 2014, 368) many child developmentalists support that child's moral development is affected by positive feelings like empathy, sympathy, admiration, self-esteem and negative feelings like anger, outrage, shame, guilt. According to Prinz (2009, cited in Santrock 2014, 368) children act accordingly to the standard of right and wrong if they have strong experiences with those emotions. Studies by Kochanska and Aksan (2006) revealed that self-control (emotional control) in early childhood is linked to the child's ability to accept and follow moral rules and to distinguish between right and wrong doing during the school years.

The term *Moral thoughts* describes how individuals think about moral issues and the question what is right and what is wrong, also called moral reasoning. Piaget (1932, cited in Santrock 2014, 360) and Kohlberg (Colby, Kohlberg, Gibbs & Lieberman 1983; Dawson 2002; Kohlberg 1964, 1976, 1980, 1981, cited in Boyd and Bee 2014, 380) developed the most influencing theories about the cognition based moral development. According to Santrock (2014) Piaget proposed that children develop moral thoughts through two stages. Before the child's development moves from the first stage to the second stage the child has to go through a transition period (see TABLE 7).

TABLE 7. Piaget's Stages of Moral Thoughts (Piaget 1932, cited in Santrock 2014, 360)

PIAGET'S STAGES OF MORAL THOUGHTS	
Stage	Description
Stage 1: Heteronomous Morality From 4-7 years of age	Justice and rules are conceived of as unchangeable properties of the world, beyond the control of people.
Transition stage: From 7-10 years of age	Children show some features for the first stage and some from the second stage.
Stage 2: Autonomous Morality From 10 years of age and older	The child becomes aware that rules and laws are created by people and that, in judging an action, one should consider the actor's intentions as well as the consequences.

According to Santrock (2014) Piaget suggested that heteronomous thinker (Stage 1) believe that punishment and justice will follow immediately. Thus adults often recognize that a young child did something wrong because the child looks around very concerned as he expects immediate consequences. Young children also believe that if something unfortunate or fatal happens to someone, the person must have broken a rule or he was sinful. Older children with *autonomous morality* understand that punishment happen only when the wrongdoing was witnessed and even in that case the children understand that the punishment might not apply.

Piaget suggested that children develop a higher level of morality because of cognitive development and progress in thinking which also effects social thinking. They learn that cooperation with others is in their own interest. In peer groups with similar power structures the children learn to negotiate and coordinate their relationships. Dispute and disagreements are discussed and finally settled. Whereas in a child-parent relationship the power structure is imbalanced and rules are enforced authoritarian in a manner that children have less possibilities to negotiate their plans and to settle dispute from an autonomy and equal position. It is less likely that they can advance their moral reasoning in a family power structure.

Lawrence Kohlberg's theory of moral reasoning has the most significant influence to developmental theorists (Colby, Kohlberg, Gibbs & Lieberman 1983; Dawson 2002; Kohlberg 1964, 1976, 1980, 1981, cited in Boyd and Bee 2014, 380). His six stages of moral development are briefly described in TABLE 8.

TABLE 8. Kohlberg's Stages of Moral Development (Kohlberg 1976, Lickona 1978; in Boyd & Bee 2014, 381)

KOHLBERG'S STAGES OF MORAL DEVELOPMENT	
Stage	Description
LEVEL I: Preconventional Morality	
Stage 1: Punishment and obedience orientation	The child decides what is wrong on the basis of what is punished. Obedience is valued for its own sake, but the child obeys because adults are physical more powerful.
Stage 2: Individualism, instrumental purpose, and exchange	The child follows rules when it is in her immediate interest. What is good is what brings pleasant results.
LEVEL II: Conventional Morality	
Stage 3: Mutual interpersonal expectations, relationships, and interpersonal conformity	Moral actions are those that live up to the expectations of the family or other significant group. "Being good" becomes important for its own sake.
Stage 4: Social system and conscience	Moral actions are those so defined by larger social groups or the society as a whole. One should fulfill duties one has agreed to and uphold laws, except in extreme cases.
LEVEL II: Principled or Postconventional Morality	
Stage 5: Social contract orientation (or utility and individuals rights)	Acting so as to achieve the "greatest good for the greatest number." The teenager or adult is aware that most values are relative and laws are changeable, although rules should be upheld in order to preserve the social order. Still, there are some basic nonrelative values, such as the importance of each person's life and liberty.

KOHLBERG'S STAGES OF MORAL DEVELOPMENT

Stage	Description
Stage 6: Universal ethical principles	The adult develops and follows self-chosen ethical principles in determining what is right. These ethical principles are part of an articulated, integrated, carefully thought-out, and consistently followed system of values and principles.

During elementary school Kohlberg's *Preconventional moral reasoning* level dominates (Level I). At this level children's moral reasoning is based on feedbacks from parents and other caregivers. As mentioned earlier during middle childhood children's description of other person is largely external and so is their moral reasoning. Children's judgment of right and wrong is determined by the results of their actions and by the reactions of important caregivers. In stage 1 of Level I Children display high tendencies of punishment and obedience orientation. The child realizes that wrong behavior will be punished and if his behavior is not punished then it was right. The child obeys because his parents are bigger and stronger. In stage 2 of Level I child begins to favor behaviors that are rewarded and he tries to avoid behaviors that are punished. He believes that everything that feels good and brings pleasure is good and he follows rules if they are in his immediate interests. Some children already begin to show concerns for other people during this stage but only if they get an advantage out of the situation. The motto can be described by an example: "I only help you if you will help me". Sometimes this stage is called as naïve hedonism. Many children still display stage 2 moral reasoning during early adolescents (approx. age 11 – 13).

During middle adolescence (approx. age 14-18) the moral reasoning shift from *Preconventional* to *Conventional morality* (Level II). At this level the focus for judgements shifts from personal benefits and external consequences to norms and rules of groups. The child internalizes the norms and rules of any group that is important to him and where he belongs to. It can be the family, the peer group,

a church group, a sports group but also the norms and rules of a culture, a society, or a nation. Stage 3 is the first stage of Level II and children believe that good behavior is defined by whether it pleases other people or not; sometimes also called as “Good boy / Nice girl” stage. Values such as trust, respect, gratitude, loyalty, and carrying for relationships are important. Judgments will gradually be made on the intentions. If a wrong doing of a person was not intentional or was “meant well” so it is less serious for the child than as the wrong doing was done on purpose. In stage 4 the child gets an understanding about social order, duty, law and justice and begins to do their duties, follows laws, rules, and norms and respects authorities. His judgment shifts from pleasing important people to comply with complex regulations which are not questioned.

Even Level III of Kohlberg’s stages of development is extremely rare in adolescence and even in adulthood, the level will be described in this work as a contrast to the other levels. For example Gibson (1990, cited in Boyd & Bee 2014, 383) revealed in a study with men in their age of 40 to 50 years that only 13% of the participants’ moral reasoning were rated by using stage 5 conditions. The stages 5 and 6 are included in Level III which is named *Principled morality* (or also called postconventional morality). It is characterized by the cause of authority. At Level I authority is seen by children as completely outside of themselves. At Level II the rules of authorities and judgements of important groups are internalized by the adolescents but not analyzed nor questioned. At Level III a person develops or chooses his own principles and judges according to these principles by analyzing and questioning given rules or external authorities. In stage 5 (the first stage in Level III) a person starts to use self-chosen principles. Rules, norms, regulations, and laws have to ensure fairness and the function of a society. However, people at this stage are able to evaluate the validity of current norms, rules, laws and regulations and are able to assess the current social system regarding support and protection of fundamental human rights and values. In stage 6 the person extends his principle of stage 5 to the highest level of possible moral standards based on universal human rights. According to Kohlberg, Boyd and Levine (Kohlberg 1978; Kohlberg, Boyd & Levine 1990; in Boyd and Bee 2014, 382) a person in this stage is acting with respect to universal and fundamental principles, such

as universal human rights and justice by taking personal responsibility for his actions. This person will decide in line with their conscience if his conscience is in opposite to a law even, he faces personal risks.

People who reason in this way assume personal responsibility for their own actions on the basis of fundamental and universal principles, such as justice and basic respect for persons (Kohlberg 1978; Kohlberg, Boyd & Levine 1990; in Boyd and Bee 2014, 382).

Mahatma Gandhi and Mother Theresa are two famous examples for moral reasoning at stage 6. Boom J. (2011) propose Piaget's and Kohlberg's cognitive development fits to procedural ethics which are described by for example Kant, Rawls or Habermas. Perhaps Kant's formulation of the categorical imperative might be used as an example to understand one's principles behind the moral reasoning of stage 6. Immanuel Kant wrote:

Act only in accordance with that maxim through which you can at the same time will that it become a universal law (Kant 1785, 37).

According to Boyd and Bee (2014) in order to define the stage or the level of a person's moral reasoning it is not important what specific moral decision the person makes but it is important to see and understand how the person made the decision. Not the result of a decision but the way and the form of reasoning is the determining factor. For example, did the child act just because he was afraid of punishment or did the child recognize that the moral action was in his immediate interest? Or made an adolescent a moral decision because he followed peers and family norms or did he recognize that it was his duty for a social group or society? The first question reflect the moral reasoning in stage 1 and 2 (Level I) and the second question the moral reasoning in stage 3 and 4 (Level II).

The next two research examples from Colby, Kohlberg, Gibbs, Lieberman, Fischer & Saltzstein (1983) and Walker, de Vries, and Trevethan, (1987; edited by Boyd & Bee 2014, 384) illustrate in FIGURE 4 and TABLE 9 show an overall trend when and how moral reasoning develops over the children's ages.

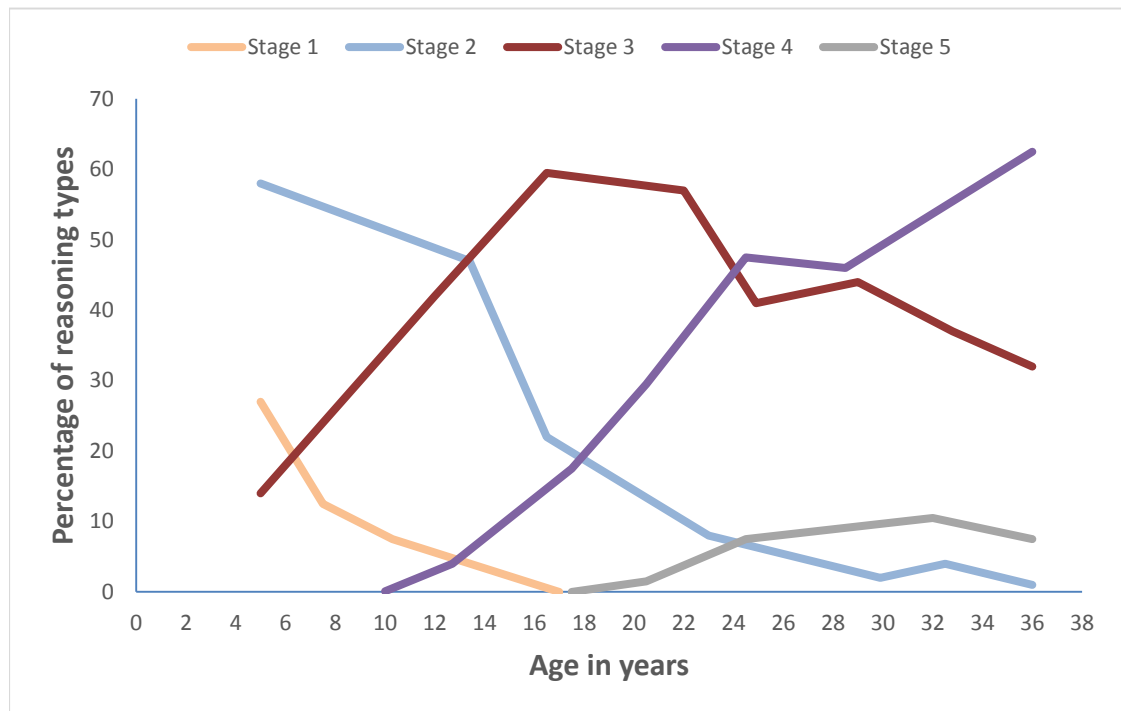


FIGURE 4. Mean Percentage of Moral Reasoning at Each Stage for Each Age Group (Colby et al. 1983, Figure 1, 46; in Boyd & Bee 2014, 383)

The graph in FIGURE 4 shows results of a longitudinal study of moral judgement development of 58 boys over 20 years by 6 testing times performed in 3-4 years intervals. At each testing time the study participant had to judge nine hypothetical moral dilemmas in individual interviews. For example at age 10 over 50% of all judgments of the nine hypothetical moral dilemmas by the participants were based on conditions described in stage 2 of Kohlberg's moral development. At the age of 16 to 18 years 55-60% of all judgments were at stage 3. Later at around age 36 over 60% of all judgments on the nine hypothetical moral dilemmas were at stage 4 and around 30% at stage 3 of Kohlberg's moral development. Only 5-10% of all judgments were at stage 5. This indicates that the majority of adults seem to reach a moral reasoning level defined in stage 4 or 3 and only very few adults reach a moral reasoning level as defined in stage five.

TABLE 9 shows results of a study by Walker, de Vries and Trevethan (1987) who interviewed 10 boys and their parents at four age stages of the children. The

results of each interview were scored on a 9-point scale. The chosen scale represents the five moral reasoning steps of Kohlberg's but also recognizes those results which fall between two stages.

TABLE 9. Percentages of Children and Parents Who Show Moral Reasoning at Each of Kohlberg's Stages (Boyd & Bee 2014, Table 3, 384)

PERCENTAGES OF CHILDREN AND PARENTS WHO SHOW MORAL REASONING AT EACH OF KOHLBERG'S STAGES									
Age	Stages								
	1	1-2	2	2-3	3	3-4	4	4-5	5
6 (grade 1)	10%	70%	15%	5%	-	-	-	-	-
9 (grade 4)		25%	40%	35%	-	-	-	-	-
12 (grade 7)	-	-	15%	60%	25%	-	-	-	-
15 (grade 10)	-	-	-	40%	55%	5%	-	-	-
Parents	-	-	-	1%	15%	70%	11%	3%	-

Both, the graph in FIGURE 4 and the TABLE 9 display that between 9-10 years of age the Kohlberg's stage 2 moral reasoning dominates and that around 15 years of age most of the adolescents reasoned moral issues accordingly to stage 3 definitions. It is also interesting to see the parents result which scores highest between stage 3 and 4.

Roberts (2007) concludes how moral development occurs. He believes that Kohlberg's stages neither entirely emerge by development and maturation nor are entirely a product of socialization. And the changes in the development defined in the sequences of Kohlberg's stages do not follow a genetic process. He writes:

The stages emerge, instead, from experience. Social experiences promote development, by stimulation of cognitive processes. As we enter discourse and debate, our view may be questioned and challenged and we are therefore motivated to come up with new, more comprehensive points of views. As children interact, they learn how viewpoints differ and how to co-ordinate them in collaboration with others. This enables a tangible appreciation of what is fair and just.

These interactions are more successful when they are open and democratic. If children feel pressured simply to conform to authority, they will find it far more difficult to formulate their own ideas (Roberts 2007, 93.)

Moral behavior is another viewpoint to moral development. Two theorists are important to mention in order to explain what this term means. According to Boyd & Bee (2014) the psychologist B. F. Skinner (1904-1990), whose work about the *operant conditioning model*, which belongs to the *learning theory*, proposed that a child learns from the consequences of his behavior. Adults praise him when his behavior was acceptable and punish him when not. The outcome of this education is that the child shows more acceptable behavior than unacceptable over the years. However, according to Hoffman (1988, cited in Boyd & Bee 2014, 379) punishment may affect moral development. For example, if a child gets a hard punishment from his parents he might learn that he should not be caught the next time. Also if the child has been punished in a public area he might get angry about the embarrassment that he will concentrate all his anger to that situation and will therefore not understand the wrongdoing which was the cause of the punishment. Zahn-Waxler, Radke-Yarrow and King (1979) propose a child should get the possibility to learn from their wrongdoing and that he has something to do in order to correct the wrongdoing. It is important to explain to the child what he did wrong and why his behavior or action was wrong. In a next step the parents would require the child to admit the wrongdoing if a third person has been affected by the wrongdoing and apologize for it. If for example a child stole a candy bar from a shop, he should admit it to the cashier and pay for it. Through this process the child learns what he did wrong and that he has to correct his wrongdoing.

The second theorist is Albert Bandura. According to Boyd and Bee (2004) his theory also belongs to the learning theory and has by far the most influence on contemporary developmental psychologists (1989, 2004, 2008). According to Bandura children learn from the behavior of others. For example, they learn from TV how to punch others. Or they learn from their fathers, their mothers or even

from other children how to insult others. Bandura believes that children learning morality more from observing others than from direct rewarding or punishment. If a child observes that someone is rewarded or punished from a behavior or action he supposes that he will also be rewarded or punished if he is doing the same. Boyd and Bee (2014) concludes from Banduras theory that children learn their understanding of moral from model's behavior. Model's like parents, teachers, and other important caregivers can positively or negatively influence the moral behavior of children.

Banduras (1991, 2002) proposes that consequences lead individuals to take over and internalize standards of right and wrong and that *self-control* processes are involved. The person's *self-regulation* governs him to monitor his behavior and the circumstances around him. With this information he judges his behavior and decides about consequences for himself in order to regulate his behavior. The provision of satisfaction and self-worth is the motivation of his behavior. If he violates his own moral standards he condemns his own behavior. *Self-regulation* and the self-sanctioning as a result keep the behavior in consistent with his internal moral standards. Bandura suggest that instead of abstract moral reasoning the person's *self-regulation* steers the moral development.

3.7.4 Prosocial and Antisocial Behavior

It is interesting to see how authors and editors of different child developing and life span text books added the themes prosocial and antisocial behavior into their book structure. For example Bee & Boyd (2014) defined and described the themes in a chapter about social relationship development. Santrock (2014) proposes a link to moral development and the definitions about these themes can be found in an equivalent chapter. Sigelman and Rider (2012) describe antisocial behavior more differentiated. They agree with a link to moral development but they also emphasize Kenneth Dodge's model of social information processing and Gerald Patterson's model of the development of antisocial behavior. These different points of view give an impression that many child development aspects affect the development of prosocial and antisocial behavior. Thus, this handbook

describes these two themes in a separate subchapter together with social cognitive development, social learning theory, and moral development because of their influence to the development of individual behavior. However, this decision is not made based on literature reviews but lead by pragmatically thoughts how to describe this important aspect of child development in a context which can be understood by a heterogeneous readership.

Prosocial behavior, also called altruism as the purest form of prosocial behavior, is the self-imposed and unforced intention to benefit another person with no obvious self-interest or self-gain (Santrock 2014, Boyd & Bee 2014). This behavior changes during the development of a child such as other behavioral aspects. Eisenberg, Fabes, Murphy, Karbon, Smith & Maszk (1996) propose a correlation between altruism and emotion regulation. Children who show higher level of altruism behavior and empathy also show more positive than negative emotions. According to Mayeux and Cillissen (2003) children who show empathy, altruistic and more positive emotions have a higher popularity in their peer group. Boyd and Bee (2014) assume a relation between altruism or empathy and child rearing and describe six methods to develop prosocial behavior in children by referring to Eisenberg and Fabes (1998, cited in Boyd & Bee 2014, 355).

TABLE 10. Rearing Helpful and Altruistic Children (Eisenberg & Fabes 1998, cited in Boyd & Bee 2014, 355)

REARING HELPFUL AND ALTRUISTIC CHILDREN	
Proposal	Description
Capitalize on the child's capacity for empathy	If your child injures someone, point out the consequences of the injury for the other person: "When you hit Susan, it hurts her."
Create a loving and warm family climate	When parents express affection and warmth regularly toward their children, the children are more likely to be generous and altruistic.
Provide rules or guidelines about helpful behavior	Direct instructions foster prosocial behavior: "I'd like you to help Keisha with her puzzle" or "Please share your candy with John."
Provide prosocial attributions	Attribute your child's helpful or altruistic action to the child's own internal character: "You're such a helpful child!"

REARING HELPFUL AND ALTRUISTIC CHILDREN	
Proposal	Description
Have children do helpful things.	Assign them regular household tasks such as helping to cook or clean, taking care of pets, or watching younger siblings.
Model thoughtful and generous behavior	Stating the rules will do little good if parents' own behavior does not match what they say! Children (and adults) are simply much more likely to do generous or thoughtful things, if they see other people - especially other people in authority, such as parents - being generous and thoughtful.

Six different types of *prosocial behavior* have been explored by Carlo, Knight, McGinley, Zamboanga, & Jarvis (2010) in young adolescents:

- altruism (“One of the best things about doing charity work is that it looks good.”)
 - public (“Helping others while I’m being watched is when I work best.”)
 - emotional (“I usually help others when they are very upset.”)
 - dire (“I tend to help people who are hurt badly.”)
 - anonymous (“I prefer to donate money without anyone knowing.”)
 - compliant (“I never wait to help others when they ask for it.”)
- (Carlo et al. 2010, 340-341, Santrock 2014, 377).

In this study over 900 adolescents between 11-15 years of age girls described their prosocial behavior more as emotional, dire, compliant, and altruistic whereas boys described their prosocial behavior as public. The study also revealed that parental monitoring of social behavior has positive effects only to the behavior type emotional, dire, and compliant whereas religiosity has positive effects to the anonymous and altruism behavior type. And compliant seems to be positively related to parental monitoring as well as to religiosity.

According to Eisenberg, Spinrad and Sadovky (2006) adolescents show more often prosocial behavior than children, although during preschool children show examples of comforting others in distress and caring for others. Weller and Hansen Lagattuta (2013) concluded that the motivation for altruistic behavior increases with age. Children between 5 and 7 years recognize increasingly an

emotional benefit if they sacrifice their own desires to aid other people and show more positive emotions to other people who did the same for others in need. However, children in age of 9 years and older evaluate the need of others better than younger children. They also begin to differentiate between in-group and out-group member and becoming more discriminating by privileging needs.

According to Santrock (2014) by start of primary school years the child starts to understand what *fairness* is. When he was younger he often used the term fair if he felt disadvantaged. At around 4 years he believed that sharing is an obligation and not necessary a generous response to others because the others also shared with him. However, he started to understand that sharing plays an important role in social relationships and involves the question of right and wrong. During elementary school the child starts to express a more advanced notion of fairness. The term fairness is usually used in the contexts of distributing and conflict resolving. The principles of equality, merit and benevolence are involved in the definition of fairness. Equality is the treatment of everyone in the same way. Merit involves the reward for achievements, extra work, or excellence performance. And benevolence describes a generous and selfless benefit to persons in needs. At around 6 year of age the child begins to use fairness in the context of equal or same. Later the child applies the principles of merit and benevolence and starts to interpret equity in relation to special treatment for people who deserve it.

Forgiveness & Gratitude are two other aspects of *prosocial behavior*. Forgiveness is the release of an offending person from possible revenge. A study by Peets, Hodges, and Salmivalli (2013) revealed that if adolescents experienced hurtful behavior from an offender, the hurt likely lead to more hostile thoughts and attribution (negative cognitive outcome), to feeling of anger (affective outcome) and to avoidance or revenge (motivational outcome) if they disliked the offending peer than if the hurt caused from an offending peer they liked. According to Grant and Gino (2010) *gratitude* is the feeling of appreciation and thankfulness directed towards a kind and helpful person. Santrock (2014) proposed that studying of gratitude in adolescents is increasing. For example Froh, Yurkewicz and Kashdan (2009) suggest a relation between gratitude and positive developmental

aspects such as prosocial behavior, satisfaction with the own family and optimism. Another study by Lambert, Fincham and Stillman (2012) found a link between gratitude and fewer depression symptoms in adolescents. A study with Chinese adolescents by Li, Zhang, Li, Li and Ye (2012) found a less likely engagement in suicidal thoughts and attempts if the adolescents had higher levels of gratitude. And a longitudinal study by Bono (2012, in Santrock 2014, 377) found lower levels of negative emotions and higher levels of life satisfaction, happiness, hopefulness, a stronger sense of the meaning of life, and lower level of depression in the most grateful adolescents (top 20 percent) than in adolescents who had a lower level of gratitude (bottom 20 percent).

Most children and adolescents sometimes act out against society's moral standards or norms or do things that annoy and offend others. Few adolescents seriously behave antisocial. Sigelman and Rider (2012) write that the antisocial career starts in the childhood, continues during adolescents and further through adulthood. Huesmann, Dubow, and Boxer (2009) write that individuals with *antisocial behavior* often leave school early, find themselves in troubled or abusive relationships, are unable to keep their jobs, and breaking laws during adulthood. According to Santrock (2014) approximately five percent of children are engaged in serious behavior and are qualified for conduct disorder diagnoses and later for antisocial personality disorder (see Dodge, Coie, & Lynam, 2006, cited in Sigelman and Rider 2012, 436). *Conduct disorder*, refers, according to Santrock (2014), to the violation of parental expectation, societal norms, and personal or property rights by age-inappropriate attitudes and actions. Farrington (2009) describes the behavior of children with conduct disorder in a range from swearing and temper tantrums to severe vandalism, assault and thefts. McCabe, Rodgers, Yeh and Hough (2004) revealed that conduct disorder is less common among girls than boys.

However, yet most of adolescents who show antisocial and aggressive behavior do not develop antisocial behavior disorder in adulthood. Researchers (Moffitt & Caspi, 2001; Quinsey, Skilling, Lalumiere & Craig 2004; cited in Sigelman & Rider 2012, 436; Odgers et al. 2008) assume two sub-groups of antisocial behavior,

the *early-onset* which emerge before the age of 11 years and the *late-onset* anti-social behavior which develops at age of 11 or later. The *early-onset* group show antisocial behavior during childhood such as hitting other children or torturing animals, persist into adulthood, and is related to serious problems like problematic relationships and mental health issues. According to Meece and Mize (2010) many studies suggest that highly aggressive children have a lower understanding of others' intention than their peers. The *later-onset* group show antisocial behavior usually during adolescence, partly provoked by peer-groups and it usually grows out in adulthood.

Adolescents with a conduct disorder diagnosis who are engaged to antisocial and aggressive behavior show less empathy, less concern for others and have a lower sense of guilt for their behavior (Blair 2003; Gibbs 2010; Lovett & Sheffield 2007; cited in Sigelman & Rider 2012, 436). It seems obvious that these adolescents' moral feelings and moral thoughts (see subchapter Moral Development) are not developed to a level that would promote moral behavior. However, based on Kenneth Dodge's and Gerald Patterson's theory there are also other factors of influences.

According to Dodge's social information-processing model (Crick & Dodge 1994; Dodge 1986; cited in Sigelman and Rider 2012, 437) when an individual is provoked, for example he has been pushed or tripped, he goes through a six step process as described in the TABLE 11. It is not necessarily a straight through process. Depending on the individual and on the situation all six steps might be processed in just few seconds but it also might be that some steps are processed simultaneous or in loops with delays. Individuals do not only recognize information in the current situation but they also store and recall information from their memories about similar situation from the past or other information related to the social world. Over time they develop a kind of database where all this information is stored and recalled in such situations. According to Dodge (1993), Slaby and Guerra (1988, cited in Sigelman & Rider 2012, 437) adolescents who show high aggressive behavior and who are engaged in violent crime respond differently as they show in each step of the process deficits in the information processing and

in their pattern of prejudice. Crick, Dodge (1994, cited in Sigelman & Rider 2012, 327) and Orobio de Castro, Veerman, Koops, Bosch and Monshouwer (2002) suggest that many aggressive adolescents are not able to control their impulses (see also Temperament and Personality) and act without reflecting the situation. Lansford (et al. 2007), Margolin and Gordis (2000, cited in Sigelman and Rider 2012, 437) propose that based on experiences stored by aggressive adolescents in their database they respond easily with anger and hostility towards anyone who seems to harm them. Those experiences are often made from negligence, abuse, abandonment, bullying, and other offenses in the past. From this stored experiences the adolescents tend to see the world as a hazardous and hostile place with the effect of feeling low empathy for others. It seems that temperament and emotions also have a strong effect to antisocial and aggressive behavior. Eisenberg (et al. 1996), Lemerise and Arsenio (2000) propose that children with inherited temperament traits of high emotions but with low capabilities to control their emotions are likely to have deficits in social information processing and show more likely problematic behavior.

TABLE 11. The Six Steps in Dodge's Social Information-Processing Model and Sample Respond of Aggressive Youth (Crick & Dodge 1994, cited in Sigelman & Rider 2012, 437)

THE SIX STEPS IN DODGE'S SOCIAL INFORMATION-PROCESSING MODEL AND SAMPLE RESPONSES OF AGGRESSIVE YOUTH		
Step	Behavior	Likely Response of Aggressive Youth
1. Encoding of cues	Registering the indication and absorb information	Encode only some of the indication in the situation and prejudge the action as deliberate intent (for example, noticing a contemptuously glance)
2. Interpretation of cues	"Making sense of information"; reasoning the other's motive	Interpret an hostile and harm causing motive
3. Clarification of goals	Set a goal to achieve out of the situation	Define retaliation as the goal to achieve out of the situation
4. Response search	Think about options and plan actions in order to achieve the set goal	Consider only some and mostly aggressive options for the goal be achieved

THE SIX STEPS IN DODGE'S SOCIAL INFORMATION-PROCESSING MODEL AND SAMPLE RESPONSES OF AGGRESSIVE YOUTH

Step	Behavior	Likely Response of Aggressive Youth
5. Respond decision	Evaluate the consequences of all options and decide for the best respond in order to achieve the goal	See and confirm benefit and pre-dominance in aggressive response (or do not evaluate the consequences at all)
6. Behavioral enactment	Execute the prefer re-sponse	Make an aggressive response

Gerald Patterson and colleagues (Kiesner, Dishion, & Poulin 2001, in Sigelman & Rider 2015, 438; Patterson 2008; Patterson, DeBaryshe, & Ramsey 1989) found that power struggles in families have a strong effect on antisocial behavior. Often members of these families apply coercive power tactics to control each other. In order to stop their misbehaving children parents start to threat, yell and hit on their children. A temporary improvement of the situation might verify this education method. However, by negative reinforced children gradually learn that rebellion against the parent's measurements might be an adequate counteraction. They answer with difficult behaviors such as from ignoring request to temper tantrums and counter violence. Over the time the spiral of measurement by parents and counter measurement by their children lead to the situation that parents loose the control over their children's behavior and neither the loudest lections nor the hardest hitting gain back that control. Children who grow up in such *coercive family environment* might learn to relay on this tactic and use an aggressive behavior when they are in dispute with others. Patterson and his colleagues believe that a *coercive family environment* is the nutrient medium of antisocial behavior in adolescents. The already aggressive child experiences rejection by other children, feels unpleasant and performs poorly in the school environment. The child desperately searches for companion and gets involved in peer-group where the members also perform poorly and act antisocial. A study by Savolainen and colleagues (et al. 2012) found a link between school performance and delinquency. Vitaro, Pedersen, & Brendgen (2007) revealed that members of the peer-

group reinforce each other in antisocial behavior and delinquency. Dodge, Greenberg, Malone, and Conduct Problems Prevention Research Group (2008) support the view that inconsistency and ineffectiveness in childhood parenting maintain cognitive, social and academic deficits, antisocial behavior, peer rejections, affiliating to peers with equal behavior and last but not least antisocial and delinquent behavior in adolescents.

Researchers believe that genetic predispositions interfere with antisocial behavior as well. According to Baker, Raine, Liu & Jacobson (2008), Rhee & Waldman (2002, quoted in Sigelman & Rider 2012, 438), van Goozen, Fairchild, & Harold (2007) genetic predispositions such as irritable and difficult temperament, tendencies to impulsive response, personality traits and other tendencies are associated to aggressive, criminal and delinquent behavior. However, Button, Scourfield, Martin, N., Purcell, S., & McGuffin (2005) and Dogde (2009) revealed a correlation between genetic predispositions and family environment which maintain the child's engages to antisocial behavior.

Bank, Burraston, and Snyder (2004) emphasize a strong influence of siblings to antisocial behavior. For example Slomkowski, Rende, Conger, Simons and Conger (2001) revealed in a study with brother and sister pairs a link between older and younger siblings' delinquency behavior.

The socioeconomic status of the living area has still influence to the possibility that children and adolescents get engaged with antisocial and delinquent behavior. Santrock (2014) writes that toughness and masculinity are high-status signs which are often measured by delinquent acts. A study by Ghazarian & Roche, (2010, cited in Santrock 2014, 381) found that low level delinquency in low-income families is correlated with the support level of mother's social network and the engagement in parenting.

Tendencies in difficulties of keeping attention, having low self-control, low intelligence and other cognitive factors are also linked to delinquency. A study by Koolhof, Loeber, Wei, Pardini, and D'Escury (2007) found that delinquents with

low-IQ results show clear deficits in self-control. And another study by Loeber, Pardini, Stouthamer-Loeber and Raine (2007) revealed that at the age of 16 years non-delinquent adolescents scored higher verbal IQ results and have longer persistent attention span.

3.8 Environmental Influences

As emphasized in the introduction products of this thesis do not consider the economic system environment which has originally been coined by Uri Bronfenbrenner (1979). But the thesis products cover some important internal development aspects regarding external influences. Even if children are exposed to external influences some internal development processes are involved. The reciprocal affection between external influences and internal development processes are in the special interest of this chapter.

Bronfenbrenner (1979, 109) wrote that even if individuals might keep their behavior when changing from one setting to another there are elementary differences regarding the role or the activity of that individual in the new setting or regarding the relationship to other individuals in the new setting. For example children act in a different way at school or in their different peer groups than they are doing at home. Parents are often surprised about the behavior of their children in the first grade because the children develop a sense of freedom during the first half of the first grade and they are testing new behaviors which their parents have not experienced before. According to Asta Kostensalo (2015) during the first two months the first grade pupils follow the parents' instruction still precisely but after two months the first pupils start to skip school and test a new experience of "freedom". This happens at a life-stage when the children start to develop their identity. Once the parents get informed about the behavior of their children they very often get surprised and cannot believe it.

Therefore the handbook incorporates the children's development changes in social relationships and behavior towards parents, teachers, children's peer groups,

and with other significant adults. Related theories and concepts like attachment, social-cognitive and moral development, variations in relationships, pro- and antisocial behavior, group dynamics, and aggression have been elaborated.

3.8.1 Attachment Theory

Many theorists regard John Bowlby as the founder of the attachment theory. According to Zwozdiak-Meyer (2007) Bowlby's motivation for the development of the attachment theory was to challenge Freud's notion that infants were totally instinct driven and dependent. Bowlby's assumption was that infants are interested in their environment and have some capabilities to control their behavior. Zwozdia-Meyer (ibid.) reports that theoretical proposals about how animals', especially primates' behaviors such as nurturing, protecting, bonding, and hunting influenced patterns of attachment towards their offspring were significant aspects for Bowlby's attachment theory. He assumed that the development or the emerging of individual differences in the secure/insecure control systems in the offspring is unavoidable dependent on the quality and quantity of the care provided by the primary caregiver. A central hypothesis of his work was that the infant's or young child's internalized feeling of closeness (proximity) to his mother or primary caregiver (attachment figure) is the basic cause for the functioning of the secure/insecure control system, which is important to form close affectionate bonds, one of the basic human need defined by Abraham Maslow (1970). Zwozdiak-Myers summarized:

Bowlby (1969/1982) describes attachment behavior as 'motivational control system' that aims to promote feelings of security and safety in early infancy and childhood through a child's relationship with his/her primary caregiver or attachment figure. Attachment behavior such a clinging, shadowing, searching, calling and crying are observable outcomes of the inner system that is triggered and becomes activated in times of illness, tiredness, distress, danger and exploration: time when the young child will actively seek contact with and proximity to a specific caregiver (Zwozdiak-Myers 2007, 60.)

The responds of caregivers to a child who faces a situation described above shapes the child's attachment behavior more than any of the child's characteristics such as his temperament traits. An important aspect which influences the child's attachment behavior is his expectation for future responds he expects from the current attachment relationship.

Mary Ainsworth, a pioneer and well known attachment theorist observed how children behave in stressful situations towards their caregivers and described three different attachment behavior categories: *Secure attached*, *insecure avoidant* and *insecure resistant*. Main and Solomon (1990) proposed later an additional category called *insecure disorganized*, which has been widely recognized by theorists.

Secure attached: The infant feels that the primary caregiver, here the mother, is a secure base for him. He explores the space around him and monitors whether the mother is still there. He gets in contact with strangers if the mother is present. In case of separation from the mother he might get upset but he warmly welcomes his mother back or gets easily soothed (Colin, 1996). The preference of the infant is clearly towards the mother than towards strangers. The parents of a secure attached infant are sensitive and highly responsive to his needs and his emotional signals (Ainsworth et a. 1978). According to Colin (1996) approximately 60 to 65% percent of infants in the American society have a secure attachment to their caregivers.

Insecure avoidant: The infant is not much interested in exploring the environment when the mother is around. When he gets separated from his mother he shows only little distress and he avoids contact to the mother when she returns. The infant shows the same behavior of avoidance or ignorance to strangers as much as they usually avoid or ignore their mothers. It seems as the infant has distanced himself from his mother and that he would deny or hide his need for affection (Sigelman & Rider 2012). Parents usually stimulate the infant not too much but also not too little. However, some parents are reacting extremely aversive and

unresponsive when the infant cries (Mills-Koonce et al., 2007) and others over-stimulate the infant even he would need a break in order to regain control over his uncomfortable emotions (Isabella & Belsky, 1991). Also if his parents are impatient and resentful when the infant disrupted their plans the risk of developing an insecure avoidant attachment bond does highly increases (Ainsworth, 1979; Isabella, 1993). Approximately 15% of one year old infants show insecure avoidant attachment bond to their parents (Sigelman & Rider 2012).

Insecure resistant: In a strange situation the child does not dare to play even though the mother is close. The mother seems not to be a secure base for the child. When the mother leaves the scene the child gets distressed and shows separation anxiety as he might be not sure whether his mother returns. When the mother returns the child shows an ambivalent behavior. He wants to get close to his mother but at the same time he resents her for leaving him. He even could kick or hit her if she tries to comfort him (Ainsworth et al., 1978). The child shows the same behavior to strangers, even though his mother is around. Parents of insecure resistant children are often ambivalent in caregiving from enthusiastically to indifferently responds, depending on their own emotional states (Isabella, 1993; Isabella & Belsky, 1991). For example Dawson and Ashman (2000) described in their studies that depressed mothers have difficulties and are often inconsistent in caregiving (quoted in Sigelman & Rider 2012, 459). Approximately 10% of infants around one year of age show insecure resistant attachment towards their primary caregivers.

Insecure disorganized: The characteristic of this behavior is that the child either does not react when the mother comes back after a short time of separation or he tries to seek contact to the mother but moves away at the same moment (Main & Solomon 1990). It seems that the child is scared of his parents. He is emotionally stuck between the willingness to approach the parents and his anxiety about them. The child has not found a strategy to regulate his negative emotions (Hesse & Main 2006). Approximately 80% of abused children show insecure disorganized attachment behavior (Baer & Martinez 2006). According to van IJzen-

doorn and his colleagues (van IJzendoorn, Schuengel, & Bakermans-Kranenburg, 1999) approximately 15% of infants, usually from high risk families, show this this behavior. They also assume that these children will display emotional problems in their later life span (quoted in Sigelman & Rider 2012, 458).

The child builds a mental representation of the attachment with his primary caregiver, called "*Internal Working Model of Attachment*". The child develops an image of himself of how he has been cared and loved and this interrelates with his later notion of love. A securely attached child has internalized a strong mental representation of himself that gives him the confidence to explore the world, to go to school and to build up secure relationships (Willemsen & Marcel 1996). According to Bauminger (et al. 2009) and Woodhouse (et al. 2010) a securely attached child will have a higher self-esteem at adolescence, more intimate friendships and better grades (quoted in Boyd & Bee 2014, 345). Sroufe (et.al. 2005) wrote that children with insecure attachment, and especially those with a violent attachment bond, usually have less supportive and positive friendships later in their adolescence and they are likely to have early and risky sex (quoted in Boyd & Bee 2014, 345).

3.8.2 Friendship and Peer Relationship

According to Santrock (2014) Harry Stack Sullivan was one of the most influential theorists who emphasized the importance of friendships for the well-being of children and adolescents during their development. Sullivan stated that all individuals have basic social needs such as secure attachment and tenderness, social acceptance and playful companionships and sexual relations and intimacy. The emotional well-being depends largely on the fulfillment of those important social needs. For example, individuals' sense of self-worth or even self-esteem is affected if their needs for social acceptance are not met. Sullivan (1953) emphasized that during early adolescence children feel a desire for intimacy which motivates them to find close friends. He also observed that close friendship are used to seek for conformation that they do not have to be ashamed of their thoughts, emotions and behavior and that nothing is "abnormal". In their study Furman and

Buhrmester (1992) revealed that children in the fourth grade see their parents as the most important supporter. In the seventh grade children already see parents and friends as equivalent important for support. Adolescents see their friends as the main supporter and source to satisfy their needs of intimacy, self-worth, reassurance and fellowship.

Kendrick, Jutengren, and Stattin (2012), Tucker and colleagues (et al. 2012) and others (Way & Silverman, 2012; Wentzel, 2013; in Santrock 2014, 428) found that adolescents in positive friendship relationships show less involvement in delinquency and substance abuse, are less likely victims of bullying, have less risky sexual practice and show better academic result. On the other hand Brendgen, Lamarch, V., Wanner, B. and Vitaro (2010, cited in Santrock 2014, 438) and Schwartz-Mette & Rose (2013, cited in Santrock 2014, 438) have revealed tendencies of increasing depression in adolescents if they have no best friends, if they have only loose contacts to their friends, if their friends are depressed, or if they have been rejected by their peers. Deutsch, Crockett, Wolff and Russell (2012) found that children in relationships with delinquent friends or peers tend to have a higher risk of taking over the delinquent behavior.

3.8.3 Social Status

Developmentalists are interested in the question why some children are more popular than others. Therefore they determine a sociometric status by asking children to rate how much they like or dislike other children in their school environment. According to Santrock (2014) positive social behavior and social cognitive skills such as reading feelings seem to be important aspects in terms of high popularity of children in their peer groups. Children who show antisocial behavior and emotional disturbances are in greater risk of becoming rejected by their peer group. Neglected children seem to have similar traits as popular children but tend to be vulnerable to depression and loneliness. Controversial children have good social and leadership skills similar to popular children but also show aggressive behavior and are often viewed as bullies, similar to many children who have been

rejected by their peers. According to Sigelman and Rider (2012) secure attachment with parents during infancy and good emotion-regulation skills affect children's social competency which lead to popularity within the children's friendship relationships and peer groups.

TABLE 12. Strategies for Making Friends for Children and Adolescents (Wentzel 1997, cited in Santrock 2014, 439)

STRATEGIES FOR MAKING FRIENDS FOR CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS	
Appropriate Strategies	Inappropriate Strategies
<p>Initiate interaction. Learn about a friend: Ask for his or her name, age favorite activities. Use these prosocial overtures: introduce yourself, start a conversation, and invite him or her to do things.</p>	<p>Be psychologically aggressive. Show disrespect and have bad manners. Use others, be uncooperative, don't share, ignore others, gossip, and spread rumors.</p>
<p>Be nice. Show kindness, be considerate, and compliment the other person.</p>	<p>Present yourself negatively. Be self-centered, snobby, conceited, and jealous; show off, care only about yourself. Be mean, have a bad attitude, be angry, throw temper tantrums, and start trouble.</p>
<p>Engage in prosocial behavior. Be honest and trustworthy: tell the truth, keep promises. Be generous, share, and be cooperative.</p>	<p>Behave antisocially. Be physically aggressive, yell at others, pick on them, make fun of them, be dishonest, tell secrets, and break promises.</p>
<p>Show respect for yourself and others. Have good manners, be polite and courteous, and listen to what others have to say. Have a positive attitude and personality.</p>	
<p>Provide social support. Show you care.</p>	

4 DEVELOPMENT DURING MIDDLE CHILDHOOD AND ADOLESCENCE

This chapter outlines important development processes during middle childhood and early adolescence per year of age. The development processes which started during the ages from 0 to 5 and which have impact to later life stages are all described in one subchapter. From age 6 to 15 years each year of life has its own subchapter with important development processes which begin or are active during that year. A graphic in each subchapter shows both the delivery processes which started at the particular year and also those processes which have started earlier and are still ongoing. All development processes are traceable back to the year when the development started.

The development processes are filtered out of the *Information database* (see chapter five) and can be retraced from that database. The user manual for the database tool describes the technical process how to filter out the data.

The decision on what development processes are to be outlined in this handbook has been made based on the methods described in chapter five, on my knowledge and experiences I gained during my studies in social services, my experiences in different work placements such as kindergartens and schools, my voluntary work with children and adolescents and particularly from my thesis work placement with several Icehearts' age groups in different cities in Finland.

4.1 Pre-Personality Development Phase: Age 0-5

In this chapter we are looking into the most important aspects of psychosocial development of toddlers and young children. These aspects have direct or indirect influence to later development stages. In order to understand the personality of a child at any stage it is important to understand the history of the development process.

Temperaments, instincts, reflexes and emotions have been defined earlier (see chapter three). As we learned from the definitions there seems to be some common understanding that all those four concepts are either inborn traits or at least have biological foundations. However, the discussion about whether the development is initially biological inherited (nature) or mostly influenced by environmental factors (nurture) is still ongoing for some of the concepts. For example, researchers found that rules about how to show emotions are not universal. There are cultural differences in expressing emotions between Asian infants and non-Latino white infants (Camras & others 1998 quoted in Santrock 2014, 283). For the approach of this handbook to understand the psychosocial development of children, it would be at least not harmful to any children if we would assume, that children are carrying those traits inside them when they enter the world and that they cannot made be accountable for. But it makes a difference for the child's caregivers and any other important persons to understand how emotions and temperaments influence the development of the children.

Emotion regulation is an important skill which all the children to learn. However, the child's capability to regulate his emotions is influenced by affection the parents give towards the child (see also the concept of attachment). According to Eisenberg (2010, quoted in Santrock 2014, 288) and Lewis (Lewis Todd & Xu 2011, quoted in Santrock 2014, 288) the emotion regulation skill itself influences the way how the child will manage demands and conflicts later in his life. For Howes (2009) that again has effects to the quality of the child's peer relationships. Havighurst (et al. 2013) and Thompson (2013 c, d) propose that parents play a key role in helping the child to regulate his emotions. And according to Gottman (2013, quoted in Santrock 2014, 289) parents either take an emotion-coaching approach or an emotion-dismissing approach, especially when dealing with negative emotions. By using the emotion-coaching approach the child is better able of soothe himself, has a better attention focus and has fewer behavior problems. A study by Lunkenheimer and colleagues (Lunkenheimer, Shields, & Cortina, 2007) revealed that the emotion-dismissing approach of parents has an impact to the child's poor emotional regulation. Also fathers are playing a role in the child's emotion development. Researches done by Baker and colleagues (Baker,

Fenning, & Crnic, 2011) found that emotion coaching by fathers has influences to the child's social competence development.

Coping with stress is another important aspect regarding emotion regulation. According to Mash, Wolf (Mash & Wolfe 2013) and Morris (Morris & others 2013) it is important for children to learn how to cope with stress (quoted in Santrock 2014, 290). During the development process the child generates cognitive coping strategies and alternatives to cope with stressful situations (Saarni & others 2006, quoted in Santrock 2014, 290). But it is important for any caregiver and supporter to understand that maladaptive development in coping with stress might be linked to *internalizing behavior problems* as children start to avoid stressful situation which has negative effects to their later life stages. Early preventative measurements should be considered. This aspect will be discussed together with the more well-known *externalizing behavior problem* after the temperament of the child has been explored.

As described earlier in chapter three *temperament* research is still a young discipline. Researchers have different notions of temperament and proposing different definitions. The question of nature- or nurture influence to the child's traits is not finally answered yet. For example, Kagan (2002, 2010, quoted in Santrock 2014, 294) proposes that children inherit a certain type of temperament but that they learn through experiences how to modify it. Whereas the researcher Goldsmith and Campos (1982; see also Goldsmith 1993, cited in Zentner & Bates 2008, 10) defined temperament as individual differences in the experience, the expression and the regulation of positive and negative emotions.

However, current available definition might change due to future research outcomes and for the time being we have to recognize that the "difficultness" of a child is probably based on his temperament and not on the child's willfulness. Parents, educators and other supporter have to find adequate measures which help the child to cope better with his future life challenges.

Much may depend on the *goodness-of-fit* between the child and his environment. According to Rothbart and Bates (2006) children's adjustment problems can be produced due to a mismatch between the child's temperament and the demands of its environment. The goodness-of-fit model was proposed by Thomas and Chess (1977; in Churchill 2003) and proposes the creation of an environment that recognize the child's temperament and that supports the child's adaptive functioning. Just as a reminder: Thomas and Chess defined three types of child temperaments – a) *the "difficult" child* (negative reaction, cries often), b) *the "slow-to-warm-up" child* (low level of activity, to some degree negatively reactions, low intensity of mood), and c) *the "easy" child* (mostly in positive mood, establishes regular routines, seeks for new experiences). Berk (2014) concluded the model of goodness-of-fit as:

The *goodness-of-fit model* reminds us that children have unique dispositions that adults must accept. Parents can neither take full credits for their children's virtues nor be blamed for all their faults. But parents can turn an environment that exaggerates a child's problem into one that builds on the child's strengths (Berk 2014, 152.)

For example, warm and supportive caregivers can reduce anxiety in shy children (e.g. *"slow-to-warm-up"* child) who dislikes novel situations whereas cold and intrusive parenting increases anxiety (Coplan, Arbeau, & Arme, 2008; Hane et al., 2008). Parents who overprotect their child who dislikes novel situations do not help him to overcome his fear (Rubin & Burgess, 2002) with the consequence that the child develops excessive cautiousness, low self-esteem and loneliness. Later in adolescence the overprotection increases the risk of anxiety, social phobia and fear of humiliation in social situations (Kagan & Fox, 2006). Regarding to *internalizing problems* high fearfulness children were able to develop advantage *self-control* if their mother controlled their children gently whereas fearless children developed best if the mother was warm and funny with the child (Zentner & Bartes 2008).

Evidence has been found by Pluess and Belskey (2011) that children with difficult temperaments benefit more than other children from good parenting but they are also facing more disadvantages from inappropriate parenting than other children.

Bridett and colleagues (et al. 2009) describe that “*difficult*” children frequently experience poor parenting. Usually in the second year the parents change to an angry and punitive disciplinary parenting style which interfere the development of *effortful control* of the child (a temperamental capacity to control emotions and to stay focused in order to reach goals, see definition in chapter three). Van Aken (et al. 2007) and Personen (et al. 2008) revealed a kind of sequence of reciprocal cause and effects where the child reacts to the parenting change with disobedience and defiance which cause more stress for the parents. As a result the parents start inconsistently disciplining by, for example, giving in to the child’s non-compliance behavior which is tantamount to the rewarding of the behavior. This parenting style sustains the conflict ridden style of the child. In contrast to this scenario Feldman and colleagues (Feldman, Greenbaum & Yirmiya 1999) describe that the child’s difficultness declines when parents react positive and sensitive and Cipriano and Stifter (2010) revealed that parental sensitivity and support, clear expectations and clear limits during infancy and childhood promotes *effortful control* and have an effect on the reduction of the child’s difficultness. Another research by Bates et al. (1998) found that resistance and unmanageable children develop less likely externalized behavior if their mothers’ are consequent in controlling of minor misbehaviors during early childhood.

As already described (see chapter three) the term self-scheme in this handbook comprises the terms and concepts of *self-concept*, *self-understanding*, *self-efficacy* and *self-esteem*.

During early childhood and preschool years a child acquires the ability to understand the differences of gender. He is now able to identify correctly his own gender and the gender of others and he understands that his gender stays throughout his life. His gender identity is now part of his *self-concept*. During the preschool years, by age 5, the child begins to link personality traits to gender types. Boys and girls define boys as powerful and use more negative terms (like mean terms) in their descriptions whereas both genders describe girls as nice and use more positive terms in their descriptions (Santrock 2014). Further according to Brown (et al. 2008) by the age of 5 the child seems to have his own sense of shyness

or lacking of courage or self-confidence, of agreeableness which is the willingness to agree or being in harmony, and of positive and negative feelings and affections. Goodvin (et al. 2008) observed that a warm and sensitive relationship between caregiver and the child promotes a more positive self-concept in the early years (see also subchapter 3.8.1 Attachment Theory, 69).

In Santrock (2014, 315) the *self-understanding* of a child in early childhood is described with five main characteristics. (1) The child still confuses the self, the mind and the body. He has the notion that the self is part of the body, usually the head. He thinks that like materials and objects the self can be described with attributes like color, shape, or size. (2) Harter (2006b, 2012) suggests that at preschool age the child use more concrete terms, observable features and action tendencies for the description of his self. He might say “I can write,” “I am a boy”, or “I live in a red house”. Thompson (2006) describes that at approximately 4 to 5 years of age the child realizes that others are using personality traits and emotional terms and he begins gradually to include those terms in his self-description. For example, he might say about himself that he is happy or not scared. (3) To distinguish himself from others the young child uses physical descriptions and material attributes. For example, when he compares himself with his friend he might say that he has blond hair and his friend has black hair. Or he might say that he differs from his friend because he is taller and he differs from his sister because he has a bicycle. (4) In early childhood the child uses activities such as “play” to describe his self. It seems that activities are the central component of their self. For example he might say that he is a football player, or she is a princess. (5) Harter (2006b) describes the self-evaluation of a child in the middle childhood as often unrealistic positive and that the child overestimates his personal attributes. Santrock (2014) explains these unrealistic positive overestimations with (a) the child is not yet mature to differentiate between his desire and his current competences, (b) he is not yet able to distinguish his real self from his ideal self, and (c) he has not yet started with social comparison and therefore he has only very few experiences how to compare himself with others.

The *self-efficacy* of a child as defined in chapter three will develop later in school age during middle childhood. However, the foundation of a healthy self-efficacy is laid by primary caregivers and parents during earlier years of development. As Ardel and Eccles (2001) suggest that if caregivers or parents feel efficacious (potent) they are more likely to use parenting strategies which increase the child's potential and success in interpersonal-, social-, and academic domains. In turn caregivers and parents with low self-efficacy find it hard to be engaged with effective parenting when they are confronted with challenging and difficult situations. Rathunde (2001, cited in Steca et al. 2011) wrote that the growth of high self-efficacy is more likely if parents provide the right balance between support and challenge. Hektner (2001, cited in Steca et al. 2011) proposed that activities in the family and interactions with the child are creating opportunities for the child to build skills and positive growth experiences. Along with a comforting and relaxing environment at home these are factors for building high self-efficacy (Bassi and Delle Fave 2006; Larson and Richards 1994; Simmons and Blyth 1987; cited in Steca et al. 2011). Emotional self-regulation is another factor for the development of a high self-efficacy in the child. If caregivers and parents respond to a distressed child helpfully and sensitively he will develop emotionally to a well-regulated child during school age with the effect that the child has a positive self-image and an optimistic outlook which are beneficial if the child will face emotional challenges. In contrast, if the child has a poor self-regulation developed based on his experiences with hostile and dismissive reactions of the caregivers or parents to his distresses, he will be overwhelmed by his negative emotion which has an effect on his empathy for others and a link to antisocial behaviors (Berk 2014).

The term *self-esteem* describes the global image a child has about himself which is basically composed by his self-concept, his image about himself in certain domains and by his self-efficacy, the child's belief how he is able to master a situation well or create a positive outcome from an activity in a certain domain. Sigelman and Rider (2012) write that preschool children are able to differentiate two aspects of self-esteem. The first aspect is their physical and cognitive competence. And the second aspect is their personal and social acceptability. But we have to remember from the child's self-understanding that he is still unrealistic in

his self-judgments. According to Harter (2006b) a preschool child usually underestimates the difficulty of a task. Kelley and colleagues (et al. 2000) examined that if caregivers and parents criticize the failure of a child by age of 3 he tends to give up easily and expresses shame in case he fails. Caregivers and parents can counter steer this development if they adjust their expectations to the child's capacities, if they explain that a task was "really difficult" in case the child failed and if they praise the child for his effort and improvements. Santrock concluded that the child's self-esteem can be raised by:

- (1) identifying the domains of competences important to the child, (2) providing emotional support and social approval, (3) praising achievement, and (4) encouraging coping (Santrock 2014, 325).

According to Freud the child passes through three development stages until he reaches his age of 6 years. These stages are the oral stage (age 0-1), the anal stage (age 1-3) and the phallic stage (3-6) years. The definition of the stages can be found in chapter three. Freud believed that during the oral stage the child's mouth, lips and tongue should be optimally stimulated, otherwise some oral pleasure or habits such as smoking, biting fingernails or using drugs might occur. During the anal stage the toilet training is an important task which parents have to manage. If toilet training fails the child might develop orderliness, stringiness or extreme disorders. The most important task for the child during the phallic stage is for boys to overcome the Oedipus conflict and for girls the Electra conflict where the children feel desire for the opposite gender of the parents. By successful overcome the child adapts the characteristics and values of the same-sex parents. Otherwise adult personality traits such as recklessness or vanity might be fixated (Boyd & Bee 2014; Berk 2014).

Erikson defined three psychosocial development stages for phase between 0 to 6 years (see definition in chapter three). From the child's birth to his first birthday the child is exposed to the conflict of *Basic trust versus mistrust*. If the child experiences warmth and responsive care he will develop sense of faith, confidence and hope. If he has been neglected or experienced too harsh care he might develop mistrust, withdrawal and internalizing behavior. During the years 1 to 3 of

age the child develops either autonomy or shame and doubt. If the parents are permitting the child free choices to explore and manipulate his environment he will develop autonomy or independence. If parents are forcing or discouraging the child, he might develop shame and doubt. The last psychosocial stage during this phase is called *Initiatives versus Guilt*. During this stage the child has to learn to take positive response to challenges, taking responsibilities, feeling purposeful and learning new skills. But if parents are forcing too much self-control, the child develops too much guilt. At this point the capacity of moral judgment begins to develop (Berk 2014; Boeree 2009).

When describing others the child focuses on external features (Boyd & Bee 2014). From age 5 the child has established ethnic group schemes (Pezdek, Blandon-Gitlin & Moore 2003) and use those schemes to make judgment about others (Macrae & Quadflieg 2010). Further the child still uses an egocentric social perspective taking by believing that everyone shares the same point of view he has (Sigelman & Rider 2012). From 2 or 3 years of age until end of middle childhood the child develops a basic understanding of empathy. He notes other children feelings and begins to match those feelings with his own experiences. He also start to respond to the distress of other people in non-egocentric ways (Hoffman 2007). The child defines friendship by doing common activities together (Boyd & Bee 2014).

The child has developed an understanding about intentional and unintentional rule violations (Boyd & Bee 2014). The development of moral emotions are being influenced by the parent-child relationship (Bee & Boyd 2014). According to Piaget children believe during this phase that rules and justice are unchangeable and out of control for people. The child judges accordingly to the outcome of an action not according to the actor's intention. His moral reasoning at this stage is more hedonistic, meaning he is more concerned about consequences for himself when confronted with moral questions (Boyd & Bee 2014). The child might deliver conduct problems or antisocial behavior if parents are using poor discipline and monitoring measures (Sigelman & Rider 2012).

It is important to understand that since the child was born he is carrying biological traits inside him which influence the behavior of caregivers and other individuals in- and outside the family. But even more important is to understand and to internalize that every interaction with the child has a mutual impact to the psychical development and that the child is unprotected and vulnerable exposed to these interactions. The most important dependency of the child is here the relationship to his primary caregiver, usually the caregiver who takes the maternal role. The psychiatrists John Bowlby (1907-1990) and Mary Ainsworth (1913-1999) have formulated and elaborated the theory of *attachment*, which gives us a broad understanding about the affectional bond between the infant and his primary caregiver. It was Mary Ainsworth who elaborated a method to assess the quality of the attachment bond between the infant and his primary caregiver (Thompson & Raikes, 2003). Based on her famous "Strange Situation" procedure she and her colleagues described different types of infant's behavior patterns (Ainsworth et al. 1978). The definition of attachment and the four categories of attachment bonds can be found in chapter three.

The attachment behavior of a child to his primary caregivers is another piece of the puzzle which needs to be considered to get the whole picture about the child's personality at a certain stage. Even if there is not a warranty for an unproblematic growth of the child it seems that *securely attached* children who feel their parents as a secure base for exploring the world have the most promising chance to learn and get all skills which are needed to live a successful life. The same applies to the other non-secure attachment bond like *insecure avoidant*, *insecure resistant* and *insecure disorganized* attachment. It might be possible that a child who experienced a non-secure attachment to his parents gets very successful in his life but the risk of getting in trouble or of experiencing an unhappy or violent life is very high.

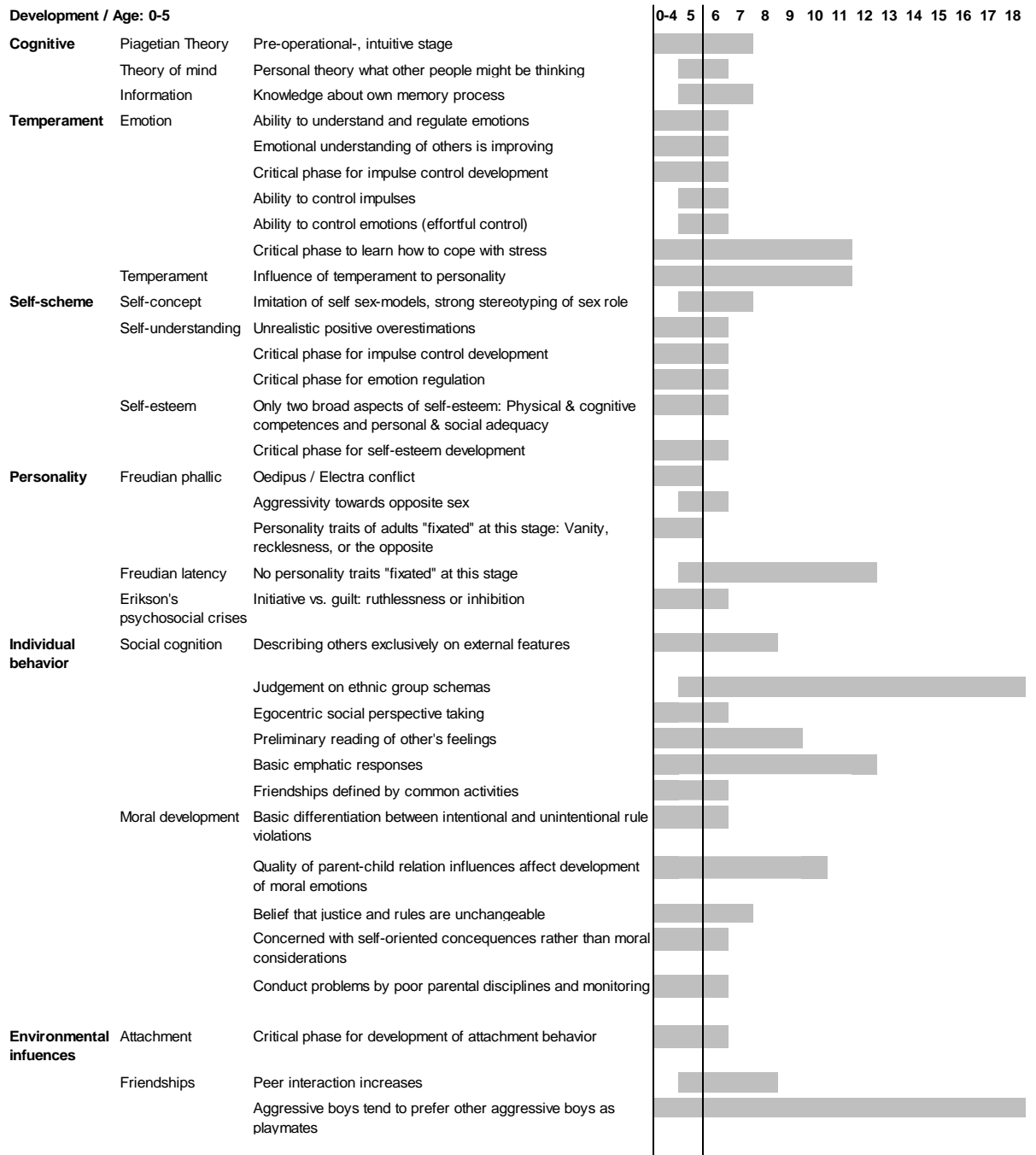


FIGURE 5. Development Processes Active during 0 to 5 Years of Age

ents are not able to build an affectional bond with the child. But this affectional bond is a condition for the child to build an attachment bond to the parents. The reasons why parents are not able to fulfil this condition might be found in their own personality and formed by their own life experiences. Mental diseases and traumatic experiences are a high risk factor for caregivers not being able to provide the love which the child needs to build up a secure attachment to them. One direct outcome of a non-secure attachment a child will most probably face during his later life span seem to be problems with his own emotion regulations. This issue will have strong impact for the kind of relationship the child will build up later to his peers, teachers and other important people. This effect will be described in a later development stage for the age when the child will start to build up social relationships.

It should be out of doubts that securely attached children have the better chances for a successful start into their lives. Securely attached children are better able to explore the world around them and they are able to separate from their caregivers when necessary. They are more independent and they are better able to use their sense in order to master the environment. Other effect of a secure attachment can be observed later around the pre-school years. There seems to be links to language and communication skills and the children are more socially skilled when they are entering the pre-school (Willemsen & Marcel 1996). Interestingly, these are skills which are nowadays proposed to be factors of success in the study and working environment.

4.2 Middle Childhood, Proudness and Guiltiness: Age 6

Until the preschool years the child has done enormous spurts in development and growth. He has grown physically; his brain is now ready to read, write and to calculate numbers. During the preschool years the child also starts to read and understand other's behavior and is now ready to enter the social arena where he will gain important social relationship experiences. And at the end of this phase he starts to unfold his personality.

In the domain of cognitive development the child has developed an understanding that other people have different thoughts about the same event or situation and that they have an own understanding of the reality. This process is called the “Theory of mind” (Berger 2014; Boyd & Bee 2014). Another process called “Information processing”, where the child gains knowledge about remembering and about knowing still continues. (Berger 2014). Further the child starts to realize that actions and thoughts can be turned around and reversed (Boyd & Bee 2014).

The ability to control and regulate his own emotions and impulses is still developing as well as the understanding of other person’s emotions. A very important aspect of emotion control is the so call “effortful control”, the capability to regulate emotions in order to reach goals (Berger 2014). This ability affects the academic achievements and the quality of the relationship to peer-group members during the school age. Usually children learn this skill until the age of 6 years but they need the support of parents and other care givers. Further the child has to learn how to cope with stress. The critical phase for the learning of this ability starts in the infancy and continues until the adolescence. A successful development of emotional self-regulation, especial before the age of 7, has a great affect to his emotional self-efficacy later in his life. The child develops a sense that he is able to control his emotional experiences and gets an optimistic outlook that he will manage other challenging emotional situations. Children who get parental support during the emotion development have lower mood swings and are more empathic and prosocial. If the child experienced hostile and dismissive reactions from his parents or primary caregiver during distress he will get overwhelmed by his negative emotions which has affects to his prosocial behavior and empathy development (Santrock 2014).

From the age of 6-years the child learns that the emotions of pride and guilt are linked to their personal responsibility for accomplishments and misdoings. The feeling of pride motivates the child to strive for new challenges. The feeling of

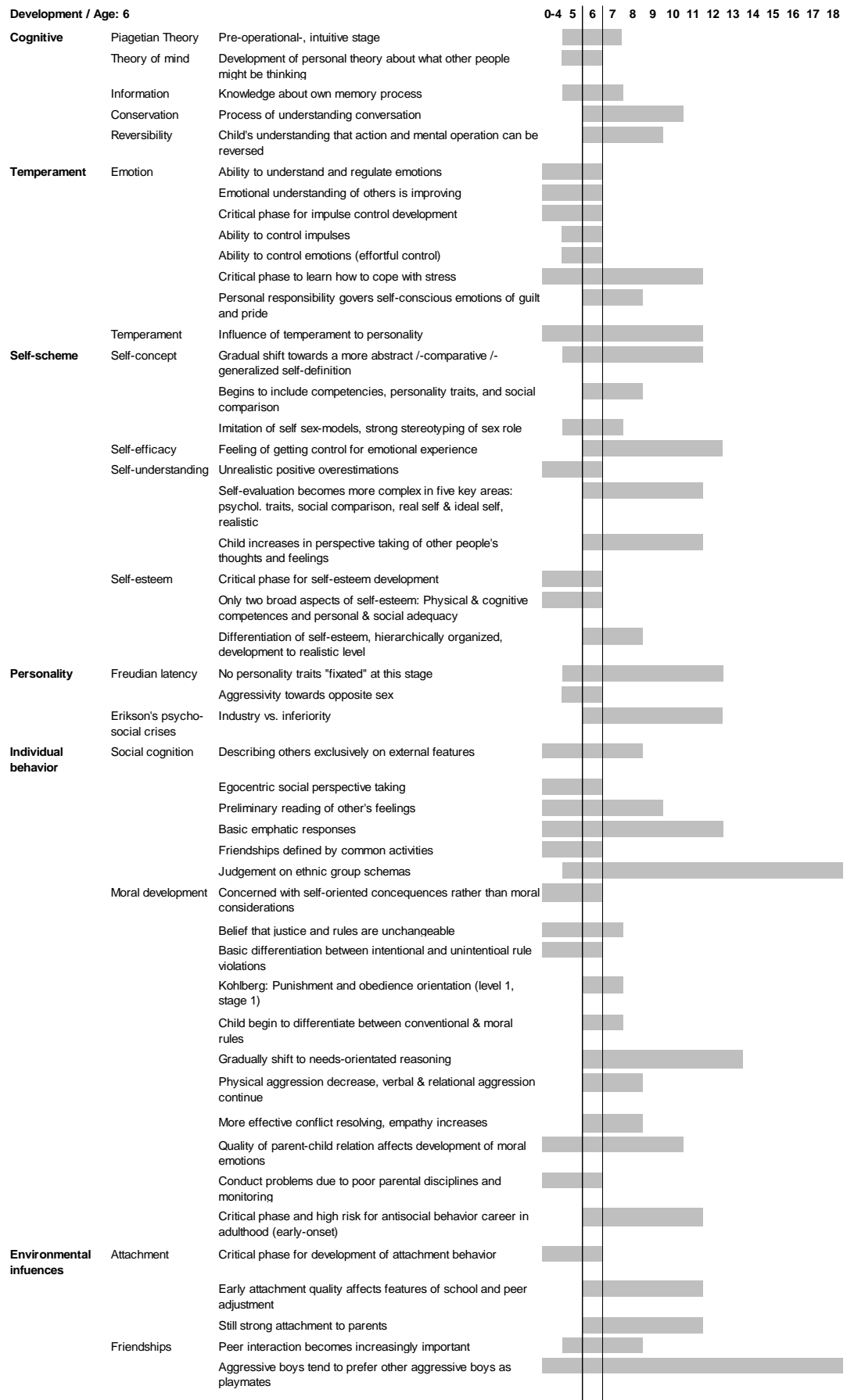


FIGURE 6. Development Processes Active during Age of 6

guilt hinders the child to improve and advance. Strong feelings of guilt can lead to shame and further to internalizing and externalizing behavior problems (Berk 2014).

In terms of the self-concept development the child continues to define himself on a more abstract, comparative and general level (Boyd & Bee 2014). This development continues until the end of the middle childhood. From the age of 6 years the child begins to consider competencies, personal traits and social comparison for his self-definition (Berk 2014).

The process of self-definition in terms of gender identification continues with a strong concentration on gender stereotyping and imitating of self-sex models (Santrock 2014). Noticeable is the finding that children are usually acting more aggressive towards the opposite sex after they have successfully solved the *Oedipus conflict* for boys and the *Electra conflict* for girls during Freud's "Phallic phase" theory (Boyd & Bee 2014).

One important aspect for the development of the child's self-efficacy, the belief that one is able to master a situation and to create a positive and "good enough" outcome, is the feeling of getting control of his own emotions. Usually from the age of 6 years children feel that they get control over their emotions which appear in different situations (Berk 2014). Emotion control seems to be an important aspect for the healthy development of children.

The child's unrealistic overestimation in the early childhood shifts to a more complex self-evaluation in the key areas psychological traits, social comparison, the real self vs. the ideal self, and being realistic. During middle childhood this development is promoted by the increase in perspective taking regarding other people's thoughts and feelings (Santrock 2014).

The child's self-esteem, which is the global evaluation of his self and how he accepts himself, his self-worth or his self-image, begins to change. Instead of

taking only the two broad aspects of physical and cognitive competence and personal and social adequacy the child forms more differentiated, hierarchically organized and realistic level of self-esteem (Berk 2014). However, the ages before this change starts are the most critical for the development of the child's self-esteem.

Regarding the psychosexual and psychosocial development of the child, Freud defined the phase from 6 to 12 years as the *Latency* stage. Freud believed that the sexual instincts decrease and that the *superego* increases due to new social experience with same-sex peer and adults and the acquiring of new values out of that experience (Berk 2014). Further Freud believed that this phase can be seen as giving the child a pause before the turbulent Genital stage, also named as the puberty, starts. Freud also believed that during the *Latency* stage, no further personality traits are fixed (see TABLE 3, p. 32) (Boyd & Bee 2014).

According to Erikson's psychosocial theory the child has to learn during the stage of *Industry vs Inferiority* how success feels and that carrying out a plan can give the same pleasure as the planning did. However, too much *industry* such as pushing the child to get excellent competence in one or few areas leads the child to the feeling that he has no own life. On the other site, if the child does not success and he does not get the needed support he will give up too fast. Erikson believed that child should gain a healthy balance between industry and inferiority (Boeree 2009).

The development of the social cognition is still continuing from previously started processes (Boyd & Bee 2014). The child describes others exclusively on their external features. Important to mention is that the child developed ethical group schemas already around the age of five years and he is using those schemata to make judgements about other people (Pezdek, Blandon-Gitlin & Moore 2003; Macrae & Quadflieg 2010). The child still takes an egocentric social perspective, meaning he believes that other persons share his viewpoints (Sigelman & Rider 2012). Until the age of 9 or 10 the child has a preliminary understanding of how people's emotions are linked to a current situation (Hoffman 2007). He may notice

another person's distress, tries to match the feeling with his own experiences and responses in a non-egocentric way. Over the years the child learns to differentiate several kinds of emotions. Friendships with other children are still based and defined on common activities (Boyd & Bee 2014).

Moral reasoning of the child at this stage is like that everything is wrong what has been or will be punished. Obedience is not valued as such but just obeyed because the physical superiority of the adults. The child has still the notion that justice and rules are unchangeable (Boyd & Bee 2014). If the child is punished he may often say that that the wrongdoing was an accident and it was not meant to happen. This suggests that the child begins to understand that intentional wrongdoing is more punished than unintentional. And the child begins to differentiate between conventional rules ("Do not run in the school building") and moral rules ("You are not allowed to hit your class mates") (Boyd & Bee 2014). Further empathy increases and the child shifts towards a needs-oriented moral reasoning where he shows concern for the need of another person, even those needs are in conflict with his own desires and wishes (Boyd & Bee 2014). The physical aggression of the child decreases and he becomes more effective in conflict solving. However, the verbal and relational aggression still continues (Berk 2014). The parent-child relationship affects the development of the moral emotions. Poor parental disciplinary measures and poor child monitoring may lead to behavior problems (Sigelman & Rider 2012). During the critical phase from middle childhood until the beginning of the adolescence (age 6 to 12 years) the child is of a high risk to develop an antisocial career in adulthood (early-onset). Antisocial behavior developed during the adolescence usually grow out in the adulthood (Sigelman & Rider 2012).

Regarding environmental influences the attachment behavior which the child has developed during the critical phase from his birth until the age of 6 starts to affect peer relationships and school adjustments. The attachment to his parents continues strongly until early adolescence. However, peer interactions become increasingly important (Willemsen & Marcel 1996). Aggressive boys tend to prefer other

aggressive boys as playmates which might have a negative effect for his future life. Aggressive girls tend to reject peers (Boyd & Bee 2014; Berk 2014).

4.3 Self-esteem and Naive Hedonism: Age 7

The child starts to develop a global self-image by evaluation himself in domains such as academic and athletic performance, physical appearance, social acceptance, behavior conducts and so on (Harter 2006b).

Parallel to the evaluation of his self-worth the child begins to improve his social cognition by focusing on individual's inner characteristics and qualities. The child also starts to see friends as special individuals who trust and help one another reciprocally (Berndt 1983, 1986, 2004).

Regarding the moral development the child begins to accept and follow those rules that are in his immediate interest. Everything that brings pleasure and feels good is good (Boyd & Bee 2014). The child might express concern for others but at the same time he tries to get benefits out of the situation. Agreements at this stage could be "I help you only if you help me". These moral thoughts are also accepted from other peers and mutual give-and-take peer relationships appear. The child develops more differentiated notions of fairness. However, during the middle childhood the child is at high risk of becoming a delinquent due to peer rejections and having delinquent friends or peers (Boyd & Bee 2014).

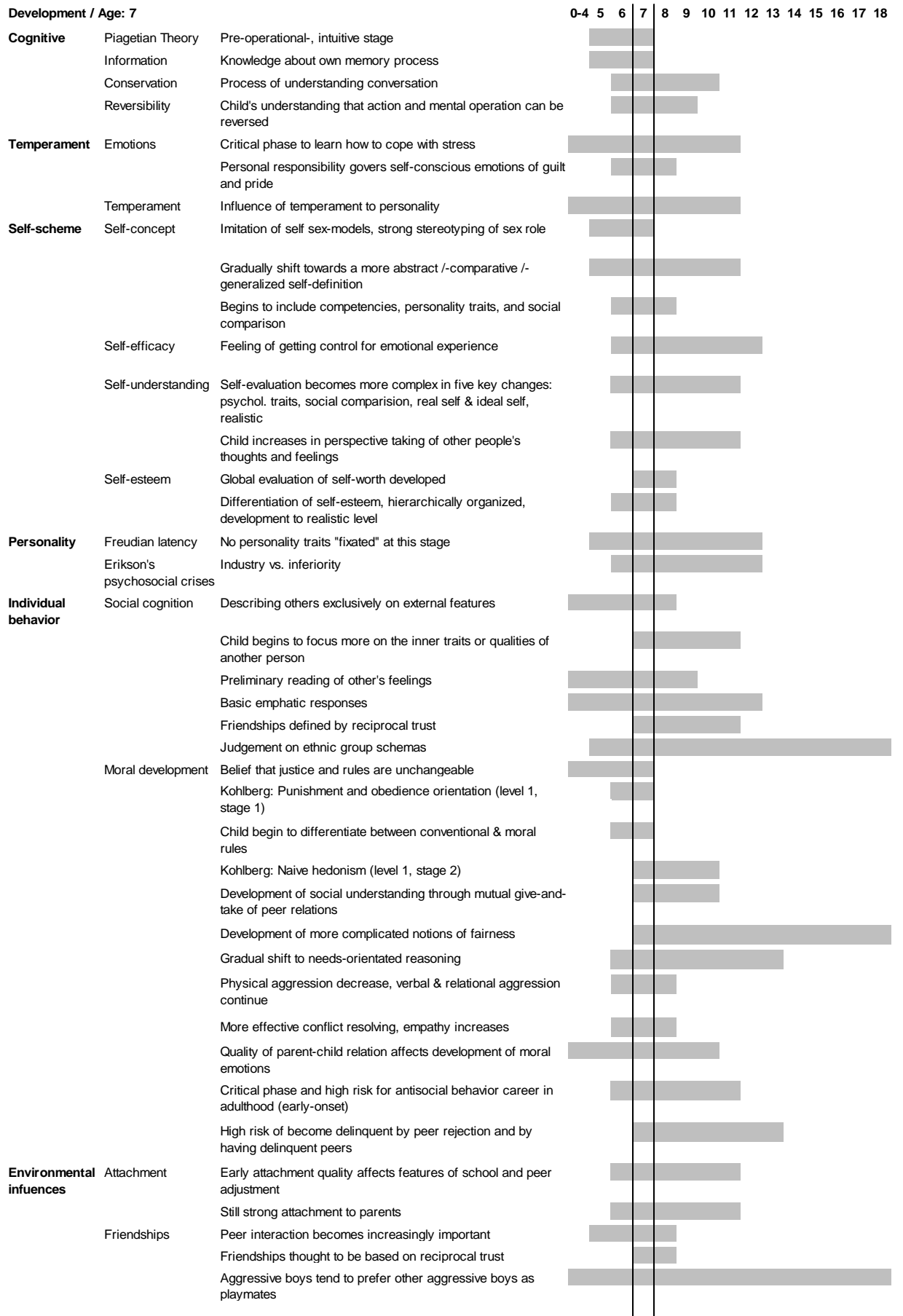


FIGURE 7. Development Processes Active during Age of 7

4.4 Concrete Operational Stage: Age 8

During the age of 8 many development processes which have started at the age of 6 or 7 still continue. The most important change during this age is the shift to a cognitive stage which Piaget called the *Concrete operational stage*. The child's thinking becomes logical and he begins to understand that objects can be ordered, classified, organized and to some extent also reversed (Boyd & Bee 2014).

The social cognition develops in the way the child recognizes that different individuals might have different points of views even they have all access to the same information (Sigelman & Rider 2012).

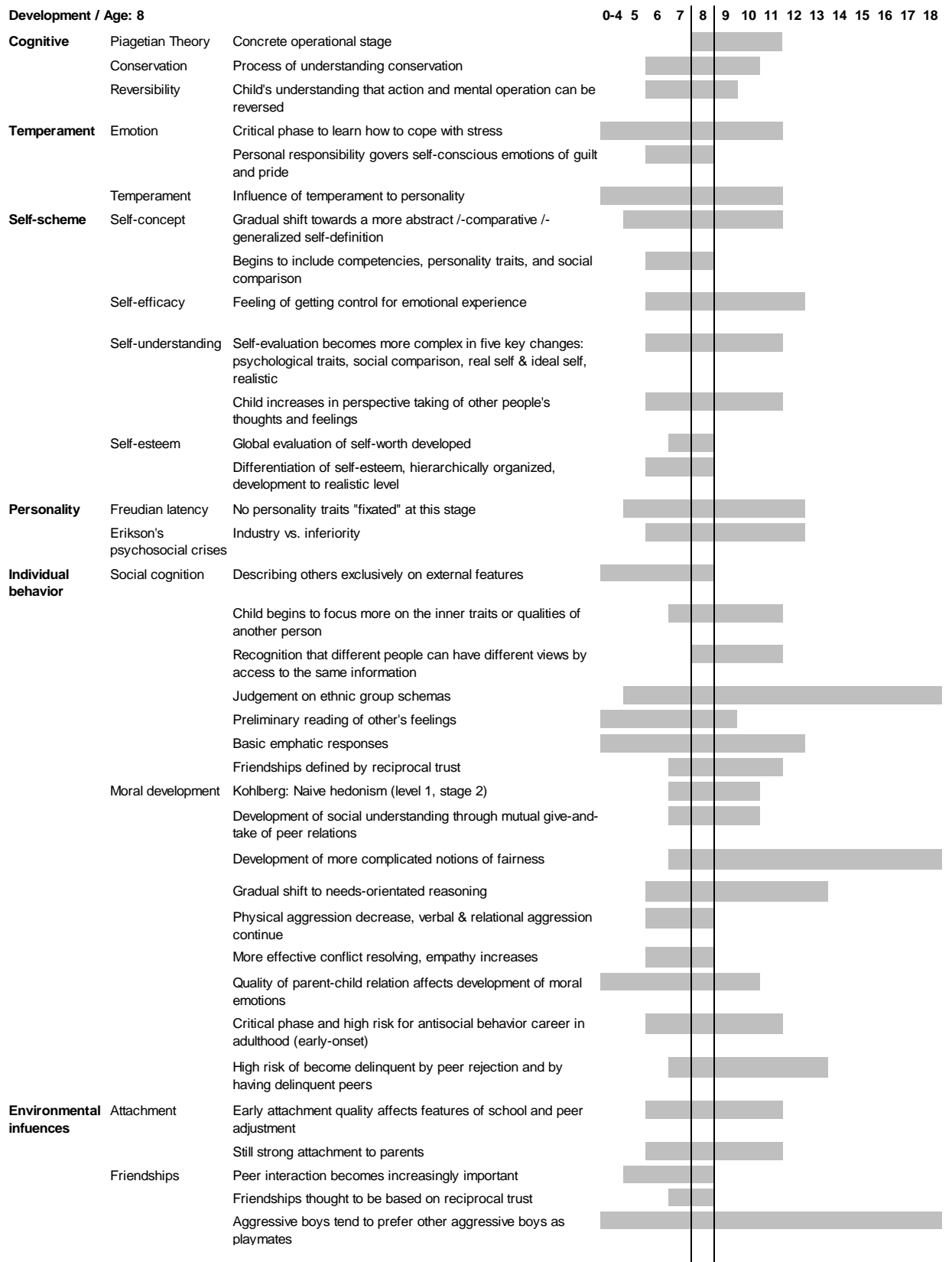


FIGURE 8. Development Processes Active during Age of 8

4.5 Change in Coping Strategy, Good Boy – Nice Girl, Peers: Age 9

By the age of 9 years the child becomes aware and begins to understand gender stereotyping. He realizes that the gender of a person is not an indication for the person's personality traits, behavior, and activities. In some years, by the end of the middle childhood, the child will understand that gender typing is rather a social influence than a biological factor. However, at this time the child is still intolerant especially when boys crossing of the gender line and playing with dolls or wearing girl's clothes (Boyd & Bee 2014; Berk 2014).

The self-esteem of the child tend to rise until the end of the middle childhood (Berk 2014). Children with high academic self-esteem and motivation are able to differentiate that success and failures are affected by effort, ability and external factors that can be controlled or changed (Heyman & Dweck 1998). Learned-helplessness children link their failure to their abilities and attribute their success to external factors such as luck. Ability seems to be fixed and cannot be mastered by trying hard (Chain & Dweck 1995).

The child gradually swifts from the naive hedonism moral reasoning to the so called "Good boy – nice girl" reasoning which is the third stage and the second level of Kohlberg's moral development. At this stage the child believes that moral actions are good behavior that pleases others and fulfills the expectations of the family and other important groups. The child does not follow rules only because they are in his immediate interest but because the rules become important to him. The child begins to value trust, respect, loyalty and thankfulness. Very often at this stage children take over the moral standards of their parents and seeking to be seen as a "good boy" or a "good girl" by their parents (Boyd & Bee 2014; Santrock 2014; Berk 2014).

The understanding about a link between moral rules and social convention appears. The child begins to interpret the association between those two concepts (Berk 2014). The child also starts to understand that he has individual rights such as choosing friends, leisure activities and hairstyle (Berk 2014). Further the child



FIGURE 9. Development Processes Active during Age of 9

considers and includes an individual's life situation and circumstances of another person when he responds empathy (Hoffman 2000).

The child's friendships becomes more based on trust (Hartup & Abecassis 2004) and peer groups arise.

4.6 Egocentrism, Empathy and Self-understanding: Age 10

From the age of 10 years first signs of adolescent egocentrism appear in children with problems of aggression, delinquency, and eating disorder or when they enter a new school. The child starts to focus on himself by excluding others. Physical appearance during the age of 10 to 14 years has more affect to self-esteem than during any other time in his life (Berger 2014).

By the age of 10 years most children manage their emotions by shifting between two coping strategies. If the *problem-centered* emotion strategy does not work the children try to control their distress internally and private (Kliewer, Fearnow & Miller 1996; Lazarus & Lazarus 1994). Emotional self-regulation and the feeling of being in control of emotional experiences are important skills for *emotion-centered* coping. A successful development of emotional self-regulation, especially before the age of 7, has a great affect to the emotional self-efficacy (Sroufe 1996). The child develops a sense that he is able to control his emotional experiences and gets an optimistic outlook that he will manage other challenging emotional situations. Children who get parental support during the emotion development have lower mood swings and are more empathic and prosocial (Santrock 2014). If the child experienced hostile and dismissive reactions from his parents or primary caregiver during distress he will get overwhelmed by his negative emotions which has effects on his prosocial behavior and empathy development (Berk 2014).



FIGURE 10. Development Processes Active during Age of 10

Regarding the development of self-understanding the child distinguishes five aspects for the definition of their self-worth: a) how smart and well he is doing in the school (scholastic competence), b) how popular he is within his peer group and how much he is feeling liked (social acceptance), c) how successfully he can stay out of trouble (behavior conduct), d) how good he is at sports (athletic competences) and e) how does he feel about his own good-looking (physical appearance) (Sigelman & Rider 2012).

The child begins to understand that people might hide their emotions and that they act differently from what they would do if they act according to their real feelings (Paul Harris et al. 1981; Boyd & Bee 2014).

From approximately the age of 10 years the child becomes aware that rules and laws are created by other people and he starts to consider his own intentions and the consequences when he is judging an action (autonomous morality) (Santrock 2014).

Between 10 to 12 years of age the child develops empathy for people living in unfortunate situations (Damon 1988). This might lead the child to behave altruistically and might form and influence his humanitarian and ideological view in adolescence (Santrock 2014).

4.7 Personality, Seek for Autonomy, Friendship and Peers: Age 11

Behavior problems in schools increase due to the increase of biological and psychological stress of puberty and the related slowdown of academic achievements (McCormick et al. 2010; Riglin et al. 2013). Egocentrism leads the child to interpret other behavior as a judgment on him (Berger 2014).

The child begins to unify his so far separately seen personality traits such as “curious” and “smart” into a more abstract definitions, for example into “intelligent”. However, this generalization of personality traits is still inconsistent. This inconsistency is a result of the child’s new social world where he begins to display

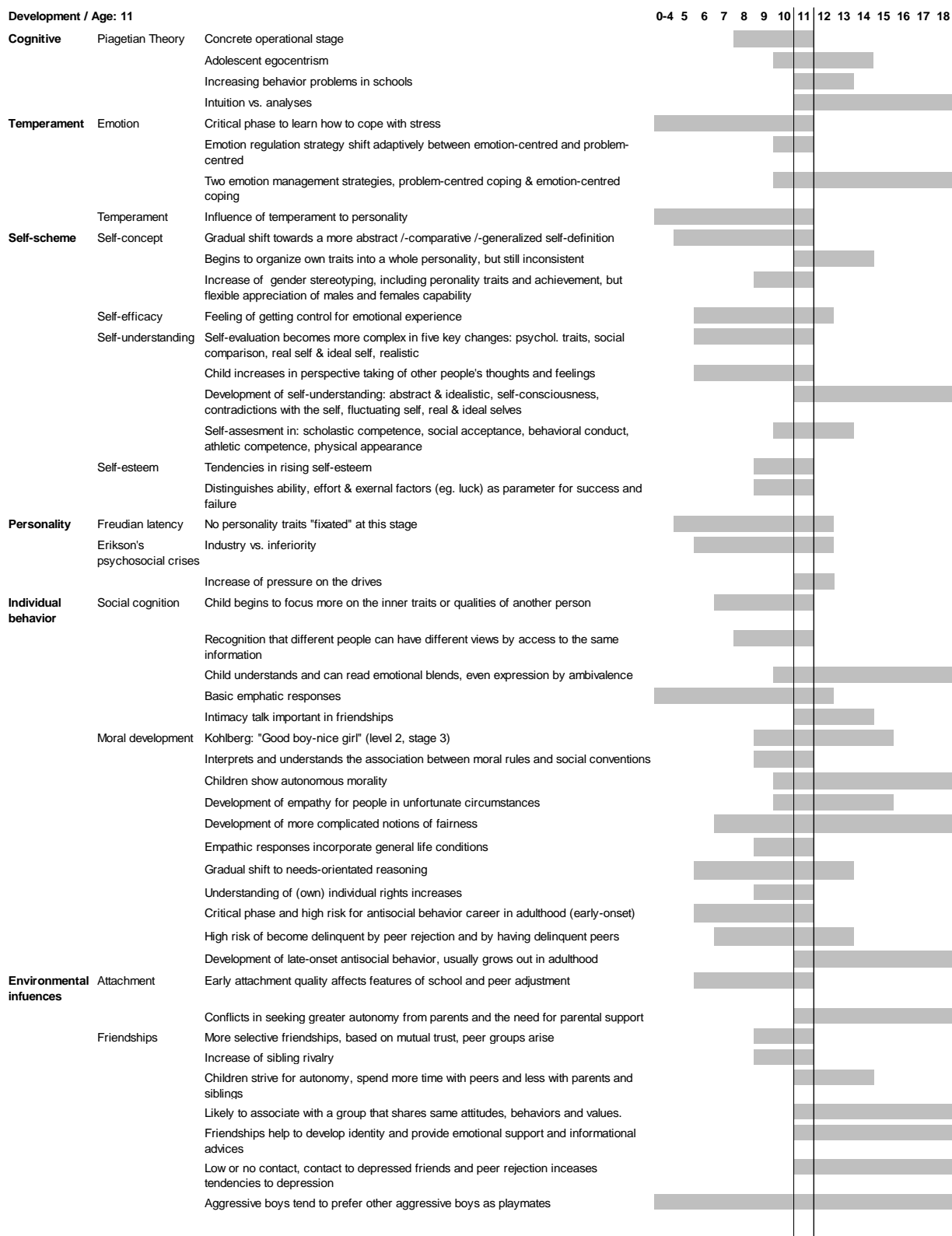


FIGURE 11. Development Processes Active during Age of 11

different selves in different relationships and situations. The child becomes aware of these inconsistencies and together with cognitive changes the child gradually combines his traits into an organized system (Berk 2014).

Intimate talks are becoming an important part in friendships (Hartup 2006).

In contrast to early development of antisocial behavior (early-onset) the antisocial behavior that starts at this age or later (late-onset) usually grows out in adulthood (Moffitt & Caspi, 2001; Odgers et al., 2008; Quinsey et al., 2004).

A conflict in seeking greater autonomy and at the same time still seeking for security and support by parents arises. Children with a secure attachment relationship to their parents have stronger sense of identity, higher self-esteem, better emotional control, and fewer behavior problems than less secure attached children (Allen 2008; Arbona & Power 2003; Kenny & Rice 1995).

As children strive for autonomy they begin to spend more time with peers and less time with parents and siblings (Boyd & Bee 2014). Like adults the child begins to associate with groups which members share the same attitudes, behaviors and values (Boyd & Bee 2014). Friendships help the child to develop an identity and to provide emotional support and informational advices (Sullivan 1953). Lack of close relationship with a best friend, only few or no contact with friends, contact only to depressed friends, or the experience of peer rejection increase the tendencies to get depression in adolescence (Brendgen & others, 2010; Schwartz-Mette & Rose, 2013).

4.8 Formal Operational Stage, Parent-Teen Conflicts: Age 12

By around the age of 12 the child reaches a new stage of cognitive development. He begins to reason in more abstract, logical and idealistic ways (Santrock 2014). According to Piagetian Theory the stage is called the "Formal operational stage".

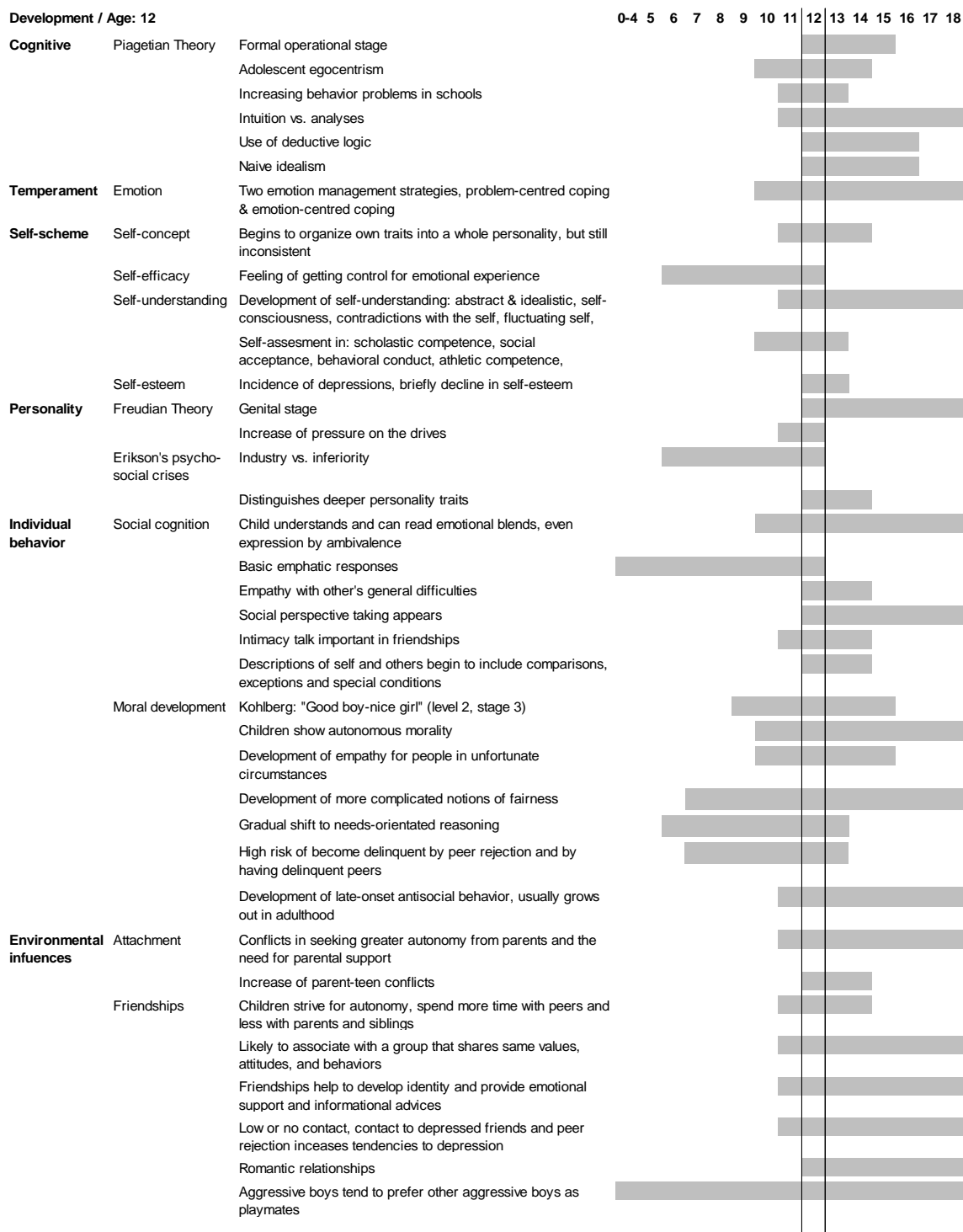


FIGURE 12. Development processes active during age of 12

Between 12 and 13 years of age the child experiences a decline in self-esteem (Boyd & Bee 2014).

According to Freudian Theory the *Genital stage* begins around this time, which is also called puberty. The change of hormones and the development of the genital organs reawake the sexual energy after a sort of resting period between 5 and 12 years of age. During this stage the child develops a mature form of sexuality (Boyd & Bee 2014).

Empathy shifts from basic response to the consideration of other people's general difficult circumstances (Boyd & Bee 2014). By reaching the formal operational stage in the cognitive development the child begins to recognize multiple social perspectives including other broader groups or the "generalized other". The child begins to consider how parents in general react if children are disobedient (Sigelman & Rider 2012). When describing others the child includes deeper personality traits and comparisons by consideration of exceptions and special conditions (Boyd & Bee 2014).

At the beginning of the adolescence the parent-child conflict approaches its peak (Boyd & Bee 2014). The form of attachment with his parents change because the child seeks for autonomy from his parents and at the same time he cannot lose his sense of relatedness with them. His strong demand for autonomy is usually the reason for increasing conflicts with his parents. However, even the temporarily increase of family conflicts the emotional attachment to his parents remains strong (Boyd & Bee 2014).

By the age 12 or 13 the child develops a representative understanding what being "in love" means (Boyd & Bee 2014).

4.9 Adolescence, Identity Development, Feeling of Shame: Age 13

After a brief decline the self-esteem rises during the remaining time of adolescence (Body & Bee 2015).

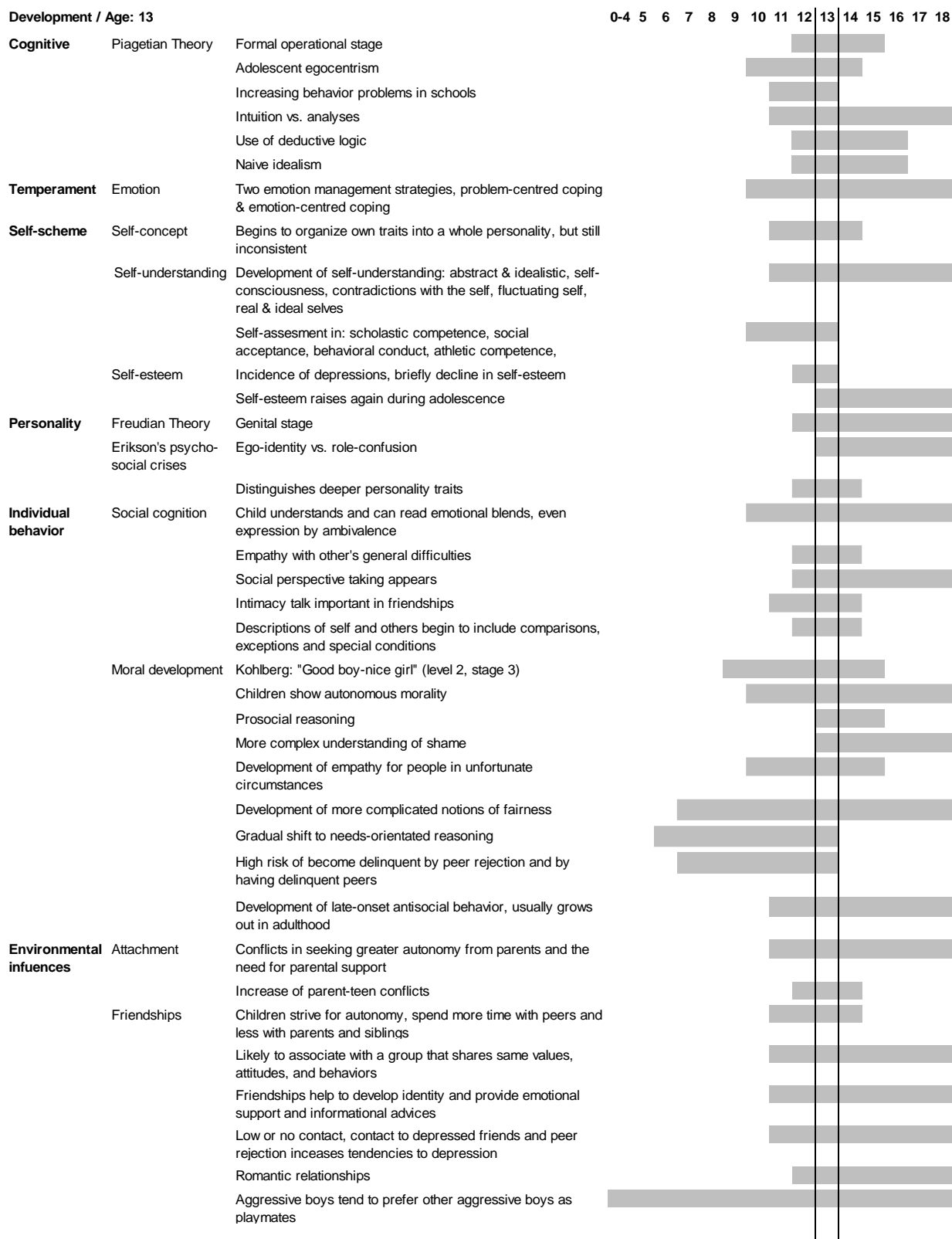


FIGURE 13. Development processes Active during Age of 13

According to Erikson the period between ages 13 to 18 is defined as a conflict of *Identity versus Role Confusion* (see TABLE 6, p. 38). Identity is the major personality target the child needs to achieve during this phase in order to become a content, satisfied and productive adult. Changes in his self-concept and self-esteem development support him to master this phase. Adolescents who developed clear values and goals and children who are exploring alternatives are following a psychologically healthy path. Whereas adolescents who committed to values and goals given by authority figures or romantic partners without exploring any alternatives, or adolescents who developed a diffuse-avoidant identity are at risk of developing anxieties such as fear of rejections. They often have difficulties with time management and academic achievements, are committed to antisocial behavior, to drug use and drug abuse, and often developing hopelessness (Berk 2014).

Usually during adolescence young people are committing to do good things. Some adolescents develop and internalize clear values that lead to prosocial behavior.

The feeling of shame shifts from moral wrongdoing where the child tries to hide something he knows it was wrong to a more complex understanding of shame by adolescents. The experience of shame is now connected with the failing to fulfill his own standards of behavior and when other people are affected by his own wrongdoing (Boyd & Bee 2014).

4.10 Lust and Pain, Rebellious, Narcissistic Defense: Age 14

Due to the gradual cognitive change the adolescent begins to organize his traits (self-concept) into a system (self-understanding). He begins to understand that psychological attributes can vary depending on the situation. For example a teen might become aware that he is communicative with friends who appreciate his comments as important and at the same time he might be very quiet within his

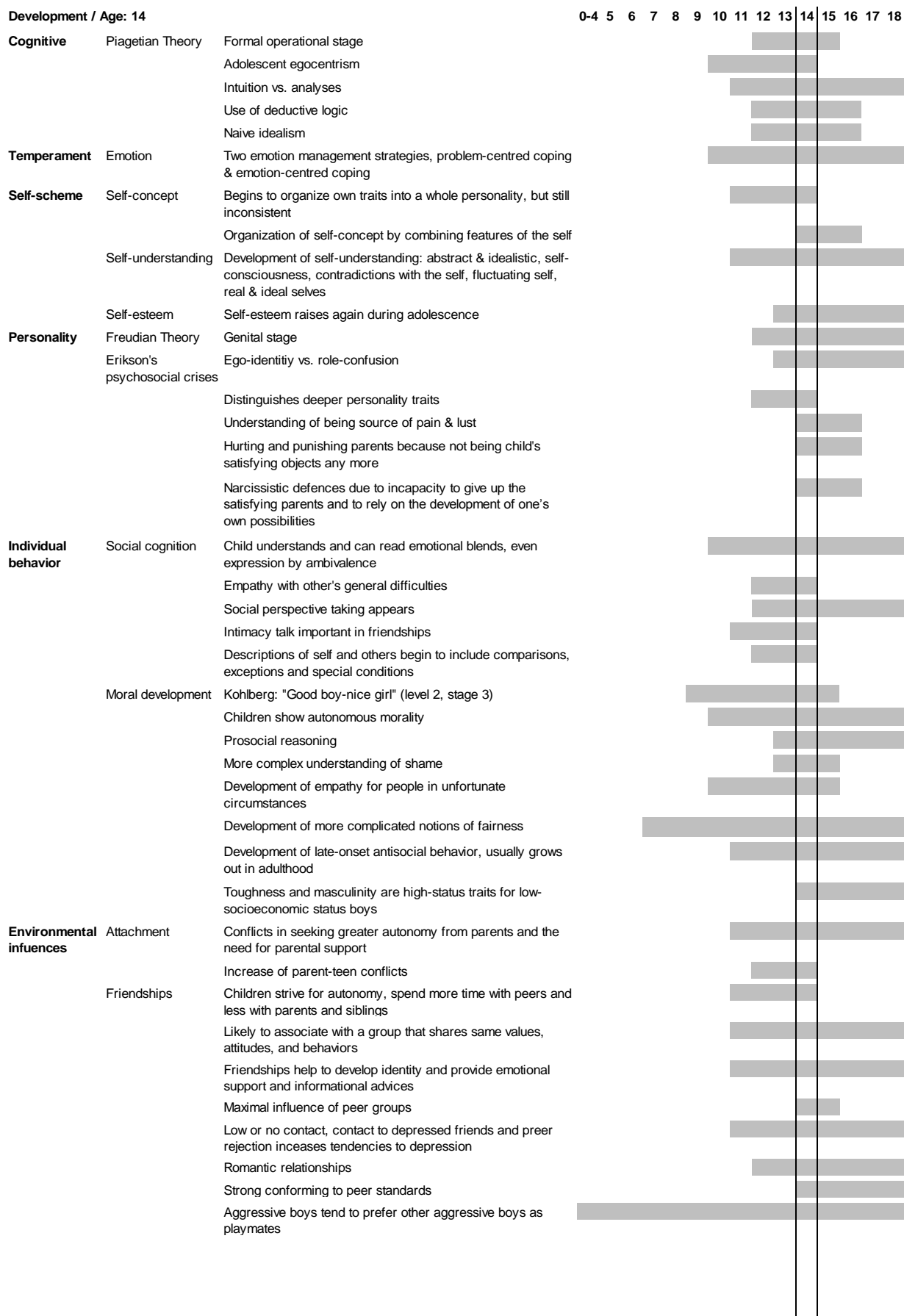


FIGURE 14. Development Processes Active during Age of 14

family or other peer groups who show less interest in his comments. Further social virtues such as friendliness, kindness, or cooperativeness become more important (Berg 2014).

Toughness and masculinity become high-status characteristics for low-socioeconomic status boys. By behaving antisocial adolescents may feel that they can gain status and attention (Santrock 2014).

The adolescent becomes aware that not only other persons are the source for his feeling of pain and lust but that he can also generate pain and lust in other persons and that he can be loved or hated for that (Elzer & Gerlach 2014).

But often adolescents punish and hurt their parents because they are not anymore their satisfying objects. Revenge and rebellious become visible. At the same time the adolescent becomes aware that he has limited capacities but it seems he is not able to cope with the disappointment with these limits. The incapability to rely on the development of his own capacities by giving up the parents as satisfying objects causes the characteristic narcissistic defense by adolescents (Elzer & Gerlach 2014).

Peer influence and peer conformity reach a maximum (Boyd & Bee 2014; Santrock 2014).

4.11 Importance of Social Order, Risk for Delinquency: Age 15

The adolescent begins to understand that even very close friends cannot fulfil every need. They become aware that because both, himself and his close friends are growing and changing and that friendships are not static. Only if both are able to adapt to changes of the others, the development of a really good friendships is possible (Boyd & Bee 2014).

The moral reasoning of the adolescent begins to change around the age of 15 years. Kohlberg defined the new stage as *Social System and Conscience* (stage

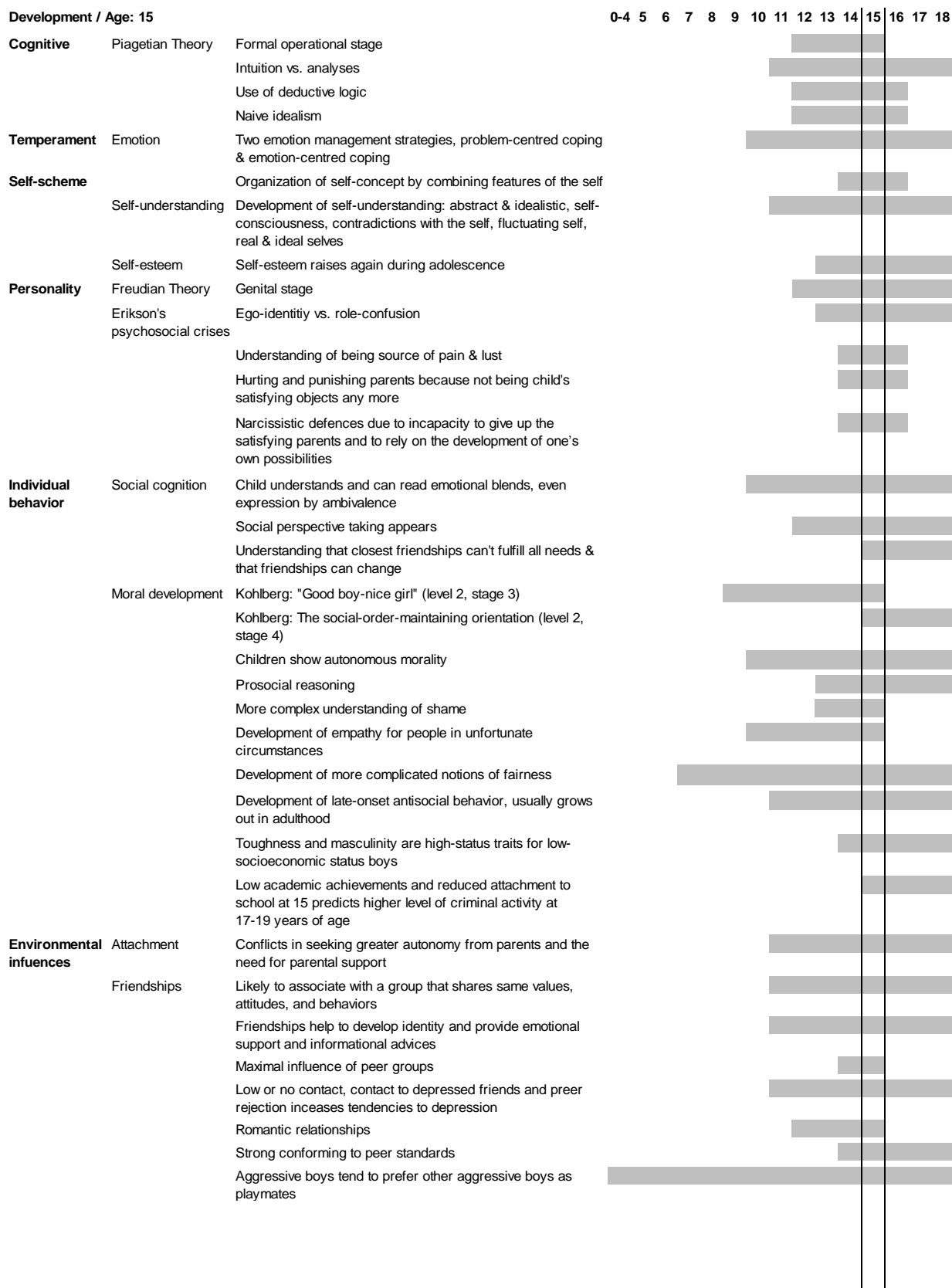


FIGURE 15. Development Processes Active during Age of 15

4). It means the adolescents turn to focus on larger social groups by following rules, respecting authorities and doing their duties. They transform their moral reasoning from just pleasing other people (see stage 3, in TABLE 8, p. 52) towards adapting social order, justice, law and duty in order to uphold societal order and cooperation between members of a society (Boyd & Bee 2014; Santrock 2014).

Problems with academic success at school at the age of 15 years are associated with criminal activities and delinquency at the ages 17 to 19 years (Savolainen & others, 2012).

4.12 Identity Confusion and Romantic Relationships: Age 16-18

During this phase competitive behavior and the wish to gain a profession become important. But identity crises, confusion and temporary anxiety are implication of the developmental changes during this phase. Risks of accident, commitment to suicide and delinquency increase (Elzer & Gerlach 2014). According to Adatto (1991, in Elzer & Gerlach 2014, 56-57) an indefinite feeling of depression and emptiness is a characteristic for the late adolescence. Adolescents also try to cope difficult or emotional situation by intellectualizing which is a defense method where the person isolates instinctual wishes from feelings and substitute the wishes with ideas from a higher rational levels (Zepf 2011). The person somehow substitute an uncomfortable feeling by focusing on logic and facts.

Moral reasoning develops to a more advanced level (Berk 2014).

The adolescent seeks for intimacy and long lasting romantic relationships. Early attachment bonds with parents during infancy and childhood predicts the quality of the relationship (Berk 2014).

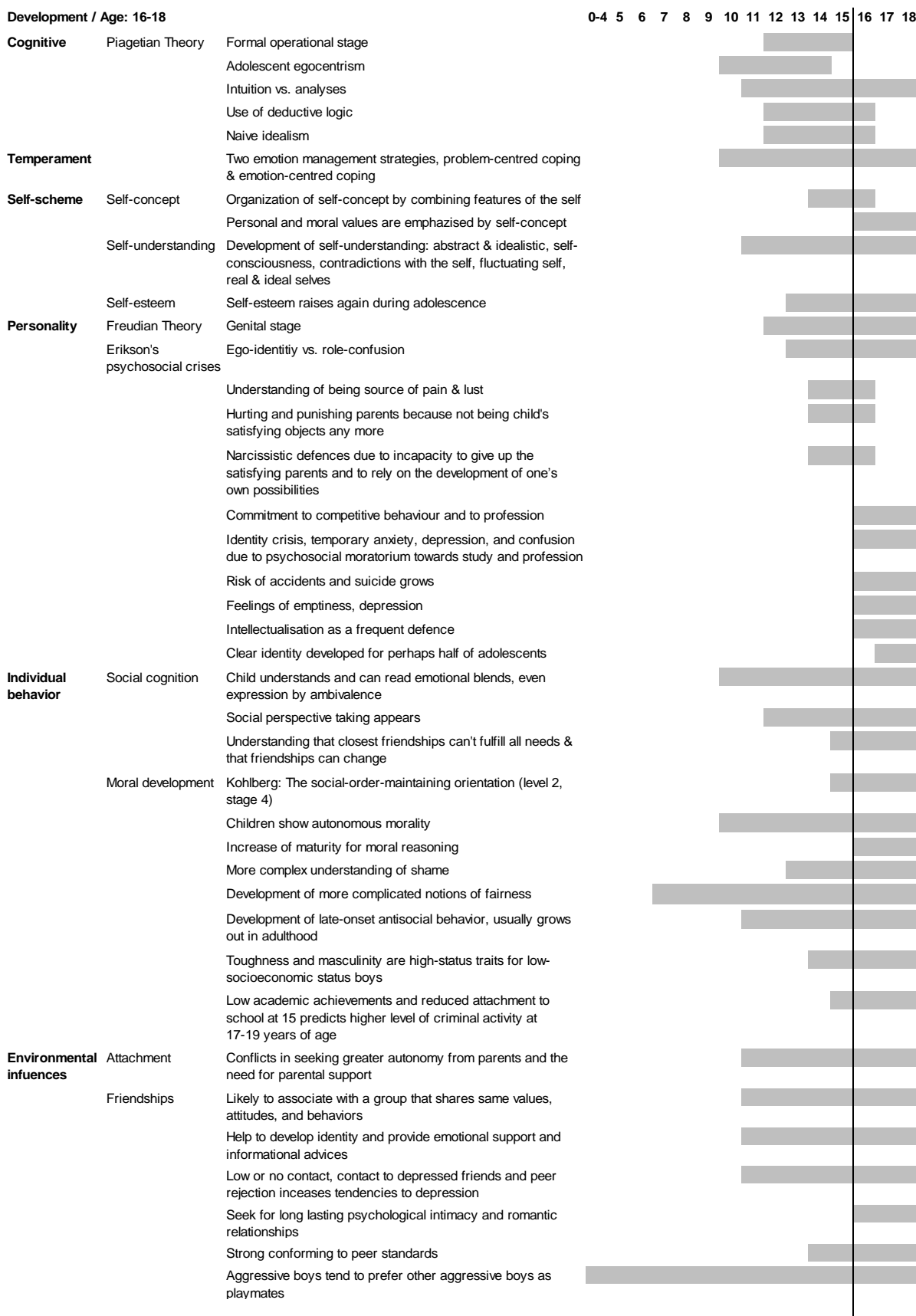


FIGURE 16. Development Processes Active during 16 to 18 Years of Age

5 PRODUCT DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

This work is a development-oriented, or also a so called functional thesis. This chapter outlines the processes and methods used for the development of the product. It describes the idea and the objectives for the product, how the requirements have been defined and how the product has been developed. The important process of the data collection and the invented methodology for this process will be described in more details as the reliability of the information is associated with this process step. Further the chapter will describe the testing of the usability of the product and evaluates the product for practical use by Icehearts' professionals.

5.1 Product Requirements

Icehearts ry works together with the Diaconia University of Applied Sciences (UAS) in Helsinki on the definition and evaluation of their working model. For the evaluation process a description of the psychosocial development of children and adolescents is needed in order to evaluate aspects and mechanisms which cause impact on Icehearts' working model.

As part of the thesis development process which includes the thesis idea and the thesis proposal approval by the Diaconia UAS, the author of this thesis agreed after several discussion rounds together with the Icehearts' management and the thesis supervisor from Diaconia UAS that the purpose of the thesis is to describe the main psychosocial development aspects during the middle childhood and the early adolescence (6-18 years of age). The evaluation of already existing similar tools or literatures was included in this process. During a three month literature pre-review and third party product evaluation phase a similar product could not be found on the free market.

Based on an adapted literature review the thesis aims to summarize the personality development as well as the individual differences in the personality development (traits, temperament, self-concept – expectations for others and himself including self-efficacy) and the social behavior aspects during the development phases. The social aspect of the psychosocial development encompasses researches on the behavior development in social relationships with parents, teachers, children's peer groups, and other significant adults. Related theories and concepts such as attachment, social-cognitive development, moral development, variations in relationships, pro and antisocial behavior, group dynamics, and aggression will be elaborated.

The objectives of the thesis are:

The definition of the main psychosocial development "stages" by application of the adapted literature review method and by organization and categorization of the information in order to structure the thesis in a manner that it can be used as an age-based handbook for professionals working with children and adolescents or other interested persons (for example parents or teachers) and as a basis for the examination of contemporary questions related to Icehearts' working model:

- Early prevention work: Why is it easier to build up preventative relationship with younger boys? What are the conditions for a trustful relationship with boys in terms of psychosocial development? How does the preventative work affect the psychosocial development of boys? What are the most beneficial development stages to start preventative work and a trustful relationship with boys?
- Long lasting support: What are the influences on boy's psycho-social development from long-term support method used by Icehearts (same educator supports same group of boys for ~ 12 years)?

- Sudden abort of long lasting support: What are the influences and the risks on boy's psychosocial development if a long-term relationship with educators is breaking off?

5.2 Design and Construction

During the planning phase of the thesis it became clear that a heavy amount of information and data have to be processed. Because of the wide range of the subject a decision had to be made how the data will be collected and stored that further analyses are possible. The most obvious tool seemed to be a kind of electronic database where huge amount of data can be stored and which allows flexible sort, filter and search functionalities. The electronic tool which manages the database should have a wide extension of commercial usage so that the database can be easily implemented and used by any person who is interested in the subject. The Microsoft Office tools Word, Excel and Access have been shortlisted for prototyping. It turned out that the tool Word was not flexible enough to restructure data on demand. The office tool Access is a data management tool but tailored programming (coding) was needed for some functionalities and for a proper usability. The office tool Excel is a calculation tool with database function and the usability requires some training for users. But it has flexible structuring, filter and search functions and the database can be build up without the need of programming. After the weighting of advantages and disadvantages Excel became the tool of choice. Flexible data analyzing functions and easy maintainability prevailed over the disadvantages of the usability.

After the information storage tool had been choose the design of the thesis had to be decided. The following preconditions have been evaluated in order to guarantee an easy access to data of interest. As already mentioned the chosen database tool has strong structuring, filter and search functions which are an advantage for the accessibility to many detailed information but it has the disadvantages in terms of readability and availability. It became obvious that a combination of easy access to detailed information and easy access to summarized or

condensed information is needed in order to approach the subject from different point of views.

One clear advantage of the *Psychosocial Development Information Database* (in the further texts of this chapter called *Information Database*) is that the information can be used for further research on questions about psychosocial development of children and adolescents. For example for thesis researches which examine the effects of psychosocial development on delinquents and prisoners; or the influencing of parenting and family situations on the development of children. Other research origins could be the psychosocial development on peer group relationships. The data in the storage tool are detailed enough to be used for different research questions.

On the other side it seems necessary to use another medium to outline the scope of the content of the *Information Database* and to describe the *Interactive Model of Personality* which underlies the product of the thesis. Therefore it has been decided to build up the thesis product based on two media, the *Information Database* and the *Educator Handbook* as part of the thesis report. A user manual for the database with more detailed information about the functions of the tool has been attached to the appendices.

The chapters two, three and four of this thesis report include the information for the *Educator Handbook*. The chapter two describes the *Interactive Model of Personality*. The user of the thesis product should get information about the underlying model of the thesis product. With the description of the model the user is able to understand and find links between the domain development processes. The model is consequently implemented in the structure of the *Educator Handbook* and in the data structure of the *Information Database*. The user of the database has the opportunity to filter the data for a particular development domain or theme of the model.

In the chapter three of this thesis all development domains and themes that are in the scope of the product and which are included in the *Interactive Model of*

Personality are outlined and summarized. The domains are a) Cognitive development, b) Instinct, reflexes, emotions and temperament, c) Self-scheme, d) Personality and individual behavior, and e) Environmental influences. Those development domains and themes are described in such a way that the user of the *Educator Handbook* and the user of the *Information Database* has the opportunity to get an overview about the domain and themes definition, its underlying theories and/or the current state of research.

The chapter four of this thesis gives the reader of the *Educator Handbook* and the user of the *Information Database* an overview about the most important development processes per year of age, starting with a combined outline of the development processes from the age 0 to 5 years of age. From age 6 to 15 each sub-chapter describes the development processes that started at that certain year of age. The years 16 to 18 are again combined because the amount of development processes that started during this phase were limited.

As already defined in the introduction of chapter four the development processes are filtered out of the *Information Database* and can be reproduced any time. The user manual for the database describes the technical process how to filter out the data.

The decision on what data are to be stored to the *Information Database* and what development processes are to be outlined in *Educator Handbook* has been made based on my knowledge and experiences I gained during my studies in social services, my experiences in different work placements in kindergartens and schools, my voluntary work with children and adolescents and particularly from my thesis work placement with several Icehearts' age groups in different cities in Finland. The methods which are used for the data collecting are described in the next subchapter.

5.3 Information Acquisition

This subchapter describes the process of information seeking, data collection, and data analyses. It outlines the strategy and methods for information seeking from existing literature, the utilization of in- and exclusion criteria, the structuring of information to datasets and the underlying requirements for the data analyses. The aim of this chapter is to make the process transparent in order to evaluate the liability and subjectivity of the data.

Even though this thesis does not include qualitative or quantitative research it has utilized some aspects of a research process. According to Glenn (2010) a scientific research process includes the steps of a) topic formation, b) hypothesis, c) conceptual definitions, d) operational definitions, e) data acquisition, f) data analyses, g) test and revision of hypothesis and h) conclusion.

Sridhar (2015) describes the research process as including the steps of a) selecting and formulating of the research problem, b) literature review, c) definition of the hypotheses, d) design of the research, e) strategy for sampling and experiments, f) prototyping of the study (quick & dirty), g) collection of the data, h) processing of the research and data analyses, i) testing of the hypotheses, j) interpretation of the results and generalization, and k) report writing.

As the underlying idea for the product was a handbook for educators, a literature review was one of three central processes used for the development. The first process phase describes the gathering of the literature for the thesis. The second process phase engaged with the seeking, the structuring and the formatting of information from the gathered literature for later usability. The third process phase included the analyzing of the structured and formatted information. All three processes are covered by an adapted literature review method which will be described next.

Based on the article *Qualitative Analysis Techniques for the Review of the Literature* by Onwuegbuzie, Leech and Collins (2012), the literature review and the

analysis process as the source of information for this thesis product might be defined as a combination of various data analyses techniques. The TABLE 13 includes those analysis techniques which are adapted for the literature review of the thesis product.

TABLE 13. Possible Qualitative Analyses for Research Synthesis (Leech & Onwuegbuzie 2008, cited in Onwuegbuzie, Leech and Collins 2012, 12)

POSSIBLE QUALITATIVE ANALYSES FOR RESEARCH SYNTHESSES	
Type of Analyses	Short Description of Analysis
Keyword-in-context	Identifying keywords and utilizing the surrounding words to understand the underlying meaning of the keyword in a source or across sources.
Taxonomic analysis	Creating a classification system that categorizes the domains in a pictorial representation (e.g., flowchart) to help the literature reviewer understand the relationships among the domains.
Theme analysis	Involves a search for relationships among domains, as well as a search for how these relationships are linked to the overall cultural context.
Constant comparison analysis	Systematically reducing source(s) to codes inductively, then developing themes from the codes. These themes may become headings and subheadings in the literature review section.
Secondary data analysis	Analyzing pre-existing sources or artifacts.
Membership categorization analysis	Examining how authors/researchers communicate research terms, concepts, findings, and categories in their works.

In the first process phase of the adapted literature review the *keyword-in-context analysis* has been used for the gathering of literature (incl. articles and other theses). Keywords such as *child development*, *adolescent development*, *psychological development*, *social development*, *psychosocial development*, *life-span development*, *development stages* have been used for the literature search process. In the next step of this process phase the contexts of the keywords have been analyzed. Literatures with low level of linkage to the thesis subject have been sorted out.

The second process phase was engaged with the identification of domains for psychosocial development from the selected literature base by applying the *taxonomic analyses method* and the *theme analyses method*. A classification system for domains has been created by applying the *taxonomic analysis method* in order to analyze and identify those domains which are important for the product development. The *theme analyses method* has been used for the search of relationships between the chosen domains. Based on the results of the two analyses methods the framework model has been selected which virtualizes the most important relationships between the domains. The model is described in chapter two. The model describes the basic framework for the information structuring process.

During the third process phase information from several literature sources have similar to the *constant comparison analysis method* been analyzed and coded based on the belonging to certain domains. Relevant information have been transferred to the *Information Database* and categorized according to the classified domains which are virtualized in the framework model. Similar information from different sources have been compared in the *Information Database* which functions allowed to sort data based on the domain code. If a new information was complementary to the existing information, it have been added to the particular domain. In the case of contradictory or inconsistent information, all information allocated to a particular domain have been re-evaluated and replaced if evidence revealed that the new information is more reliable.

The cornerstone of the information base were textbooks which have been reviewed and selected according to the adapted review methods described above. These text books have been used as a kind of baselines for the information acquisition by applying the *secondary data analysis method*. Every new information has permanently been compared with information from the textbooks in order to ensure that the new information is reliable and up-to-date.

A *membership categorization analysis* helped to identify different schools of thoughts. This method was important to ensure that a wider scope of scientific

information is utilized for the product development. The adapted literature review of the text books also revealed that same information have been allocated to different domains. The comparison of that information with other text books, studies and articles helped to clarify any inconsistencies.

The adapted literature review discovered that up-to-date text books are good sources to cover a broad range of latest scientific knowledge whose reliability is ensured by references to corresponding research results. However, it relies on the reader to verify the reliability and subjectivity of the information. The described review and analysis methods have been proven as applicable for this thesis.

Based on the framework model (see chapter two), the literature review process led to the clustering of information around psychosocial development domains and to the development of structures for all domains. The results of the process are implemented into the *Psychosocial Development Information Database*. The FIGURE 2 in chapter two shows the domains developed from the literature review and its structure beneath.

The functions of the *Information Database* enable the user to search for information in domains and the framework model helps the user to navigate through the information. The user manual for the database has been attached to the appendices.

5.4 Product Evaluation and Ethics

The thesis product consists of two parts, the *Educator Handbook* and the *Psychosocial Development Information Database (Information database)*. The handbook is integrated into the thesis report (chapters two to four) and the database is build up into an excel file. The methods used for the product data acquisition were described earlier in this chapter. The process of the data selection for the handbook is retraceable with the help of the user manual of the database. A

model which is called as the *Interactive Model of Personality* helps the user of the handbook and the database to navigate through the data.

A user who is interested in information about the psychosocial development stage of a child or adolescent has the possibility to get an overview about the development processes which begin or are still active in a certain year of age from the handbook in the thesis report (chapter four). With the functions of the database the user can find more detailed information about a particular development process or about a development domain where the active processes are included. The consequent referencing of information in the database enables the user to find more research and study material about a single development process or a wider development domain.

Regarding the usability of the handbook and the database some critical reflections are necessary. As already mentioned above the Microsoft Excel tool as the host for the database has some disadvantages concerning the display of long texts. The user has to adjust the text field for reading. Further the customizing of the text font and the text structure for a better readability is limited. For the user of the handbook it might be confusing that the handbook is integrated into the thesis report. The combination of thesis report, handbook and database could be a disadvantage for the usability of the product. A possible solution could be to extract the handbook out of the thesis report and to combine it with the database user manual for practical usage.

Three ethical aspects have to be considered for the use of this product. In the very early phase of the product planning it became clear that the results of the product will be (and are) based on theoretical knowledge without the use of quantitative or qualitative research. Even though for the product development no children or educators have explicitly been interviewed or observed, the result of the product affects the life of many children and adolescents by applying or not applying the information of the products for the child's and adolescent's education and caregiving. Careful interpretation of the information is mandatory for the use

of the product. The user of the information has to consider further that the information in the products is not static and that each child and adolescent has his own pace and his own way of developing skills and traits. Second, the author's intention was that all children and adolescents should get the chance to benefit from the development of these products. Therefore it would be desirable that the product and its information would be supplied and actively used by any educators or caregivers who are working with children and adolescents. And third, from begin of the product development the reliability of the date and information got the highest priority. The information acquisition process is described in this chapter. However, it should be clear for the reader that new studies, researchers and theories always have to be considered when deciding about measurements for children and adolescents.

6 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter includes a critical discussion and reflection on the thesis results. The main objective for the thesis products was the elaboration of the typical psychosocial development processes during middle childhood and adolescence (years 6 – 18 of age). The data acquired for the products should have been organized and structured in such a way that the Icehearts' educators have the possibility to identify the most important development processes for a particular age.

The thesis should focus on typical development processes because those have to be understood in order to recognize atypical growth in its early form. Critical development processes which are influencing atypical growth such as emotional learning problems, low self-esteem, internalizing and externalizing problems, antisocial behavior problems, or attachment problems have been outlined if internal development factors have a major share in the development. External influence factors such as family, school, or peers ought to be examined in separate researches in order to evaluate aspects and mechanism that cause impact to Icehearts' working model.

The products should also support a later examination of three for Icehearts' important aspects: a) Early prevention work: Why is it easier to build up preventative relationship with younger boys? What are the conditions for a trustful relationship with boys in terms of psychosocial development? How does the preventative work affect the psychosocial development of boys? What are the most beneficial development stages to start preventative work and a trustful relationship with boys? b) Long lasting support: What are the influences on boy's psycho-social development from long-term support method used by Icehearts (same educator supports same group of boys for ~ 12 years) and c) Sudden abort of long lasting support, what are the influences and the risks on boy's psychosocial development if a long-term relationship with educators is breaking off?

The thesis consists of two complementary products. A handbook integrated into the thesis report gives the reader an overview about the most important theories in psychosocial development and an insight into the most important development processes per year of age. The second part of product called the *Psychosocial Development Information Database* gives the opportunity to find more theoretical information related to any development process outlined in the handbook. The information in the database are acquired and selected according to scientific methods. All information in the handbook are traceable within the database. Therefore it can be assumed that the thesis product is a reliable source of information.

Bearing in mind the intended purpose of a bachelor thesis the biggest challenge for this work was to find a language which meets the requirements of a scientific work and which would also condense information to a level of compression that supports the daily work of professionals and non-professionals who are in charge of children's and adolescents' education. As mentioned earlier the thesis should be a basis for further evaluation of aspects and mechanism that cause impact to Icehearts' working model and therefore the sources of information are essential in order to enable any reader to evaluate and to prove the reliability and the validity of information in the handbook and in the database. Another aspect which is as same as important is that the thesis product might be used as a core element for an internal training and support system for Icehearts' educators. A central support based on the thesis product could consult Iceheart's educators in specific questions of the psychosocial development. And training material for different aspects of psychosocial development might be created based on the information and its sources in the thesis products.

Another aspect related to the objectives of this thesis and the general scope of a bachelor thesis is Icehearts' need for the elaboration of three important questions which have already been mentioned: a) Early prevention work, b) Long lasting support and c) Sudden abort of long lasting support. During the thesis proposal phase it became clear that the thesis products development and the elaboration of the three questions would exceed the scope of a bachelor thesis. An evaluation

of priorities during the thesis proposal phase revealed that for a scientific elaboration of the three questions the same knowledge basis would be needed as for the elaboration of aspects and mechanism that cause impact on Icehearts' working model. Therefore the focus of the thesis lies on the psychosocial development of children and adolescents. However, those three questions have always been considered during the information acquisition and data selection as described in chapter five. This thesis product is applicable to answer principal and methodical questions related to children's and adolescent's psychosocial development even without having to conduct a further research.

Based on the information collected and processed for this thesis and based on the information about Icehearts' current working model gathered during a close cooperation it can be recommended to conduct further investigations into some development domains and areas which might be critical for working with children in this working model. During the middle childhood support work should focus more on the development of social and emotional learning include emotional and interactional skills in combination with moral development as a measure to prevent later poor peer relationships and antisocial behavior. A special focus on *effortful control* might support children in experiencing academic success. Attachment behaviors of children, especially toward their mothers could be the focus of children and family support. Getting a better understanding of children's temperamental traits for parents, caregivers and educators and the introduction of the concept of *goodness-to-fit* might be beneficial for a healthy psychosocial development of children. Another important development dimension during middle childhood is the development of the self-scheme. Parents, caregiver and educators should support children in developing healthy self-efficacy and self-esteem. Special attention should be given to the development of anti-social behavior which started before the age of 11 years (early-onset) because of possible disastrous consequences for the later life stages of the children. Preventive measures are recommended.

During the years of adolescence children might need help and support with changes in the relationships with their parents and building up healthy peer- and

friendship relationships. Support for building up and stabilization of the children's self-esteem including academic success and help in the development of their personally and sexually identity seems to be essential at this life stage. During late adolescence the children might need support in finding a profession and new values as important aspects of the development of their identity.

These thesis products should be used as one component of a training platform which still have to be build up as a support tool for Icehearts' educators and as a steering mechanism for Icehearts' work model.

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APPENDICES

User Manual for the Information Database

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User Guide*

User Manual for Information Database

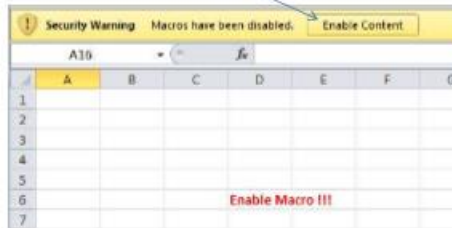


1. Add password and click "OK"!



2. Click "Read Only"!

3. Click "Enable Content" if the Security Warning pops up.



User Manual for Information Database

	A	B	C	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	
1	Age	6	7	Development Area	Interactive Model of Personality	Key concepts/ dimensions	Stage/theme Level 1	Stage/theme Level 2	Stage/theme Level 3	Theorist	Theory / Description
2	From Age	Until Age									

2. This data table is using an automatic filter function. With a filter you can select data for your special interest out of the entire data amount.

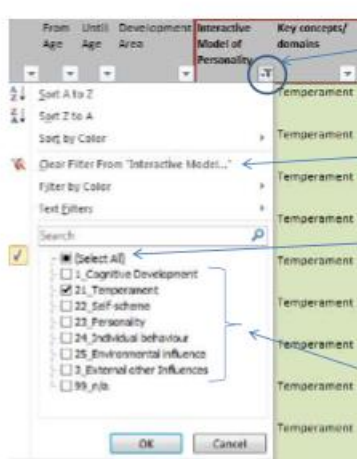
The filter function is enabled for all table headers. However, it is recommended to use only the filter for those headers with a bold font (headers inside the red frame).

Click the arrow in the table header to choose a filter for a header.

1. Here you see the table headers (row) with short information about the content you will find below a header (column), e.g. the key concept or the description of a certain concept or theme.

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User Guide*

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1. The arrow button has now changed. This is an information for you that a filter is ACTIVE for this table header.

4. Here you can clear a filter and excel will show all data again.

2. "Select All": You can use this check box to deselect all from the list and then choose the information you are interested in.

3. From the list you can select the data you are interested in.

3

User Manual for Information Database

1. Here you see an example with 2 (!) active filters.

First select "22_Self-scheme" from the header "Interactive Model of Personality"-filter.

Development Area	Interactive Model of Personality	Key concepts/ dimensions	Stage/theme Level 1	Stage/theme Level 2
22_Self/Personality	22_Self-scheme	Self-Esteem		
226 22_Self/Personality	22_Self-scheme	Self-Esteem	Definition	
227 22_Self/Personality	22_Self-scheme	Self-Esteem	Foundation of self-esteem	
228 22_Self/Personality	22_Self-scheme	Self-Esteem	Development of Self-esteem	
229 22_Self/Personality	22_Self-scheme	Self-Esteem	Development of Self-esteem	
230 22_Self/Personality	22_Self-scheme	Self-Esteem	Development of Self-esteem	
231 22_Self/Personality	22_Self-scheme	Self-Esteem	Development of Self-esteem	Maladaptation

2. Then select "Self-Esteem" from the "Key concepts/ dimensions".

3. It is important to understand that the sequence of setting the filter does matter. The data in the second filter is always a subset of data from the first filter.

4

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a)

1	Key concepts/ domains	Stage/theme Level 1	Stage/theme Level 2	Stage/theme Level 3	Theorist	Theory/ Description 1	Description 2
22_Self-scheme	Self-Esteem	Definition					Sometimes the terms self-esteem and self-concept are use interchangeably, or they are not precisely defined (Harter, 2006, 2012). Here we use self-esteem to refer to a person's self-worth or self-image, a global evaluation of the self. For example, a child might perceive that she is not merely a person but a good person. (To evaluate your self-esteem, see Figure 11.2.) We use the term self-concept to refer to domain-specific evaluations of the self. Children can make self-evaluations in many domains of their lives - academic, athletic, physical appearance, and so on. In sum, self-esteem refers to global self-evaluations, self-concept to more domain-specific evaluations. Having high self-esteem and a positive self-concept are important aspects of children's well-being (Blaugwenster, 2013; Campbell 2012).
22_Self-scheme	Self-esteem	Foundation of self-esteem					Sometimes the terms self-esteem and self-concept are use interchangeably, or they are not precisely defined (Harter, 2006, 2012). Here we use self-esteem to refer to a person's self-worth or self-image, a global evaluation of the self. For example, a child might perceive that she is not merely a person but a good person. (To evaluate your self-esteem, see Figure 11.2.) We use the term self-concept to refer to domain-specific evaluations of the self. Children can make self-evaluations in many domains of their lives - academic, athletic, physical appearance, and so on. In sum, self-esteem refers to global self-evaluations, self-concept to more domain-specific evaluations. Having high self-esteem and a positive self-concept are important aspects of children's well-being (Blaugwenster, 2013; Campbell 2012).

In order to see and read the full text in a table cell:

Select and click the cell of your interest, move the mouse pointer over the thin line (a) until you see a double arrow, click on the thin line and move the pointer up or down.

5

User Manual for Information Database

1	Theory/ Description 1	Description 2	Study/ Origin - primary	Study/ Back - secondary
2	Attachment theory was formulated by British psychiatrist John Bowlby (1905, 1977, 1980, 1986), and it was elaborated on by his colleague Mary Ainsworth, an American developmental psychologist. Two major theories influenced Bowlby as he struggled to make sense of his observations of the evacuated English children. The first was classic psychoanalytic theory as presented by Freud which Ainsworth's most important contribution to attachment theory was	An attachment is a type of affectional bond in which a person's sense of security is bound up in the relationship. When you are attached, you feel (or hope to feel) a special sense of security and comfort in the presence of the other, and you can use the other as a safe base from which to explore the rest of the world. In these terms, the child's relationship with the parent is an attachment, but the parent's relationship with the child is an affectional bond rather than a true attachment, since the parent does not use the infant as a safe base. A relationship with one's adult partner or with a very close friend, however, is an attachment in the sense Ainsworth and Bowlby meant the term. There is a certain kind of security that an adult draws from being in such a relationship, knowing that one can rely on the acceptance and support of a romantic partner or a close friend no	(Bowlby 1905, 1977, 1980, 1986) (Ainsworth 1980; Ainsworth et al. 1976)	(Sigelman & Rider 2012, 401) (Boyd & Bee 2014, 113) (Wilkinson & Martal 1996, 455-456 (3-4))
3		Studies of parent-child interactions suggest that one crucial ingredient	(Thompson & Rakes 2003)	(Sigelman & Rider 2012, 407)

Primary and secondary references are highlighted in these two columns.

6

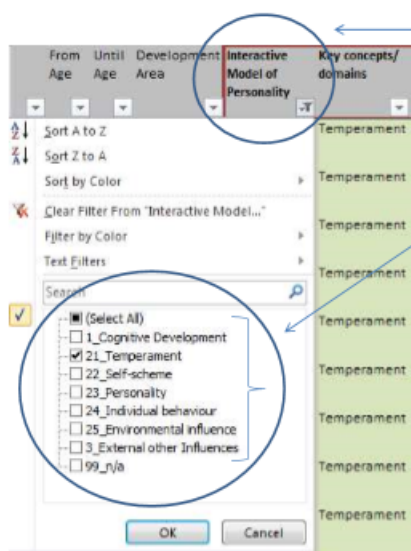
*Psychosocial Development Information Database
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Structure of the Data

- The next slides describe a framework about how to work with the content of the database.
- This framework is a suggested method to work with the database. However, the data has been structured in such a way that any other framework can be flexibly implemented.
- The framework which now will be described is the "Interactive Model of Personality":

7

Structure of the Data



The framework "Interactive Model of Personality" is implemented in the table header column of the same name.

If you open the filter of the header you will find a list of development-domains:

- 21_Temperament
- 22_Self-scheme
- 23_Personality
- 24_Individual behaviour

The domain 1_Cognitive Development is not explicitly mentioned in the framework as the cognitive development has multidimensional interactions with all other domains. However, information about cognitive development are part of the data structure.

The domain 3_External other Influence is out of the scope for this thesis!

8

Function of the Framework?

- What is the function of the framework?
- For the purpose of this thesis the framework is a model which helps to navigate through the mass of information about psychosocial development of children and adolescents (a tool like a map or a navigator).
- In order to find information for a certain development stage or behavior of a child or an adolescent it is suggested first to choose the major development-domain as a starting point for further investigations.

9

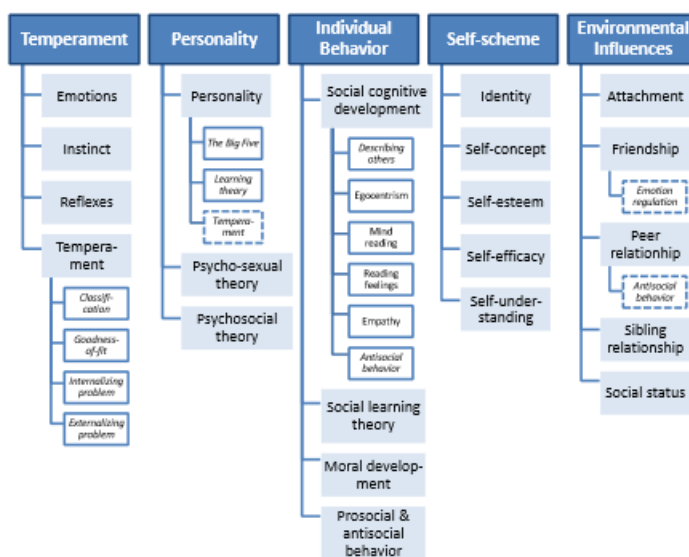
Function of the Framework

- From this starting point the user can navigate to different directions. He can browse through the table or he can set further filter (e.g. with the "Key concept/domain filter" and other filters).
- The next slide gives an overview of the key concepts for each development-domain and some of the most important development or problem areas

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Domains & Subdomains



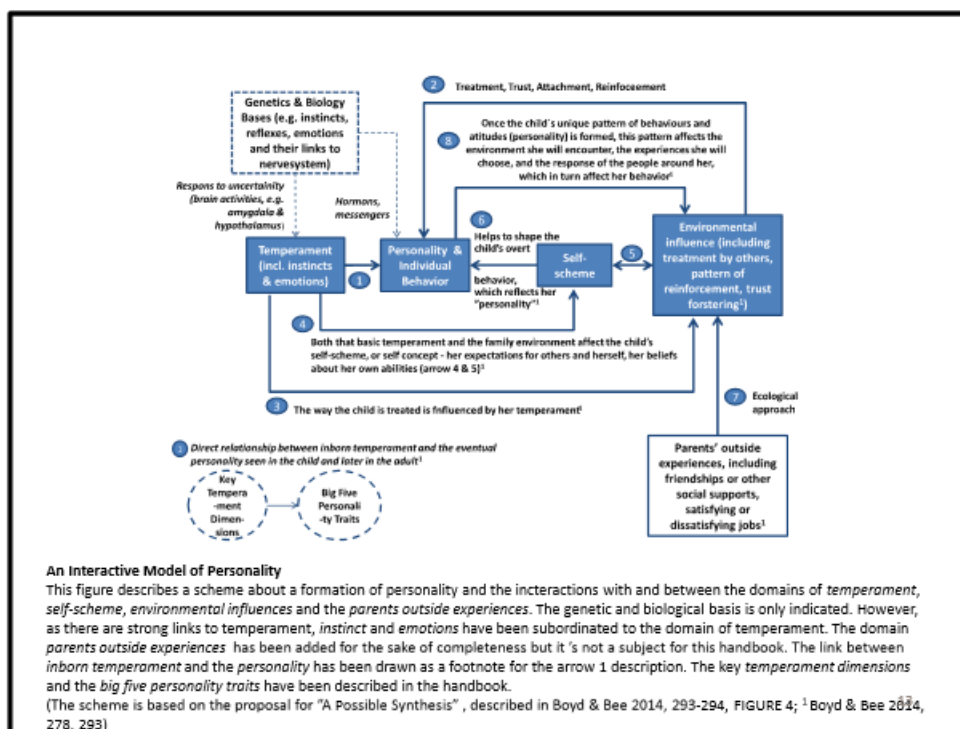
11

Function of the Framework

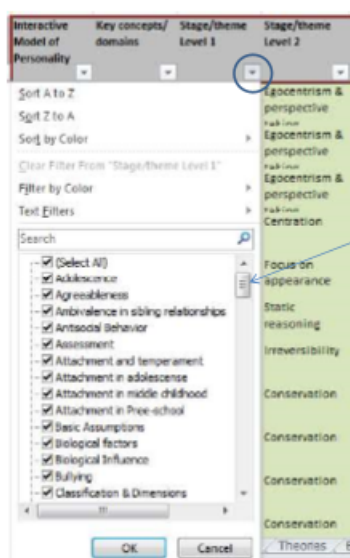
- Another function of the framework is to get an understanding about the interaction between the development areas (see development-domains in the table column "Interactive Model of Personality").
- In the model which is described in the next slide you will find a high level description of interactions and links between the development domains.
- This should help to get a better understanding about the development of children and adolescents.

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Psychosocial Development Information Database User Guide



Data Selection



As mentioned before you can use any filter in the data sheet. However, it is recommended to use only those filters highlighted in the red rectangle.

If you search for a special key word you can use the filter for "Key concepts/domains", "Stage/theme Level 1" (see screenshot) as well as level 2 and 3.

The levels 1 to 3 represent a further hierarchy of the data. However, level 2 and 3 are not always defined if a further hierarchy does not make sense.

Interactive Model of Personality	Key concepts/ domains	Stage/theme Level 1	Stage/theme Level 2	Stage/theme Level 3	Theorist
1_Cognitive Development process	Thinking	Preoperation al stage	Conservation		Piaget

Psychosocial Development Information Database User Guide

Age-related Data Selection

Age	From Age	Until Age	Development Area	Interactive Model of Personality	Key concepts/ domains	Stage/theme Level 1	Stage/theme Level 2	Stage/theme Level 3
f	0	0	2_Self/ Personality	22_Self-scheme	Self-Esteem	Assessment		

Be always aware of the filter you have set! Each filter has an effect on the data result. In this example you see that two filters were set and the result is only one data record. This is the result after removing the age filter:

Age	From Age	Until Age	Development Area	Interactive Model of Personality	Key concepts/ domains	Stage/theme Level 1	Stage/theme Level 2	Stage/theme Level 3
f	0	0	2_Self/ Personality	22_Self-scheme	Self-Efficacy	Definition		
f	0	0	2_Self/ Personality	22_Self-scheme	Self-Efficacy	Definition	Parents role	
f	6	12	2_Self/ Personality	22_Self-scheme	Self-Efficacy	Emotional Self-efficacy	Childhood	
f	7	8	2_Self/ Personality	22_Self-scheme	Self-Esteem			

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Age-related Data Selection

To select all data with a specific "From Age" (here from age 6 to 7), add the years to the age field, activate the age filter by selecting "t" for true, and follow the instruction on the next slide ...

Age	From Age	Until Age	Development Area	Interactive Model of Personality	Key concepts/ domains	Stage/theme Level 1	Stage/theme Level 2	Stage/theme Level 3	Theory / Description
t	6	7	24_Individual behavior	Social Cognition Development	Deciding	Friendship			Pre school children seem to understand friendship mostly in terms of common activities. They ask a group of children how people make friends, the answer is usually that they "stay together" or spend together. The view of friendship begins to shift away from an emphasis on activities (Dunn, Coiro, & Taylor, 2002). Children's understanding of friendship (Dunn, Coiro, & Taylor, 2002) shows that the use of conventional rules are arbitrary, created by a particular group or culture. School rules about wearing uniforms, not running in the hall, and sitting on the floor before you leave the room are all moral rules, in contrast, are seen as universal and obligatory, reflecting basic principles that guarantee the rights of others. Just as young children have a conventional rule and not an other social rule. Of course, as adults, we distinguish between conventional and conventional rule violations, but children make the same
f	6	7	24_Individual behavior	Social Cognition Development	Deciding	Friendship			
f	6	7	24_Individual behavior	Social Cognition Development	Deciding	Friendship			
f	6	7	24_Individual behavior	Social Cognition Development	Deciding	Friendship			
f	6	7	24_Individual behavior	Social Cognition Development	Deciding	Friendship			

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Psychosocial Development Information Database
User Guide

Age-related Data Selection

The screenshot displays the Psychosocial Development Information Database interface. The main table shows developmental milestones with columns for 'Age', 'Description', and 'Priority / Description'. Below the table are three dialog boxes: 'Sort by Color', 'Number Filter', and 'Custom Autofilter'. The 'Custom Autofilter' dialog is highlighted with a red circle around the 'is greater than or equal to' option.

Age	Level	Sublevel	Model of Personality	Key Conceptual Domains	Stage/Phase Level 1	Stage/Phase Level 2	Stage/Phase Level 3	Priority / Description 1
1	1	1	1	Social Cognition	Development	Friendships		Theoretical views seem to understand friendship mostly in terms of common activities. Frenya asks a young child how people make friends; the answer is usually that they "like together" or "want together". This view of friendship begins to shift away from an emphasis on activities (Johns, Luster, & Fisher, 2002). Later work (e.g., Hoffman, 1987; Clark, 1988) shows that the line between rules and activities is arbitrary, created by a particular group or culture. School rules about seating arrangements, not running in the hall, and other obligations before we have the rules are all social rules, in a way, are seen as universal and obligatory, enforcing rules get together for guarantee the rights of others, not because in the hall is a social rule; not to take other people's things, of course, is a social rule; but as children make the same conventional rule violations, not as children make the same
1	1	1	1	Social Cognition	Development	Friendships		
1	1	1	1	Moral Development	Understanding rules &	Conventional rules		
1	1	1	1	Moral Development	Understanding rules &	Conventional rules		
1	1	1	1	Moral Development	Understanding rules &	Conventional rules		

Sort by Color
 Sort by Color: [Dropdown]
 Color Filter From: From Age: [Dropdown]
 Filter by Color: [Dropdown]

Number Filter
 Search: [Text Box]
 [List of numbers: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7]
 [OK] [Cancel]

Custom Autofilter
 Show from where: From Age: [Dropdown]
 is greater than or equal to: [Dropdown] (highlighted with red circle)
 [OK] [Cancel]