

1: Emotional Development Â« A Primer on Psychology

An exception, not so recent, but well respected, is the account of Harry F. Harlow, whose studies of rhesus monkeys suggested that infancy, childhood, and adolescence are associated with three.

Psychosexual development Sigmund Freud believed that we all had a conscious, preconscious, and unconscious level. In the conscious, we are aware of our mental process. The preconscious involves information that, though not currently in our thoughts, can be brought into consciousness. Lastly, the unconscious includes mental processes we are unaware of. He believed there is tension between the conscious and unconscious because the conscious tries to hold back what the unconscious tries to express. To explain this he developed three personality structures: The id, the most primitive of the three, functions according to the pleasure principle: The first is the oral stage, which occurs from birth to 12 months of age. The second is the anal stage, from one to three years of age. During the anal stage, the child defecates from the anus and is often fascinated with their defecation. During the phallic stage, the child is aware of their sexual organs. The fourth is the latency stage, which occurs from age five until puberty. Stage five is the genital stage, which takes place from puberty until adulthood. During the genital stage, puberty starts happening. He used Socratic questioning to get children to reflect on what they were doing, and he tried to get them to see contradictions in their explanations. Piaget believed that intellectual development takes place through a series of stages, which he described in his theory on cognitive development. Each stage consists of steps the child must master before moving to the next step. He believed that these stages are not separate from one another, but rather that each stage builds on the previous one in a continuous learning process. He proposed four stages: Though he did not believe these stages occurred at any given age, many studies have determined when these cognitive abilities should take place. The pre-conventional moral reasoning is typical of children and is characterized by reasoning that is based on rewards and punishments associated with different courses of action. Conventional moral reason occurs during late childhood and early adolescence and is characterized by reasoning based on rules and conventions of society. "Mistrust" takes place in infancy. The second stage is "Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt" with the best virtue being will. This takes place in early childhood where the child learns to become more independent by discovering what they are capable of where if the child is overly controlled, they believe to feel inadequate on surviving by themselves, which can lead to low self-esteem and doubt. The third stage is "Initiative vs. The basic virtue that would be gained is the purpose and takes place in the play age. This is the stage where the child will be curious and have many interactions with other kids. They will ask many questions as their curiosity grows. If too much guilt is present, the child may have a slower and harder time interacting with other children. The fourth stage is "Industry competence vs. The basic virtue for this stage is competency which happens at the school age. This stage is when the child will try to win the approval of others and fit in and understand the value of their accomplishments. The fifth stage is "Identity vs. The basic virtue gained is fidelity which takes place in adolescence. The sixth stage is "Intimacy vs. Isolation", which happens in young adults and the virtue gained is love. In not doing so, it could lead to isolation. The seventh stage is "Generativity vs. This happens in adulthood and the virtue gained would be care. We become stable and start to give back by raising a family and becoming involved in the community. The eighth stage is "Ego Integrity vs. This happens during maturity and wisdom is gained. When one grows old and they contemplate and look back and see the success or failure of their life. This is also the stage where one can also have closure and accept death without fearing anything. The Model of Hierarchical Complexity MHC is not based on the assessment of domain-specific information, It divides the Order of Hierarchical Complexity of tasks to be addressed from the Stage performance on those tasks. The order of hierarchical complexity of tasks predicts how difficult the performance is with an R ranging from 0. In the MHC, there are three main axioms for an order to meet in order for the higher order task to coordinate the next lower order task. Axioms are rules that are followed to determine how the MHC orders actions to form a hierarchy. Ecological systems theory[edit] Main article: The four systems are microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, and macrosystem. Each system contains roles, norms and rules that can powerfully shape development. The microsystem is the direct

environment in our lives such as our home and school. Mesosystem is how relationships connect to the microsystem. Exosystem is a larger social system where the child plays no role. Macrosystem refers to the cultural values, customs and laws of society. The mesosystem is the combination of two microsystems and how they influence each other example: The exosystem is the interaction among two or more settings that are indirectly linked example: The macrosystem is broader taking into account social economic status, culture, beliefs, customs and morals example: Lastly, the chronosystem refers to the chronological nature of life events and how they interact and change the individual and their circumstances through transition example: As a result of this conceptualization of development, these environments "from the family to economic and political structures" have come to be viewed as part of the life course from childhood through to adulthood. This adult role is often referred to as the skilled "master," whereas the child is considered the learning apprentice through an educational process often termed "cognitive apprenticeship" Martin Hill stated that "The world of reality does not apply to the mind of a child. Constructivism psychological school Constructivism is a paradigm in psychology that characterizes learning as a process of actively constructing knowledge. Individuals create meaning for themselves or make sense of new information by selecting, organizing, and integrating information with other knowledge, often in the context of social interactions. Constructivism can occur in two ways: Individual constructivism is when a person constructs knowledge through cognitive processes of their own experiences rather than by memorizing facts provided by others. Social constructivism is when individuals construct knowledge through an interaction between the knowledge they bring to a situation and social or cultural exchanges within that content. Piaget proposed that learning should be whole by helping students understand that meaning is constructed. Evolutionary developmental psychology Evolutionary developmental psychology is a research paradigm that applies the basic principles of Darwinian evolution, particularly natural selection, to understand the development of human behavior and cognition. It involves the study of both the genetic and environmental mechanisms that underlie the development of social and cognitive competencies, as well as the epigenetic gene-environment interactions processes that adapt these competencies to local conditions. Attachment theory Attachment theory, originally developed by John Bowlby, focuses on the importance of open, intimate, emotionally meaningful relationships. A child who is threatened or stressed will move toward caregivers who create a sense of physical, emotional and psychological safety for the individual. Attachment feeds on body contact and familiarity. Later Mary Ainsworth developed the Strange Situation protocol and the concept of the secure base. Theorists have proposed four types of attachment styles: It is characterized by trust. Anxious-avoidant is an insecure attachment between an infant and a caregiver. Anxious-resistant is an insecure attachment between the infant and the caregiver characterized by distress from the infant when separated and anger when reunited. Some babies are raised without the stimulation and attention of a regular caregiver or locked away under conditions of abuse or extreme neglect. The possible short-term effects of this deprivation are anger, despair, detachment, and temporary delay in intellectual development. Long-term effects include increased aggression, clinging behavior, detachment, psychosomatic disorders, and an increased risk of depression as an adult. Attachment is established in early childhood and attachment continues into adulthood. An example of secure attachment continuing in adulthood would be when the person feels confident and is able to meet their own needs. An example of anxious attachment during adulthood is when the adult chooses a partner with anxious-avoidant attachment. Please help improve this article by adding citations to reliable sources. Unsourced material may be challenged and removed. April Learn how and when to remove this template message Nature vs nurture[edit] A significant issue in developmental psychology is the relationship between innateness and environmental influence in regard to any particular aspect of development. This is often referred to as "nature and nurture" or nativism versus empiricism. An empiricist perspective would argue that those processes are acquired in interaction with the environment. Today developmental psychologists rarely take such polarised positions with regard to most aspects of development; rather they investigate, among many other things, the relationship between innate and environmental influences. One of the ways this relationship has been explored in recent years is through the emerging field of evolutionary developmental psychology. One area where this innateness debate has been prominently portrayed is in research on language acquisition.

A major question in this area is whether or not certain properties of human language are specified genetically or can be acquired through learning. The empiricist position on the issue of language acquisition suggests that the language input provides the necessary information required for learning the structure of language and that infants acquire language through a process of statistical learning. From this perspective, language can be acquired via general learning methods that also apply to other aspects of development, such as perceptual learning. The nativist position argues that the input from language is too impoverished for infants and children to acquire the structure of language. Linguist Noam Chomsky asserts that, evidenced by the lack of sufficient information in the language input, there is a universal grammar that applies to all human languages and is pre-specified. This has led to the idea that there is a special cognitive module suited for learning language, often called the language acquisition device.

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Psychology Definition of EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT: A gradual increase being able to experience, express and interpret a range of emotions.

The study of the emotional development of infants and children is relatively new, having been studied empirically only during the past few decades. Researchers have approached this area from a variety of theoretical perspectives, including those of social constructionism, differential emotion theory, and social learning theory. Each of these approaches explores the way infants and children develop emotionally, differing mainly on the question of whether emotions are learned or biologically predetermined, as well as debating the way infants and children manage their emotional experiences and behavior. Early infancy birth-six months Emotional expressivity To formulate theories about the development of human emotions, researchers focus on observable display of emotion, such as facial expressions and public behavior. Although many descriptions of facial patterns appear intuitively to represent recognizable emotions, psychologists differ on their views on the range of emotions experienced by infants. It is not clear whether infants actually experience these emotions, or if adults, using adult facial expressions as the standard, simply superimpose their own understanding of the meaning of infant facial expressions. Between six and ten weeks, a social smile emerges, usually accompanied by other pleasure-indicative actions and sounds, including cooing and mouthing. This social smile occurs in response to adult smiles and interactions. It derives its name from the unique process by which the infant engages a person in a social act, doing so by expressing pleasure a smile, which consequently elicits a positive response. This cycle brings about a mutually reinforcing pattern in which both the infant and the other person gain pleasure from the social interaction. As infants become more aware of their environment, smiling occurs in response to a wider variety of contexts. They may smile when they see a toy they have previously enjoyed. They may smile when receiving praise for accomplishing a difficult task. Smiles such as these, like the social smile, are considered to serve a developmental function. Laughter, which begins at around three or four months, requires a level of cognitive development because it demonstrates that the child can recognize incongruity. That is, laughter is usually elicited by actions that deviate from the norm, such as being kissed on the abdomen or a caregiver playing peek-a-boo. Because it fosters reciprocal interactions with others, laughter promotes social development. Later infancy months Emotional expressivity During the last half of the first year, infants begin expressing fear, disgust, and anger because of the maturation of cognitive abilities. Anger, often expressed by crying, is a frequent emotion expressed by infants. Although some infants respond to distressing events with sadness, anger is more common. Fear also emerges during this stage as children become able to compare an unfamiliar event with what they know. Unfamiliar situations or objects often elicit fear responses in infants. One of the most common is the presence of an adult stranger, a fear that begins to appear at about seven months. The degree to which a child reacts with fear to new situations is dependent on a variety of factors. One of the most significant is the response of its mother or caregiver. Caregivers supply infants with a secure base from which to explore their world, and accordingly an exploring infant will generally not move beyond eyesight of the caregiver. Infants repeatedly check with their caregivers for emotional cues regarding safety and security of their explorations. Infants look to caregivers for facial cues for the appropriate reaction to unfamiliar adults. If the stranger is a trusted friend of the caregiver, the infant is more likely to respond favorably, whereas if the stranger is unknown to the caregiver, the infant may respond with anxiety and distress. A second fear of this stage is called separation anxiety. Infants seven to twelve months old may cry in fear if the mother or caregiver leaves them in an unfamiliar place. Many studies have been conducted to assess the type and quality of emotional communication between caregivers and infants. Parents are one of the primary sources that socialize children to communicate emotional experience in culturally specific ways. That is, through such processes as modeling, direct instruction, and imitation, parents teach their children which emotional expressions are appropriate to express within their specific sub-culture and the broader social context. Socialization of emotion begins in infancy. Research indicates that when mothers interact with their infants they demonstrate emotional displays in an exaggerated slow motion,

and that these types of display are highly interesting to infants. Another process that emerges during this stage is social referencing. Infants begin to recognize the emotions of others, and use this information when reacting to novel situations and people. As infants explore their world, they generally rely on the emotional expressions of their mothers or caregivers to determine the safety or appropriateness of a particular endeavor. What is known, however, is that as infants explore their environment, their immediate emotional responses to what they encounter are based on cues portrayed by their mother or primary caregiver, to whom they repeatedly reference as they explore.

Toddlerhood years Emotional expressivity During the second year, infants express emotions of shame or embarrassment and pride. These emotions mature in all children and adults contribute to their development. However, the reason for the shame or pride is learned. Different cultures value different actions.

Emotional understanding During this stage of development, toddlers acquire language and are learning to verbally express their feelings. This ability, rudimentary as it is during early toddlerhood, is the first step in the development of emotional self-regulation skills. Although there is debate concerning an acceptable definition of emotion regulation, it is generally thought to involve the ability to recognize and label emotions, and to control emotional expression in ways that are consistent with cultural expectations. In infancy, children largely rely on adults to help them regulate their emotional states. If they are uncomfortable they may be able to communicate this state by crying, but have little hope of alleviating the discomfort on their own. In toddler-hood, however, children begin to develop skills to regulate their emotions with the emergence of language providing an important tool to assist in this process. Being able to articulate an emotional state in itself has a regulatory effect in that it enables children to communicate their feelings to a person capable of helping them manage their emotional state. Speech also enables children to self-regulate, using soothing language to talk themselves through difficult situations.

Empathy, a complex emotional response to a situation, also appears in toddlerhood, usually by age two. These cognitive advances typically are not evident before the first birthday. The first sign of empathy in children occurs when they try to alleviate the distress of another using methods that they have observed or experienced themselves. Toddlers will use comforting language and initiate physical contact with their mothers if they are distressed, supposedly modeling their own early experiences when feeling upset. Parents help preschoolers acquire skills to cope with negative emotional states by teaching and modeling use of verbal reasoning and explanation. Beginning at about age four, children acquire the ability to alter their emotional expressions, a skill of high value in cultures that require frequent disingenuous social displays. Psychologists call these skills emotion display rules, culture-specific rules regarding the appropriateness of expressing in certain situations. For example, in Western culture, we teach children that they should smile and say thank-you when receiving a gift, even if they really do not like the present. The ability to use display rules is complex. It requires that children understand the need to alter emotional displays, take the perspective of another, know that external states need not match internal states, have the muscular control to produce emotional expressions, be sensitive to social contextual cues that alert them to alter their expressivity, and have the motivation to enact such discrepant displays in a convincing manner. It is thought that in the preschool years, parents are the primary socializing force, teaching appropriate emotional expression in children. Moreover, children learn at about age three that expressions of anger and aggression are to be controlled in the presence of adults. Around peers, however, children are much less likely to suppress negative emotional behavior. It appears that these differences arise as a result of the different consequences they have received for expressing negative emotions in front of adults as opposed to their peers.

Carolyn Saarni, an innovator in the exploration of emotional development, has identified two types of emotional display rules, prosocial and self-protective. For example, a child might not like the sweater she received from her aunt, but would appear happy because she did not want to make her aunt feel badly. On the other hand, self-protective display rules involve masking emotion in order to save face or to protect oneself from negative consequences. For instance, a child may feign toughness when he trips in front of his peers and scrapes his knee, in order to avoid teasing and further embarrassment. In research findings were mixed concerning the order in which prosocial and self-protective display rules are learned. Some studies demonstrate that knowledge of self-protective display rules emerges first, whereas other studies show the opposite effect. There also has been research done examining how children alter their emotional

displays. Researchers Jackie Gnepp and Debra Hess in found that there is greater pressure on children to modify their verbal rather than facial emotional expressions. It is easier for preschoolers to control their verbal utterances than their facial muscles. Although it has been demonstrated that empathy emerges at quite a young age, with rudimentary displays emerging during toddlerhood, increasing cognitive development enables preschoolers to arrive at a more complex understanding of emotions. For instance, when asked why a playmate is upset, a child might respond "Because the teacher took his toy" or by reference to some other external cause, usually one that relates to an occurrence familiar to them. Middle childhood years Emotional expressivity Children ages seven to eleven display a wider variety of self-regulation skills. Sophistication in understanding and enacting cultural display rules has increased dramatically by this stage, such that by now children begin to know when to control emotional expressivity as well as have a sufficient repertoire of behavioral regulation skills allowing them to effectively mask emotions in socially appropriate ways. Research has indicated that children at this age have become sensitive to the social contextual cues which serve to guide their decisions to express or control negative emotions. Several factors influence their emotion management decisions, including the type of emotion experienced, the nature of their relationship with the person involved in the emotional exchange, child age, and child gender. Moreover, it appears that children have developed a set of expectations concerning the likely outcome of expressing emotion to others. In general, children report regulating anger and sadness more to friends than mothers and fathers because they expect to receive a negative response—such as teasing or belittling—from friends. With increasing age, however, older children report expressing negative emotions more often to their mothers than their fathers, expecting dads to respond negatively to an emotional display. These emotion regulation skills are considered to be adaptive and deemed essential to establishing, developing, and maintaining social relationships. Children at this age also demonstrate that they possess rudimentary cognitive and behavioral coping skills that serve to lessen the impact of an emotional event and in so doing, may in fact alter their emotional experience. For example, when experiencing a negative emotional event, children may respond by employing rationalization or minimization cognitive coping strategies, in which they re-interpret or reconstruct the scenario to make it seem less threatening or upsetting. They also come to understand that it is possible to experience more than one emotion at a time, although this ability is somewhat restricted and evolves slowly. As Susan Harter and Nancy Whitsell demonstrated, seven-year-old children are able to understand that a person can feel two emotions simultaneously, even if the emotions are positive and negative. Children can feel happy and excited that their parents bought them a bicycle, or angry and sad that a friend had hurt them, but they deny the possibility of experiencing "mixed feelings. Displays of empathy also increase in frequency during this stage. Children from families that regularly discuss the complexity of feelings will develop empathy more readily than those whose families avoid such topics. Furthermore, parents who set consistent behavioral limits and who themselves show high levels of concern for others are more likely to produce empathic children than parents who are punitive or particularly harsh in restricting behavior. Adolescence years Emotional expressivity Adolescents have become sophisticated at regulating their emotions. They have developed a wide vocabulary with which to discuss, and thus influence, emotional states of themselves and others. Adolescents are adept at interpreting social situations as part of the process of managing emotional displays. It is widely believed that by adolescence children have developed a set of expectations, referred to as scripts, about how various people will react to their emotional displays, and regulate their displays in accordance with these scripts. Research in this area has found that in early adolescence, children begin breaking the emotionally intimate ties with their parents and begin forming them with peers. In one study, for instance, eighth-grade students, particularly boys, reported regulating hiding their emotions to from their mothers more than did either fifth-or eleventh-grade adolescents.

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Emotional development is the growth in the child's ability to distinguish between and to express their emotions in socially acceptable ways and to be able to understand the emotional content of other people's communication.

Self-soothing and learning to modulate reactivity. Regulation of attention in service of coordinated action. Behavior synchrony with others in some expressive channels. Increasing expressive responsiveness to stimuli under contingent control. Increasing coordination of expressive behaviors with emotion-eliciting circumstances. Social games and turn-taking e. Socially instrumental signal use e. Emergence of self-awareness and consciousness of own emotional response. Irritability due to constraints and limits imposed on expanding autonomy and exploration needs. Self-evaluation and self-consciousness evident in expressive behavior accompanying shame, pride, coyness. Increasing verbal comprehension and production of words for expressive behavior and affective states. Anticipation of different feelings toward different people. Early forms of empathy and prosocial action. Adoption of pretend expressive behavior in play and teasing. Sympathetic and prosocial behavior toward peers. Seeking support from caregivers still prominent coping strategy, but increasing reliance on situational problem-solving evident. Problem-solving preferred coping strategy if control is at least moderate. Distancing strategies used if control is appraised as minimal. Appreciation of norms for expressive behavior, whether genuine or dissembled. Use of expressive behavior to modulate relationship dynamics e. Awareness of multiple emotions toward the same person. Use of multiple time frames and unique personal information about another as aids in the development of close friendships. Increasing accuracy in appraisal of realistic control in stressful circumstances. Capable of generating multiple solutions and differentiated strategies for dealing with stress. Distinction made between genuine emotional expression with close friends and managed displays with others. Increasing integration of moral character and personal philosophy in dealing with stress and subsequent decisions. Skillful adoption of self-presentation strategies for impression management. Awareness of mutual and reciprocal communication of emotions as affecting quality of relationship. From Saarni , pp. Copyright by Jossey-Bass. Reprinted by permission of the author. Recent Research Results The Development of Emotional Competence A productive way to look at emotional functioning is the degree to which it serves the adaptive and self-efficacious goals of the individual. The construct emotional competence³ has been proposed as a set of affect-oriented behavioural, cognitive and regulatory skills that emerge over time as a person develops in a social context. Thus, we actively create our emotional experience, through the combined influence of our cognitive developmental structures and our social exposure to emotion discourse. Through this process, we learn what it means to feel something and to do something about it. Table 2 lists the 8 skills of emotional competence. Skills of Emotional Competence 1. Capacity for adaptive coping with aversive or distressing emotions by using self-regulatory strategies that ameliorate the intensity or temporal duration of such emotional states e. Awareness that the structure or nature of relationships is in part defined by both the degree of emotional immediacy or genuineness of expressive display and by the degree of reciprocity or symmetry within the relationship; e. Capacity for emotional self-efficacy: The individual views her- or himself as feeling, overall, the way he or she wants to feel. The infant is then secure in his or her attachment to the caregiver. The caregiver-child relationship establishes the foundation for the development of emotional skills, and sets the stage for future social relationships. A secure attachment leaves the child free to explore the world and engage with peers. In a study of preschoolers, Denham and her colleagues⁴ found a positive association between security of attachment to mothers and security of attachment to teachers. Furthermore, security of attachment to both mother and teacher related positively to emotion understanding and regulated anger. Insecure attachment is associated with emotional and social incompetence, particularly in the areas of emotion understanding and regulated anger. For example, a child who experiences maltreatment may develop primary emotional responses such as anxiety or fear. With young children, emotion knowledge is more concrete, with heightened focus on observable factors. Elementary school children advance in their ability to offer self-reports of emotions, and to use words to explain emotion-related situations. As children mature, their inferences about what others are feeling integrate

not only situational information, but also information regarding prior experiences and history. Older children are also more able to understand and express complex emotions such as pride, shame or embarrassment. By adolescence, issues of identity, moral character and the combined effects of aspiration and opportunity are more explicitly acknowledged as significant by youth. The skills of emotional competence do not develop in isolation from each other and their progression is intimately tied to cognitive development. Furthermore, as children learn about how and why people act as they do, they grow in their ability to infer what is going on for themselves emotionally. Positive Development and Emotional Competence Competent children and youth do not experience lives free of problems, but they are equipped with both individual and environmental assets that help them cope with a variety of life events. Conclusions Strengths in the area of emotional competence may help children and adolescents cope effectively in particular circumstances, while also promoting characteristics associated with positive developmental outcomes, including feelings of self-efficacy, prosocial behaviour and supportive relationships with family and peers. Furthermore, emotional competence serves as a protective factor that diminishes the impact of a range of risk factors. Research has isolated individual attributes that may exert a protective influence, several of which reflect core elements of emotional competence, including skills related to reading interpersonal cues, solving problems, executing goal-oriented behaviour in interpersonal situations, and considering behavioural options from both an instrumental and an affective standpoint. Principles of emotion and emotional competence. An advanced course pp. The interface of emotional development with social context. The development of emotional competence. Pathway to social competence. Child Development, 74, Recognizing emotion in faces: Developmental effects of child abuse and neglect. Developmental Psychology, 36, Mechanisms linking early experience and the emergence of emotions: Illustrations from the study of maltreated children. Current Directions in Psychological Science,, 17, Emotional competence and early school adjustment: A study of preschoolers at risk. Early Education and Development, 12, How to cite this article: Emotional Development in Childhood. Lewis M, topic ed. Encyclopedia on Early Childhood Development [online]. Accessed November 14,

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Development continues throughout the human lifespan. Areas of change include physical, intellectual, social and emotional. Emotional development is considered briefly below. Emotional development is the changing capacity to experience and express personal feelings as well as recognize and interpret.

It encompasses both intra- and interpersonal processes. National Scientific Council on the Developing Child , 2 Infants experience, express, and perceive emotions before they fully understand them. In learning to recognize, label, manage, and communicate their emotions and to perceive and attempt to understand the emotions of others, children build skills that connect them with family, peers, teachers, and the community. These growing capacities help young children to become competent in negotiating increasingly complex social interactions, to participate effectively in relationships and group activities, and to reap the benefits of social support crucial to healthy human development and functioning. Healthy social-emotional development for infants and toddlers unfolds in an interpersonal context, namely that of positive ongoing relationships with familiar, nurturing adults. Young children are particularly attuned to social and emotional stimulation. Even newborns appear to attend more to stimuli that resemble faces Johnson and others Responsive caregiving supports infants in beginning to regulate their emotions and to develop a sense of predictability, safety, and responsiveness in their social environments. In other words, high-quality relationships increase the likelihood of positive outcomes for young children Shonkoff Experiences with family members and teachers provide an opportunity for young children to learn about social relationships and emotions through exploration and predictable interactions. Professionals working in child care settings can support the social-emotional development of infants and toddlers in various ways, including interacting directly with young children, communicating with families, arranging the physical space in the care environment, and planning and implementing curriculum. Brain research indicates that emotion and cognition are profoundly interrelated processes. Most learning in the early years occurs in the context of emotional supports National Research Council and Institute of Medicine Together, emotion and cognition contribute to attentional processes, decision making, and learning Cacioppo and Berntson Furthermore, cognitive processes, such as decision making, are affected by emotion Barrett and others Brain structures involved in the neural circuitry of cognition influence emotion and vice versa Barrett and others Young children who exhibit healthy social, emotional, and behavioral adjustment are more likely to have good academic performance in elementary school Cohen and others ; Zero to Three The sharp distinction between cognition and emotion that has historically been made may be more of an artifact of scholarship than it is representative of the way these processes occur in the brain Barrett and others This recent research strengthens the view that early childhood programs support later positive learning outcomes in all domains by maintaining a focus on the promotion of healthy social emotional development National Scientific Council on the Developing Child ; Raver ; Shonkoff Infants as young as three months of age have been shown to be able to discriminate between the faces of unfamiliar adults Barrera and Maurer The foundations that describe Interactions with Adults and Relationships with Adults are interrelated. They jointly give a picture of healthy social-emotional development that is based in a supportive social environment established by adults. Children develop the ability to both respond to adults and engage with them first through predictable interactions in close relationships with parents or other caring adults at home and outside the home. Children use and build upon the skills learned through close relationships to interact with less familiar adults in their lives. In interacting with adults, children engage in a wide variety of social exchanges such as establishing contact with a relative or engaging in storytelling with an infant care teacher. Quality in early childhood programs is, in large part, a function of the interactions that take place between the adults and children in those programs. How teachers interact with children is at the very heart of early childhood education Kontos and Wilcox-Herzog , Infants use relationships with adults in many ways: Return to Top Interactions with Peers In early infancy children interact with each other using simple behaviors such as looking at or touching another child. Interactions with peers provide the context for social learning and problem solving, including the experience of social

exchanges, cooperation, turn-taking, and the demonstration of the beginning of empathy. Social interactions with peers also allow older infants to experiment with different roles in small groups and in different situations such as relating to familiar versus unfamiliar children. As noted, the foundations called Interactions with Adults, Relationships with Adults, Interactions with Peers, and Relationships with Peers are interrelated. Interactions are stepping-stones to relationships. Burk , writes: We, as teachers, need to facilitate the development of a psychologically safe environment that promotes positive social interaction. As children interact openly with their peers, they learn more about each other as individuals, and they begin building a history of interactions. Return to Top Relationships with Peers Infants develop close relationships with children they know over a period of time, such as other children in the family child care setting or neighborhood. Relationships with peers provide young children with the opportunity to develop strong social connections. Infants often show a preference for playing and being with friends, as compared with peers with whom they do not have a relationship. The three groups vary in the number of friendships, the stability of friendships, and the nature of interaction between friends for example, the extent to which they involve object exchange or verbal communication. Infants demonstrate this foundation in a number of ways. For example, they can respond to their names, point to their body parts when asked, or name members of their families. Through an emerging understanding of other people in their social environment, children gain an understanding of their roles within their families and communities. They also become aware of their own preferences and characteristics and those of others. Self-efficacy is related to a sense of competency, which has been identified as a basic human need Connell For example, they pat a musical toy to make sounds come out. The later ability to use words to express emotions gives young children a valuable tool in gaining the assistance or social support of others Saarni and others Tronick , described how expression of emotion is related to emotion regulation and communication between the mother and infant: Some cultural groups appear to express certain emotions more often than other cultural groups Tsai, Levenson, and McCoy In addition, cultural groups vary by which particular emotions or emotional states they value Tsai, Knutson, and Fung Positive emotions appeal to social partners and seem to enable relationships to form, while problematic management or expression of negative emotions leads to difficulty in social relationships Denham and Weissberg The use of emotion-related words appears to be associated with how likable preschoolers are considered by their peers. Children who use emotion-related words were found to be better-liked by their classmates Fabes and others Infants respond more positively to adult vocalizations that have a positive affective tone Fernald It appears likely that the experience of positive emotions is a particularly important contributor to emotional well-being and psychological health Fredrickson , ; Panksepp Return to Top Empathy During the first three years of life, children begin to develop the capacity to experience the emotional or psychological state of another person Zahn-Waxler and Radke-Yarrow The following definitions of empathy are found in the research literature: The concept of empathy reflects the social nature of emotion, as it links the feelings of two or more people Levenson and Ruef Since human life is relationship-based, one vitally important function of empathy over the life span is to strengthen social bonds Anderson and Keltner Research has shown a correlation between empathy and prosocial behavior Eisenberg In particular, prosocial behaviors, such as helping, sharing, and comforting or showing concern for others, illustrate the development of empathy Zahn-Waxler and others and how the experience of empathy is thought to be related to the development of moral behavior Eisenberg For example, those behaviors are modeled through caring interactions with others or through providing nurturance to the infant. Quann and Wien , 28 suggest that one way to support the development of empathy in young children is to create a culture of caring in the early childhood environment: The relationships among teachers, between children and teachers, and among children are fostered with warm and caring interactions. Researchers have generated various definitions of emotion regulation, and debate continues as to the most useful and appropriate way to define this concept Eisenberg and Spinrad As a construct, emotion regulation reflects the interrelationship of emotions, cognitions, and behaviors Bell and Wolfe Emotion regulation is influenced by culture and the historical era in which a person lives: Adults can provide positive role models of emotion regulation through their behavior and through the verbal and emotional support they offer children in managing their emotions. Emotion regulation skills are

important in part because they play a role in how well children are liked by peers and teachers and how socially competent they are perceived to be National Scientific Council on the Developing Child At kindergarten entry, children demonstrate broad variability in their ability to self-regulate National Research Council and Institute of Medicine As infants grow, they become increasingly able to exercise voluntary control over behavior such as waiting for needs to be met, inhibiting potentially hurtful behavior, and acting according to social expectations, including safety rules. Group care settings provide many opportunities for children to practice their impulse-control skills. Peer interactions often offer natural opportunities for young children to practice impulse control, as they make progress in learning about cooperative play and sharing. Social understanding is particularly important because of the social nature of humans and human life, even in early infancy Wellman and Lagattuta Return to Top References Ainsworth, M. Infant Care and the Growth of Love. Johns Hopkins University Press. American Academy of Pediatrics. Caring for Your Baby and Young Child: Birth to Age 5 Fourth edition. University of Chicago Press. Attachment Second edition , Attachment and Loss series, Vol. Foreword by Allan N. Self-Regulation in Early Childhood: California Department of Education. Return to Top Campos, J. Science and Practice, Vol. Helping Young Children Succeed: The University of Chicago Press. Early Language Milestone Scale: Emotional Development in Young Children. The Beginnings of Social Understanding. Return to Top Fabes, R. Infant, Family, and Society Fourth edition. Denver II Screening Manual. The Social World of Children: Why Are They So Important? Return to Top Kravitz, H. Caring for Infants and Toddlers in Groups:

5: Erik Erikson | Psychosocial Stages | Simply Psychology

Development of the endocrine glands is essential to mature emotional behavior. The baby is relatively lacking in the: endocrine products that sustain some of the physiological response to stress. The adrenal glands, which play a dominant role in the emotions, show a sharp decrease in size, soon after birth.

Mistrust Is the world a safe place or is it full of unpredictable events and accidents waiting to happen? The crisis is one of trust vs. During this stage, the infant is uncertain about the world in which they live. To resolve these feelings of uncertainty, the infant looks towards their primary caregiver for stability and consistency of care. If the care the infant receives is consistent, predictable and reliable, they will develop a sense of trust which will carry with them to other relationships, and they will be able to feel secure even when threatened. Success in this stage will lead to the virtue of hope. By developing a sense of trust, the infant can have hope that as new crises arise, there is a real possibility that other people will be there as a source of support. Failing to acquire the virtue of hope will lead to the development of fear. For example, if the care has been harsh or inconsistent, unpredictable and unreliable, then the infant will develop a sense of mistrust and will not have confidence in the world around them or in their abilities to influence events. This infant will carry the basic sense of mistrust with them to other relationships. It may result in anxiety, heightened insecurities, and an over feeling of mistrust in the world around them. This stage occurs between the ages of 18 months to approximately 3 years. The child is developing physically and becoming more mobile, and discovering that he or she has many skills and abilities, such as putting on clothes and shoes, playing with toys, etc. For example, during this stage children begin to assert their independence, by walking away from their mother, picking which toy to play with, and making choices about what they like to wear, to eat, etc. Erikson states it is critical that parents allow their children to explore the limits of their abilities within an encouraging environment which is tolerant of failure. So, the parents need to encourage the child to become more independent while at the same time protecting the child so that constant failure is avoided. A delicate balance is required from the parent. They must try not to do everything for the child, but if the child fails at a particular task they must not criticize the child for failures and accidents particularly when toilet training. Success in this stage will lead to the virtue of will. If children in this stage are encouraged and supported in their increased independence, they become more confident and secure in their own ability to survive in the world. If children are criticized, overly controlled, or not given the opportunity to assert themselves, they begin to feel inadequate in their ability to survive, and may then become overly dependent upon others, lack self-esteem, and feel a sense of shame or doubt in their abilities. During the initiative versus guilt stage, children assert themselves more frequently. Central to this stage is play, as it provides children with the opportunity to explore their interpersonal skills through initiating activities. Children begin to plan activities, make up games, and initiate activities with others. If given this opportunity, children develop a sense of initiative and feel secure in their ability to lead others and make decisions. Conversely, if this tendency is squelched, either through criticism or control, children develop a sense of guilt. They may feel like a nuisance to others and will, therefore, remain followers, lacking in self-initiative. The child takes initiatives which the parents will often try to stop in order to protect the child. The child will often overstep the mark in his forcefulness, and the danger is that the parents will tend to punish the child and restrict his initiatives too much. It is at this stage that the child will begin to ask many questions as his thirst for knowledge grows. Too much guilt can make the child slow to interact with others and may inhibit their creativity. Some guilt is, of course, necessary; otherwise the child would not know how to exercise self-control or have a conscience. A healthy balance between initiative and guilt is important. Success in this stage will lead to the virtue of purpose. Children are at the stage where they will be learning to read and write, to do sums, to do things on their own. The child now feels the need to win approval by demonstrating specific competencies that are valued by society and begin to develop a sense of pride in their accomplishments. If children are encouraged and reinforced for their initiative, they begin to feel industrious competent and feel confident in their ability to achieve goals. If this initiative is not encouraged, if it is restricted by parents or teacher, then the child begins to feel inferior, doubting his own abilities and therefore

may not reach his or her potential. If the child cannot develop the specific skill they feel society is demanding. Some failure may be necessary so that the child can develop some modesty. Again, a balance between competence and modesty is necessary. Success in this stage will lead to the virtue of competence.

Role Confusion During adolescence, the transition from childhood to adulthood is most important. Children are becoming more independent, and begin to look at the future in terms of career, relationships, families, housing, etc. The individual wants to belong to a society and fit in. The fifth stage is identity vs. During this stage, adolescents search for a sense of self and personal identity, through an intense exploration of personal values, beliefs, and goals. The adolescent mind is essentially a mind or moratorium, a psychosocial stage between childhood and adulthood, and between the morality learned by the child, and the ethics to be developed by the adult Erikson, p. It is during this stage that the adolescent will re-examine his identity and try to find out exactly who he or she is. Erikson suggests that two identities are involved: During this stage the body image of the adolescent changes. Success in this stage will lead to the virtue of fidelity. During this period, they explore possibilities and begin to form their own identity based upon the outcome of their explorations. Role confusion involves the individual not being sure about themselves or their place in society. In response to role confusion or identity crisis, an adolescent may begin to experiment with different lifestyles. Also pressuring someone into an identity can result in rebellion in the form of establishing a negative identity, and in addition to this feeling of unhappiness. This stage takes place during young adulthood between the ages of approximately 18 to 40 yrs. During this period, the major conflict centers on forming intimate, loving relationships with other people. During this period, we begin to share ourselves more intimately with others. We explore relationships leading toward longer-term commitments with someone other than a family member. Successful completion of this stage can result in happy relationships and a sense of commitment, safety, and care within a relationship. Avoiding intimacy, fearing commitment and relationships can lead to isolation, loneliness, and sometimes depression. Success in this stage will lead to the virtue of love. This stage takes place during middle adulthood ages 40 to 65 yrs. Generativity refers to "making your mark" on the world through creating or nurturing things that will outlast an individual. People experience a need to create or nurture things that will outlast them, often having mentees or creating positive changes that will benefit other people. We give back to society through raising our children, being productive at work, and becoming involved in community activities and organizations. Through generativity we develop a sense of being a part of the bigger picture. Success leads to feelings of usefulness and accomplishment, while failure results in shallow involvement in the world. By failing to find a way to contribute, we become stagnant and feel unproductive. These individuals may feel disconnected or uninvolved with their community and with society as a whole. Success in this stage will lead to the virtue of care. This stage begins at approximately age 65 and ends at death. It is during this time that we contemplate our accomplishments and can develop integrity if we see ourselves as leading a successful life. Erik Erikson believed if we see our lives as unproductive, feel guilt about our past, or feel that we did not accomplish our life goals, we become dissatisfied with life and develop despair, often leading to depression and hopelessness. Success in this stage will lead to the virtue of wisdom. Wisdom enables a person to look back on their life with a sense of closure and completeness, and also accept death without fear. Wise people are not characterized by a continuous state of ego integrity, but they experience both ego integrity and despair. Thus, late life is characterized by both integrity and despair as alternating states that need to be balanced.

Critical Evaluation By extending the notion of personality development across the lifespan, Erikson outlines a more realistic perspective of personality development McAdams, Middle and late adulthood are no longer viewed as irrelevant, because of Erikson, they are now considered active and significant times of personal growth. Many people find that they can relate to his theories about various stages of the life cycle through their own experiences. However, Erikson is rather vague about the causes of development. What kinds of experiences must people have to successfully resolve various psychosocial conflicts and move from one stage to another? The theory does not have a universal mechanism for crisis resolution. Indeed, Erikson acknowledges his theory is more a descriptive overview of human social and emotional development that does not adequately explain how or why this development occurs. For example, Erikson does not explicitly explain how the outcome of one psychosocial stage influences

personality at a later stage. A study in psychoanalysis and history. The life cycle completed. The ego and the id. The science of mind and behavior. Personality trait structure as a human universal. American Psychologist, 52 5 , How to reference this article:

6: Psychological development | www.enganchecubano.com

Social-emotional development includes the child's experience, expression, and management of emotions and the ability to establish positive and rewarding relationships with others (Cohen and others).

Parental Influence on the Emotional Development of Children by Bethel Moges and Kristi Weber

When most people think of parenting, they picture changing diapers, messy feeding times, and chasing a screaming child through a crowded grocery store. But parenting goes far beyond the requirements for meeting the basic survival needs of the child, and parents have a significant influence on how children turn out, including their personality, emotional development, and behavioral habits, as well as a host of other factors. It is important for the overall development of children that parents be present enough to support them, and this support fosters confidence and growth in many areas. Here we will explore the ways parents can impact the emotional development of their children. Sometimes, just being physically present is not enough. Parents that may be nearby but that are not emotionally invested or responsive tend to raise children that are more distressed and less engaged with their play or activities. Parents should keep this in mind when considering the quality of the time they spend with their children, because if they do not invest enough of their time and commitment into pouring emotionally into their child, the child will struggle to learn how to regulate his emotions and interact with others appropriately. Alan Sroufe found that the style of early attachment relationships predicts later emotional development of children. This suggests that attachment styles are not inborn but are driven by how parents interact with their infant from birth. Longitudinal attachment studies show that children with anxious attachment were likely to be emotionally disturbed and have low self-esteem Sroufe. If the form of attachment has such long-lasting impacts on children, it is clear that parents must treat their children in ways that foster secure attachment in order for the children to grow into emotionally stable adolescents and adults. An important factor in the emotional development of children is how warm caregivers are, and studies have been done to find the effects of depressed mothers on the emotional development of children. Depressed mothers have maladaptive thoughts, attitudes, and behaviors, and these, along with being in a similarly stressful environment as the mother, put a child at risk of developing his own emotional problems Sroufe. The fact that depressed mothers are likely to be indifferent towards their children, put them in less social situations, and generally provide less stimulation for their children, puts the children at a disadvantage for achieving normal emotional development. A key aspect of emotional development in children is learning how to regulate emotions. Children see how their parents display emotions and interact with other people, and they imitate what they see their parents do to regulate emotions Sheffield Morris et. For example, children more prone to negative emotions or episodes of anger are deeply affected by hostile and neglectful parenting, often leading to even more behavioral problems. Difficult temperaments can become a bidirectional problem that evokes even more negative emotions from the parent if not monitored. Furthermore, how parents address the emotions of their children and respond to them affects how expressive the children feel they can be. Reacting with criticism or dismissing the sadness or anger of a child communicates that their emotions are not valid or appropriate, which can cause children to be even more prone to those negative emotions and less able to cope with stress Siegler et. This sort of emotion coaching greatly helps in reducing future problem behavior in children. In addition to being able to express their own emotions, it is important in social situations for children to be able to identify and deal with the emotions of those around them. Parents model for their children how to comfort someone who is crying or smile at someone who is smiling, but other parental behaviors also influence how their children learn to understand the emotions of others. Coming from a family with divorced parents, I Kristi can relate to this issue of background anger being a factor, because although my parents split when I was at a vulnerable age, they made sure not to fight in front of my sister and I, and I think that allowed us to have a healthier reaction to the divorce and to be emotionally well-adjusted in social interactions. Parenting decisions affect how children turn out physically, socially, and emotionally, but that is not to say parents should be obsessed with following certain steps to have a perfectly well-adjusted child. We accept that there is no perfect formula for parents to model behavior or speak to children in certain ways to

make them have a perfect emotional development experience, and that places a limit on our exploration of this subject. Parents can help their children develop into emotionally stable people by giving them a supportive environment, positive feedback, role models of healthy behavior and interactions, and someone to talk to about their emotional reactions to their experiences. References Sheffield Morris, A. The role of the family context in the development of emotional regulation. *Social Development*, 16 2 , pp From infant attachment to promotion of adolescent autonomy: Prospective, longitudinal data on the role of parents in development. Influences on Academic, Intellectual, and Social-emotional Development. Predictors of parent-infant attachment and emerging self-regulation. *Journal of family psychology*, 16, pp

7: Developmental psychology - Wikipedia

In social and emotional development, forming healthy attachments is very important and is the major social milestone of infancy. Attachment is a long-standing connection or bond with others. Developmental psychologists are interested in how infants reach this milestone.

Saul McLeod, published, updated Developmental psychology is a scientific approach which aims to explain growth, change and consistency through the lifespan. Developmental psychologists study a wide range of theoretical areas, such as biological, social, emotion, and cognitive processes. Empirical research in this area tends to be dominated by psychologists from Western cultures such as North American and Europe, although during the 1970s Japanese researchers began making a valid contribution to the field. To describe development it is necessary to focus both on typical patterns of change normative development and on individual variations in patterns of change. Although there are typical pathways of development that most people will follow, no two persons are exactly alike. Developmental psychologists must also seek to explain the changes they have observed in relation to normative processes and individual differences. Although, it is often easier to describe development than to explain how it occurs. Finally, developmental psychologists hope to optimise development, and apply their theories to help people in practical situations.

Developmental Questions
Continuity vs. Discontinuity Think about how children become adults. Is there a predictable pattern they follow regarding thought and language and social development? Do children go through gradual changes or are they abrupt changes? Normative development is typically viewed as a continual and cumulative process. The continuity view says that change is gradual. Children become more skillful in thinking, talking or acting much the same way as they get taller. The discontinuity view sees development as more abrupt—a succession of changes that produce different behaviors in different age-specific life periods called stages. Biological changes provide the potential for these changes. These are called developmental stages—periods of life initiated by distinct transitions in physical or psychological functioning. Psychologists of the discontinuity view believe that people go through the same stages, in the same order, but not necessarily at the same rate.

Nurture When trying to explain development, it is important to consider the relative contribution of both nature and nurture. Developmental psychology seeks to answer two big questions about heredity and environment: How much weight does each contribute? How do nature and nurture interact? Nature refers to the process of biological maturation inheritance and maturation. One of the reasons why the development of human beings is so similar is because our common species hereditary DNA guides all of us through many of the same developmental changes at about the same points in our lives. Nurture refers to the impact of the environment, which involves the process of learning through experiences. There are two effective ways to study nature-nurture. Similarities with the biological family support nature, while similarities with the adoptive family support nurture.

Change Stability implies personality traits present during present during infancy endure throughout the lifespan. In contrast, change theorists argue that personalities are modified by interactions with family, experiences at school, and acculturation. This capacity for change is called plasticity. For example, Rutter discovered that somber babies living in understaffed orphanages often become cheerful and affectionate when placed in socially stimulating adoptive homes. The notion of childhood originates in the Western world and this is why the early research derives from this location. Initially developmental psychologists were interested in studying the mind of the child so that education and learning could be more effective. Developmental changes during adulthood is an even more recent area of study. This is mainly due to advances in medical science, enabling people to live to an old age. Charles Darwin is credited with conducting the first systematic study of developmental psychology. In 1882 he published a short paper detailing the development of innate forms of communication based on scientific observations of his infant son, Doddy. However, the emergence of developmental psychology as a specific discipline can be traced back to when Wilhelm Preyer a German physiologist published a book entitled *The Mind of the Child*. In the book Preyer describes the development of his own daughter from birth to two and a half years. Importantly, Preyer used rigorous scientific procedure throughout studying the many abilities of his daughter. During the 19th century three key figures have dominated the field

with their extensive theories of human development, namely Jean Piaget , Lev Vygotsky and John Bowlby. Indeed, much of the current research continues to be influenced by these three theorists. Theories of Development Jean Piaget Piaget believed that children think differently than adults, and stated they go through 4 universal stages of cognitive development. A Biographical Sketch of an Infant. Die Seele des Kindes: Grieben, Leipzig, Preyer, W. The soul of the child: Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 22 4 , How to reference this article:

8: What is EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT? definition of EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT (Psychology Diction

Emotional intelligence is the ability to identify and manage your own emotions and the emotions of others. It is generally said to include three skills: emotional awareness; the ability to harness.

It is the subject matter of the discipline known as developmental psychology. Child psychology was the traditional focus of research, but since the mid-20th century much has been learned about infancy and adulthood as well. A brief treatment of psychological development follows. For full treatment, see human behaviour.

Infancy Infancy is the period between birth and the acquisition of language one to two years later. Besides a set of inherited reflexes that help them obtain nourishment and react to danger, newborns are equipped with a predilection for certain visual patterns, including that of the human face, and for certain sounds, including that of the human voice. Within a few months they are able to identify their mother by sight, and they show a striking sensitivity to the tones, rhythmic flow, and individual sounds that make up human speech. Even young infants are capable of complex perceptual judgments involving distance, shape, direction, and depth, and they are soon able to organize their experience by creating categories for objects and events.

Early Childhood Infants make rapid advances in both recognition and recall memory, and this in turn increases their ability to understand and anticipate events in their environment. A fundamental advance at this time is the recognition of object permanence. About 18 months of age, the child starts trying to solve physical problems by mentally imagining certain events and outcomes rather than through simple trial-and-error experimentation. Three-month-old infants already display behavioral reactions suggestive of such emotional states as surprise, distress, relaxation, and excitement. New emotional states, including anger, sadness, and fear, all appear by the first year. Babies begin to smile at other people beginning about two months, and by six months they have developed an attachment to their mother or other caregiver. These attachments form the basis for healthy emotional and social development throughout childhood.

Childhood The second major phase in human development, childhood, extends from one or two years of age until the onset of adolescence at age 12 or 13. The early years of childhood are marked by enormous strides in the understanding and use of language. Children begin to comprehend words some months before they themselves actually speak. The average infant speaks his first words by 12-14 months, and by the 18th month he has a speaking vocabulary of about 50 words. The child begins to use two- and then three-word combinations and progresses from simple noun-verb combinations to more grammatically complex sequences, using conjunctions, prepositions, articles, and tenses with growing fluency and accuracy. By the fourth year most children can speak in adultlike sentences and have begun to master the more complex rules of grammar and meaning. In their cognitive abilities, children make a transition from relying solely on concrete, tangible reality to performing logical operations on abstract and symbolic material. Even a two-year-old child behaves as though the external world is a permanent place, independent of his perceptions; and he exhibits experimental or goal-directed behaviour that may be creatively and spontaneously adapted for new purposes. During the period from two to seven years, the child begins to manipulate the environment by means of symbolic thought and language; he becomes capable of solving new types of logical problems and begins to use mental operations that are flexible and fully reversible in thought. Between the ages of 7 and 12, the beginnings of logic appear in the form of classifications of ideas, an understanding of time and number, and a greater appreciation of seriation and other hierarchical relationships.

Adolescence Emotionally, children develop in the direction of greater self-awareness. This contributes to empathy, or the ability to appreciate the feelings and perceptions of others and understand their point of view. A further shift in moral reasoning to one based on the avoidance of internal guilt and self-recrimination marks the passage from childhood and adolescence to adulthood. Physically, adolescence begins with the onset of puberty at 12 or 13 and culminates at age 19 or 20 in adulthood. Intellectually, adolescence is the period when the individual becomes able to systematically formulate hypotheses or propositions, test them, and make rational evaluations. The formal thinking of adolescents and adults tends to be self-consciously deductive, rational, and systematic. Emotionally, adolescence is the time when the individual learns to control and direct his sex urges and begins to establish his own sexual role and relationships. The second decade of

life is also a time when the individual lessens his emotional if not physical dependence on his parents and develops a mature set of values and responsible self-direction. During the middle 30s people develop a sense of time limitation, and previous behaviour patterns or beliefs may be given up in favour of new ones. Middle age is a period of adjustment between the potentialities of the past and the limitations of the future. An emotional rebellion has been observed in some persons, sometimes referred to as a mid-life crisis, engendered by the recognition that less time remains to be lived than has been lived already. In women, dramatic shifts in hormone production lead to the onset of menopause. During late middle age individuals become more aware of ill health and thus may consciously or unconsciously alter the patterns of their lives. Individuals accept the limits of their accomplishments and either take satisfaction in them or despair and become anxious over unobtained objectives. During old age sensory and perceptual skills, muscular strength, and memory tend to diminish, though intelligence does not. These changes, together with retirement from active employment, tend to make the elderly more dependent on their children or other younger people, both emotionally and physically. Learn More in these related Britannica articles:

9: Social-Emotional Development Domain - Child Development (CA Dept of Education)

Developmental psychology is a scientific approach which aims to explain growth, change and consistency through the lifespan. Developmental psychology looks at how thinking, feeling, and behavior change throughout a person's life.

Maturation and learning are so closely interwoven in the development of the emotions that at times it is difficult to determine their relative effects. Factors influencing emotional development are as follows: The growth of imagination and understanding and the increase in ability to remember and anticipate likewise affect emotional reactions. Development of the endocrine glands is essential to mature emotional behavior. The baby is relatively lacking in the: The adrenal glands, which play a dominant role in the emotions, show a sharp decrease in size, soon after birth. Shortly later they begin to grow; they gain rapidly up to 5 years, slowly from 5 to 11, and more rapidly up to 16 years, by which time they have regained their birth size. Until their size has increased, little adrenin is produced and secreted. Five kinds of learning contribute to the development of emotional patterns during childhood. Trial and error learning involves mainly the response aspect of the emotional pattern. Children learn in a trial and error way to express their emotions in forms of behavior that give them the greatest satisfaction and to abandon those that give little or no satisfaction. This form of learning is more commonly used in early childhood than later, but it is never completely abandoned. Learning by imitation affects both the stimulus and the response aspects of the emotional pattern. From observing the things that arouse certain emotions in others, children react with similar emotions and in methods of expression similar to those of the person or persons observed. Learning by identification is similar to learning by imitation in that children copy the emotional reactions of another person and are emotionally aroused by a stimulus similar to that which arouses the emotion in the person imitated. It differs from imitation in two ways: Conditioning is related to the stimulus aspect of the emotional pattern, not to the reaction it calls forth. Conditioning occurs easily and quickly during the early years of life because young children lack both the reasoning ability and the experience to assess a situation critically and to recognize how irrational many of their emotional responses are. After early childhood, conditioning is increasingly limited to the development of likes and dislikes. Training, or learning under guidance and supervision, is limited to the response aspect of the emotional pattern. Through training children are stimulated to respond to stimuli that normally give rise to pleasant emotions and discouraged from responding emotionally to stimuli that give rise to the unpleasant emotions. The Basic Emotional Patterns: After the early months of babyhood, differentiated emotional patterns emerge. The most common fear-provoking stimuli in babyhood are loud noises, animals, dark rooms, high places, sudden displacement, being alone pain and strange persons, places, and objects. Among older children fears are concentrated on fanciful supernatural, or remote dangers; on the dark and on imaginary creatures associated with the dark; on death or injury injury; on the elements; especially thunder and lightning; and; and on characters recalled from stories, movies, comics, and television. Anger is a more frequently expressed emotion in childhood than fear in its different forms. The reason for this is that anger-provoking stimuli are more numerous and children discover at an early age that anger is an effective way of getting attention or what they want. Each year, the number of anger-arousing situations increases and children tend to display more anger. Jealousy is a normal response to actual, supposed, or threatened loss of affection. It is outgrowth of anger, giving rise to an attitude of resentment directed toward people. Often some fear is combined with anger in the jealousy pattern. The situation that calls forth jealousy is always a social one. There are three major situational sources of jealousy. First, most childhood jealousies are homegrown; that is they originate in conditions that exist in the home environment. Because the new baby takes much of the time and attention older children have become accustomed to receiving, they feel neglected. Second, social situations in the school are responsible for many of the jealousies of older children. Third, situations in which children feel that they have been deprived of material possessions other children have may make them jealous of these children. This kind of jealousy comes from envy. Grief is a psychic trauma, an emotional distress resulting from the loss of something loved. In its milder forms, it is known as sorrow or sadness. The typical overt expression of grief in childhood is crying. Mow and Mow have described the curious child in the

following way. Joy, Pleasure, and Delight: Joy is a pleasant emotion. In its milder forms, it is known as pleasure, or happiness. Among babies, the pleasant emotions of joy, happiness, and delight come from physical well-being. In older children, the stimuli that aroused pleasant emotions at the younger ages continue to bring pleasure. Affection is an emotional reaction directed toward a person, an animal, or a thing. It indicates warm regard, friendliness, sympathy, or helpfulness, and it may take a physical or verbal form. Learning plays an important role in determining the particular persons or objects to which affection is directed.

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