Module 9

CHILD DEVELOPMENT
General Education Modules
for Upper Primary and Junior Secondary School Teachers
of Science, Technology and Mathematics by Distance
in the Southern African Development Community (SADC)

Developed by
The Southern African Development Community

Ministries of Education in:
- Botswana
- Malawi
- Mozambique
- Namibia
- South Africa
- Tanzania
- Zambia
- Zimbabwe

In partnership with The Commonwealth of Learning

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GENERAL EDUCATION MODULES

This module is one of a series prepared under the auspices of the Southern African Development Community (SADC) and The Commonwealth of Learning as part of the Science, Technology and Mathematics Programme (STAMP 2000+). These General Education modules enable teachers to enhance their professional skills through distance and open learning. Many individuals and groups have been involved in writing and producing these modules. We trust that they will benefit not only the teachers who use them, but also, ultimately, their students and the communities and nations in which they live.

The eighteen General Education modules are as follows:

Module 1: Multigrade Teaching: Introduction to Multigrade Teaching
Module 2: Multigrade Teaching: Classroom Organisation and Management
Module 3: The Reading Process
Module 4: Developing Reading Skills
Module 5: Special Educational Needs: An Introduction to Teaching Traumatised Children
Module 6: Special Educational Needs: A Practical Guide to Teaching Traumatised Children
Module 7: Education Management Development: Part A
Module 8: Education Management Development: Part B
Module 9: Child Development
Module 10: Concepts of Learning
Module 11: An Introduction to Concepts in Language and Communication
Module 12: Language and Communication: Language in Use
Module 13: Curriculum Theory, Design and Assessment
Module 14: Curriculum Practice
Module 15: A Theoretical Framework on Innovations in Education
Module 16: Effects of Social Changes on Education
Module 17: Comparative Education: Introduction to Key Concepts in Comparative Education
Module 18: Comparative Education: Themes and Trends in Comparative Education in SADC Countries
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  Upper Primary Technology

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Module 9

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CHILD DEVELOPMENT

This is one of a series of modules in the General Education courses developed by Ministries of Education in the SADC region in cooperation with The Commonwealth of Learning.

To understand your pupils fully, you need to know how children develop intellectually, morally, socially, emotionally and physically. This module will help you analyse and discuss aspects of child development, regarding the child as a complete entity with various needs and characteristics. The module further looks at how you, the teacher, should respond to changes that the child passes through during the development process.

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You will find the following tips helpful as you study this module.

- **Set aside some time each day to work on this module.** If possible, study at the same time and in the same place so you are comfortable with your study surroundings. Learning at a distance requires discipline and motivation.

- **Go through the module unit by unit.**

- **Note any words you do not understand.** Look them up in a dictionary or other reference source or discuss them with your colleagues.

- **Underline or highlight important passages.** Make summary notes in the margins of long passages. Writing will help you to remember the material. You may also choose to make diagrams that illustrate how different ideas are related or list the steps in a procedure or technique.

- As you work through this module, **keep in mind your learners and their educational needs** as well as your instructional goals and your subject matter. How will you apply what you are learning?

- Read the assignment instructions carefully. Then, **do all the self-assessment activities** before proceeding to the Suggested Answers section.

- **As you undertake each activity, relate it to the practice of teaching** and analyse how it will help you to enhance the teaching-learning situation. Always ask yourself how you could use this material.

- **Apply some of the suggested techniques to your teaching.** All suggestions may not be appropriate for your situation, but how will you know unless you try them? Keep a record of what techniques work and an explanation of why some techniques appeared to fail. What does not work now may work later with different students.

- It may be difficult, but try to **meet occasionally with other teachers** to discuss the content and application of suggestions provided in this module.

- If you experience difficulty in understanding some aspect of the module, do not despair! You are meant to be challenged. **Do not give up!** Just remember that your goal is to be the best teacher that you can be. Think of what you would tell a student who was experiencing difficulty in your classroom. Then, apply the same advice to yourself.
Throughout each module, you will find the following icons or graphic symbols that alert you to a change in activity within the module. Only the icons that are required are used in each module.

- **Text or Reading Material**: provides information about the topics that are covered in a module. The subject matter for each SADC module is organised into units.

- **Introductory Activity**: requires you to focus on the content that will be discussed in a unit.

- **Self-Assessment**: enables you to check your understanding of what you have read and, in some cases, to apply the information presented in the unit to new situations.

- **Practice Activity**: encourages you to review and apply what you have learned before taking a unit test.

- **Reflection**: asks you to relate what you have learned to your work as a teacher or education officer in your community.

- **Summary**: highlights or provides an overview of the most important points covered in a unit.

- **Unit Test**: concludes each unit.

- **Suggested Answers**: allow you to evaluate your learning by providing sample answers to assessments, activities and the unit test.
UNIT 1: Theories of Child Development

Introduction
This unit introduces you to some of the most important theories of child development. It also discusses the application of theories to classroom situations. Teaching skills on their own are not enough. You should know about children and how they develop. You should be able to select and apply relevant theories in order to help each child to learn more effectively.

Once you understand the principles of child development, you will be able to evaluate your students more realistically. You will be in a position to evaluate them according to the general developmental level of children of their age.

Therefore, to teach children successfully, you should understand how children develop, think and respond to situations. This unit will help you gain this understanding.

Objectives
After completing this unit, you should be able to:
1. Define the concept of child development.
2. Discuss the theories of child development.
3. Apply principles of the theories to classroom situations.

What Is Child Development?
The definition provided by Farrant (1988) will help you understand the concept of child development. Farrant states that child development is the change in structure, form and organisation that brings about change and refinement of inborn abilities and characteristics of children that are present at birth.

Cognitive Development Theories
Cognitive developmental theories emphasise the development of thinking and the importance of the child’s interaction with objects and with people. They assume that the child must engage in some form of activity in order for development to occur. The child is therefore actively involved in the developmental process.

Jean Piaget, a Swiss psychologist, is a prominent theorist who has shaped the thinking of many developmental psychologists. He discovered that children seem to go through the same kinds of sequential discoveries about their world, making the same mistakes and arriving at the same answers (Bee, 1989). For
example, 3- and 4-year-old children think that if you pour water from a fat glass into a thin glass, there will be more water in the thin glass because the water level is higher. Piaget’s theory is considered in more detail in Unit 2.

According to developmental theorists, the way children see things and understand concepts changes as they mature.

**Self-Assessment 1**

Discuss the major characteristics of the cognitive development theories.

Possible answers to this activity are provided at the end of this unit.

**Learning Theories of Child Development**

Learning theorists emphasise the significance of the environment and the processes of learning in child development.

According to Albert Bandura, cited in Yelon and Weinstein (1977), children are not born knowing how to behave. They have to learn. Development occurs due to specific experiences within the environment.

Other learning theorists such as B. F. Skinner, cited in Grusec, Lockhart and Walters (1990) and discussed in Module 10, *Concepts of Learning*, see child development as a long sequence of individual learning experiences. If children seem to follow the same sequence of development, it is only because they are likely to have gone through similar learning experiences.

In the learning theorists’ view, reinforcement is the single most important factor in learning. The components of this method of learning are stimulus, response and consequences. The consequences of the response may be positive or negative. It is the consequences that bring about learning or change of behaviour.

For example, let’s say you want to teach a child to be polite. Every time the child behaves politely, you praise the child and show the child that you have noticed the polite gesture. You have therefore positively reinforced the child’s polite behaviour. In future, the child is likely to repeat the behaviour. The child would have learned to be polite.

**Self-Assessment 2**

What are the major components of the learning theories approach?
Possible answers to this question are provided at the end of this unit.

**Biological Theories of Development**

Biological theories of development state that developmental processes are programmed in our genes and are influenced by physiological processes such as hormonal changes. Genetic programming is the main factor that distinguishes biological theories from other theories of development.

Gesell (1925), cited in Bee (1989), was amongst the first proponents of the biological theories of development. He proposed the concept of **maturation**, which he described as genetically programmed sequential patterns of change in physical characteristics such as hormone levels, co-ordination, body size and shape. Thus, as a child matures, development occurs regardless of practice or training.

**Self-Assessment 3**

What is the main feature that distinguishes biological theories from other theories of development?

Possible answers to this question are provided at the end of this unit.

**Implications for the Classroom Teacher**

Development influences **readiness to learn**. If the child has not developed to a point where what you are teaching can be learned, your effort is wasted.

As a teacher, you must always ask yourself this question: Are these children ready to learn what I want them to learn?

This question of readiness is central in learning. Cognitive development and biological theorists believe that a child must reach an appropriate developmental level before particular learning can take place. You would be wasting a lot of time and energy in teaching concepts like justice and democracy to a 5-year-old. This is because at that developmental level, abstract concepts do not mean anything to the child.

Learning theorists believe that if you can stimulate children’s interests, you can make them ready. They say that you can teach a child anything and at any stage of development. What you need to provide are appropriate environmental factors, such as positive reinforcements. Thus, learning and behaviour are shaped mainly by reinforcers.

In order to understand the learning theories approach, you need to take note of the following:
• The behaviour that is to be learned.
• The reinforcers to be used, such as attention and praise.
• The scheduling or timing of the reinforcers. Reinforcement immediately after the desired behaviour is most desirable.

As a classroom teacher, you may also use the principles of the learning theorists in the area of behaviour modification, that is, changing undesirable behaviours of pupils. For example, a child may make noise or be inattentive. You can positively reinforce the child every time the child shows an appropriate behaviour. With time, the child learns the appropriate behaviour and it becomes a part of the child’s behaviour. The concept of learning will be discussed in more detail in Module 10.

Practice Activity
You are a Grade 4 teacher. The pupils in your class are operating at different levels. How can you apply some of the principles of the theories discussed in Unit 1 to your classroom so that every pupil is treated appropriately?

Possible answers are provided at the end of this unit.

Summary
This unit has introduced you to the concept of child development and the theories underlying this concept. Each of the theories mentioned in this chapter will be discussed in more depth in later units.

The application of the theories to the classroom situation has been discussed briefly. We hope that as you perform your duties as a classroom teacher, you will keep in mind the relationship between developmental processes taking place in the children and their readiness to learn.

Reflection
Think of how you could enhance your role as a classroom teacher given the information gained from this unit.

Unit Test
Compare and contrast the major theories on child development discussed in this unit.

Possible answers to this test are provided at the end of this unit.
Suggested Answers

Self-Assessment 1

The major characteristics of the cognitive development theories are listed below.

- Emphasis is placed on the development of thinking processes.
- There is interaction with objects and people.
- The child engages in some form of voluntary activity.
- Development occurs in stages.
- Most children pass through the same stages.

Self-Assessment 2

The major components of the learning theories approach are outlined below.

- Development occurs due to specific experiences within the environment.
- Child development is a long sequence of individual learning experiences.
- Reinforcement is the most important factor that determines learning.

Self-Assessment 3

The main feature that distinguishes biological theories from other theories is the emphasis on genetically programmed processes of maturation.

Practice Activity

Below are some of the ways you could apply developmental theories in the classroom.

- You can identify your learners’ ages and corresponding developmental levels.
- You can make children ready to learn by providing appropriate environmental experiences.
- You can provide reinforcement such as praise to reward appropriate behaviour.

Unit Test

Major theories on child development as discussed in the unit:

*Cognitive Developmental Theories*

- Child development comes about due to changes in thinking processes. Development is in stages and all
children have to pass through the same stages of development.

Learning Theories

• Learning is a result of specific experiences within the environment. Development is a sequence of learning activities.

Biological Theories

• Child developmental processes are programmed in the genes and are influenced by hormonal changes.

Both the cognitive development and learning theories are based on the belief that child development occurs due to the child becoming actively involved with the environment, while biological theories hold that the changes are due to the child’s genetic make-up and hormonal changes.
UNIT 2: Cognitive Development

Introduction
This unit is organised in four parts. The first section discusses the assumptions basic to Jean Piaget’s theory of cognitive development. The unit then proceeds to outline the stages of child development. After reviewing the theory, you are asked to relate the theory to the classroom. The unit ends by giving a summary of the content.

Objectives
After completing this unit, you should be able to:
1. Define the concept of cognitive development.
2. Explain the assumptions basic to Piaget’s theory.
3. Describe the characteristics of each stage.
4. Analyse the applicability of the cognitive development theory in the classroom.

Definition of Cognitive Development
The *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, third edition, defines *cognitive* as an “adjective related to the process of knowing, understanding and learning”. The same dictionary defines development as “gradual growth”. Therefore, in the context of this module, *cognitive development* will relate to the growth of the mind in terms of its ability to learn and understand the environment.

You will perhaps be interested to know that during his early life, Jean Piaget worked as a biologist. Later he became involved in philosophy and psychology. His interest in these areas led him to make some assumptions about the development of the child’s mind. Bee (1989) is a major source for the assumptions presented below.

Assumptions Basic to Piaget’s Theory
Below are the basic assumptions that underlie Piaget’s work.

- From infancy, the child voluntarily explores the environment. This is done by watching, touching and listening. Through these processes the child adapts to the environment. This assumption is technically referred to as adaptation (Bee, 1989).
- The second assumption is the result of the breakdown of the adaptation process into sub-processes: assimilation, accommodation and equilibration.
An object that has been observed before becomes recognised. This is technically called assimilation.

The mental picture or scheme that the child holds about an object will change when a similar picture or idea is taken in through the process of accommodation. For example, if the child’s ideas about cars are based on seeing a blue car, this scheme will change when the child sees a red car. The picture or scheme of the red car is added to the existing scheme of the blue car to form a new concept of cars as objects that come in several colours.

Children, like all human beings, strive to keep a balance in their understanding of their environment. For example, a donkey may initially be viewed as a type of dog. When it finally is categorised as a donkey in the light of new experience, the child’s mind would have reached equilibration.

- The third assumption is that cognitive development occurs as the child goes through the process of assimilation, accommodation and equilibration.
- The fourth assumption is that a child has a unified cognitive system. This is achieved through the child’s regular attempts to achieve an understanding of the environment in a coherent manner.

**Self-Assessment 1**

1. List the assumptions that Jean Piaget made in his theory of cognitive development.
2. Briefly explain any one of the assumptions made by the theory.

Possible answers are provided at the end of this unit.

**Piaget’s Stages of Cognitive Development**

Now that you have learned the assumptions that Piaget made about the development of the child’s mind, let us look at the stages that he proposed a child’s mind passes through.

By now, you may have realised that Piaget is a cognitive psychologist. As asserted by Yelon and Weinstein (1977: 42), “Piaget’s theory itself is clearly structured and not difficult to understand.” The stages are stated below in point form in order to aid your comprehension.

- The sensory-motor state (birth to 2 years)
- The pre-operational stage (2 to 6 years)
- The concrete operational stage (7 to 11 years)
- The formal operational stage (12 years and over)
Characteristic Features of Piaget's Stages of Cognitive Development

According to Piaget, the development of thought processes is viewed as following four stages that develop gradually and correspond approximately with age. No stage is missed. The characteristics of each stage reflect universal principles about the way the mind develops for all children. Individuals may fluctuate between stages, depending upon the task. Below are the features of each stage.

Sensory Motor Stage (Birth to 2 Years)
- Sensory impressions are gained through prolonged observations.
- Motor activities, for example, sucking and kicking, help to gain impressions and to develop the physical self of the child. This is what Bee (1989: 23) calls ‘practice of the built-in reflexes’. The process of accommodation helps to modify these reflexes.

Pre-Operational Stage (2 to 6 Years)
- During this stage, thought processes are centred on the attempts to master symbols. It is the language thought processes that preoccupy the child’s mind.
- Every aspect is centred around the child. Piaget calls this egocentrism.
- The concept of conservation of matter is difficult to conceptualise at this stage. For example, the child cannot understand how a clay ball can be rolled into the shape of a pencil, yet the amount of clay remains the same.

Concrete Operational Stage (7 to 11 Years)
- Logical thinking is limited to the physical reality being experienced.
- Actions can now be mentally reversed. The child can focus on several aspects of a problem.
- Objects can now be classified into their logical groupings.
- The child can generalise issues on the basis of what is already known. The child is now capable of engaging in deductive logic.

Formal Operational Stage (12 Years and Over)
During this stage, the child has an increasing ability to engage in:
- logical and abstract thought,
- complex mental abstractions,
• hypothesis testing, and
• deductive reasoning.

Note that some individuals do not achieve an advanced stage of formal operations.

Some Arguments Against Piaget’s Theory

Below are some of the arguments that have been raised regarding Piaget’s theory.

• Piaget has been criticised by some psychologists for limiting the cognitive ability that children have at any given level.

• Piaget did not present a comparative study in order to answer the question of whether or not children in all cultures follow the same pattern of intellectual development.

• Vygotsky and others believe that cognitive development can be accelerated if appropriate instruction is provided (Zindi, Peresu and Mpofu, 1995).

• Behaviourists such as Bruner, who supported discovery learning, demonstrated that intellectual variations among children make a difference in their ability to learn. This aspect was not addressed by Piaget.

In spite of these limitations, Piaget’s theory has significant relevance to you as a classroom teacher.

Self-Assessment 2

Briefly describe in your own words the main features of each stage of Piaget’s theory of cognitive development.

Possible answers are provided at the end of this unit.

Applications of Piaget’s Theory in the Classroom

How relevant is Piaget’s theory to you as a teacher? Many educators believe that Piaget’s ideas are applicable to children and teaching in the classroom. His theory helps to explain why learners are able to do one activity at certain ages, but not at a younger age. This section explores some of the possible applications of his theory. What is presented in this section of the module, as in other sections, is not in any way exhaustive. You will need to add your own ideas to the list below.

• You need to establish the developmental level of your children from the onset in order to know the area of emphasis in your teaching. For example, you need to know if your children are below or above the concrete observational stage and whether they can deal with
abstractions. With this knowledge, you are better able to design activities for them.

- Children who are in the concrete operational stage will need tangible objects to manipulate. The objects will help them to understand concepts faster.

- Be conscious of the fact that both the language of children and their thought processes are not as fully developed as those of adults. Therefore, provide simple explanations and illustrative materials in your lessons.

- You need to build on the experiences children already have. Your instructions should be logically sequenced. As you deliver your lessons, start from the known and go to the unknown.

- Test understanding throughout your lesson by asking questions. Wrong answers should be used as clues to the level of thinking the child is capable of. Be careful not to rush children from one stage of development to the next by trying to accelerate their cognitive development. Nevertheless, children who out of their own curiosity are fast developers should not be discouraged.

- Social interaction should be encouraged because this type of activity helps children to overcome egocentrism. Learning from their peers enhances the comprehension of concepts. Children need to become pro-active; they should not be passive.

- Other suggested applications of Piaget’s theory can be found in the ZINTEC Personality Development Module 12, which includes five areas that should be considered by teachers.

**Self-Assessment 3**

As a Grade 7 class teacher, you observe that one of your pupils focuses primarily on his own needs and opinions. What teaching approach could you include in your lessons to help that child appreciate the existence of other pupils?

Possible answers to this question are provided at the end of this unit.

**Summary**

In this unit, we defined cognitive development as the growth of the mind in terms of its ability to learn and to understand the environment. We then discussed the basic assumptions that Jean Piaget made about the development of a child’s mind. The four stages of cognitive development were outlined, and it was noted that not all individuals achieve the advanced phases of the formal operations stage.
Reflection

Based on the content of this module, what teaching ideas have you gleaned from Piaget's theory? How could you apply them with your learners?

Unit Test

1. Can we assume that developmental processes are the same for children in different cultures? Why or why not?

2. Identify one aspect of Piaget's theory of cognitive development that you consider to be critical for the classroom teacher.

Possible answers are provided at the end of this unit.
Self-Assessment 1

1. The assumptions of Piaget’s theory of cognitive development are listed below.
   - The child adapts to the environment by exploring it.
   - Adaptation involves assimilation, accommodation and equilibration.
   - Cognitive development is a process.
   - The child has a unified cognitive development system.

2. Refer to the content on assumptions to check on the accuracy of your own responses. Then expand on any one of the identified assumptions.

Self-Assessment 2

Refer to the Unit 2 content that describes each stage, and compare your presentation to what we discussed in the unit.

Self-Assessment 3

Provide group work to allow the self-centred pupil to listen to the ideas of others. This should help the child learn to appreciate what other children are capable of doing and to respect others.

Unit Test

1. In comparing children across cultures, it is essential to remember that their cognitive development is influenced by the physical and social environment in which they live. There are also many other variables that create differences.

2. All aspects of the theory of cognitive development are critical for the classroom teacher. Whatever aspect you have selected is as important as the others.
UNIT 3: Physical Development

Introduction

Now that you have reviewed theories about child development and Piaget’s theory of cognitive development, we will discuss the concept of physical development.

This unit examines the stages that an individual child passes through. Factors that influence the physical development of the child are discussed, as well as implications for the teacher. It also contains suggestions that will benefit pupils in your classroom.

Objectives

After completing this unit, you should be able to:

1. Define physical development.
2. Describe features of each stage of physical development.
3. Explain factors that affect physical development.
4. Apply the principles of physical development to classroom situations.

Definition of Physical Development

Human physical development depends on the growth of the body. As it becomes bigger, it is able to perform more complex functions. Farrant (1980: 76) states that “each fertilised cell, though smaller than a pin-head, grows within one month of conception to a living body 10 000 times the weight of the cell from which it began”. As the mass increases, cells become specialised and able to perform different functions.

Let us look at the stages of physical development as they are presented by Farrant (1980) and Grusec, Lockhart and Walter (1990).

Stages in the Physical Development of the Child

The various stages of physical development, as outlined by Farrant (1980: 77) and Grusec, Lockhart and Walters (1990: 508), are presented below.

Prenatal Stage: From 0 to 9 Months

Although Farrant’s (1980) description of human development starts at 3 months, we need to remember that development actually begins soon after the union of the sperm with the egg. From 3 months, observable features such as the head, limbs and eyes appear. By 9 months, the heart, lungs and digestive organs are functioning.
Infancy Stage: From Birth to 2 Years
An infant’s height increases from about 30 cm long to approximately 53 cm and the weight increases from about 3 kg to approximately 10 kg. An infant’s teeth appear during this stage. The rate of growth slows down. The child learns to kick, sit, crawl, stand and walk. Sucking preoccupies the child during this stage.

Childhood Stage: From 2 to 12 Years
The child continues to grow until he or she is about half the adult size. The second set of teeth appears. In terms of skill development, the ability to run and use the hands improves. Muscle coordination develops at a faster rate. Writing and reading skills are developed and consolidated. According to Sigmund Freud’s theory of development, as cited in Grusec, Lockhart and Walters (1990), between 6 to 12 years of age, children’s sexual feelings are repressed as they are being channelled to non-sexual activities such as school and play.

Adolescence Stage: From 12 to 16 Years
During this stage, sex organs develop and hair begins to grow on various parts of the body. Physical aspects of the body begin to look more like those of adults. At times, children may have problems coping with the changes taking place in their bodies. Delayed changes may adversely affect them psychologically. The co-ordination of muscles continues to improve. Children at this stage may seek ways to express themselves sexually and to participate in sexual activities.

Self-Assessment I
1. What are the major stages of child development?
2. What are the characteristic features of the adolescence stage?

Possible answers are provided at the end of this unit.

Factors Affecting Physical Development
The previous description of the stages of human physical development was based on the assumption that no intervening variables disturbed the child’s development. You are aware that life does not proceed as smoothly as we would like it to. Therefore, let us focus our attention on some of the factors that may affect the child’s physical development.

According to Farrant (1980), heredity and environment are the major factors or determinants of physical development. Bee (1989: 46) agrees but adds maturation as yet another factor to be considered.
**Hereditary Factors**

The raw materials from which the body grows are drawn from the father and the mother. Just as the quality of a brick depends on the colour and texture of the soil from which it is made, the child’s characteristics are determined mainly by the genes from both parents. For example, tall parents tend to have tall children. Both size and body shape are heavily influenced by genetic material inherited from both parents.

**Environmental Factors**

According to Farrant (1980: 80), the environment “cannot improve the finished product but can only help it to attain its full potential”.

The child’s initial environment is the mother’s womb. A healthy mother, properly fed and mentally rested, is likely to help the foetus to realise its full potential of becoming an infant and later an adult.

**Environmental Contributions from Infancy to Youthful Stage**

**Diet.** How often a child eats and what a child eats both play an important role in the development of the child. Some foods add fat to the body, while fibres tend to keep the body size small. Children who suffer from malnutrition or lack of food tend to be thin and to develop slowly. Permanent damage can result if children do not receive enough of the right types of food.

While Farrant (1980: 81) suggests, “man of all creatures is the most free to choose his environment and the most able to adapt it to his wishes”, to what extent do you think this is possible in our own African child’s context? Should teachers attempt to influence those people whose role it is to provide food to children?

**Practice.** Practising adds refinement to skills acquired. For example, unless the initial lessons on a computer are frequently reviewed, all the basic procedures can be easily forgotten. According to Bee (1989), skills practice also helps the mind to develop. The important role of practice in skills development should be noted by all teachers.

**Illness.** When a child is ill, the growth rate is slow (Bee, 1989). If not quickly overcome, illness can create life-long problems related to the development process of the child.

**Maturation.** Bee (1989) states that maturation affects the child’s development. When the body is ready to perform certain functions, those functions can be carried out with a high level of success provided that the child has the opportunity to practice. According to Bee (1989: 148), “when opportunities to practice certain motions are greatly restricted, children’s motor development is retarded”.

*Module 9, Unit 3: Physical Development*
At this point, you may be asking, “Why do we need to know this?” Perhaps in the next section of this unit, you will understand why.

**Self-Assessment 2**

In your view, which factors are critical to the physical development of a child?

Possible answers are provided at the end of this unit.

**Classroom Implications**

This unit began with a review of the stages of human physical development, then discussed factors that may affect the child’s physical development. These stages and factors have implications that will affect how you teach in your classroom.

Our communities generally consider teachers to be sources of information. Sometimes, teachers are considered to be knowledgeable advisors. As a teacher, you may be asked to participate in workshops relating to prenatal or child-related problems. Your science lessons may require you to have some knowledge about child development. You may meet pupils who have permanent physical damage. The information gained in this unit will help you to understand and accommodate pupils who show signs of retarded development. As you now know, their behaviour may be due to factors that they could not and cannot control.

Children like to learn something new. They like to acquire new skills. In the classroom, you need to help them acquire new skills by acknowledging their efforts. If you provide opportunities for practice, they will be better able to learn new skills.

Since you are now aware that what and how much a child eats affects his or her development, you should encourage parents to provide balanced meals to their children. Also, you should encourage parents to feed their children before they come to school. Notice that you should encourage rather than demand that parents feed their children appropriately. The local environment may not have the capacity to provide all that is needed.

Now that you know that sexual drive begins before the adolescence stage, you can offer guidance to your pupils when they are young and provide suggestions to parents. You also need to ensure that your lessons include a lot of sporting or physical activity in order to minimise free time when children may explore what may be regarded as ‘dangerous activities’ during the early stages of development (Grusac, Lockhart and Walters, 1990: 508).
During adolescence, the children’s bodies begin to approximate those of adults. The children may have difficulty coping with all the changes happening to them. You need to appreciate why the children may look shy, why they may be offended by your poor choice of words when you talk to them, or why they may be withdrawn. You will need to help these children cope with the changes taking place in their bodies. You will also need to learn how to give advice when they ask you, “What is happening to me?”

This is an interesting topic. Look for more books and magazines about this subject.

Self-Assessment 3

All teachers should help their students cope with the social and environmental pressures that occur during their development. List three common problems that are experienced by adolescents.

Possible answers are provided at the end of this unit.

Summary

In this unit, we noted that human physical development is concerned with the growth of the human body as well as its ability to perform more complex functions. This development occurs in several stages:

- prenatal stage
- infancy stage
- childhood stage
- adolescence stage.

In general, all children proceed through these stages, but their rate and level of development may be affected by hereditary and environmental factors.

You need to be aware of the characteristics of each developmental stage and the factors that affect the children’s development so that you can better understand their needs, provide appropriate advice and adjust your classroom activities accordingly.

Reflection

Based on the information presented in this unit, how could you help your students?
Practice Activity
At your school, many children are malnourished. How would you go about addressing the problem?

Possible answers are provided at the end of this unit.

Unit Test
1. List the four stages of the physical development of a child.
2. During what stage is the child most likely to experience a high level of emotional changes? Explain your answer.
3. Which are more important, hereditary or environmental factors? Explain your answer.
4. Why should you allow time for practice in your class?

Possible answers to these questions are provided at the end of this unit.
Self-Assessment 1

1. The stages in the physical development of a child are
   - the prenatal stage,
   - the infancy stage,
   - the childhood stage, and
   - the adolescence stage.

2. During the adolescence stage, the body grows both in size and in the ability to carry out more complex functions. As well, the following physical changes occur:
   - Sex organs develop.
   - Hair begins to appear on certain parts of the body.
   - The child’s body becomes more like an adult’s body. Girls develop breasts, and boys develop deep voices and a beard.

Self-Assessment 2

Both hereditary and environmental factors are important. Environmental factors complement hereditary factors. They can affect the development of the child positively or negatively.

Self-Assessment 3

A few of the common problems that children may face during adolescence include the following:

   - Pupils could laugh at a boy who is growing a beard. You should talk to them and explain that there is nothing wrong because this is part of the normal process of growing up.

   - A girl may become shy when she is dealing with boys with whom she used to play.

   - Students may develop skin problems.

There are other possible answers to this question. Just think of what you experienced between the ages of 12 and 16.

Practice Activity

One way to deal with malnutrition among students at your school may be to organise a meeting of parents to see if anything can be done to alleviate the situation. Another may be to seek help from outside the community by contacting governmental or non-governmental organisations.
Unit Test

1. The four stages are:
   - prenatal stage (from 0 to 9 months),
   - infancy stage (from birth to 2 years),
   - childhood stage (from 2 to 12 years), and
   - adolescence stage (from 12 to 16 years).

2. During the adolescence stage, a child is most likely to experience a high level of emotional changes as he or she becomes more like an adult, and the sex drive becomes more evident.

3. Hereditary and environmental factors are equally important, as hereditary factors determine a child’s potential skills and environmental factors determine a child’s actual skills.

4. Students need time to practise so that they can refine their skills.
UNIT 4: Personality Development

Introduction

In Unit 3, we discussed factors affecting physical development and their implications for teaching. In this unit, you will be introduced to theories of personality development and consider your role, as a classroom teacher, in the child’s personality development.

There are many theories of personality development. Note that they are only theories and generalisations and must be applied with sensitivity. We will limit ourselves to those theories that can be of use to you as a teacher.

The study of personality development is important to you because some behaviours can be harmful to a child’s success. You need to be aware of these so that you can help the child overcome the learning problems that he or she may experience.

An understanding of the child’s personality will help you plan your lessons with the child’s needs in mind.

Objectives

After completing this unit, you should be able to:

1. Discuss the main theories of personality development.
2. Discuss the roles teachers play in developing the child’s personality.
3. Apply concepts of theories of personality development to classroom situations.

What is Personality?

Meyer, Moore and Viljoe (1977: 8) define personality as “whatever it is that makes a person who he is — that which allows us to make predictions about a given person’s behaviour”.

Personality therefore refers to a wide range of individual characteristics relating to how we interact with people and the world around us.

Freud’s Psychoanalytic Theory

Sigmund Freud’s theory is usually considered to be the first personality theory. You might be interested in a brief history of his theory. Freud developed his theory over a period of 47 years, using experiences he faced when working with neurotic patients. His theory is controversial. However, it has shaped the thinking of many theorists (Yelon and Weinstein, 1977).
The Freudian theory of personality development is a deterministic one. It proposes that the child’s personality is well established in early years and that experiences in the later years do not change the child’s personality. To understand Freud’s theory, you need to know the concepts basic to his theory.

Meyer, More and Viljoe (1977) summarise the basic concepts as follows:

- An individual’s behaviour and thoughts are determined by factors within the personality which Freud calls the psyche.
- The psyche or personality has a fixed structure. It is composed of the id, ego and superego.
- This fixed structure of the id, ego and superego is motivated into action by psychic energy in the form of drives.
- Some of these drives, such as sex and aggression, clash with the norms of society and are repressed.
- Repressed drives create psychological problems.
- These drives are already present in the early years of childhood.
- Strategies used by a child to cope with the conflict between forbidden drives and societal norms influence the child’s personality.

**Self-Assessment 1**

List the key concepts of Freud’s psychoanalytic theory.

Possible answers to this activity are provided at the end of this unit.

**The Structure of Personality According to Freud**

Now that you know some of the concepts basic to Freud’s theory, let us look in more detail at Freud’s structure of personality as cited in Zindi, Peresu and Mpofu (1995).

**The Id**

The id functions according to the pleasure principle. This means that the id seeks immediate fulfilment or satisfaction of its drives without taking anything else into consideration. It does not consider the consequences of its actions. It can be selfish and unrealistic and has no contact with the outside world.

**The Ego**

The ego develops from the id. It is formed through the individual’s contact with the outside world. It functions according to the reality principle. This means that the ego
considers the consequences of its action before it carries out the action. The ego weighs up the drives and considers whether or not they should be satisfied.

**The Superego**
The superego also develops out of the id. It functions according to the moral principle. Its function is to make the individual follow society’s moral codes. It can punish the individual who does not abide by society’s moral codes. The punishment is in the form of feelings of guilt about immoral behaviour.

**The Development of Personality According to Freud**

Now that we have an idea of the structure of personality, let us explore the development of personality proposed by Freud. According to his theory, personality development occurs in stages. Progression from one stage to the next is a result of changes in the sources of sexual drive energy. The name given to each stage refers to the source of sexual energy for that stage.

**The Oral Stage (Birth to 18 Months)**
- The lips and mouth are the main sources of sexual drive energy.
- When a child is sucking, it is satisfying both the hunger drive and the oral sexual drives.
- The withdrawal of the breast or weaning frustrates the child and is seen as punishment of the child’s oral sexual drives.
- The child copes with these frustrations by substituting objects for the mother’s breast. For example, the child sucks a thumb or dummy.
- If the frustrations are too much for the child, serious personality problems can develop later in life. The frustrations are stored in the subconscious mind and will re-emerge later, even when the child is an adult.

**The Anal Stage (The Second Year of Life)**
- The anal area is the main source of sexual drive energy.
- The child enjoys excreting feces as well as withholding them.
- Toilet training and the way it is handled by parents influence the personality of the child into adult life.
- Failure to cope with the frustrations of toilet training and societal expectations can contribute to the development of a personality characterised by traits related to toilet training, for example, excessive neatness, thriftiness, obstinacy and obsessive-compulsive behaviours.
**The Phallic Stage (3 to 5 Years)**
- The absence of a penis is said to be the basis of psychosexual development in a girl.
- The penis is now the main source of sexual drive energy for a boy.
- Sexual wishes are in the forefront.
- Boys may develop sexual desires in relation to their mothers and may become jealous and hate their fathers.
- The boy child tries to cope with these forbidden desires by taking into consideration societal norms.
- The superego goes through major development in this stage.
- A strict superego can lead to personality problems, for example, internalisation of a father’s rules for boys and a mother’s rules in the case of girls.

**The Latent Stage (5 Years to Puberty)**
- This stage is characterised by the lack of sexual drive.
- Children focus on learning gender roles.
- Children play with friends of their own sex and are not interested in the opposite sex.

**The Genital Stage (Puberty until the End of Life)**
- There is renewed stirring of sexual energy due to physical and sexual maturation.
- Exploration of the opposite sex’s sexuality occurs.
- Sexual relationships are formed.

As a teacher, you might have noticed correlations between your students’ behaviour and some of Freud’s ideas on the development of personality. Do remember, however, that Freud presented a theory to explain the behaviour of his neurotic patients. It may not explain the behaviour of normal human beings or those in different cultures.

**Self-Assessment 2**
List the stages of personality development in Freud’s theory.

The answers to this activity are provided at the end of this unit.

**Psychosocial Model**
Now that we have reviewed one psychoanalytic approach to personality development, let us look briefly at another related psychoanalytic model.
Erik Erikson (1963) developed a more contemporary version of Freud’s psychoanalytic approach. This version has eight stages. According to his approach, as people grow, they face a series of psychosocial crises that shape personality.

A table adapted from Alexander, Rudin and Gorman (1980: 51) may help you understand the stages.
**Erikson’s Psychosocial Stages of Development**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Freudian Counterpart</th>
<th>Successful Resolution</th>
<th>Unsuccessful Resolution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 - 1 Year</td>
<td>Trust vs. Basic Mistrust</td>
<td>Oral Stage</td>
<td>Trust, optimism, trust in self</td>
<td>Mistrust, pessimism, easily frustrated and nostalgic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 3 Years</td>
<td>Autonomy (independence) vs. shame or doubt</td>
<td>Anal Stage</td>
<td>Independent, self-assertive, flexible</td>
<td>Doubtful, ashamed, rigid, over-cautious, over-controlled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 – 5 Years</td>
<td>Initiative vs. Guilt</td>
<td>Phallic Stage</td>
<td>Initiative, dynamic, ambitious, risk-taking</td>
<td>Inhibited, jealous, sexually afraid, guilty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 – 11 Years</td>
<td>Industry vs. Inferiority</td>
<td>Latency Stage</td>
<td>Competent, hard working, likes learning and achieving</td>
<td>Ineffective, wastes time, avoids competition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 – 20 Years</td>
<td>Identity vs. Identity Diffusion</td>
<td>Genital Stage</td>
<td>Confident, has sense of self and future time perspective, sex roles defined</td>
<td>Sees self as phoney, inconsistent, set of loose roles, poor sexual identify, unsure of values and own future</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young Adulthood</td>
<td>Intimacy vs. Isolation</td>
<td></td>
<td>Candid and open, shares self with others, tactful</td>
<td>Cool, isolated and remote, experiments sexually but with little commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Adulthood</td>
<td>Generativity vs. Stagnation</td>
<td></td>
<td>Productive, fosters the growth of the next generation</td>
<td>Unproductive stagnation, old before one’s time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Later Adulthood</td>
<td>Integrity vs. Despair</td>
<td></td>
<td>Understanding of life cycle, wisdom, principled ethics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Alexander, Rodin and Gorman (1980: 51).
Let us re-examine the characteristics of the stages, as they may help you in your teaching. Remember that these suggested stages may overlap.

**Trust vs. Mistrust (Birth to 1 Year)**
- This stage lays the basis for personality development.
- Ease of feeding and depth of sleep are basic signs of trust.
- Children should experience minimum fear and discomfort.
- Inadequate care may generate feelings of mistrust.

**Autonomy vs. Shame or Doubt (1 to 3 Years)**
- Purposeful behaviours like grasping, holding, crawling and walking foster independence.
- Children realise that they can be independent.
- Dependency creates the potential for shame and doubt.

**Initiative vs. Guilt (3 to 5 Years)**
- Initiative refers to being goal directed in one’s actions.
- Accomplishment of goals leads to feelings of power and being in control.
- Some initiatives are not approved by society, for example, fighting with others and not following classroom rules. These create feelings of resentment and guilt.
- The resolution of these crises will help the child develop socially approved behaviours.

**Industry vs. Inferiority (6 to 11 Years)**
- Children seek social approval by being achievers.
- Energy is focused on learning and the acquisition of skills.
- Feelings of inferiority set in if children cannot learn.
- Cultural norms and societal expectations are learned.
- Each child tries to identify with peers.

**Identity vs. Identity Diffusion (12 to 20 Years)**
- Questions of who they really are take the fore.
- They begin to question societal norms and values.
- They have to contend with a lot of physiological changes, for example, in height, weight, body shape and hair.
They seek clarifications of their roles as adult members of society.

**Intimacy vs. Isolation (Young Adulthood)**
- There is pursuit of social and sexual intimacy with another person.
- Failure to achieve intimacy leads to isolation.

**Generativity vs. Stagnation (Middle Adulthood)**
- People may be actively involved in helping their children, developing careers and contributing to their community.
- Failure to resolve earlier conflicts can make people preoccupied with themselves.

**Integrity vs. Despair (Later Adulthood)**
- Success is marked by the presence of practical wisdom, a belief in the meaning of life and acceptance of the type of life one has led.
- Failure to accomplish integrity leads to feelings of despair and uselessness.

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**Self-Assessment 3**

1. Describe Erikson’s psychosocial stages of personality development.

2. Which features of Erikson’s psychosocial stages have you observed in your students?

Possible answers to this activity are provided at the end of this unit.

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**Applications of Theories in the Classroom**

As a classroom teacher, you should always be interested in applying your knowledge and skills to your classroom situation. Below are some ideas that you may be able to apply.

- When working with young children, give them room for free play and experimentation. You will notice that this will encourage the development of autonomy or independence. However, you should supervise and guide the free play and experiments so pupils do not experience doubt.

- Help children experience a sense of industry and achievement by giving them tasks that they can complete.

- Avoid comparing children’s work because this may create feelings of inferiority in some pupils. Instead, you should encourage cooperation among the pupils.
• Adolescent pupils want responsibilities. Give them as many clearly defined and guided responsibilities as they can manage.

• Adolescent pupils are more interested in their peer groups than in older adults. This is a phase that all pupils have to pass through. You can assign well-structured group projects and cooperative work projects. Students can work together as a group and succeed as a team.

• You must never humiliate or belittle a pupil, especially in front of his or her peers, because this will create feelings of inferiority and alienation.

• You must always remember that a positive self-concept is an aid to learning. Therefore, you must provide opportunities for success. Praise the success.

Summary

This unit introduced you to two theories regarding personality development. Most importantly, it also briefly described the applications of the theories to classroom settings. Do remember that these are only theories. They are not facts. However, theories can help us to understand the world around us. As you perform your duties as a teacher, you should be aware of the children you teach and the personality developmental stages they may be going through. Since some behaviours are harmful to a child’s success, you should be aware of them and help the child overcome them. You need to help all your pupils learn effectively.

Reflection

Based on the information obtained from this module, how can you improve your teaching methods?

Unit Test

1. Compare and contrast Sigmund Freud’s and Erik Erikson’s stages of personality development.

2. How can you apply the theories presented in this unit to the classroom?

Possible answers to these questions are provided at the end of this unit.
Suggested Answers

Self-Assessment 1
The key concepts of Freud’s psychoanalytic theory are outlined below.

• Personality is made up of the id, ego and superego.
• The id, ego and superego are motivated by psychic energy in the form of drives.
• Some drives are sexual and aggressive in nature.
• Repressed drives can create psychological problems.
• How the child copes with the conflict between forbidden drives and societal norms influences the child's personality.

Self-Assessment 2
The stages of Freud’s personality development theory are:

• the oral stage,
• the anal stage,
• the phallic stage,
• the latent stage, and
• the genital stage.

Self-Assessment 3
1. Erikson’s psychosocial stages of personality development:
   • Trust vs. mistrust (birth to 1 year)
   • Autonomy vs. shame or doubt (1 to 3 years)
   • Initiative vs. guilt (3 to 5 years)
   • Industry vs. inferiority (6 to 11 years)
   • Identity vs. identity diffusion (12 to 20 years)
   • Intimacy vs. isolation (young adulthood)
   • Generativity vs. stagnation (middle adulthood)
   • Integrity vs. despair (later adulthood)

   Compare your description of each stage to the descriptions in the table in the unit.

2. Your answer to this question will depend on your experience.
Unit Test

1. In your answer regarding Freud’s and Erikson’s theories, expand on points provided in the unit.

2. The theories may have led you to suggest the following:
   - Encourage free play and experimentation, as this will lead to independence.
   - Give children realistic tasks that they can achieve.
   - Avoid comparing children’s performances.
   - Give pupils responsibilities.
   - Make use of peer groups.
   - Do not humiliate pupils.
UNIT 5: Moral Development

Introduction
In Unit 4, we presented an overview of personality development, two theories of personality development and applications of those theories to classroom situations. This unit will introduce you to the theories of moral development in children. As you progress through the unit, you will notice that there are some overlaps between moral development and personality development. This is because morals are part of personality.

Your role as a teacher in the development of a child’s morals cannot be overemphasised. In order to help your pupils develop morals that are acceptable to society, you need to know the theoretical basis of moral development.

Objectives
After completing this unit, you should be able to:
1. Define the concept of moral development.
2. Discuss theories of moral development.
3. Analyse factors influencing moral development.
4. Apply moral development theories to classroom settings.

What Is Moral Development?
A dictionary definition of the word ‘moral’ will help you to understand the concept of moral development better. The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (1995) defines morals as our connection with the principles of what is right and wrong behaviour. The rightness and wrongness of a behaviour is dictated by society. Thus, moral development is related to appropriate behaviours as dictated by society. Children’s moral judgements are linked to the way they understand and respond to other people’s emotions.

Piaget’s Theory of Moral Development
In this theory, you will notice that Piaget emphasised the idea of different stages in the development of the child’s understanding of moral situations and questions.

Piaget used clinical interview techniques to investigate how children of different ages understood their worlds. Let us look at how he managed to achieve this.

In one method, he asked children to explain to him the rules for playing marbles. He assumed that since the game was not taught by adults and each child had to have a chance to play, a
game of marbles would illustrate the ways in which children understood concepts like fairness or the application of rules.

The second technique used by Piaget was to give the children a problem arising from a story or situation and ask them to decide what was wrong or right about the solution to the problem.

After using these various techniques, Piaget was able to outline several stages in moral development. These are described below.

**Piaget's Stages of Moral Development**

**Moral Realism (1 to 8 Years).** Children’s concepts of morality reflect what is permitted by adults. Their judgements are primarily based on those that they believe are held by their parents. There is no attempt to see beyond the behavioural restrictions to the intentions that may underlie the behaviour. In other words, they apply judgements without understanding the reason for those judgements, and they make decisions based on external rules.

**Egalitarianism (8 to 11 Years).** At this stage, children select solutions that provide the fairest and most equal treatment to all. The child recognises that other people’s needs are also important.

**Equity (12 Years Onwards).** There is evidence of social understanding as children begin to realise that everybody’s needs are not the same. Children develop the idea of equity. For example, some people might need a larger share because they do not have much. The judgements the children make reflect justice and moral correctness.

Although Piaget used the term ‘stages’, he did not see moral development as occurring with a series of sudden changes between stages. There is a gradual change from one stage to the next.

**Self-Assessment 1**

Describe the three stages of moral development according to Piaget.

Possible answers to this activity are provided at the end of this unit.

**Kohlberg’s Theory of Moral Development**

Let us look at another moral development theorist. His ideas have been considered to be more recent and sophisticated.
Kohlberg (1969), like Piaget, developed a series of problems. He asked children to analyse them and to decide whether the action taken was right or wrong.

Let us have a look at one of the cases he presented to the children. This case was taken from Hayes (1998).

A man had a very sick wife. There was medicine in the chemist’s shop that would make her well. If she did not get the medicine she would die. The husband had no money to buy the medicine. He broke into the chemist’s shop and stole the medicine for his wife.

By asking children of different ages what they thought of the cases presented, Kohlberg identified three major stages of moral development.

**Kohlberg’s Stages of Moral Development**

**Pre-Moral Stage.** Obedience to rules is the most important part of moral correctness. Initially, the child obeys rules to avoid punishment.

As the child progresses through the stage, the reason for obeying shifts from the avoidance of punishment to focusing on the good things the child hopes to get as a result of obedience.

Therefore, moral judgements are based on external rules.

**Conventional Morality.** Moral judgements are made in terms of the societal consensus, in other words, how the judgement fits in with what society dictates.

In the first part of this stage, an action will be seen as being good or bad depending on the person’s intentions in doing it. If the intention is good, then the action is good. If the intention is bad, then the action is bad.

As the child progresses through this second stage, focus changes to the general good. The needs of society in general are considered in making moral judgements. If an action is harmful to society, then it is morally incorrect.

**Autonomous Morality.** During this third stage, there is the development of an internalised independent form of moral reasoning. The individual becomes aware of the more general underlying principles of right and wrong.

In the later part of this stage, the individual is able to identify abstract universal principles of justice that may be applied generally.
Perhaps you have noticed that Kohlberg's views are in some ways similar to Piaget’s views. Kohlberg also proposes that the individual progresses from a state in which moral judgements are entirely based on a need to avoid punishment to a state in which individuals can apply universal ethical concepts according to their own independent judgements.

Self-Assessment 2
What are the characteristic features of Kohlberg’s theory of moral development?

Possible answers to this question are provided at the end of this unit.

Application of Theories to Classroom Settings
It is important for you as a teacher to help your students develop good moral behaviours so that they can contribute to the healthy development of society. Below are some suggestions that you can try in your classroom.

Ask your students questions about moral issues. These questions can be based on stories from your local newspaper or on something you might have heard. The moral cases you select can provide a framework for classroom discussion. This will enable you to gain insight into your pupils’ level of moral thought.

Ensure that there is active participation by all pupils. Your discussions should be at least one stage above your pupils’ level of moral reasoning. However, the cases you present to them must not be too difficult or too simple. By giving your pupils cases that are one stage above their level, you will help your pupils advance to higher levels of moral reasoning.

Give them rules that apply not only to the school, but also to the world at large. This will broaden their minds as they will begin to look at issues in a variety of ways. Your major task is to develop pupils who will reach high levels of moral development so that they will be able to think and reflect on abstract and universal principles of justice and humanity.

Who knows? You may be teaching the future president of your country!

Self-Assessment 3
How can you apply the theories of moral development to classroom settings?

Possible answers to this question are provided at the end of this unit.
Summary
This unit has introduced you to some theories of moral development and the application of these theories to classroom settings. Children of school age spend most of their time with you at school. It becomes your role as their teacher to assist these pupils to become worthwhile members of society. We hope that this unit has given you information that will enable you to carry out this important function to the best of your ability.

Reflection
Think of how you would develop your pupils’ morals given the knowledge gained from this unit.

Unit Test
How are Piaget’s and Kohlberg’s theories of moral development similar?

Answers to this question are provided at the end of this unit.
Suggested Answers

Self-Assessment 1

The three main stages of Piaget’s theory of moral development are outlined below. You may have included in your answer more information than is provided here.

- **Moral Realism (from 1 to 8 years)**
  Morality is judged according to what is allowed by adults and especially what is permitted by parents.

- **Egalitarianism (from 8 to 11 years)**
  Other peoples’ needs are taken into consideration when making a fair judgement.

- **Equity (from 11 years onwards)**
  There is evidence of social understanding. Judgement reflects justice and other abstract concepts.

Self-Assessment 2

The three stages of Kohlberg’s theory of moral development are provided below.

- **Pre-Moral Stage**
  The child obeys rules. The reasons for obedience progress from trying to avoid punishment to focusing on the good things the child hopes to get by obeying the rules.

- **Conventional Morality**
  Moral judgements have to fit in with what society dictates.

- **Autonomous Morality**
  An internalised independent form of moral reasoning develops. The child becomes aware of the abstract universal principles of justice and humanity.

Self-Assessment 3

In your answer regarding the application of theories of moral development to classroom settings, you may have suggested the actions below.

- **Give your pupils case studies on moral issues and encourage discussions about the cases presented.**

- **Aim at raising your pupils’ moral reasoning.**

- **Ask students to consider cases a stage above their current level of reasoning.**
• Provide rules that they may use to make decisions. These rules may reflect different points of view and/or a global, multicultural world.

**Unit Test**

The following are some of the similarities between Piaget’s and Kohlberg’s theories.

• Both propose that moral development occurs in stages.

• The stages are not distinct.

• The stages progress from a heteronomous to an autonomous morality. This means that the stages move from a primitive level of judgement where judgements are dependent on external rules to judgements that are internalised and independent.

You will note that there are more similarities than differences. This is because Kohlberg expanded on ideas that had been raised by Piaget.
UNIT 6: Emotional Development

Introduction
To this point, this module has covered five areas of human development. Emotional development is the sixth aspect. We hope you will find this unit as interesting as the previous units.

The unit first defines emotional development and then describes the physical reactions to emotional stimuli. Following this, the unit will address the question of whether emotional reactions are innate or learned. The unit concludes by describing what is needed to develop positive emotions and by discussing your role as a teacher in the development of your students’ emotions.

Objectives
After completing this unit, you should be able to:
1. Explain what emotions are.
2. Describe reactions that may be triggered by emotional stimuli.
3. Debate whether or not emotions are learned.
4. Discuss what is needed to develop normal emotions.
5. Show the relevance of emotional development to the classroom teacher.

Definition of Emotional Development
Emotions are part of our existence. It is difficult to define the term ‘emotions’, but we could define it by examining our reactions to stimuli that create emotions such as anger, joy, sorrow, fear, hate and love (Farrant, 1988; Grusec, Lockhart and Waters, 1990).

Emotional development should be concerned with the child’s increasing ability to understand and control or express his or her reactions to stimuli.

The Effects of Emotional Arousal
Some emotional reactions are detectable by the observer, but others may remain hidden within the individual. As a result of emotional experience, one may feel excited, depressed or frightened.

Grusec, Lockhart and Walters (1990: 216) identify ten internal adjustments the body makes in reaction to arousal. These adjustments can happen automatically.
Sweating. Grusec, Lockhart and Walters (1990) refer to sweating as a ‘lie detector’ because we may sweat when we are nervous or when some form of interrogation is taking place. If we are composed and we are telling the truth, we do not generally sweat unless our surroundings are hot or if we are ill.

Pilomotor response. One’s hair feels like it is standing on end. This is usually a reaction to fear.

Skin temperature changes. These are not a direct result of arousal, but are caused by changes in blood volume due to emotions such as fear or happiness.

Circulatory system reaction. The rate at which the heart beats increases. This in turn increases the blood pressure. Usually this reaction is caused by fear.

Respiratory changes. Both the rate and depth of breathing are increased. The major causes may be fear or excitement. Because respiration is increased, the blood circulation is also accelerated.

Internal reactions. Digestive processes become disturbed. Diarrhoea and vomiting may occur.

Muscular effects. The tension in the skeletal part of the body increases. This usually causes trembling due to great fear or great anger. The speed of eyelid movements may also increase.

Pupillary dilation. The iris diaphragm widens the pupil in the eye, allowing more light to enter the eye. This reaction may be caused by excitement or anger.

Salivary changes. The flow of saliva decreases and it gets thick, giving the feeling of a dry mouth, which may cause swallowing problems.

Blood chemistry effects. Blood sugar rises and a chemical called adrenaline is secreted into the blood stream. Adrenaline is a hormone that affects the circulatory and muscular system. It makes these systems more active or excitable.

Self-Assessment 1
Why are the ten listed physical reactions said to be due to automatic arousal?

Possible answers to this question are provided at the end of this unit.

Sources of Emotions
Grusec, Lockhart and Walters (1990: 221) distinguish between innate and learned emotional reactions. These types of emotion
are examined below. After this presentation, we will discuss the issue of whether the emotions are learned or not.

**Innate Emotions**

A child screams when frightened by a loud noise and clutches the mother affectionately if drawn to her. Babies get annoyed if their mothers delay feeding them. These types of reactions have led Grusec, Lockhart and Walters (1990) to conclude that emotions are inborn or innate. They occur without any training taking place.

Emotions such as love, fear, hate and anger are innate, but they can also be learned if conditioning takes place.

**Acquired Emotions**

According to Grusec, Lockhart and Walters (1990: 223), Watson and Rayner conducted an experiment in which a 1-year-old boy was exposed to a white rat. The boy did not express any fear of the rat. The same white rat was then shown to the boy just as an iron bar behind the boy’s head was hit, making a loud noise that frightened the boy. This process was repeated seven times at regular intervals. After this, the sight of white rat alone was enough to arouse fear in the boy.

Although the method used would not be acceptable today, the experiment proved that emotions could also be acquired. You will read more about the conditioning theory of learning in Module 10.

Emotions are innate. However, emotions can also result from learning.

**Emotional Development**

Farrant (1980: 86) identifies three needs that should be addressed if the child’s emotions are to develop normally. These are:

- an assurance of being loved,
- a sense of security, and
- an opportunity to form good personal relations.

Initially, it is the home environment that addresses these needs. The mother and family members are the primary caregivers during the early stage of life. They provide love and a sense of security. Later, the school plays the role of the parents. If the child’s emotional needs are not met, then the child’s emotional development may be disturbed. Delinquent behaviour may occur, and the child may develop various forms of emotional disturbances.
Self-Assessment 2
A fellow pupil came behind a Grade 7 girl who was reading quietly under a tree. Without notice, he gently, but quickly, pricked her ribs. What do you think the girl's emotional reaction was?

Possible answers to this question are provided at the end of this unit.

Implications for the Classroom Teacher
Now that you are aware that the social environment of the child can foster the development of positive emotions, you should review what is expected of you as a teacher. Your pupils want you to be considerate of them and some may want you to love them. They also want to feel secure. Thus, you should not take a cane or whip into your classroom. If you induce fear in your pupils, you may cause them to become delinquents. Fear, you will recall, causes excessive sweating and a fast heartbeat and respiration. These reactions can cause illness. They create barriers to learning. You must not cause your pupils to fear you.

Finally, you should give your pupils opportunities to interact among themselves. You could organise social gatherings within the school or inter-school competitions. These and other activities would help the pupils to develop good personal relationships.

Self-Assessment 3
List what you would consider to be bad effects of fear among school children. Then, show how you would help your pupils to feel more secure.

Possible answers to this question are provided at the end of this unit.

Summary
When we started this unit, we said that the term ‘emotion’ was difficult to define. We then discussed the effects of emotional arousal, whether emotions were innate or acquired and what is needed to develop positive emotions. The unit ended by helping you to relate emotional development to your teaching.

Reflection
Reflect on your performance as a teacher in playing the role of a parent in the emotional development of your pupils.
Are emotions both inborn and learned? Explain your response.

Possible answers to this question are provided at the end of this unit.
Suggested Answers

Self-Assessment 1
The ten reactions listed in this unit are said to be due to automatic arousal as the nervous system in our bodies reacts to stimuli to produce each of the effects discussed.

Self-Assessment 2
The girl may have felt love, fear, hate and/or anger. However, it is most likely that she would have been surprised!

Self-Assessment 3
Excessive fear can cause a child to become ill. In order to remedy the situation, all sources of fear must be removed. Perhaps you would demonstrate that you like and understand your pupils. You would provide them with positive encouragement and reinforcement.

Unit Test
Emotions can be both inborn and learned. We are born with the desire to seek warmth and kindness. As children, we automatically respond with fear to sudden noises in our environment. But these same emotions can be learned. An example of learned emotions is presented below.

When a father returned home every evening, his 3-year-old daughter was not excited by his arrival. But the moment he started bringing her some sweets, she began to greet him affectionately.
UNIT 7: Language Development

Introduction

In Unit 2, we discussed the development of the mind. We now want to discuss a very important variable that has a direct bearing on the thought process—the concept of language development. We will also note that there is a debate about whether or not thought would exist without language. Yelon and Weinstein (1977: 58) raise the question, “Does language develop independently of thought? Or, is thinking impossible without language?” This debate, however, does not receive much of our attention in this unit.

This unit focuses on the theories of language development, factors that influence language development and implications for the classroom teacher. If you need to read more on language and communication issues, you may consider reading Modules 11 and 12.

Objectives

After completing this unit, you should be able to:

1. Define the concept of language development.
2. Discuss theories of language development.
3. Identify factors influencing language development.
4. Discuss the role of the teacher in language development.

The Concept of Language Development

Do you know what language is? According to Bell (1981), language refers to

sounds, letters, their combinations into larger units such as words, sentences and so forth. Such a set of forms would also be expected to have meaning and the elements and sequences, by virtue of having meaning, would naturally be expected to be used for communication between individuals who shared the same rules. (p. 19)

Therefore, language has meaning to individuals who share the same understanding and language helps people to communicate.

Let us begin by looking at some theories on how language develops and how children learn to speak. The ideas raised in each theory can be used to help us in our classrooms.
**B.F. Skinner's Theory**
According to Skinner, “language is learned through imitation and reward” (Yelon and Weinstein, 1977: 74). Language development follows the following process:

- Children listen to adults speak.
- They imitate the sounds they hear.
- Adults reward them by smiling, nodding their heads or asking them to repeat the words. This reinforcement encourages children to imitate them.

We need to expand on the list by Yelon and Weinstein (1977) by including brothers, sisters and peers. These people also play an important part in the language learning process of children.

**Noam Chomsky's Theory**
According to Chomsky, language learning is made possible because children are born with the knowledge of language principles. Yelon and Weinstein (1977) put forward the following argument that supports Chomsky's views:

- Children make grammatical constructions that they have heard no one speak. For example, children might say “They goed yesterday” instead of “They went yesterday” as adults would usually say.
- Children are able to answer questions correctly. Therefore, they are logical and should not be regarded as confused at any stage of their communication.

**The Complementary Views of Skinner and Chomsky**
The theories presented by Skinner and Chomsky have relevant points for consideration. Children have an ability to learn a language through imitation. Their innate knowledge of language principles allows them to generalise and apply the ‘rules’ of grammar. The two theories therefore complement each other in their attempts to explain how children learn a language.

**Self-Assessment 1**
How does Skinner’s theory of language development differ from that of Chomsky?

Possible answers to this question are provided at the end of this unit.

**Newer Environmental Theories**
Children who are spoken to more often develop vocabulary a little faster (English, Nechlin and Arkin, 1975, cited in Bee, 1989: 299).
Talking to a baby in response to some noise increases the rate of language development (Clerk and Steward, 1973, cited in Bee, 1989).

'Motherese' is a word coined by Snow and Ferguson (1977, cited in Bee, 1989) to refer to the simple language used by mothers when talking to infants. Features of motherese (adapted from Bee, 1989: 299) include:

- high-pitched voice, slower pace and long pauses at the end of each sentence;
- short sentences;
- simply structured sentences;
- repeated sentences or variations of the same sentence spoken several times;
- vocabulary based on tangible objects within the environment of the child; and
- slower pace as sentences become longer and more complex.

Self-Assessment 2

Name any three motherese approaches to language learning.

Possible answers to this activity are provided at the end of this unit.

What Have We Learned from the Theories?

Theories of language development suggest factors that may influence language learning. The factors include:

- imitation,
- reinforcement,
- exposure to language,
- the interaction between mothers or other family members and the child,
- the provision of relevant feedback to the child, and
- maturation or the age of the child.

Practical Implications for the Teacher

In our schools, children come to us already able to speak a language. Depending on the curriculum, some students will also need to learn to speak a foreign language. Below are some guidelines that we can use in the classroom to help children learn a language.
• Give children a chance to listen to adults speak.
• Let pupils talk to each other. In the classroom, arrange group activities that will facilitate interaction between students.
• Pupils with limited vocabulary or limited communication skills are not necessarily less intelligent than their counterparts. They need more exposure to language.
• Use questions to assess children’s responses. This will help you to gain knowledge about their level of understanding.
• The use of verbal language should be reinforced by practical examples. Written language should be reinforced by using concrete objects and by speaking.
• When pupils use grammar rules incorrectly, correct their mistakes by referring to the rules that are followed in a particular language.
• Provide a lot of reading time and reading materials to your pupils so that they can learn about the written forms of language.
• Increase the amount and variety of materials read by older students.

Self-Assessment 3
If a child uses a word incorrectly, how can you help him or her to use it correctly?

Possible answers to this question are provided at the end of this unit.

Practice Activity
How would you help pupils in your class who have difficulty in constructing correct sentences?

Possible answers to this question are provided at the end of this unit.

Summary
In this unit, we stressed that language development is important to a child’s overall development because language allows the child to communicate and interact with others. We noted that there are several theories about language development. However, if we, as teachers, follow certain guidelines, we can help our students to learn language more effectively.

Since language plays an important role in the learning process of a child, we believe your teaching will improve greatly if you
consider and apply some of the guidelines presented in this unit.

Reflection
List points from your study of this unit that you consider to have been of greatest help. How will these guidelines make you a better teacher?

Unit Test
Discuss how you should apply the theories in language development to obtain the best results from your teaching and students.

Possible answers to this question are provided at the end of this unit.
Suggested Answers

Self-Assessment 1
Skinner’s theory of language development differs from that of Chomsky in that Skinner views language learning as being due to imitation and reinforcement. Chomsky argues that language develops from structures inherent or inborn in the child.

Self-Assessment 2
Motherese may have the following characteristics:

- simple sentences,
- repeated statements,
- use of tangible aids,
- slow pace,
- high-voice projection, and
- shortened sentences.

Self-Assessment 3
Imitation and relevant feedback can help a child speak and use a word correctly. For example, if a child is trying to say ‘bay’ but says ‘day’, the two words should be written down and their meanings should be given. Then the words should be pronounced correctly and used in appropriate sentences. The teacher should do this first and then ask the child to say the words and use them correctly.

Practice Activity
To help pupils develop their language, you need to expose them to a lot of speaking. Class debates, group discussion, reading out loud and, later, silent reading practice may all help. You also need to encourage them to listen to radio, television and speakers of the language and to read newspapers and magazines.

Unit Test
In order to get the best results from the various theories of language development, you need to combine ideas included in different theories.

For example, you could build on Chomsky’s inborn principles and apply the imitation and rewarding concepts proposed by Skinner, as well as those approaches used in Snow and Ferguson’s motherese.
UNIT 8: Social Development

Introduction

Up to this point, we have covered the following topics in this module:

- theories of child development
- cognitive development
- physical development
- personality development
- moral development
- emotional development
- language development.

In this unit, we will focus on the social development of children. We will also look at the nature of self-concept and the influence of self-concept on academic achievements.

Objectives

After completing this unit, you should be able to:

1. Define the concept of social development.
2. Analyse the nature of the self-concept.
3. Apply the concepts of social development to classroom settings.

The Definition of Social Development and Self-Concept

The Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (1995: 1127) defines social as “concerning the organisation of and relations between people and communities”. With this definition in mind, social development in children can be thought of as the changes in the child’s relationship with people and communities that occur as the child grows up.

Two major aspects in social development of children need to be considered. These include the self-concept and moral development. As we have already dealt with moral development in Unit 5, we will focus mainly on self-concept in Unit 8.

Zindi, Peresu and Mpofu (1995: 94) define self-concept as an evaluated set of beliefs about an individual. It is the self-picture, self-image, self-worth or self-acceptance. The self-concept determines not only who you are, but what you are, what
you think you can do and what you think you can become.

Elements That Comprise the Self-Concept

The self-concept comprises a sense of belonging, of competence and of self-worth. These elements are learned as a result of interaction with the environment and other people like parents, teachers and peers. This group of people is sometimes referred to as significant others. This is because they are very important for the healthy development of children’s self-concept. They provide the necessary feedback to children as they indicate who they really are, their social competencies, academic achievements and emotional balance. Siblings and other people the children interact with also affect their self-concept.

Children who feel safe and appreciated are more likely to develop a positive self-concept. They will establish feelings of acceptance. A positive self-concept raises a child’s self-esteem. As you progress through the unit, you will come to appreciate the impact that self-esteem has on achievement.

Let us now look at some of the characteristics of self-concept that were identified by Shavelson, Hubner and Stanton (1976, cited in Dembo, 1981).

The self-concept is organised. Individuals collect a lot of information regarding perceptions they have about themselves. That information is organised into broad categories.

Multifaceted. The term ‘multi’ means many. The self-concept is multifaceted. It cannot be simply categorised into areas such as social acceptance, physical attractiveness and athletic and academic ability.

The self-concept can be hierarchical, with some facets or parts of it occupying higher positions than others.

The self-concept is stable. The self-concept can, however, change in specific situations. For example, if a good athlete fails in one sport, that athlete’s self-concept will change in that one sport only. The general self-concept is not affected.

The self-concept is developmental. As children grow, their self-concepts undergo change. Children learn to regard themselves positively or negatively as they interact with significant people in their lives, for example, parents, peers and teachers.

The self-concept is evaluative in nature. Individuals can look back at themselves and analyse facets of their self-concept.
Self-Assessment 1

1. List the elements that make up the self-concept.
2. Explain the features of the self-concept and how it is organised.

Possible answers to these questions are provided at the end of this unit.

Structure of the Self-Concept

The following diagram, adapted from Dembo (1981: 110), illustrates the three levels of self-concept for students. You should be able to study these levels and use them to maximise learning in your pupils.

Figure 1

Based on this model, the student’s self-concept comprises the following components:

- A general self-concept is divided into the scholastic, the social and the physical self-concepts.
- The scholastic self-concept is divided into the English ability, the social studies ability, the science ability and the mathematics ability self-concepts.
- The social self-concept is divided into the friendship and dating self-concepts.
- The physical self-concept is divided into the physical appearance and athletic self-concept.
Implications for Teachers

You may be wondering how all this information may be of benefit to you as a teacher. Whether you know it or not, you are actively involved in shaping each pupil’s self-concept. This is because school experiences play an important role in the formation of the child’s self-concept.

As a teacher, you can influence the healthy development of a child’s self-concept by establishing a learning environment in the classroom that is conducive to normal growth. The child’s idea about his or her ability grows from his or her performance on classroom tasks. You can facilitate a positive self-concept by arranging learning conditions in such a way that the child experiences success. Consequently, you raise the child’s self-esteem.

There is a strong relationship between a positive self-concept, high self-esteem and school achievement. As a teacher, you can either build or decrease a child’s self-concept. Let us take reading as an example. Some of your pupils may be poor readers because they have been made to believe that they cannot read. Because they believe that they cannot read, they avoid the subject and do not practise reading. Because they do not practise, they will be unable to read when called upon to do so. If you look closely at this vicious circle, where do you think it began? Who could have convinced the child that he or she cannot read? We think you can provide the answer to this question.

As a teacher, you should aim at improving your pupils’ self-concept. How can you do this? Consider the points below and add your own suggestions:

• Good and well-tried responses should be positively reinforced. Recognise children’s efforts. For example, you could say, ‘Very good’, clap your hands, or nod your head.

• Give your pupils freedom to express their views. Do not discourage them. However, make sure that their answers are supported by logical reasoning.

• Talk to your pupils on a one-to-one basis. This has been found to increase their feelings of self-worth.

• Call your students by name. Make them aware that you know them.

Self-Assessment 2

1. What kind of relationship exists between your students’ self-concepts and their achievement?

2. Based on the content of this unit, how can you help students achieve success?
Possible answers to these questions are provided at the end of this unit.

**Summary**

In this unit, we defined the concept of social development. We also described the elements that make up the self-concept and the structure of the self-concept. Finally, we provided suggestions that could help you apply social development concepts to classroom settings. It is hoped that the information provided in this unit will assist you in carrying out your teaching duties more effectively.

**Reflection**

Consider how you might change your teaching methods, given the information gained from this unit. How will you encourage students to do their best?

**Unit Test**

1. What role can you play, as a teacher, in the development of positive self-concepts in your pupils?

2. Is it true that a teacher can make or break the children’s concepts of themselves? Explain your answer.

Possible answers to these questions are provided at the end of this unit.
Suggested Answers

Self-Assessment I

1. The self-concept comprises an evaluated set of beliefs, including a self-picture, self-image, self-worth and self-acceptance.

2. The self-concept can be characterised as being:
   - organised,
   - multi-faceted,
   - hierarchical,
   - stable,
   - developmental, and
   - evaluative.

Self-Assessment 2

1. There is a positive relationship between a positive self-concept and achievement. A positive self-concept raises a child’s self-esteem, which is conducive to learning.

2. You can help students achieve success by:
   - establishing a positive learning environment,
   - allowing students to express their views,
   - providing effective feedback, and
   - recognising them as individuals.

   You may have additional suggestions on your list.

Unit Test

1. A teacher can help in the development of a positive self-concept by:
   - enabling your pupils to experience success,
   - raising your pupils’ self-esteem,
   - providing a lot of positive reinforcement,
   - allowing pupils the freedom to express their views,
   - chatting with pupils on a one-to-one basis, and
   - calling your pupils by name.

2. A teacher can contribute significantly to the development of a child’s self-concept. This is because:
   - the teacher is a ‘significant other’ in the child’s life and influences his or her behaviour,
   - the teacher provides important feedback on the child’s interaction with people and the environment,
• the teacher can influence a child’s self-esteem, and
• there is a close relationship between self-esteem and achievement. The teacher is responsible for nurturing and evaluating academic achievement.
Module Test

1. How would you apply the major characteristics of cognitive development theories to classroom practice?
2. Discuss how the knowledge of stages of child development would influence the methods of teaching you would adopt. In your answer, discuss the work of Jean Piaget.
3. What factors affect physical development? Is one factor more important than others? Explain your response and provide examples.
4. Why is the study of the moral development of children important?
5. As a teacher, how can you influence moral development in pupils?
6. Emotions and perception set the pace for learning. Discuss this statement.
7. How can you help pupils to develop their language skills?
8. How can you influence the development of the child’s self-concept?
9. Are theories factual? Should they be applied directly to a classroom? Explain your response by outlining two theories and their potential application to the classroom setting.
References


