
UNIT 2 COGNITIVE, SOCIAL, EMOTIONAL AND MORAL DEVELOPMENT

Structure

- 2.0 Introduction
 - 2.1 Objectives
 - 2.2 Cognitive Development
 - 2.2.1 Piaget's Theory of Cognitive Development: Concrete Operation
 - 2.2.2 Decentration
 - 2.2.3 Conservation Tasks
 - 2.2.4 A New Ego Centrism
 - 2.2.5 Logical Reasoning
 - 2.3 Concept Formation
 - 2.3.1 Information Processing Approach to Cognitive Development
 - 2.3.2 Language Development
 - 2.4 Social Development
 - 2.4.1 Relations with Parents and Siblings
 - 2.4.2 Peer Group
 - 2.4.3 Social Cognition
 - 2.4.4 Self-esteem
 - 2.5 Moral Development
 - 2.5.1 Piaget's Ideas about Moral Development
 - 2.5.2 Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Development
 - 2.5.3 Moral Judgments and Moral Behaviour
 - 2.6 Emotional Development
 - 2.6.1 Common Emotional Patterns
 - 2.7 Let Us Sum Up
 - 2.8 Unit End Questions
 - 2.9 Glossary
 - 2.10 Suggested Readings
 - 2.11 Answers to Self Assessment Questions
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2.0 INTRODUCTION

Keep in mind that the school child's head is not where yours is. It is not just a matter of physical growth-it is perhaps more a matter of intellectual change.....their heads may be closer to the clouds. And perhaps that's why they see magic more clearly than we adults do.(Lefrançois, G. R. 2001: 374).

In this unit we discuss four dimensions of development in middle childhood, that is cognitive development, social development, emotional development and moral development. “The elementary school years are the years 6 through 12 in a child’s life, and are sometimes referred to as the latency period. However, in many areas of development, these years are actually action packed, not latent at all. They are filled with both motion and emotion as the child confronts the diverse demands of school; and entry into a rule bound society” (Morgan, King et. al. p. 450).

2.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Elucidate Piaget's concepts of cognitive development in middle childhood;
- Define Social development in middle childhood;
- Explain Emotional maturity in school going children; and
- Describe Moral development of Kohlberg's theory.

2.2 COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

Between the ages of 5 and 7 years, children's thought processes change dramatically. Using Piaget's terms, pre-operational thought is replaced by a rudimentary form of logic. The change is sometimes referred to as 5 to 7 shift. It is "the time during which the child makes a cognitive transition from the preoperational stage to the stage of concrete operations or from induction to logic" (Harris, A. C. 1993: 521).

In the middle ages the child was assigned adult status at age 7 when he was considered to be capable of being without his mother or his nanny (Aries, 1962). Impressive changes in brain development set the stage of 5 to 7 shift (Fishbein, 1984). Cross-model zones (nerve networks that permit information flow from one part of the brain to another) are well developed between the ages 5 and 6. These interconnections tie together different sensory events and modalities. For example, a child might associate an orange with its colour. Later on, associations will also be formed between the orange and its distinctive smell, flavour and its spelling.

Throughout the development, a reciprocal relationship forms between cognition and brain maturation. Brain maturation may support cognitive changes and cognitive activity can also accelerate brain activity.

2.2.1 Piaget's Theory of Cognitive Development: Concrete Operation

Concrete operation is the third stage in Piaget's cognitive theory. The ability to think logically about concrete or real world events and experiences is the hallmark of this stage. Concrete logic becomes possible when the children understand operations. Operations "are flexible mental actions that can be combined with one another to solve problems" (Morgan, King et al. 435).

Operations can be understood as the "set of powerful rules that can transform information from one form to another" (Harris, C.A 1993: 522).

These rules include mathematical operations (identity, addition, division etc.) and relations among categories (class inclusion, seriation etc.).

The operations are concrete in the sense that they are limited to concrete and objects. Abstract concepts are difficult at this stage to be understood.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Piaget's theory of development is related to
 - a) physical development
 - b) social development
 - c) moral development
 - d) cognitive development

2) Arrange the following developmental stages of cognitive development in the ascending order

- i) sensorimotor stage ii) concrete operational stage
- iii) preoperational stage iv) Formal Operational stage

Choose the correct option

- a) i ii iii iv
- b) i iv ii iii
- c) i iii ii iv
- d) ii iv i iii

3) Assertion: Concrete operation is the ability to think logically about concrete events.

Reason: The operations are concrete in the sense that they are limited to concrete and objects.

- a) Both A and R are true. R is the reason for A.
- b) Both A and R are true. R is not the reason for A.
- c) A is true and R is false.
- d) R is true and A is false.

2.2.2 Decentration

One of the most significant operations mastered by the school age child is decentration. Children in the concrete operations stage can decenter their thinking, taking into account several aspects or event at the same time.

The concrete operational child organises the world into hierarchies. In these hierarchies, a given thing can fall on more than one dimension at the same time. The following example

(discussed in Morgan and King: 451) will give us a clear picture of difference between the thinking of concrete operational and pre-operational. The latter stage lacks the ability to think about something from various dimensions.

The picture of seven people in a group, two adults and five children, is shown to some 4 year olds and some 9 year olds. “Are there more children or more people?” To this question, most 4-year olds will say, “more children”, most 9-year olds will say, “more people”. There are two dimensions in this question: people versus non-people, children versus adults. The 4-years old, being preoperational, can focus on only one dimension at a time (child versus adult dimension). The 9-years old recognised that both children and adults fall on the ‘people’ end of the people versus non-people dimension. These older children answered correctly because their flexible operations allow them to think in terms of hierarchy involving two dimensions, one broader than the other.

2.2.3 Conservation Tasks

In Piaget's terms, tasks that test the child's knowledge of the identity of matter. If the child can solve the conservation tasks (Table 2.1), he/she knows that the physical

Development During Early School Years (6-11 Years)

characteristics of the entity can change but certain other properties stay the same. Concrete operational children are no longer fooled by perceptual appearance of number, volume, mass and other physical properties. They can now solve conservation tasks designed to measure the child's ability to understand apparent transformations. For instance, concrete operational children are no longer fooled into thinking that a flattened ball of clay is larger than the comparison ball, because they understand that the shape of the clay is immaterial to its weight.

The ability to conserve appears to follow a developmental sequence. Children can usually conserve numbers by about 6 or 7, mass and length by 7 or 8, weight around 9 or 10, and volume by 14 or 15 (Gold, R. 1983)¹.

Inhelder and Piaget (1955, 1958) called the developmental lag in conservation abilities 'horizontal décalage'. *Decaler* in French means 'to displace'. Horizontal décalage is the sequential mastery of concepts within a single developmental stage. When children had mastered the concepts of identity, reversibility and reciprocity, they can conserve along any physical dimension.

Identity: The notion that if form changes but nothing has been added or taken away, the amount will remain the same.

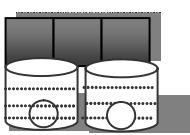
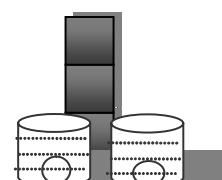
Reversibility: The notion that something which has been changed can be returned to its original state by reversing the process that lead to change.

Reciprocity: If the mass remains constant, a change in one dimension necessitates a change in another. For instance, if an object is flattened, it will become wider as it becomes thinner.

Following table (2.1) summarizes types of conservations and the age at which these concepts are mastered.

Table: Piagetian Conservation Tasks

Type of conservation	Dimension	Change in physical properties	Conservation question	Age at which the task can be solved.
Number	No. of elements in a collection	Rearranging or dislocating elements in a collection	Which line has more marbles? Preconservative child will say longer line has more and conserving child will say both have the same number	6-7 years of age
Substance	Amount of malleable substance	Altering its shape	Do the two pieces have the same amount of clay? Preconserving child will say no. Conserving child will say yes.	7-8 years of age
Length	Two sticks of the same length	Move one stick over	Which stick is longer? Preconserving child will say one is longer. Conserving child will say both are the same length.	7-8 years of age

Area	Two identical pieces of card board with same number of blocks	Rearranging blocks on one cardboard.	Do the two pieces of cardboard have the same amount of open space? preconserving child will say no. conserving child will say yes	8-9 years of age
Weight	Weight of an object 	Altering space 	Which object weighs more? Preconserving child will say vertical shape weighs more. Conserving child will say both weigh the same.	9-10 years of age
Volume	Two identical balls of clay in two identical glasses	Change the shape of one of the balls	Do the pieces of clay displace the same amount of water? Preconseving child will say no. Conserving child will say yes.	14-15 years of age

(Source: Harris, 1993: 523)

The refinement of the ability to conserve may also be accelerated through training and practice. It has been also found that children in societies where concrete operational skills have little relevance develop these skills much later than their more urbanized peers.

The ability to conserve provides the child in concrete operations with a new sense of stability, security; and confidence in their judgments because they can rely on what they know rather than on what they perceive. Piaget tried to dissuade a 7 year old girl from insisting that the amount of water in a tall glass equaled that in a shorter glass. He argued:

“But a girl of your age was here yesterday and she said there was more water (in the glass) because (the water level was) higher.”

“She’s just silly, that’s all,” was the seven year old girl’s reply.

(Quoted in Harris, p.524)

2.2.4 A New Egocentrism

Preschool children are unable to take the viewpoint of others. They have difficulty understanding that other people can reach conclusions different from their own. This preschool egocentrism is replaced in the school years by a different kind of egocentrism: one that permits more flexibility, logic and objectivity. School age children realise that their way of thinking is not the only way. They are now able to appreciate situations from others’ point of view. Children at this stage can successfully solve Piaget and

Inhelder's 'Three Mountain Task': when asked what a doll seated to the left, right and front of the subjects might see, young school age children can occasionally select the correct drawing, but the accuracy of perspective taking significantly improves by the time the child is 11 or 12. But once they have formed a hypothesis about how or why things work, they tend to force contradictory facts into their hypothesis rather than changing the hypothesis to fit the facts.

2.2.5 Logical Reasoning

According to Piaget the school age child develops the ability to use inductive reasoning. Induction involves reasoning from a specific observation to a general principal. Children must apply this reasoning when they learn rules and operations. On interpersonal level, this reasoning forms the foundation of empathy.

Between the 3rd and 5th grade, great advances are made in the ability of the child to understand 'if-then' conditions. Additional improvements in reasoning skills occurs between the 8th grade and college I distinguishing 'if' from 'if and only if' statements.

Deductive logic does not appear until the stage of formal operations (12 to adult).

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Conservation in Piaget's theory of cognitive development refers to
 - a) the development of inductive logic.
 - b) taking into account several aspects of an event.
 - c) flexible mental actions that can be combined with one another to solve problems
 - d) knowing that an object has not changed in fundamental properties inspite of appearance.
- 2) Match the following and choose the correct option given below:

identity	(i) sequential mastery of concepts within a single developmental stage
reversibility	(ii) if the mass remains constant, a change in one dimension necessitates a change in another
horizontal décalage	(iii) if something has been changed, it can be returned to its original state by reversing the process that leads
reciprocity	(iv) form can change, but if nothing has been added or taken away, the amount is still the same

(a) i ii iii iv (b) iv iii i ii
(c) iv iii ii i (d) iv ii iii i
- 3) Pick out the incorrect statement about concrete operational thought
 - a) Children at this stage ca understand reversibility and transformations
 - b) Children can take the viewpoint of others
 - c) Children rely more on what they know rather than what they see
 - d) Children's logic is guided by deductive reasoning

- 4) Studies found that conservation for different physical properties develop sequentially. Arrange the following in the order of development
- (i) volume (ii) number (iii) mass and length (iv) weight
- (a) i ii iii iv (b) ii iii iv i (c) ii iv iii i (d) iv ii i iii

2.3 CONCEPT FORMATION

Number: by the age 6 or 7, children's understanding of one-to-one correspondence is complete. For example, school age children realise that six remains six whether it is represented as 5+1, 9-3 or six stars.

Time: until age 8, children have difficulty placing events in their appropriate time sequence. Units of time (minutes, hours, years etc.) have little meaning to them. After age 8, children have a more precise understanding of time passage. They are usually able to classify past and future events according to how recently they occurred.

Spatial Operations: Children have difficulty understanding distance before they reach school age because they don't comprehend the basic units of measurement (miles, feet, km etc.). The ability to navigate within a new environment develops slowly during the school years. Young school children lose their spatial sense easily in unfamiliar and complex spaces. Older children can draw a map of area if they have had the chance to thoroughly explore the space, but even 10 year olds have trouble creating a cognitive map of an environmental space in order to give directions or locate an object (Siegal 1989)².

Classifications: Class inclusion or addition of classes is well developed in school age children. They are able to form class hierarchies and to understand that all things have multiple identities.

By age 6 or 7 most children can understand multiplication of classes. A 7-8 year old child in the stage of concrete operations can sort cutouts in two shapes and two colors into appropriate groups.

Seriation: In addition to classifying and grouping objects, school-age children are capable of sequencing and ordering objects with respect to some measurable dimension, such as weight or size. This process is called seriation.

2.3.1 Information Processing Approach to Cognitive Development

Information processing theorists suggest that concrete logic is a result of improved attention, perception, memory and problem solving skills.

Attention: The ability to focus on relevant information while ignoring distraction or irrelevant cues improves during school years. However, beyond 11 and 12, it shows much more improvement. Interest is high attention getter for children. Children remember interesting sentences, even though allocating less attention to them than to less interesting passages (Shirley & Reynolds, 1988)³.

Perception: Concrete operational logic also influences the way children organise and interpret sensory information. Children can't spontaneously alternate between figure and ground until they are 10 to 11 years old. Children need to master the concept of reversibility to reverse their perceptions. The Embedded Figures test (Witkin et al., 1971)⁴ requires that the child could see a figure in a number of ways.

Older children are capable of searching their visual environment thoroughly and systematically. Children below 6 and 7 years of age look quickly and randomly at the figures.

Memory Capacity and Memory Storage: School age children are able to hold more information in memory and are better at mentally organising that material than younger children (Brown et al., 1983)⁵. Rehearsal occurs more spontaneously during the school years and is more efficiently applied. Memory is improved by organising and categorising items on a list into related groups. Older children are also more likely to use elaboration. Elaboration is a strategy for improving memory by changing the form of information and associating it with other information and visual images etc. Metamemory – the awareness of memory develops during school years.

2.3.2 Language Development

6 to 12 years old children continue to expand their reading and improve their understanding of words and word meanings. School age children, who are trained to see the relationships between words and who notice the common word structures, develop more extensive vocabularies than those without such training. However, children in this age group often make mistakes. But, like younger children these children also like words and enjoy using them.

School age children continue to refine their understanding of the structure of the language and the way words are organised into sentences. Six and seven year old children tend to be confused by irrelevant information, complex constructions and the implied meaning of certain words.

Children who have language difficulties are more likely to exhibit aggressive behaviour. Apparently, the child has a need to express herself if not verbally then physically (Burke et al., 1989)⁶.

Communication effectiveness also develops together with the cognitive and overall development. Asking others to clear their confusion and persuading others to do something for them and showing more sensitiveness of the listener's needs make their communication different from the preschoolers. Enhanced vocabulary also adds to their effective communication.

2.4 SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

School children's world expands gradually from families to schools, from sibling to peers and friends, from parents and teachers. All these worlds play a crucial role in forming child's personality.

2.4.1 Relations with Parents and Siblings

As children grow through the school years, they want to spend more time with their friends and less time with their family. Adults other than family (teachers) are more important. Children want to make more and more of their decisions. Parents are challenged to provide guidance without being overly restrictive or protective. Children experience fewer failures and recover more quickly when they do fail if they know that their parents are proud of them and have faith in their competence and resilience. Children whose parents belittle them and communicate doubt on their abilities usually experience more failures and less achievement in school and a greater loss of self-esteem than those with more supportive parents (Grolnick & Ryan 1989)⁷.

School age children are ready for more responsibility both at home and outside. Parents can help children take responsibility for some household chores and personal items. These involvements play an important role in their development of useful skills, self-confidence, and appreciation of tasks related to daily living. Research shows that children with household responsibilities behave in more nurturing, helpful and mature ways than those who have no such demands upon them (Baumrind 1971)⁸.

Value development is affected by parents' behaviour throughout child rearing years. During middle years children have the opportunity to apply these values in making independent decisions. They also test them against other alternatives. When parents and peer values conflict in matters like truth telling, school age children often side with their peers. The values are more resistant to change when children know the reasons for the beliefs.

High self-esteem is the most important predictor of personal happiness and effective functioning. Self esteem refers to an individual's positive feelings about herself and competencies in specific areas. Self-esteem is influenced by the child's self-perception and her home and school experiences. Adults can help children gain /maintain self-esteem by helping them feel powerful, competent, virtuous and significant.

Although school-age children become increasingly independent as they mature, they still need reasonable, consistent guidelines to direct their behaviour. They might complain about restrictions, but in the end, controls make children feel secure and are seen as expressions of their parents' love and concern (Whaley and Wrong, 1988)⁹. Parents' role changes to consultants as well as caregivers. Children often negotiate for what they want, rather than having emotional outbursts.

Mothers are preferred companions. Fathers tend to encourage independence and assertiveness; mothers tend to train interpersonal skills.

Siblings' relationships tend to be particularly significant during middle childhood. Siblings teach and help each other. They practice social skills (expressing gratitude, annoyance, surprise and fear) by interacting with each other. Younger siblings emulate older ones.

2.4.2 Peer Group

Peer group is a group of equals. Same-age, same sex children assemble into informal peer groups during the school groups. Between ages 6 and 9, these groups are rather small, loosely organised groups whose membership changes frequently. Peer groups have a status hierarchy among the members. By the time children are in fifth or sixth grade, their groups have become more structured, more formalised, more exclusive and more cohesive. School age children expect each other to follow social norms that promote courtesy, fair play and respect for others (Hartup, 1983)¹⁰. Cooperation is a frequently chosen conflict resolution strategy among girls, while boys favour competition (Crick & Ladd, 1990).

Peers are agents of socialisation. Peers transmit information about attitudes and values and influence each other's behaviour through modeling and reinforcement.

Conformity is the mainstay of the peer group structure. If the child's moral reasoning leads him to be conscious of rules and to be viewed as 'good', schoolchildren conform to the group because they value their peers' opinions even more than those of adults.

Studies across cultures have shown that the tendencies for children to follow peers

are not inevitable. These tendencies depend upon socialising experiences of children. Peer groups in Soviet Union, unlike those in the United States, support and enforce the values of the adult culture (Bronfenbrenner, 1970)¹¹.

For peer acceptance social competence is important. “Social competence is reflected in children’s ability to sense what is happening in social groups, in a high degree of responsiveness to others and in an understanding that relationships develop slowly over time” (Lefrançois, G. R. 2001: 461). Peer acceptance or rejection (socio metric status) is assessed by using two methods: Peer Ratings or Peer Nominations.

In an attempt to investigate definition of social status and the nature of social isolation, Gottman (1977)¹² studied 113 children in depth. His observations suggest five distinct categories of children:

Socio metric stars: those who are equally liked by all.

Mixers: those who interact often with peers; some well liked, others not.

Teachers negatives: Typically in conflict with teachers, some liked, others not.

Tuned out: usually not involved in what is going on; ignored rather than rejected.

Socio metric rejections: not only disliked but also actively rejected by everyone. They might be rejected because they are withdrawn or socially incompetent (withdrawn-rejected) or overly aggressive (aggressive rejected).

Friendship during these years is not reciprocal. Friends are seen as people who “do things for each other” (Selman, 1980)¹³. Friends are often the same sex: boy-boy, girl-girl. Selman (1980) suggests developmental progression in children’s friendship:

- Playmates (3-7): friends are those who play together with
- Assistants (4-9): Friends are those who help each other
- Cooperators (6-12): Friends have to cooperate, share goals and procedures and make compromises
- Intimates and mutual supporters (9-15): Friends share goals and values, and provide intimacy and support; strong friendships can survive occasional disagreements
- Dependent but autonomous (12 and beyond): Adult like understanding of the mutual dependence of friends on each other, paired with the need to maintain individuality and independence and to cultivate other relationships.

2.4.3 Social Cognition

Social cognition refers to the knowledge of emotion of others. The realisation that others have feelings, motives, intentions and so on (Lefrançois, G. R. 2001: 585). With the expansion of social world, children’s way of thinking about people also changes. Selman (1980) describes the development of children’s ability to understand and verbalise another person’s point of view in five stages, labeled 0 to 4.

Egocentric (3-7 years): there is no other perspective but mine. People feel the way I would in a situation

Social informational (4-9): Others have a point of view, but they would feel the way I do; aware but don’t understand.

Self-reflective (6-12): begin to infer other views; we can have different point of views, I can see mine, they can see theirs

Mutual (10-12): can switch perspectives; maybe I can see theirs and they can see mine.

Social and conventional (12-adulthood): can analyse perspectives in abstract terms.

2.4.4 Self-esteem

Self esteem refers to self appraisal. According to William James, self worth is a direct function of the difference between what I would like to be and what I think I am (James 1892)¹⁴, i.e. it reflects the discrepancy between the individual's actual performance and ideal competence.

School age children can assess their worth in general terms as well as in five areas: scholastic, athletic, physical appearance, social acceptance and morality. High self worth is associated with happiness; low self-worth with sadness and depression.

2.5 MORAL DEVELOPMENT

Together with the development of cognition and social skills, children develop along the dimension of the moral values and reasoning. They learn the rules for right and wrong and understand other laws and rules.

In this section, we will examine Jean Piaget and Lawrence Kohlberg's theories of moral development during school years.

2.5.1 Piaget's Ideas about Moral Development

In Piaget's (1935/1965) view the child enters a new stage of moral development when he enters the stage of concrete operations at age 6 or 7. He called it *heteronomous morality* or *moral realism* (heteronomous means under an outside authority). In this stage rules are regarded as unchangeable, absolute and imposed by an external authority. Egocentrism of young children encourages them to adhere to three beliefs:

Imminent justice: wrongdoing invariably leads to punishment.

Objective Consequences: morality of an act is judged by its objective consequences, not the objective intentions of the persons.

Absolutism: Young school children believe in the absolutism of moral perspective. They believe that there is only one correct moral conclusion per circumstance.

Stage of autonomous morality or morality of cooperation A new stage, is achieved around the age of 10. As children become less egocentric by age 9 or 10, they are also able to realise that rules are not fixed but arbitrary. They come to know that rules can change and it is possible to make personal decisions about obeying rules.

Moral authority of adults is replaced in part by a morality based on cooperation and mutual understanding. At this stage, it is not wrong to break the rules; rather, the motives, the rules, the specific situations are all considered in making a judgment. They feel praise and punishment should be distributed in a non-arbitrary, even-handed way. It is hard for children at this stage to understand that the same behaviour might evoke different responses from different people.

2.5.2 Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Development

Lawrence Kohlberg sought to refine and extend the ideas of Piaget and the pioneering work of James M. Baldwin (1894) by creating a comprehensive three-stage theory. Kohlberg studied moral development by posing moral dilemmas to groups of children as well as adolescents and adults. These dilemmas take the form of stories, one of

Kohlberg's best known dilemmas involves a man named Heinz, who must choose between stealing medicine and letting his wife die.

In Europe, a woman was near death from a special kind of cancer. There was one drug that the doctors thought might save her. It was a form of radium that a druggist in the same town had recently discovered. The drug was expensive to make, but the druggist was charging ten times what the drug cost him to make. He paid \$200 for the radium and charged \$2000 for a small dose of the drug. The sick woman's husband, Heinz, went to everyone he knew to borrow the money, but he could only get together about \$1000, which was half of what it cost. He told the druggist that his wife was dying and asked him to sell it cheaper or let him pay later. But the druggist said, "No, I discovered the drug and I'm going to make money from it." So Heinz got desperate and considered breaking into the man's store to steal the drug for his wife. Should Heinz steal the radium? (Kohlberg & Gilligan, 1971: 1072-1073)¹⁵.

Instead of the answer, Kohlberg analysed the reasons children gave for their answers. He identified three general levels of moral reasoning: preconventional, conventional and postconventional and described two stages at each level.

(i) Preconventional Level	Stage-1 Punishment-obedience orientation Stage-2 Instrumental-exchange orientation
(ii) Conventional level	Stage-3 Good-boy-nice-girl orientation Stage-4 System-maintaining orientation
(iii) Postconventional Level	Stage-5 Social-contract situation Stage-6 Universal-ethical-principles orientation

Moral reasoning of preschool children was influenced by a concern for obedience and punishment and for satisfying personal needs. When children enter the stage of concrete operations, they are able to turn away from their egocentric thinking, growing more concerned about appearing 'good'.

According to Kohlberg (1969, 1976) this shift in focus is characteristic of *conventional level of moral reasoning*.

Concern with law and order is an important aspect of conventional reasoning. Rule breaking is considered to be inherently immoral because it creates chaos in a stable social system. Reasoning at this level fits what many societies consider to be acceptable moral rules.

2.5.3 Moral Judgments and Moral Behaviour

In a classic study of 10,000 children, Hugh Hartshorn and Mark May (1928-1930)¹⁶ found that students who support rigid moral standards don't necessarily behave in ethical and desirable ways. Nine to eleven year old children are quick to

find excuses to justify their own rule infractions. Solving moral dilemmas involves trying to coordinate several sets of conflicting needs and motives, including the laws of the culture, the morality of peers, parents' and teachers' guidelines and self-interest. The third and fourth grader may be able to identify moral of a story but may not be able to apply it. Moral decision making benefits from practice and maturity and from specific instruction on how to generalise moral principles to life.

2.6 EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Emotions play an important role in life. Emotional expressions change with the development with the dimensions of emotions when children grow towards maturity. Patterns of emotional development vary for children and are affected by various factors. Health, intellectual level, environment and social reactions have been shown to affect emotional development. Authoritarian child rearing encourages the development of anxiety and fear while permissive and democratic training encourages the development of curiosity and affection. Children of low socio-economic status tend to have more fears and anxiety than those of higher socio-economic status (Croake, 1969)¹⁷. Differences of emotional expressions are also found between girls and boys. Girls often dissolve into tears or temper outbursts. Boys express their annoyance and anxiety by being sullen and moody.

The common emotions of the late childhood differ from those of early childhood in two respects: in the type of situation that gives rise to emotional reactions and in the form of expression.

After the child becomes adjusted to school, the emotionality tends to subside because (Devadas & Jaya 1984):

- i) The roles of the older child are well defined.
- ii) He has a ready outlet for any pent-up emotional energy through games and sports.
- iii) The feeling of frustration is less with the improvement in skills.

2.6.1 Common Emotional Patterns

Fear: A gradual shift from typical fears to general fears has been observed. In Hurlock's (1978: 198) words, "among older children, fears are concentrated on fanciful, supernatural or remote dangers; on the dark and on imaginary creatures associated with dark; on death and injury; on the elements, especially thunder and lightening; and on characters recalled from stories, movies, comics, and television. ...afraid of failing, of being ridiculed and of being different".

All fear stimuli tend to be sudden and unexpected. But with growth children can adjust more quickly to sudden and unexpected circumstances and many fear producing conditions do not cause fear when they grow. Overt fear responses are curbed by social pressure. The facial expressions express fear; children may also express fear indirectly in a general motor discharge, retreat and withdrawal, imaginary ills and quaking (Hurlock, 1978: 199). Shyness, embarrassment, worry and anxiety are some fear related emotions. Shyness in older children may be expressed by blushing, stuttering, nervous mannerisms e.g. pulling at ears and clothing, shifting from one foot to the other.

Anxiety: Anxiety develops later than fear as it depends upon the ability to imagine something not present. It is often found during early school years and tend to increase

during fourth to sixth grade. Anxiety may be expressed as depression, nervousness, irritability, mood swings, restless sleep, quick anger and increased sensitivity to what others say. Anxious children are unhappy children because they feel insecure.

Anger: Anger is more frequently expressed emotion in childhood than fear (Hurlock 1978: 202). Thwarting of desires, interruption of activities in progress, constant faultfinding, teasing, unfavourable comparisons with other children are some of the factors that arouse anger in older children. Hurlock divided responses to anger into two major categories: impulsive and inhibited. Impulsive responses include aggressive behaviour. Temper tantrums normally decrease with age. Inhibited responses are kept under control. Children may withdraw into themselves. They express their anger by acting hurt, being sullen, feeling sorry for themselves, or threatening to run away.

Curiosity: Curiosity is the instinctive foundation of intellectual life. Asking questions is normal for children. Every adult faces what, why, how about things that adults have never noticed. Children feel curious about everything from their own bodies, dresses people wear, light switches, television sets, change in mother's hair style, to permanent tooth. The 'questioning age' is replaced by reading when they grow, if they feel that reading can answers to their questions.

Joy, pleasure and delight: Joy is a pleasant emotion. In its milder forms, it is known as pleasure, delight or happiness. Joyful expressions range from a quiet, calm, self-satisfied contentment to a bubbling exuberance (Hurlock, 1978: 206). As children grow older, they learn to express their joy in the socially approved pattern for the group with which they are identified. They learn that gloating over a person they have defeated is poor sportsmanship. Success is the most pleasant situation for school children. This achievement can be academic, sports or other competitions. Company of friends and play are delightful to children of all ages. There may be individual differences from child to child. Some children may find joy when they see trees, birds and in contemplation. Some parents deliberately arrange some time for children for the activities that may be delightful and could save them from mechanical routine of school, tuitions, homework and competitions. A predominance of the pleasant emotions, such as love, joy and happiness is essential for normal development. These emotions lead to feelings of security which help children approach their problems with self-confidence.

All children should learn emotional tolerance as the control over the environment becomes increasingly difficult. Emotional tolerance, the ability to accept and adjust to unpleasant emotional experiences, is an essential condition to emotional balance.

2.7 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have discussed four major dimensions of development of school going children: Cognitive, Social, Moral and Emotional development. Cognitive developmental views of Piaget characterise the developmental stage of the child at 6 to 11 or 12 years as concrete operational. As the child grows physically and mentally, his behaviour shows marked differences from the earlier stages. Socially, children of this age group like the company of their friends and peers more than their parents. They are busy in learning various skills which bring change in emotional expressions. Learning what is socially right and wrong goes along with the above dimensions of development. At this stage development is more affected by learning and training. This is where schooling becomes important.

2.8 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Discuss the cognitive development during school years in the light of Piaget's theory of cognitive development.
- 2) What are the social changes that are the characteristic of school going children?
- 3) Write an essay on the Kohlberg's moral development theory.
- 4) Observational application: How many friends does a typical child have? How important are they?

2.9 GLOSSARY

Operations	: Flexible mental actions that can be combined with one another to solve problems.
Concrete operations	: The ability to think logically about concrete or real world events and experiences.
Decenter	: Children in the concrete operations stage can decenter their thinking, taking into account several aspects or event at the same time.
Conservation	: Knowing that the physical characteristics of the entity can change but certain other properties stay the same.
Identity	: The notion that if form changes but nothing has been added or taken away, the amount will remain the same.
Reversibility	: The notion that something which has been changed can be returned to its original state by reversing the process that lead to change.
Reciprocity	: If the mass remains constant, a change in one dimension necessitates a change in another. For instance, if an object is flattened, it will become wider as it becomes thinner.
Horizontal décalage	: The developmental lag in conservation abilities. Horizontal décalage is the sequential mastery of concepts within a single developmental stage.
Seriation	: School-age children are capable of sequencing and ordering objects with respect to some measurable dimension, such as weight or size. This process is called seriation.
Peer group	: A group of equals. Same-age, same sex children assemble into informal peer groups during the school age.

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2.11 ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

SAQ 1: 1) d, 2) c, 3) a.

SAQ 2: 1) d, 2) b, 3) d, 4) b.

Endnotes

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