Children and Young People’s Workforce

EARLY LEARNING AND CHILD CARE

Maureen Smith, Teena Kamen,
Jo Irvine, Mary Armitage,
Corinne Barker
## Contents

### Acknowledgements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section I Mandatory units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Section II Optional units

| 11 | Support children and/or young people’s development of art, drama and music (Unit CP 11) |
| 12 | Learning about planning from a given framework of curricula (Unit CP 13) |
| 13 | Supporting numeracy and literacy development in children and/or young people (Unit CP 14) |

### Index

**Additional free material** on the web at www.hoddereducation.co.uk/cache covering unit CP 18:
Supporting science and technology development in children and/or young people
SECTION 1

Mandatory units

1. Extending understanding of theories of children and/or young person’s care or development (CP 1)
2. Understand the role of policies in children and/or young people’s settings (CP 2)
3. Maintaining the health of children and/or young people (CP 3)
4. An introduction to leadership and management (CP 4)
5. Supporting the development of study skills (CP 5)
6. Working with families of children and/or young people (CP 6)
7. Working as part of more than one team (CP 7)
8. Supportive approaches to behaviour management (CP 8)
9. Formal recording for use within the work environment (CP 9)
10. Research to support practice when working with children and/or young people (CP 10)
Chapter 1 Extending understanding of theories of children and/or young person’s care or development (Unit CP 1)

The aim of this chapter is to increase awareness of theories and their benefit to children and young people’s care or development.

**Learning outcomes**

1. **Know the role of theories in informing practice when working with children and/or young people.**
2. **Be able to apply theories to workplace practice.**
3. **Understand the relevance of identified theories in relation to own workplace practice and personal development.**

**Section 1: The role of theories in informing practice when working with children and/or young people**

This chapter looks at the use of theory to inform practice when working with children and/or young people. There are many theories of development – in this chapter, we look at the theories that are most relevant to the study of children’s and young people’s care, development and learning: behaviourist theories, psychoanalytic theories, humanistic theories, social constructivist theories, attachment theory and experiential learning style theory. In many cases, these theories offer competing views on childhood development and this presents one of the challenges in putting these theories into practice.

### Behaviourist theories

Behaviourist theories (or behaviourism) are based on the assumption that learning occurs through interactions with the environment and that all behaviours are acquired through a person’s interaction with their environment. Behaviourists believe that internal thoughts and motivations cannot be used to explain behaviour. Instead, they suggest that we should look only at the external, observable causes of human behaviour, rather than thoughts and feelings, which cannot be observed.

Behaviourists are concerned with how external forces can be used to control behaviour. For example, B.F. Skinner (see pages 3–5) considered that all thinking and learning are based on responses to rewards and punishments received within our environment.

**Ivan Petrovich Pavlov (1849–1936)**

Pavlov was a Russian biologist who studied animal behaviour. His experiments involved teaching dogs to salivate in response to the sound of a bell. Before giving the dogs their food, Pavlov rang a bell. Eventually, the dogs began to salivate when the bell rang, even when there was no food. The dogs had learned to respond to the bell sound with their salivating reflex. This type of learned response or behaviour is called a conditioned reflex. Pavlov extended his ideas concerning conditioning to human psychology. He believed that human behaviour consists of many conditioned reflexes that are triggered by external influences.
Key term

- **Behaviour** – a person’s actions and reactions, and their treatment of others.
- **Classical conditioning** – the learning process that occurs through associations between an environmental stimulus and a naturally occurring stimulus. For example, Pavlov’s dogs learned to associate an environmental stimulus (a bell) with a naturally occurring stimulus (the smell of food).
- **Conditioned reflex** – a learned response or behaviour.

**Activity**

A fun experiment in classical conditioning is available to do at: www.simplypsychology.org/classical%20conditioning.swf.

Summarise your findings about classical conditioning and share them with the group.

John B. Watson (1878–1958)

According to Watson, psychology should be the science of observable behaviour. In his most famous and controversial experiment, known as the ‘Little Albert’ experiment, Watson (and a graduate assistant named Rosalie Rayner) conditioned a small child to fear a white rat. They accomplished this by repeatedly pairing the white rat with a loud, frightening, clanging noise. While the whistle was unrelated to the smell of the food, if the sound of the whistle was paired multiple times with the smell, the sound would eventually trigger the conditioned response. In this case, the sound of the whistle is the conditioned stimulus.

Table 1.1 The basic principles of classical conditioning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principle</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The unconditioned stimulus</td>
<td>The unconditioned stimulus is one that unconditionally, naturally and automatically triggers a response.</td>
<td>When you smell one of your favourite foods, you may immediately feel very hungry. So in this example, the smell of the food is the unconditioned stimulus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The unconditioned response</td>
<td>The unconditioned response is the unlearned response that occurs naturally in response to the unconditioned stimulus.</td>
<td>In this example, the feeling of hunger in response to the smell of food is the unconditioned response.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The conditioned stimulus</td>
<td>The conditioned stimulus is a previously neutral stimulus that, after becoming associated with the unconditioned stimulus, eventually comes to trigger a conditioned response.</td>
<td>In the earlier example, suppose that when you smelled your favourite food, you also heard the sound of a whistle. While the whistle was unrelated to the smell of the food, if the sound of the whistle was paired multiple times with the smell, the sound would eventually trigger the conditioned response. In this case, the sound of the whistle is the conditioned stimulus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The conditioned response</td>
<td>The conditioned response is the learned response to the previously neutral stimulus.</td>
<td>In this example, the conditioned response would be feeling hungry when you heard the sound of the whistle.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research Activity

1. Find out more about the ‘Little Albert’ experiment. For example, take a look at: http://psychology.about.com/od/classicpsychologystudies/a/little-albert-experiment.htm.

2. Share your findings with a group of students or colleagues.

B.F. Skinner (1904–1990)

Skinner was an American psychologist who discovered that the behaviour of rats could be...
controlled by food rewards. One of Skinner’s best-known inventions is the ‘operant conditioning chamber’ (the Skinner box). Skinner showed how positive reinforcement worked by placing a hungry rat in the box, which contained a lever in the side. As the rat moved about the box, it would accidentally knock the lever; as soon as it did so, a food pellet would drop into a container next to the lever. The rat quickly learned to go straight to the lever after being put in the box a few times – the consequence of receiving food if it pressed the lever ensured that the rat would repeat the action again and again (McLeod 2007a).

This experiment demonstrates Skinner’s idea of operant conditioning. Unlike Pavlov’s classical conditioning, where an existing behaviour (salivating for food) is shaped by associating it with a new stimulus (ringing of a bell or a metronome), operant conditioning is the rewarding of an act that approaches a new desired behaviour.

This idea of operant conditioning can be applied to any situation where the required behaviour is reinforced with a reward. Skinner believed that positive reinforcement (rewards) and negative reinforcement (sanctions) both contribute towards an individual’s motivation for learning and behaviour. Skinner applied his findings about animals to human behaviour and developed teaching machines that enabled students to learn step by step, revealing answers for immediate feedback (reward).

Activity

In your own words, explain the difference between classical conditioning and operant conditioning.

Some of the key concepts in operant conditioning involve the use of reinforcement and punishment. Reinforcement is used to increase appropriate or desired behaviour. Reinforcement takes place when something the child likes (such as a smiley face or sticker) is offered to them to increase the frequency of the desired behaviour (e.g. sitting still during assembly or story time). When the desired behaviour is demonstrated by...
the child, then the reinforcer or reward (e.g. the smiley face or sticker) must be given. Examples of reinforcers (rewards) may include: child’s choice of favourite activity; smiley faces, stars or stamps; stickers or badges; merit points and certificates; mention in praise assemblies or a special book.

Punishment is used to decrease inappropriate or undesirable behaviour. When a child is making noises during assembly or story time, the adult may reprimand the child in order to stop or decrease the behaviour. If the child stops making noises after the reprimand, the reprimand is an effective punishment. Examples of punishments or sanctions include: time outs; verbal reprimands; suspension of privileges; temporary removal of favourite object or activity.

Within the reinforcement and punishment model (see Table 1.2), there are two aspects:

1 **Positive** – which means you are giving something in response to the behaviour.
2 **Negative** – which means you are taking something away in response to the behaviour.

**Key term**

Operant conditioning – behaviour dependent upon what happens after the response to a stimulus.

Punishment – the presentation of an adverse event or outcome that causes a decrease in the behaviour it follows.

Reinforcement – any event that strengthens or increases the behaviour it follows.

**Activity**

List examples of reinforcement and punishment from your own (or your children’s) experiences as a pupil or student.


Albert Bandura is a key researcher linked with social learning theory. Bandura built on the work of...
Skinner outlined earlier. He thought that children learn through conditioning and reinforcement but also by observing and imitating. Bandura thought that children acquired many skills and behaviours simply by watching and listening to others around them. However, children mainly copy (model) the behaviours and skills of those who are important to them – that is, people who:

- they like and respect
- have high status
- are similar to them (e.g. same sex, around same age)
- have desirable possessions or characteristics.

For many children, the practitioners who work with them fall into some of these categories so they will model your behaviour.

Bandura also looked at how children learn aggressive behaviour. In 1973, he conducted the Bobo doll study. Three groups of nursery school children watch a short film with different endings. Each child sees an adult punching a plastic doll. In one film, the children see the adult rewarded, in the second the adult is punished and in the third there is no reward or punishment. After the film, the children are given an opportunity to play with the doll. The children who had seen the adult rewarded and the children who had not seen any consequences were equally aggressive to the doll. The group who had seen the adult punished were less likely to be aggressive.

Bandura concluded that all the children had learnt the aggressive behaviour but that what they went on to do was influenced by what happened to the adult.

There are many criticisms of this type of artificial experiment and it is difficult to be certain how far Bandura’s findings would be true in a more natural situation. However, there are possible implications for how we work with children from the Bobo doll study. We know children will imitate aggressive behaviour so we want to minimise the amount of aggression they are exposed to. Dealing with aggressive behaviour firmly and consistently so that children see there are negative outcomes may lead to reduced imitation of the behaviour. Sometimes, if the situation is not dangerous, ignoring aggressive behaviour and withholding attention are sufficient to discourage copying.

### How behaviourist theories support meeting the needs of children

Behaviourist theories can be useful in meeting some aspects of children’s needs, especially helping children to demonstrate appropriate behaviour – for example, using positive/negative reinforcement and positive/negative punishment.

Positive reinforcement occurs when a reward is given after the child demonstrates appropriate behaviour, which then increases the frequency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reinforcement</th>
<th>Punishment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Positive reinforcement</strong> is a favourable event or outcome that is presented after the behaviour. In situations that reflect positive reinforcement, a response or behaviour is strengthened by the addition of something, such as praise or a direct reward.</td>
<td><strong>Positive punishment</strong> (sometimes referred to as punishment by application) involves the presentation of an unfavourable event or outcome in order to weaken the response it follows.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Negative reinforcement</strong> involves the removal of an unfavourable event or outcome after the display of a particular behaviour. In these situations, a response is strengthened by the removal of something considered unpleasant.</td>
<td><strong>Negative punishment</strong> (also known as punishment by removal) occurs when a favourable event or outcome is removed after a particular behaviour occurs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In both of these cases of reinforcement, the behaviour increases. In both of these cases of punishment, the behaviour decreases.

### Table 1.2 Some key concepts in operant conditioning
of that behaviour. For example, Tom is finding it difficult to finish his homework. As Tom is interested in video games, his mother makes an agreement with him that he can earn stars for every homework task he completes on time; she will then exchange the stars for cash so that Tom can purchase video games or accessories. Tom now regularly completes his homework on time; positive reinforcement has occurred because the frequency of the appropriate behaviour increased due to the reward (reinforcer).

Negative reinforcement occurs when something the child dislikes is removed after the child demonstrates the appropriate behaviour. For example, Sarah rarely completes her class work, even though she is capable of doing the work. The teacher stands near Sarah and keeps verbally prompting her to get on with her work. However, Sarah does not like the teacher’s frequent prompts and so she gets on with her work. The teacher walks away and leaves Sarah to get on with her work. Sarah continues to finish her work to avoid further prompts from the teacher; negative reinforcement has occurred because the frequency of the appropriate behaviour increased due to the removal of the unwanted prompts.

Positive punishment occurs when something undesirable is introduced to the child to reduce the occurrence of an inappropriate behaviour. For example, Denzel is playing about and not listening to the instructor during sports practice. The instructor tells Denzel to take a ‘time out’ on the bench; positive punishment has occurred because the instructor is trying to decrease the frequency of the undesired behaviour through the presence of the punishment.

Negative punishment occurs when something desirable is removed after the occurrence of inappropriate behaviour. The most common form of negative punishment is the removal of privileges and can be effective in reducing unwanted behaviour in the short term. For example, Tamika constantly chats to her friends during class, despite frequent reminders by the teacher to stop. The teacher does not allow Tamika to go out to play with her friends at break time; negative punishment has occurred because the teacher is trying to decrease the undesirable behaviour by removing a desired event.

The impact of the behaviourist theories on practice

Of course, in reality, people do not respond exactly like Pavlov’s dogs. However, there are many ways in which classical conditioning can be applied to work with children and young people. For example, classical conditioning techniques are useful in the treatment of phobias or anxiety problems as practitioners are able to apply classical conditioning in the setting by creating a positive environment to help children overcome anxiety or fear. Pairing an anxiety-provoking situation, such as performing in front of a group, with pleasant surroundings helps the child learn new positive associations. Instead...
of feeling anxious and tense in these situations, the child will learn to stay relaxed and calm.

The work of Watson and others set the stage for behaviourist theories, which soon rose to dominate the field of psychology. While behaviourist theories became less popular after 1950, many of the concepts and principles are still widely used today. Conditioning and behaviour modification are still widely used in therapy and behavioural training to help children change problematic behaviours and develop new skills.

Operant conditioning, Skinner’s most widely acclaimed work, is based on a system of both positive and negative reinforcement. Children, parents and practitioners all benefit when positive reinforcement techniques are used to guide children’s behaviours, making for a more pleasant and respectfully run setting. Even babies and very young children respond well to a system where rewards exist, repeating behaviours when they bring big smiles and hugs from a caring adult. Using positive reinforcement to encourage appropriate behaviour can help practitioners to encourage children’s continued cooperation. Computer-based self-instruction programmes use many of the principles of Skinner’s techniques. Effective teaching requires learners to respond to new information and receive feedback on their performance before advancing to the next step; in addition, the sequencing of the steps is critical. More recently, research into Skinner’s work in this area has led to breakthroughs in teaching children to communicate more effectively, especially those with autistic spectrum disorders.

### Table 1.3 Some strengths and weaknesses of behaviourist theories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strengths of behaviourist theories</th>
<th>Weaknesses of behaviourist theories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Behaviourist theories are based upon observable behaviours, so it is easier to quantify and collect data and information when conducting research.</td>
<td>Behaviourist theories are based on a one-dimensional approach to behaviour and do not account for free will and internal influences, such as moods, thoughts and feelings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effective therapeutic techniques such as intensive behavioural intervention and behaviour analysis are all rooted in behaviourist theory. These approaches are often very useful in changing destructive or harmful behaviours in children, young people and adults.</td>
<td>Behaviourist theories do not account for other types of learning, especially learning that occurs without the use of reinforcement and punishment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While behaviourist theories are not as dominant today as they were during the middle of the 20th century, they still remain an influential force in psychology. Outside psychology, animal trainers, parents, teachers and many others make use of basic behavioural principles to help teach new behaviours and discourage unwanted behaviours.</td>
<td>People (and animals) are able to adapt their behaviour when new information is introduced, even if a previous behaviour pattern has been established through reinforcement.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Research Activity

1. Select an article about behavioural theory – for example, an article from a psychology/childcare magazine, journal or website. (See ‘Useful resources’ at the end of this chapter.)
2. Explore the relationship between this article and a recent news story relating to children’s behaviour and learning.
3. Evaluate the connection to your own life, personal interests and your practice when working with children/young people.

### Psychoanalytic theories

Psychoanalytic theories originated with the work of Sigmund Freud. Through his clinical work with patients suffering from mental illness, Freud believed that very early childhood experiences and unconscious desires influenced behaviour. Based on his observations, he developed a theory that described development in terms of a series of psychosexual
stages (see Table 1.4). According to Freud, conflicts that occur during each of these stages can have a lifelong influence on personality and behaviour.

**Sigmund Freud (1856–1939)**

The Austrian physician Sigmund Freud believed that very early childhood experiences are responsible for how people think and feel in later life. Depending on these experiences, people are either well or poorly adjusted to their everyday lives. Freud considered that most of our thinking is done on a subconscious level and is therefore beyond our control.

Freud’s theory of psychosexual development is one of the best known, but also one of the most controversial. Freud believed that personality develops through a series of childhood stages during which the desire for sexual pleasure would focus in turn on different areas of the body.

This psychosexual energy was described as the driving force behind behaviour. If these psychosexual stages are completed successfully, the result is a healthy personality. If certain issues are not resolved at the appropriate stage, fixation can occur. Until this conflict is resolved, the individual will remain ‘stuck’ in this stage.

**Key term**

**Fixation** – a persistent focus on an earlier psychosexual stage.

**Criticism of Freud’s theory of psychosexual development**

Freud’s psychosexual stage theory is controversial as it is based mostly on male psychosexual development and has very little about female psychosexual development. Freud’s theory is based on the recollections of his adult patients, rather than the actual observation and study of children over a period of time. In addition, basing current adult behaviour on a specific childhood experience...
is very vague as the length of time between cause and effect is too long – other factors may have contributed to the adult behaviour.

**Activity**

Find out more about Freud's theories. A great starting point is www.all-about-psychology.com/sigmund-freud.html, which includes an interesting video about Freud.


Klein met Sigmund Freud at the 1918 International Psycho-Analytic Congress in Budapest, which inspired her to write *The Development of a Child*. Through Klein’s work, the technique known as play therapy emerged and is still used extensively today in psychotherapy. With Klein’s technique, instead of lying on a couch and free associating, the child had a simple playroom with a collection of their own small toys, as well as play materials like paper, crayons, strings, a ball, cups and a sink with taps, which provided maximum opportunities for the child’s own imagination to be expressed. The adult also used simple and age-appropriate language when interacting with the child, including using role play where the child acts as a strict teacher and the adult is the naughty child (Anderson 2008).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Psychosexual stage and age range</th>
<th>Area of the body</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The oral stage</td>
<td>Mouth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birth to 1 year</td>
<td>If fixation occurs at this stage, the individual would have issues with dependency or aggression. Oral fixation can result in problems with drinking, eating, smoking or nail biting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The anal stage</td>
<td>Bowl and bladder control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 3 years</td>
<td>If parents take an approach that is too lenient, an anal-expulsive personality could develop in which the individual has a messy, wasteful or destructive personality. If parents are too strict or begin toilet training too early, an anal-retentive personality develops in which the individual is stringent, orderly, rigid and obsessive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The phallic stage</td>
<td>Genitals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 to 6 years</td>
<td>Freud believed that boys begin to view their father as a rival for the mother’s affections. However, the boy also fears that he will be punished by the father for these feelings, a fear Freud termed castration anxiety. Freud believed that girls instead experience penis envy, which was never fully resolved, and that all women remain somewhat fixated on this stage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The latent stage</td>
<td>Sexual feelings are inactive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 years to puberty</td>
<td>The latent period is a time of exploration in which the sexual energy is still present, but it is directed into other areas, such as intellectual pursuits and social interactions. This stage is important in the development of social and communication skills and self-confidence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The genital stage</td>
<td>Maturing sexual interests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puberty to death</td>
<td>During the final stage of psychosexual development, the individual develops a strong sexual interest in the opposite sex. This stage begins during puberty but lasts throughout the rest of a person’s life. Where in earlier stages the focus was solely on individual needs, interest in the welfare of others grows during this stage. If the other stages have been completed successfully, the individual should now be well-balanced, warm and caring.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 1.4 Psychosexual stages**
Chapter 1 Extending understanding of theories of children and/or young person’s care or development (Unit CP 1)

Key term

**Free associating** – the technique of exploring the unconscious mind by encouraging a person to articulate words and thoughts that are associated with key words provided by a psychoanalyst.

Activity

Find out more about Melanie Klein’s views on psychology – for example, her ideas about play therapy. You could start by looking at: http://psychology.about.com/od/profilesofmajorthinkers/p/klein_bio.htm.

Anna Freud (1895–1982)

The youngest of Sigmund Freud’s six children, Anna was extraordinarily close to her father. The majority of her education was from the teachings of her father’s friends and associates. While she was heavily influenced by her father’s work, she was far from living in his shadow. In the 1930s, Anna helped to run a nursery school for poor children in Vienna where the children were allowed to choose their own food and had the freedom to organise their own play. Her work here enabled Anna to observe infant behaviour and experiment with feeding patterns. After the outbreak of the Second World War, Anna set up the Hampstead War Nurseries, which provided foster care for over 80 children of single-parent families and where she helped children to form attachments by providing continuity of relationships with the nursery staff and by encouraging mothers to visit as often as possible.

Her own work expanded upon her father’s ideas, but also created the field of child psychoanalysis. Anna Freud had a profound influence on Erik Erikson, who later went on to expand the field of psychoanalysis and ego psychology.

Activity

Find out more about Anna Freud’s views on psychology – for example, her ideas about child psychoanalysis. You could start by looking at: http://psychology.about.com/od/profilesofmajorthinkers/p/bio_annafreud.htm.

Erik Erikson (1902–1994)

Much like Sigmund Freud, Erikson believed that personality develops in a series of stages. Erikson also believed that a sense of competence motivates a person’s behaviours and actions. Erikson’s psychosocial stage theory is concerned with becoming competent in an area of life. If the stage is handled well, the person will feel a sense of mastery; if the stage is managed poorly, the person will emerge with a sense of inadequacy. According to Erikson, in each stage a person will experience a basic conflict that acts as a catalyst for development.

Activity

Test your knowledge of Erik Erikson’s theory of psychosocial development in this quiz: http://psychology.about.com/library/quiz/bl_eriksonquiz.htm.

How psychoanalytic theory supports meeting the needs of children

The pioneering work of people such as Anna Freud is important to our understanding of both recognising and meeting the individual needs of young children. For example, Anna’s work at the Hampstead Clinic in London supported the idea of using a key person to help young children form attachments, as well as involving parents in the care of their children. Anna’s concept of tracking children along a developmental timeline also supports meeting children’s needs. For example, a child keeping pace with most of his or her peers in terms of eating behaviours, personal hygiene, play styles, relationships with other children and so on could be considered healthy; when one aspect or more of a child’s development seriously lags behind the rest, the clinician could assume that there is a problem and could communicate the problem by describing the particular lag. Psychoanalytic theories show that supporting children’s needs (especially in early childhood) is essential to children’s overall development. This includes meeting children’s
As a practitioner, you should encourage children’s self-reliance, self-esteem and resilience by:

- engaging with and providing focused attention to individual children
- treating children with respect and consideration as individual people in their own right
- demonstrating understanding of their feelings and points of view

Table 1.5 Summary of Erikson’s stages of psychosocial development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Psychosocial stage</th>
<th>Basic conflict</th>
<th>Important events</th>
<th>Developmental outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stage 1: Infancy (birth to 18 months)</td>
<td>Trust vs. mistrust</td>
<td>Feeding</td>
<td>Children develop a sense of trust when caregivers provide reliability, care and affection. A lack of this will lead to mistrust.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 2: Early childhood (2 to 3 years)</td>
<td>Autonomy vs. shame and doubt</td>
<td>Toilet training</td>
<td>Children need to develop a sense of personal control over physical skills and a sense of independence. Success leads to feelings of autonomy; failure results in feelings of shame and doubt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 3: Preschool (3 to 5 years)</td>
<td>Initiative vs. guilt</td>
<td>Exploration</td>
<td>Children need to begin asserting control and power over the environment. Success in this stage leads to a sense of purpose. Children who try to exert too much power experience disapproval, resulting in a sense of guilt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 4: School age (6 to 11 years)</td>
<td>Industry vs. inferiority</td>
<td>School</td>
<td>Children need to cope with new social and academic demands. Success leads to a sense of competence, while failure results in feelings of inferiority.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 5: Adolescence (12 to 18 years)</td>
<td>Identity vs. role confusion</td>
<td>Social relationships</td>
<td>Teens need to develop a sense of self and personal identity. Success leads to an ability to stay true to yourself, while failure leads to role confusion and a weak sense of self.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 6: Young adulthood (19 to 40 years)</td>
<td>Intimacy vs. isolation</td>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>Young adults need to form intimate, loving relationships with other people. Success leads to strong relationships, while failure results in loneliness and isolation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 7: Middle adulthood (40 to 65 years)</td>
<td>Generativity vs. stagnation</td>
<td>Work and parenthood</td>
<td>Adults need to create or nurture things that will outlast them, often by having children or creating a positive change that benefits other people. Success leads to feelings of usefulness and accomplishment, while failure results in shallow involvement in the world.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 8: Maturity (65 to death)</td>
<td>Ego integrity vs. despair</td>
<td>Reflection on life</td>
<td>Older adults need to look back on life and feel a sense of fulfilment. Success at this stage leads to feelings of wisdom, while failure results in regret, bitterness and despair.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 1.5 Providing a caring, nurturing and challenging environment
- encouraging children to take decisions and make choices
- communicating with children openly and honestly in ways that are not judgemental
- helping children to choose realistic goals that are challenging but achievable
- praising specific behaviour that you wish to encourage, as well as directing any comments, whether positive or negative, towards the demonstrated behaviour not the child.

You should work with colleagues and other professionals, as required, to encourage children’s self-esteem and resilience – for example, providing opportunities to encourage children’s self-reliance, positive self-esteem and self-image (see page 12). You may need to work with other professionals (e.g. counsellors, psychologists or social workers) to promote the well-being and resilience of children with special needs.

Research Activity

1. Select an article about psychoanalytic theory – for example, an article from a psychology/childcare magazine, journal or website. (See ‘Useful resources’ at the end of this chapter.)
2. Explain the link between the article you selected and an aspect of psychoanalytic theory (e.g. psychosexual stages or psychosocial development).
3. Summarise and analyse the article – for example, identify the strengths and weaknesses of the relevant psychoanalytic theory.

The impact of psychoanalytic theory on practice

Psychoanalytic theory had great influence during the first half of the 20th century. Psychologists inspired by Freud expanded on his ideas and developed theories of their own. For example,
Erikson’s psychosocial stage theory describes growth and change throughout the lifespan, focusing on social interaction and conflicts that arise during different stages of development.

Melanie Klein had a significant impact on developmental psychology and her play therapy technique is still widely used today. She also emphasised the role of the mother–child and interpersonal relationships on development.

Anna Freud created the field of child psychoanalysis and her work contributed greatly to our understanding of child psychology. Anna introduced the concept of ‘developmental lines’, which emphasises the nature of child development as a continuous and cumulative process, which includes the assessment of a child’s total personality rather than isolated parts.

### Research Activity

1. Explore the relationship between the article you selected for the previous research activity (on page 14) and a recent news story relating to children’s psychological development.

2. Evaluate the connection to your own life, personal interests and your practice when working with children/young people.

### Humanistic theories

During the 1950s, humanistic theories of psychology began as a reaction against behaviourist and psychoanalytic theories, which dominated psychology at the time. Behaviourist theories study the conditioning processes that produce a person’s behaviour, while psychoanalytic theories concentrate on understanding the unconscious motivations that drive a person’s behaviour. Humanistic thinkers view these theories as failing to take account of personal choice. Humanistic theories focus on each individual’s potential and stress the importance of growth and self-actualisation.

### Abraham Maslow (1908–1970)

Abraham Maslow developed a hierarchy of needs that has influenced a number of different fields, including education. According to Maslow’s hierarchy, there are five levels of needs:

- **Physiological needs**: these are biological needs, consisting of the need for oxygen, food, water and a relatively constant body temperature. They are the strongest needs because, if a person is deprived of all needs, the physiological ones come first in the person’s search for satisfaction.

- **Safety needs**: when all physiological needs are satisfied and are no longer controlling thoughts and behaviours, the need for security becomes active. Adults have little awareness of their security needs, except in times of emergency. Children often display signs of insecurity and the need to be safe.

- **Belonging needs**: when physiological and safety needs are satisfied, the need for love, affection and belongingness can emerge. Maslow states that people seek to overcome feelings of loneliness and alienation. This involves both giving and receiving love, affection and the sense of belonging.

- **Esteem needs**: when the first three needs are satisfied, the need for esteem can become dominant. These involve needs for both self-esteem and the esteem a person gets from others. Humans have a need for a stable, firmly based, high level of self-respect and respect from others.

- **Self-actualisation needs**: when all of the above needs are satisfied, then the need for self-actualisation is activated. Maslow describes self-actualisation as a person’s need to be and do that which the person was ‘born to do’. ‘A musician must make music, an artist must paint, and a poet must write’ (Simons et al. 1987).

### Children’s needs

Every child has these basic needs (PRICELESS):

- **Physical care**: regular, nutritious meals; warmth; rest and sleep.

- **Routines**: a regular pattern to the day; clear explanations for any changes.

- **Independence**: encouragement to do things for themselves and make choices.
Communication: opportunities for talk and interaction with others.

- Encouragement and praise: for attempts as well as achievements.
- Love: from parents or carers that is unconditional.
- Education: appropriate to age and level of development.
- Sincerity and respect: including honest and courteous treatment.
- Stimulation: opportunities to explore the environment and tackle new challenges.

Using the ‘PRICELESS’ list above, place children’s needs in what you think is the correct section in Figure 1.7.

**Activity**

**Carl Rogers (1902–1987)**

Carl Rogers believed that every person has the potential to achieve their goals, wishes and desires in life. When, or rather if, they do so, self-actualisation takes place. He believed that humans have one basic motive – to fulfil their potential and achieve the highest level of being human (i.e. achieve self-actualisation). Like a flower that will grow to its full potential if the conditions are right, so a person will flourish and reach their potential if their environment is good enough. Unlike a flower, the potential of the individual person is unique and we are thought to develop in different ways according to our personality. (McLeod 2007b)

The self is composed of concepts unique to each person. The self-concept includes three components:

1. **Self-worth** (or self-esteem) – what we think about ourselves. Rogers believed feelings of self-worth
developed in early childhood and were formed from the interaction of the child with the mother and father.

2 **Self-image** – how we see ourselves, which is important to good psychological health. Self-image includes the influence of our body image on inner personality. At a simple level, we might perceive ourselves as a good or bad person, beautiful or ugly. Self-image has an effect on how a person thinks, feels and behaves in the world.

3 **Ideal self** – this is the person who we would like to be. It consists of our goals and ambitions in life and is dynamic (i.e. forever changing). The ideal self in childhood is not the ideal self in our teens or late twenties, etc. (McLeod 2007b)

Rogers believed that people are inherently good and creative. They become destructive only when a poor self-concept or external constraints override the valuing process. Rogers believed that for a person to achieve self-actualisation they must be in a state of congruence. This means that self-actualisation occurs when a person’s **ideal self** (who they would like to be) is consistent with their actual behaviour (self-image). Rogers describes an individual who is actualising as a fully functioning person. The main determinant of whether we will become self-actualised is childhood experience. A person’s ideal self may not be consistent with what actually happens in the life and experiences of the person. Hence, a difference may exist between a person’s ideal self and actual experience. This is called incongruence (McLeod 2007b)

**Key term**

- **Congruence** – where a person’s ideal self and actual experience are consistent or very similar.
- **Incongruence** – the difference between a person’s ideal self and actual experience.
- **Self-actualisation** – when we feel, experience and behave in ways which are consistent with our self-image and which reflect what we would like to be like, our ideal self.

**Activity**

Find out more about Carl Roger’s views on psychology – for example, his ideas about self-actualisation. You could start by looking at: http://www.nrogers.com/carlrogersbio.html.

![Incongruent and congruent](Source: Saul Mcleod, website: http://www.simplypsychology.org)

**Figure 1.8** Incongruent and congruent