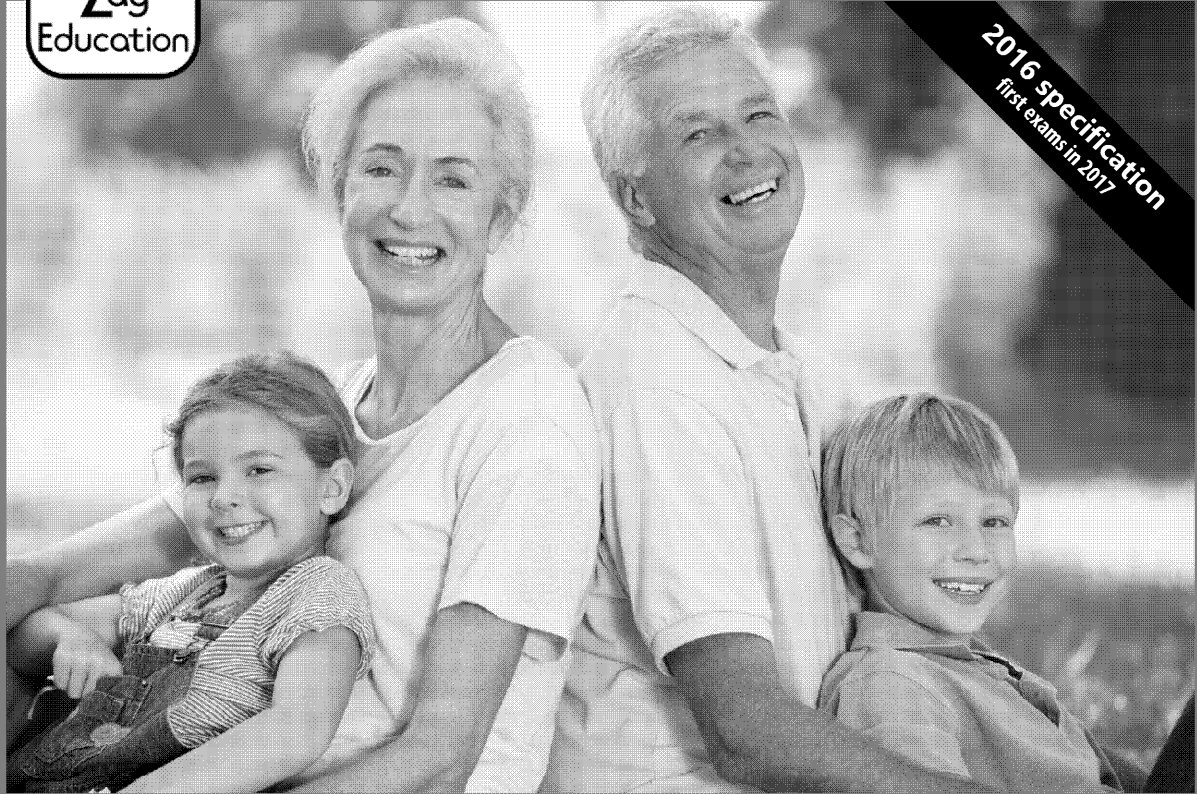




Health and Social Care

Pearson BTEC National L3



Course Companion for BTEC Level 3 Health and Social Care

Unit 1: Human Lifespan Development



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Contents

Thank You for Choosing ZigZag Education.....	ii
Teacher Feedback Opportunity.....	iii
Terms and Conditions of Use	iv
Teacher’s Introduction.....	1
Chapter 1: Human Growth and Development through the Life Stages	2
A1: Physical development	2
<i>A1 Revision questions</i>	<i>8</i>
A2: Intellectual development across the life stages.....	9
<i>A2 Revision questions</i>	<i>18</i>
A3: Emotional development across the life stages	19
<i>A3 Revision questions</i>	<i>32</i>
A4: Social development across the life stages.....	33
<i>A4 Revision questions</i>	<i>41</i>
Chapter 2: Factors Affecting Human Growth and Development	42
B1: The nature/nurture debate.....	42
<i>B1 Revision questions</i>	<i>47</i>
B2: Genetic factors that affect development	48
<i>B2 Revision questions</i>	<i>55</i>
B3: Environmental factors that affect growth and development.....	56
<i>B3 Revision questions</i>	<i>60</i>
B4: How social factors affect growth and development.....	61
B5: How economic factors affect growth and development	64
B6: Major life events that affect development	67
<i>B4–B6 Revision questions</i>	<i>70</i>
Chapter 3: Effects of Ageing.....	71
C1: The physical changes of ageing.....	71
<i>C1 Revision questions</i>	<i>78</i>
C2: The psychological changes of ageing.....	79
C3: The effects on society of an ageing population	82
<i>C2–C3 Revision questions</i>	<i>84</i>
Glossary of Key or Unusual Terms.....	85
Answers to Revision Questions.....	86
References	101

Teacher's Introduction

This course companion is designed to support the BTEC Level 3 Health and Social Care Unit 1: Human Lifespan Development. Within the companion the Unit has been divided into three main sections:

- Human Growth and Development through Life Stages;
- Factors Affecting Human Growth and Development; and
- Effects of Ageing

Each section has been subdivided according to the order of the course specification. Each subsection provides detailed information on the subject covered and may be used by your students both in class and as a reference tool. Throughout the text, key terms, definitions, vocabulary and explanations have been placed in boxes in order to highlight their relevance to the more detailed information provided on that page. These 'sound bites' provide students with an opportunity to quickly build upon their understanding and knowledge of each topic, using the text as a support and source of more information.

Revision questions are provided at the end of each subsection, providing students with the opportunity to check their understanding of the topics covered. Short answers are provided at the back of the book, so students can check their own work.

A glossary of key or unusual terms and a reference list are also provided.

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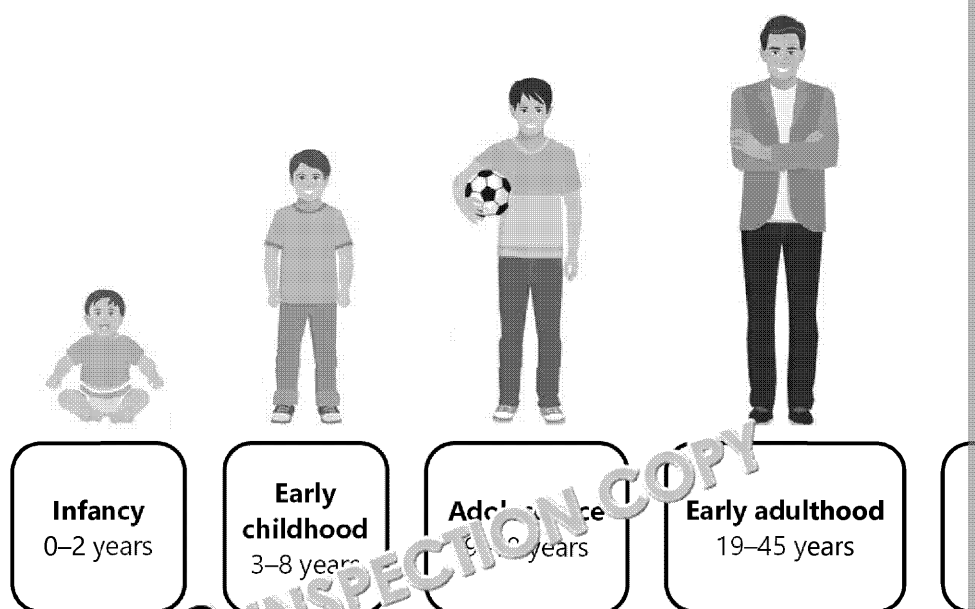
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Chapter 1: Human Growth and Development through the Life Span

A1: Physical development

Growth and development are lifelong holistic processes which are neither precise nor predictable, as they are based on innate biological mechanisms and genetic heredity, as well as on the age and life stage. They are also influenced by external factors such as the environment (e.g. access to resources) and sociocultural factors (e.g. gender affects life opportunities and expectations).

A life stage is defined by age in years, and for the purposes of this BTEC the age bands are:



What is the difference between growth and development?

Growth is different from development, although both are codependent and related.

As we grow, the body undergoes physical and physiological changes. Physical changes refer to size and proportion; for example, increases in height and weight, changes in the size of body organs, muscle development, even the length of your hair and fingernails. Physiological changes refer to the functions of the body. An example of a biological physiological change is menopause. An example of an adaptive physiological change is how a gymnast or ballet dancer enhances flexibility and stamina through training.

Growth
mass

Development
acquisition

Physical growth measured as height stops once we reach maturity, which is around 18 years for boys. However, changes in muscle mass, weight and body shape continue through adulthood. Growth may also continue depending on lifestyle choices or training; however, as we age it is not so easy to maintain fitness levels. Other biological factors that affect both physical and physiological changes include the changes in hormone levels (puberty and menopause), and a decrease in the ability to absorb certain nutrients, such as calcium, which can lead to osteoporosis (brittle bones). Skin tone is also an important factor for skin tone.

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The environment we grow up in may also affect physical and physiological growth. Healthcare, education, safe housing and work environments and secure areas to play for children are more likely to suffer from stunted growth and cognitive impairment. Other things, iron, iodine and vitamins in their diet. Children who suffer from chronic Crohn's disease, will also have stunted growth as the gut struggles to absorb essential nutrients. Water is linked to many different diseases such as anaemia, diarrhoea and typhoid. Pollution can affect growth if untreated. Workplace accidents, including poisoning due to the use of chemicals to reclaim metals from discarded electrical equipment, can severely affect different parts of the lungs, liver and skin.

Growth does not follow a smooth and continuous curve, but it does follow a fixed pattern that varies from child to child, even if they are identical twins, and different parts of the body grow at different rates throughout our lives. However, growth is quantitative in nature and easy to measure.

Development refers to how the body organises itself within the physical structure of the body and about how we acquire new skills and learn to apply them. Development refers to how the body changes in physical and cognitive parameters. For example, a two-year-old has the coordination to walk but is unable to ride a two-wheeled bicycle. Development also depends on the type of social environment in which we are born, as this will affect the types of experiences we have and what skills we learn.

Development does not follow a smooth and continuous curve, nor does it follow a fixed pattern, nature, affected by outside experiences as well as inherited traits, and is less easy to measure and interpretation.

How do we measure growth?

The Royal College of Paediatrics and Child Health has created growth charts using the World Health Organisation on Child Growth Standards, which allow health professionals to track a child's growth progress in relation to children of the same sex and age (from 0–19) using weight and height.

Health services also use BMI (Body Mass Index) to measure growth. This is a method of calculating whether you are within a healthy weight range using your weight in kilograms and your height in metres. To check your BMI, divide your weight by your height twice. For example, a person weighing 60 kg with a height of 1.7 m would have a BMI of 20.76. It is, however, only an indicator of healthy weight. Some people who work out, train or play a lot of sport may have a heavier musculature than others, and their BMI would place them on the scale as obese rather than healthy.

Between birth and the age of two, the human body experiences a huge growth spurt. Just compare a picture of a day-old baby and a two-year-old and you will see the difference in body shape, size and ability. This growth occurs through a mixture of innate biological processes and sensory development. Research has identified two patterns of growth, cephalocaudal and proximodistal.

Cephalocaudal development describes how growth and development start at the head and end at the feet. When you look at a baby's head, it is much larger proportionately compared to the rest of the body, with 25% of the body consisting of the head and 75% the rest of the body. By the time we reach adulthood, our head is proportionately about 10% of our body length. This is because development of the brain takes precedence over the rest of the body. Control of the body starts with control of the head. When a baby is born, it can only see with its head, but during the first few weeks, the baby learns to control its neck muscles to look around. Once this can happen, the shoulder muscles will become engaged as the baby gains strength in its torso so it learns to roll over. Once it has learnt to roll over, it will sit up on the floor and work out how to come up into a sitting position. From this position, it will crawl, pull itself up and finally, by around 14 months, walk unaided.

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Proximodistal development describes how growth and development start from the centre of the body and gradually move out to the periphery of the body. Development of the head, neck and torso at the centre takes precedence over the development of arms and legs. An example would be that infants develop gross motor skills, such as arm waving, before they develop fine motor skills, such as picking things up.

Proximodistal development describes how growth and development start from the centre of the body and gradually move out to the periphery of the body.

Both cephalocaudal and proximodistal development occur in a fixed pattern and for example, does not crawl before pulling up to walking position, it may indicate such as dyspraxia.

How do we measure development?



Development and acquisition of skills occur in four main areas: physical, cognitive, communication and social and emotional development. Although previously child development psychologists believed the acquisition of skills is linked to brain development and maturation, recent studies suggest the process is more complex. Smith and Thelen (2003) suggest that sensorial input, and thus the environment, play a much greater role than previously thought.

Development is measured by 'milestones', which are achieved within a time and age window, rather than by a specific age.

Development is measured by 'milestones', which are achieved within a time and age window, rather than by a specific age. These milestones may differ depending on social and cultural expectations, for example, learning how to write letters and numbers is expected to happen by the age of five in the UK, but not until around seven in Scandinavia. Measuring development is the most subjective, and personal. A child born in a village in Africa will face a different set of social and cultural expectations that affect the skills that we believe their children need to acquire as they grow up, compared to a child born in a metropolitan environment.

The UK Early Years Foundation Stage (EYF) is a statutory framework for children aged 0-5 years. It is based on the following principles:

- The Unique Child
- Positive Relationships
- The Enabling Environment
- Learning and Development

Within Learning and Development, there are four areas of learning, three of which are compulsory for all children aged 3-5 years:

The three primary areas of learning: Communication and Language, Physical Development, and Personal, Social and Emotional Development.

The four secondary areas of learning: Literacy Development, Mathematics, and Expressive Arts and Design.

Development and acquisition of skills are the focus of education curricula and frameworks throughout the world, from infancy through to early adulthood. Adults working and supporting children within these frameworks are expected to provide opportunities for children which will allow them to develop their full potential across a wide range of areas. The skills we acquire can develop from simple to complex and adults will achieve the same skill sets within the same time span, or indeed at all, upon a complex mix of innate biological and environmental stimuli.

Innate biological patterns or genetic traits are personally determined and inherited from our parents and affect our speed of growth (stature, height) and what we look like (colour of hair, eye colour) and affect our personality (see the section on social and emotional development).



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Growth and development milestones throughout

Growth milestones

Infancy 0–2 years

Growth is fast during infancy, with a general tripling in weight by the end of the first year and the end of the second year. At the beginning, the body is completely out of proportion to the adult, as a baby's head is relatively large, and their legs relatively short. As the bones and muscles strengthen and grow, supporting the body, the baby is able to achieve developmental milestones. Babies are born with four soft spots or fontanelles on the skull: the sphenoidal, the mastoid and the occipital fontanelle. The softness of the fontanelles allows them to expand, as it does so more rapidly than bone can grow. By the age of 18 months, the fontanelles have fused together. The brain will have tripled in weight and reached 80% of its adult size. The circumference of the head will have increased from around 14 inches (35 cm) to 19 inches (48 cm).

Early childhood 3–8 years

The body continues to grow and bones will lengthen and muscles grow stronger, leading to more complex body movements (gross and fine motor skills) and explore their environment. Children will begin to refine their gross motor skills – for example, learn to walk upstairs with alternating steps, skip, hop and kick a ball (4–5 years) – as well as refine their fine motor skills, such as drawing and writing (4–6 years). A child's height and weight will increase and the body will appear more proportionate, although legs will still appear short compared to adults, comprising a third of the total body length in adults.

Adolescence 9–18 years

At this stage, also referred to as puberty, changes caused by the hormones secreted by the body shape and cause rapid spurts of growth to occur. Hormones are chemical messengers that travel in the blood from the glands in the endocrine system. At puberty, the pituitary gland secretes growth hormone and sexual changes in the body. In boys, the hormone triggers the production of testosterone, which causes the penis and testicles to enlarge, and start the production of sperm. Boys will also develop underarm and pubic hair, and their voice will drop. In girls, the hormone will trigger the ovaries, starting ovulation and menstruation. Girls will also start to grow underarm hair, develop breasts and their hips will widen. Physically, girls will have attained their adult height by the end of this stage.

Early adulthood 19–45 years

In the early adulthood stage, the body reaches full physical maturity. Boys will reach their peak height by the age of 20, but both genders will continue to develop musculature and gain bone density. Peak performance occurs in our 20s, but our peak when it comes to strength, sensory abilities, reaction times and cardiovascular fitness is in our 30s. Some women will become pregnant and have children. Pregnancy alters the physiology of the body internally and externally, as it accommodates the growing foetus, and towards the end of pregnancy, the breasts will enlarge as the body prepares to provide milk for the baby. At the end of this stage, women will experience perimenopause, experiencing symptoms similar to the menopause, such as hot flashes, weight gain and their menstruation may become irregular. This is due to a drop in oestrogen levels, which can lead to mood swings and emotional ups and downs that may be helped by hormone therapy. In the brain, our bone density starts to lessen. In the brain, neurons start to die off and are not replaced.

Middle adulthood 46–65 years

This is when both men and women start to show signs of ageing, such as greying hair, wrinkles and sagging skin. People not only start to look older, but they may also struggle with vision or hearing. People start to suffer from presbyopia, which is where our eyes lose the ability to change focus to see objects to closer objects. Following this, hearing loss also occurs. The deterioration of the sensory hair cells in the inner ear means we become less able to hear higher frequencies. Different social and physiological aspects. During this stage, women experience menopause, where oestrogen levels drop considerably and menstruation ceases completely. Once the menopause has occurred, women are unable to have children naturally. Both men and women will notice a decrease in muscle mass and become more easily bruised, particularly around the middle as the muscle to fat ratio changes. People may also experience osteoarthritis, where the discs that cushion between each vertebra of the spine dehydrate and flatten, leading to pain. Some adults may suffer from osteoporosis, where the bones become brittle and more likely to break.

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Late adulthood over 66 years

The density of bones continues to deteriorate (osteoporosis), as does muscle strength. The loss of brain cells or atrophy) may affect hearing, vision, memory and problem-solving functions less well and as a result people at this stage of life can succumb to relatively common illnesses such as influenza.

Development milestones**Infancy: 0–2 years****Physical**

- Fine motor skills: grasp ⇒ hold ⇒ point ⇒ shake ⇒ pick up ⇒ throw ⇒ place ⇒ making ⇒ feed the toy ⇒ build 2–3 block tower
- Gross motor skills: flex legs when on back ⇒ kick out ⇒ roll over ⇒ crawl ⇒ climb ⇒ one step at a time

Cognitive

- Focus on moving objects ⇒ recognise caregivers' faces ⇒ react to familiar sounds ⇒ difference between animate and inanimate objects ⇒ understand size relative to object ⇒ object permanence (see Piaget) ⇒ understand the difference between 'me' and 'not me'

Communication

- Cry ⇒ gurgle ⇒ stick tongue out ⇒ smile ⇒ babble ⇒ start to make recognisable sounds (one or two syllables) ⇒ one-, two- and three-word 'sentences'

Social and emotional

- Recognise mother's voice ⇒ imitate facial expressions ⇒ play peek-a-boo ⇒ show anxiety ⇒ become angry or frustrated when unable to do something ⇒ play with toys ⇒ let themselves be comforted

Early childhood: 3–8 years**Physical**

- Fine motor skills: drink from a cup ⇒ build 4–6 block tower ⇒ push buttons ⇒ turn knobs ⇒ pencil grip ⇒ drawing ⇒ blow bubbles ⇒ unzip and zip up ⇒ turn pages
- Gross motor skills: jump (two feet) ⇒ walk upstairs using alternate feet ⇒ peek-a-boo ⇒ skip (alternating feet) ⇒ hop (one foot) ⇒ throw a ball underarm and then overarm

Cognitive

- Start to categorise objects ⇒ develop an understanding of past and present ⇒ understand right and wrong ⇒ understand simple mathematical concepts ⇒ learn to read ⇒ develop concentration skills

Communication

- Increasing vocabulary ⇒ talk in longer sentences ⇒ argue ⇒ negotiate ⇒ develop syntax and rhyme ⇒ ask questions ⇒ can be understood at least 90% of the time ⇒ use the pronouns (I, me, you, etc.) correctly ⇒ follow three-step directions

Social and emotional

- Have different expressions for different emotions ⇒ play ⇒ tell simple jokes ⇒ cooperate with others ⇒ follow instructions ⇒ seek help when needed ⇒ play with children and have friends ⇒ cooperate with others ⇒ may begin to start to project outside identity on self-image (I am good, etc.) ⇒ able to self-regulate

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Adolescence: 9–18 years**Physical**

- Fine motor and gross motor skills continue to develop in relation to physical expectations. The body is going through spurts of change in relation to hormones that may affect self-esteem and cause anxiety.

Cognitive

- Reasoning develops ⇒ problem-solving skills improve ⇒ acquisition of basic operational stage) continues ⇒ abstract thinking improves (Piaget's formal operational understanding of more complex mathematical concepts ⇒ reading and writing through access to more complex texts and ideas

Communication

- Able to listen and hold an argument ⇒ understand jokes, wordplay and sarcasm
• Compositional skills ⇒ use persuasion and negotiation to achieve goals

Social and emotional

- Have a close friendship circle ⇒ often feel they are being watched and judged
• 'it will never happen to me' ⇒ may engage in risky or irrational behaviours like drinking
• Social development ⇒ sensitive to real or perceived criticism ⇒ challenge ideas and opinions

Early adulthood: 19–45 years**Physical**

- Fine motor and gross motor skills continue to develop in relation to physical expectations, although growth in height finishes around the age of 18 for women. Life experiences will dictate which fine or gross motor skills become more important. In later stage, indications of age may start to affect gross or fine motor functions, e.g. decrease in stamina.

Cognitive

- The brain reaches maturity around the age of 22 and continues to function at peak performance until 30 years. At this stage, adults show greater flexibility in their thought patterns than adolescents. Around the late 20s, dendrites start to die off, we may start to experience age-related memory loss. Learning new skills may take longer, and need stronger reinforcement.

Communication

- Communication skills develop in relation to experiences. However, as brain changes, names and places, etc. may cause communication problems.

Social and emotional

- Previous experience boosts how we cope in social situations, which centre around work. Moral reasoning and self-regulation are key to social and emotional skills.

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Middle adulthood: 46–65 years**Physical**

- Fine motor and gross motor skills will continue to degenerate. Changes in proprioception may prevent completely new skills due to decreases in muscle tone, vision, or proprioception.

Cognitive

- Greater reliance on experience with regard to problem-solving skills, as complex tasks are learned, and may not fully embed themselves in the motor memory due to loss of brain plasticity.

Communication

- Degeneration in memory recall may affect oral communication skills, for example, forgetting names.

Social and emotional

- Changes in cognitive and physical abilities can lead to low self-esteem and depression for those who live alone, as they may find it difficult to socialise, continue meaningful friendships.

Late adulthood: over 66 years**Physical**

- The acquisition of new physical skills is unlikely at this stage of life, and adults may experience the loss or impairment of physical skills, either due to general deterioration or specific conditions such as arthritis or osteoporosis.

Cognitive

- Deterioration in cognitive skills continues and certain medical conditions such as dementia (around 50% of 85-year-olds will be diagnosed with these diseases) may exacerbate cognitive decline.

Communication

- Loss of brain mass continues to impact on memory recall and problem-solving abilities.

Social and emotional

- Loneliness, low self-esteem and depression can have an impact on social relationships.

A1 Revision Questions

1. What are the six different life stages and what ages are assigned to them?
2. Define growth.
3. Define development.
4. At what life stage do we reach our adult height?
5. What does 'centile' mean with regard to height and weight charts?
6. What is the difference between proximodistal and cephalocaudal development?
7. What is a developmental milestone?
8. Provide examples of growth milestones for each life stage.

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A2: Intellectual development across

Basic facts about the brain and brain development

Neuroscience is the study of the brain. Scientists still have much to learn about this extremely complex organ. The human brain is much larger in proportion to our body than other animals' brains. It lies at the centre of the nervous system, receiving messages from sense organs and sending commands to nerves and muscles, controlling everything the body does. The brain enables us to store, organise and retrieve enormous amounts of information.

At birth, our brains contain nearly all the brain cells, or neurons, that we will ever have. However, a majority of these neurons are not 'joined up', the baby's brain does not function properly until it does.

Parts of the brain

The anatomy of the brain is complex, and although neuroscience suggests certain functions such as balance or speech, research indicates that such complex functions are spread across the brain to one area. The brain has three main parts.

Frontal lobe – linked to the skills of problem-solving and reasoning, organisation and planning, memory and emotional intelligence

Parietal lobe – linked to proprioceptive movement and coordination

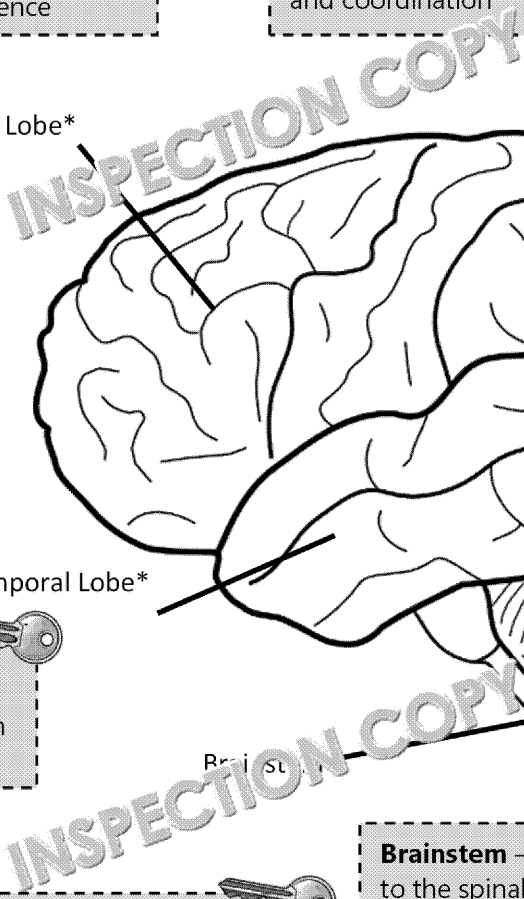
Frontal Lobe*

Temporal Lobe*

Temporal lobe – linked to the skills of hearing, speech and memory

Cerebrum – centre for higher learning, information processing and cognitive function, consisting of four lobes, covered by the cerebral cortex and divided into two halves, the left and right hemispheres

Brainstem – connects the brain to the spinal cord, and controls basic life functions such as breathing and heartbeat



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Neuroscientists believe that each lobe of the cerebrum has a different function, and cannot assume that something as complex as the brain can be divided up in such a

The cerebral cortex, where more demanding neural activity takes place, is a thin layer of grey matter covering the lobes. The lobes of the brain are extremely convoluted and the cortex closely follows the surface of the lobes. As a result, the surface area is much larger than, for example, a rat's brain, which is smaller. This helps to support the work of many more neurons than would otherwise be possible. The convoluted surface also means it can be packed into a much smaller space.

How does the brain grow and develop?

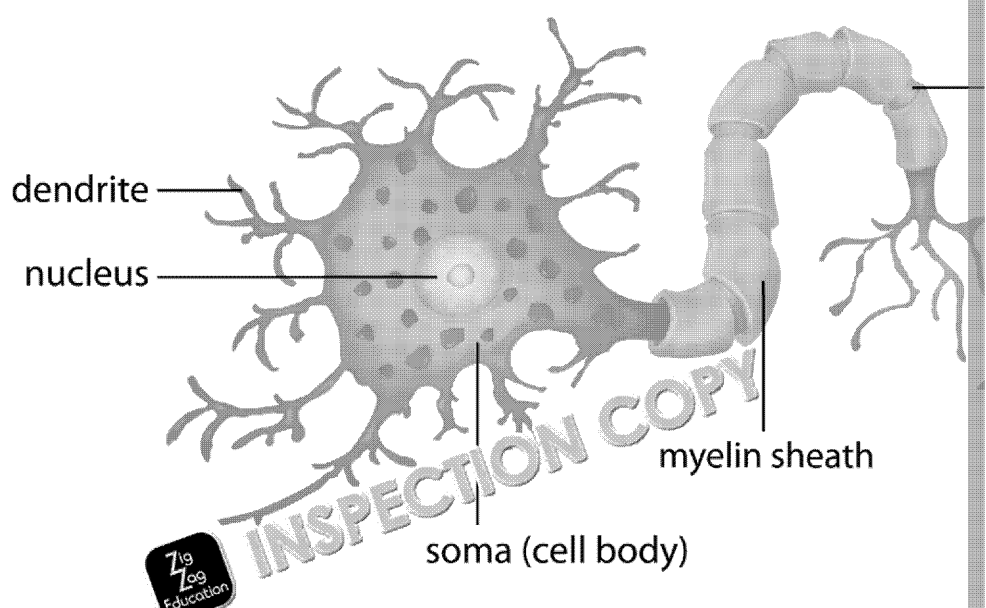
The brain grows in a fixed sequence. This sometimes happens in spurts, which is why someone is suddenly able to learn a particular skill or understand what an appropriate reaction is in a particular situation. The brain grows quickly in volume during the first six years of life, reaching about 90% of its adult brain during that time, and will continue to grow, at a slower rate, until around age 25. Some neuroscientists believe development continues until the early 30s. The last part to develop is the prefrontal cortex, which covers the frontal lobe, and is responsible for functions such as logical thinking and impulse control. Although learning can happen at any time, there are 'windows of opportunity' when learning a particular skill is easier than at other times. It is for young children to learn two or even three languages during the first years of life. Many students face later when learning a foreign language.

How does the brain store information?

The image below shows the anatomy of a neuron. There are billions of neurons in the brain, but we are not sure quite how many there are. Each neuron has the potential to connect to thousands of other neurons. Neurons are not physically linked together, but work by passing information between them. At the end of the axon to the dendrite of the next neuron, using chemical and electrical signals. The junction between the axon and the dendrite is a synapse. Each new experience creates a new synaptic connection. This ensures that the action or connection will be stored in the brain as a memory. For example, the first time you make a new path through the grass, you will create a new path. The first time you walk on the grass, you will create a new path. Research appears to show that in the first two years of life, the brain is creating around 100,000 new synaptic pathways each second.



Human Neuron Anatomy



Synaptic pathways that are weak and not revisited die, whereas those used multiple times are strengthened. In order to preserve these pathways, the body produces a substance called myelin that coats the axons and prevents the electrical impulses from drifting away. Myelination continues throughout life, but is most rapid when the brain becomes fully mature. Everything a baby experiences multiple times is stored by the neurons.

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Research has shown that in young infants neural processing occurs across several hemispheres, but becomes focused in particular areas (for example, in the tempo as the infant matures. Whether these differences in activity at different ages are biological changes, is a question for further research.

How theorists explain cognitive development

The science behind understanding intellectual and cognitive development is immense. Over the last hundred years or so, certain theories and theorists have gained precedence. Their theories have been challenged and new evidence comes to light, but generally, they are seen as a foundation for human cognitive development. These theories have given rise to four particular approaches: behaviourist, constructivist, nativist and social-constructivist theories, three of which

Piaget and the constructivist approach to learning



Jean Piaget (1896–1980) was a Swiss biologist and psychologist. His theory of how children learn started during his time in Paris in the 1920s at the Binet Laboratory, where he worked on formalising intelligence testing. Piaget's research showed the relationship between intelligence, age and the logic applied by children to their reasoning (even though some of his conclusions were incorrect) astonished Piaget, and led him to develop a scientific study, genetic epistemology. Central to Piaget's theory is his idea that interactions between the child and the environment shape the structures in the mind. Children are therefore actively constructing knowledge, rather than passively receiving instruction. Criticism of his work includes the neglect of social, cultural and geographical differences, and new research has shown some of his conclusions were inaccurate regarding the age of children and certain things.

Piagetian terminology

Schema:	A pattern of action and interaction that, through repetition, establishes a mental pathway or memory
Adaptation:	How the structures of the mind alter in response to new impulses
Assimilation:	Using existing structures and schemata to incorporate new learning
Accommodation:	Modifying existing structures and schemata to incorporate new learning
Equilibrium:	Existing schemata can incorporate the information received
Equilibration:	When the processes of assimilation and accommodation challenge existing structures, the mind falls into disequilibrium (out of balance). Equilibration is restored when new structures are accommodated
Animism:	When children assign the feelings and emotions they understand to inanimate objects (e.g. following me home)

Piaget's studies led him to believe that we pass through four stages of cognitive development. These stages occur between broadly defined age bands and are influenced by biological processes such as maturation. Each stage shows a qualitatively different type of cognitive development. As a child moves from one stage to the next, they will employ different internal structures and develop more complex structures to organise and respond to stimuli. The implication is that old structures are replaced by new structures, but development does not occur on a smooth, continuous level and only appears to be continuous when a child matures and the child constructs new knowledge from experience. The age bands associated with the four stages are only a suggestion as everyone develops at different rates. However, we will all progress through these stages in the same order.

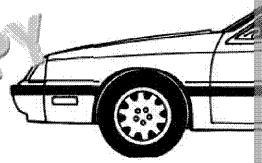
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Piaget used the term 'schema' (plural 'schemata') to describe the mental representations we create to support thinking. They can be simple or elaborate, and if we experience them often, they will become embedded in our minds. Imagine, for example, you are seeing a car for the first time. You create a schema about it:

Attributes of a car:

- four wheels
- belongs to mum and dad
- white
- makes a noise



You will see that you can realise that attributes are flexible, e.g.:

- four wheels
- belongs to next-door neighbour
- red
- makes a quieter noise because it is electric

Therefore, because it has four wheels, is white or red and makes a noise, when you see a van you believe that too is a car. However, a van has fewer windows and may be larger. So you create a new schema, similar to the old one but taking into account the differences. You have one schema for cars and one for vans. The same will happen when you see a lorry, taxi, etc. As you experience more, to accommodate new information we become quicker at recognising differences and similarities. So cars, vans and lorries are vehicles. Also, as our language skills improve, we can describe them more accurately.

Piaget's four stages of cognitive or intellectual development are sensorimotor, pre-operational and formal operational.

Stage 1: Sensorimotor stage (0–2 years)

Learning at this stage takes place, as the name suggests, through use of the senses to control movement. At this stage, the child is egocentric, i.e. they think that other people see and understand things in the same way as they do, and is unable to see things from another's point of view. As the child becomes more adept at controlling motor reflexes, such as grasping, their movements become intentional, i.e. they will reach out to grasp something they want.

The five main senses are touch, taste and smell, plus two additional senses concerned with the **proprioceptive** system: personal spatial awareness and body function.

Heuristic play: heuristic comes from the Greek word for 'discovery' – eureka! In child development terms it describes the provision of open-ended items for children to play with, e.g. tubes, balls of different sizes, pieces of material. Children cannot fail or get things wrong when engaging in heuristic play.



A child's cognitive development will move from reflexes, such as rooting and sucking, to intentional actions, such as sucking a thumb or returning a smile. By the end of four to eight months will be able to crawl. Between eight and twelve months, children will learn to roll over and sit up. Between twelve and eighteen months, children will be able to combine and adapt schemata to new situations, e.g. reach out for food and put it in their mouth. At this time that infants develop an understanding of object permanence. From 18 to 24 months, schemata are increasingly used to investigate objects to find out what they are. A good way of engaging their curiosity is through heuristic play.

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Object permanence: the understanding that something hidden is still there

Piaget's experiment for object permanence involved showing the baby a ball under a blanket. If the child became upset, they had not yet reached the developmental milestone of object permanence. If the child reached for the blanket and tried to uncover the ball, they had reached the developmental milestone.

Implications for cognitive development: ability to form a mental picture of something that is not visible and understand it is still present

Baillargeon (Baillargeon et al., 1997) has shown that object permanence may be more advanced than Piaget thought. She used a type of experiment known as a VOE, or violation of expectation. Babies were habituated to seeing a drawbridge move through 180 degrees. Two variations were shown, one possible and one impossible. In the first, the drawbridge closed until the box stopped it (possible). On the second, the drawbridge closed until the box disappeared (impossible). Babies spent much longer looking at the impossible situation, and the implication is they understood that there should have been something there (object permanence).

Stage 2: Preoperational stage (2–7 years)

At this stage, children continue to be egocentric and are unable to understand the world from another perspective, as shown by the three mountains task. This is a stage when language development occurs, leading to an explosion in vocabulary and communication skills. Piaget believed that cognitive development occurs through the acquisition, i.e. you have to understand that something is a dog, before you can assimilate it (assimilation and accommodation). The use of symbolic thought in play is seen, i.e. children use objects to represent attributes to objects that are entirely different in form, for example, a wooden block might be used to represent a bear. Children believe that objects can have the same emotions and feelings as they do (animism). This stage is also marked by the development of our communication and social skills. The stage is termed 'pre-operational' because children are not yet able to think logically, and apply problem-solving skills to a situation, as shown by the three mountains task. The implication is that children 'centre' on one part of a task or problem, and are unable to see the whole picture or influence the situation. By the end of this stage, children have moved from symbolic thought to concrete thought, characterised by an increase in logical thinking and questioning of those around them. Piaget's theory of cognitive development because he reasoned that children were perfectly aware that they had an enormous head, but they were not aware of where it had come from, or how they could use it.

Three mountains task

The task uses a three-dimensional model of three mountains, each of different heights. On top of each mountain is a different item at the peak, e.g. a cross, a house and snow. Once the child has seen the model, a doll is placed opposite them, so it too is looking at the model. The child is then shown two pictures that show what the doll can see.

Results: Children aged around four tended to choose a picture showing what they could see. Children aged around five often choose a picture showing a different view to the one they saw; however, children aged around six and above choose the picture that shows what the doll can see.

Conservation task

With water: A child is shown two beakers of water, each containing the same amount of water. The water is then poured into a thinner, taller glass. The child is asked if the amount of water is the same in each glass. Children at the preoperational stage will say that there is more water in the thinner, taller glass as the level is higher.

With coins: A child is shown two rows of coins and they are laid out on the table. The first row has five coins, and the second row has five coins. Children without conservation skills will say that there are more coins in the shorter row.

Piaget theorised that children lack the cognitive skills at this stage to understand conservation. If the water is poured reversed, i.e. if the water is poured back into the original beaker the amount of water is the same.

Research it!

There are many videos on YouTube that show different conservation tasks with children.

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Conservation experiments that have challenged Piaget's results include McGirrige's task (1975) and Martin Hughes' 'policeman doll' task (1979). In the former, a naïve child and in the latter a doll had to hide from two policemen. Four-year-old children were able to conserve and the researchers argued that this was because the task used a situation that was familiar to children. McGirrige and Donaldson also hypothesised that, in the liquid conservation task, changing the glass to a 'different' glass gave a subliminal message to the child that the liquid therefore, logically could not contain the same amount of liquid.

Stage 3: Concrete operational stage (7–11 years)

During this stage, children's cognitive skills develop further and they are able to understand reversibility, but only when applied to physical objects (concrete operational). Their thinking is more refined and they are able to focus on multiple aspects of a situation from different perspectives (known as 'decentration'). Children are able to apply inductive logic to something, for example, if every time I stroke a dog I come up in a rash, then I am allergic to dogs. Classification skills become more complex, and they are able to place items in concrete categories.

In Australia, Dasen (1975) used Piaget's water conservation tasks with Aboriginal children. He found that conservation skills developed around the ages of 10 to 13 rather than seven to eight as Piaget suggested. They were far in advance of Swiss children. The study showed that cultural factors influence cognitive development.

Stage 4: Formal operational stage (11–16 years and onwards)

This stage heralds the development of abstract reasoning skills, and metacognitive skills. When applying metacognitive skills to a task, you use whatever strategy (reading, writing, science, etc.) you know to solve the problem. Children are also developing skills in deductive logic and systematic reasoning to work out what the consequences of their actions might be. Their improved reasoning allow them to understand that there can be many different ways of solving a problem. Children do not need to see a concrete representation of a problem, but are able to work with an abstract representation.

Piaget insisted that everyone goes through these four stages of development; however, about half of adults actually reach the formal operational stage. This could be due to cultural factors such as poverty, social disruption or lack of access to education. Piaget himself insisted that many adults only reach this stage in areas that they are interested in. Research (Siegler, 1982) that students with a better grasp of formal operations do well in mathematics. However, a lack of formal operational understanding does not affect the ability to learn.

Noam Chomsky and the nativist approach to language acquisition

Noam Chomsky (1928–) is a leading US academic, psychologist and linguist, known as 'the father of modern linguistics'. His main contribution to understanding language is his theory of how children acquire language. In the 1950s, his work led him to believe that children have a biological ability to learn languages, which he referred to as a Language Acquisition Device. Over time, then he has refined his theory into the theory of Universal Grammar.

Before Chomsky wrote about his ideas of how we learn languages, the consensus was that children learn through imitation and reinforcement (a behaviourist perspective). According to this theory, children are born with the capability of producing various random sounds. 'Motherese' is the language that parents and carers use with infants that reinforces these random sounds. Praise and repetition encourage the sounds; for example, if a child says 'dada' then they might be praised for trying to say a word. However, children actually have been known to learn words (the dog!). Chomsky, however, thought that such an ability is not just a creativity but a biological part of human language.

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A feral child for many years has been lost. He rarely learned words. Victor, the French boy in India, was found in

His work in linguistics (the study of language development) led him to believe that language acquisition is biologically based, and we are born with innate mental structures that are solely reserved for learning language. All languages have rules, and once those rules are learnt, the speaker can communicate in whole or partial sentences, and make themselves understood. This ability to absorb the complexities of syntax and grammar is not limited to just one language, which explains why children acquire different languages more easily than adults do. He called this the **Universal Language Acquisition Device** and believed that we have a critical period for acquiring language that starts around four months and continues until puberty. If we learn a language by that time, we will be unable to do so to any great depth or ability by that time. It is easier for us to learn another language, using the information acquired in the first language. This concept of a critical period for language acquisition is widely accepted, although it is disputed by linguists, as it is difficult to prove (no one wishes to experiment on a child). Children who have failed to receive language stimulation due to abuse, neglect or other difficulties in learning language, although whether this is due only to the lack of language input is debated.

What evidence does Chomsky offer for the LAD?

- All languages possess similar basic grammatical structures, such as 'subject-verb-object'.
- Learning something requires a particular impetus or hook to hang it on; for example, a bird learns to fly just by observing other birds, or is there an innate ability hardwired into birds?
- All children learn to speak unless they have a disability, regardless of whether they are deaf or blind.
- Animals cannot learn to talk and make conversation (a few can imitate, e.g. a parrot).
- As children start to apply grammar to their utterances, they make mistakes such as 'I am' or 'me am' that they do not learn through imitation but are trying to apply grammatical rules.
- Children from multilingual homes have no problem in separating different languages.

Lev Vygotsky and Jerome Bruner, and the social-constructivist theory of development



Lev Vygotsky (1896–1935) was a Russian psychologist. His work was largely unknown in the West until the 1960s when his theories became available. His theories on how children acquire knowledge and the influence of culture are now widely accepted.

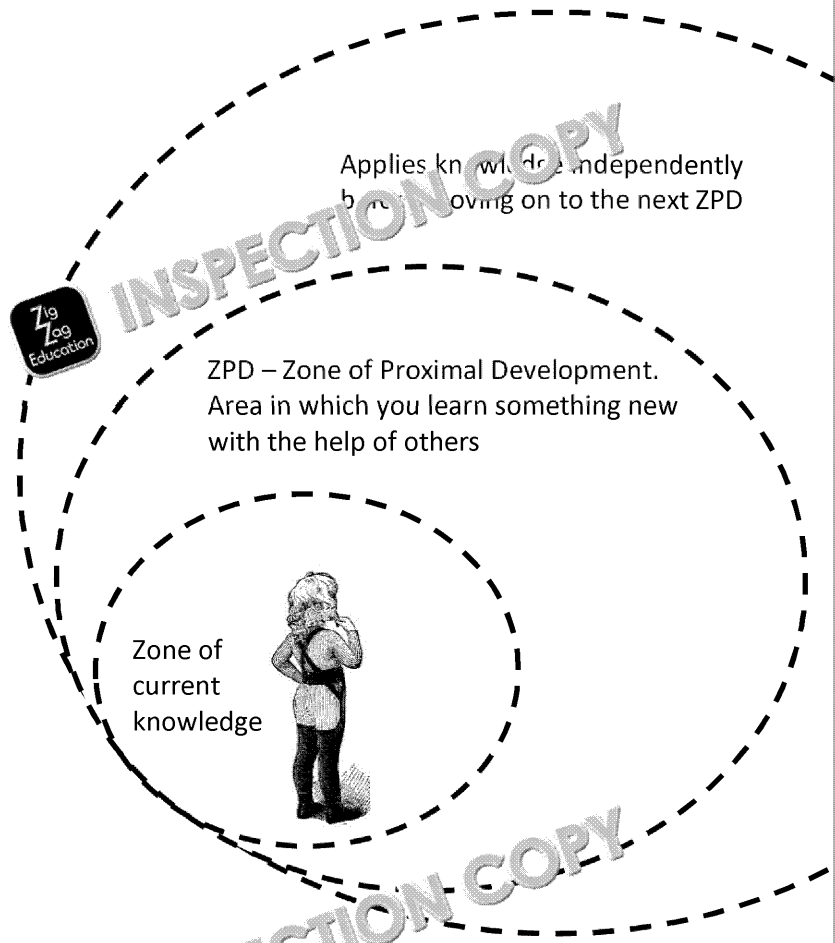
Vygotsky was influenced by the communist ideologies of Marxism. He was based on the ideals of the collective working together to create a better society. Vygotsky considered that cognitive development was not just through schemata (Piaget) but also through social interaction. He theorised that children exposed to the same biological and environmental conditions grow up very differently depending on the social and cultural context.

Vygotsky's social-constructivist theory has two major aspects: the Zone of Proximal Development and the Knowledgeable Other. Vygotsky agreed with Piaget that children are active in constructing their own knowledge. He believed that this was limited to brain maturation. He argued that without social interaction we would be unable to accommodate new knowledge and understand the social context. Social interaction is key to this, as without the input of someone with a wider knowledge (adult), cognitive development will not happen. Acquisition happens in two phases: externalised and internalised within the brain as a psychological interaction.

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According to Vygotsky, this learning takes place within the Zone of Proximal Development, the next steps in learning arena, where the learning process builds on what has already been learned. The diagram below illustrates this concept.



Vygotsky also theorized about 'reconstruction', which is when we encounter the same learning and development, as this allows the brain to refine the sensory input it is receiving and gain control and understanding. This has been confirmed by advances in neuroscience and research showing that synapses between the neurons either remain because they are visited many times, or wither away.

Jerome Bruner (1915–2016) was an American psychologist whose studies focused on how children's learning develops and the way they represent ideas, particularly in language. He established the Centre for Cognitive Psychology at Harvard University. Both Piaget and Vygotsky influenced his work, although he leaned more towards a social-constructivist theory. He did not agree with Chomsky's LAD theory, once joking that language is a 'Language Acquisition Support System, also known as 'mother'.

Bruner suggested that cognitive development is linked to the way in which we think. He believed that children have three modes of thinking that are not defined by age or intelligence, but they are: enactive, iconic, and symbolic.

In the enactive mode, we are physically involved in learning a task; for example, doing a practical or reading a book. This type of thinking is related to Piaget's sensorimotor stage of development, where physical movement influences physical maturation.

In the iconic mode, we are able to create a mental image of something, for example, we can create an image of our bedroom, or we can use pictures in a book to inform us of a story we have read. Again, this echoes Piaget's constructivist theory, preoperational stage and the concrete operational stage.

In the symbolic mode, which occurs around the age of seven, thinking about something is not based on direct experience. For example, you can learn about the jungle, but do not have to go to the jungle to learn about it.

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Throughout these modes of thinking, Bruner emphasised the role of the adult. The learning, by supporting the child using sensitive and appropriate interactions and Vygotsky described the More Knowledgeable Other. Bruner also coined the term scaffolding, which provides opportunities for learners to return to a particular learning area or subject from different perspectives.

Effects of age on memory function

As seen previously in the section on growth, the brain reaches its peak at around 20 years of age. After this, the brain will gradually start to deteriorate. Neurons are shed, faster from some areas than others. The hippocampus is responsible for formulating new information into long-term memories and controls our ability to navigate, and it sheds five per cent of its neurons each year. Additionally, blood flow to the brain slows due to age-related changes in the arteries, which compromises the speed at which the brain functions. As neurons die or atrophy, the way we process information starts to break down too. This age-related loss in brain function occurs in all animals.

Psychologists have identified five types of memory:

- **episodic** – specific, personal memories, e.g. what I had for dinner last night
- **source** – how we know about something related to time and place, e.g. when I had dinner
- **flashbulb** – memory related to a specific, surprising moment, e.g. winning the lottery
- **semantic** – memory related to words and facts, e.g. different names of flowers
- **procedural** – memory related to how things are done, e.g. changing a nappy

Episodic, source and flashbulb memories deteriorate the most, whereas semantic memories are slower to fade. Many people have a problem with semantic memory, as verbal fluency declines. The prefrontal cortex where blood flow decreases the most as the brain ages. As we age, the brain's ability to retrieve information for the time we need it. We forget names of new skills, or remember the names of people we have just met.

Although people can experience this general deterioration, it happens at varying rates. Factors such as substance abuse, poor nutrition, lack of exercise or inherited conditions can lead to a decline in memory function. In late adulthood, a deterioration in brain function can be a sign of Alzheimer's disease. Dementia and Alzheimer's are two different types of illness, but they have similar characteristics.

More information on dementia and Alzheimer's disease is in Chapter 3 of this book.

Dementia is a syndrome, not a disease. The term 'syndrome' refers to a range of symptoms that together define a particular medical condition. People suffering from dementia may experience a variety of symptoms. Although there is no cure for dementia, studies have found that exercise can alleviate symptoms.

Symptoms include:

- memory loss – particularly short-term memory loss
- decrease in reflective ability – becoming unable to judge what is required or expected for an event, such as dinner or shopping
- decrease in concentration and mental sharpness – forgetting where you are or about everyday things
- language skills – frequent and long pauses when speaking or difficulties in following conversations
- understanding and empathy – changes in mood and emotional response to others
- coordination and movement – clumsiness, difficulties with spatial awareness
- loss of social skills – inappropriate behaviour, inability to converse and general withdrawal

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Alzheimer's is a disease, and is a progressive medical condition for which there have dementia will also have Alzheimer's disease. In Alzheimer's disease, the brain compromises neurological function and slowly destroys it, producing dementia. Alzheimer's disease is not a natural result of the aging process, and can also affect people in their young life; this is known as Early Onset Alzheimer's disease.

A2 Revision questions

1. Certain areas of the brain are associated with particular functions. Which are associated with which function?
 - cerebellum
 - occipital lobe
 - cerebral cortex
 - frontal lobe
 - parietal lobe
 - brainstem
 - temporal lobe
2. What is a synaptic pathway and why is it important?
3. What are Piaget's four stages of learning and development, and at what ages do they occur?
4. What is object permanence, and when do infants understand this concept?
5. What does Piaget's constructionist theory teach us about the term 'concrete operational'? Can a child understand this concept?
6. In Piaget's theory, what does the word 'schema' mean?
7. What two words does Piaget use to describe how our brain processes information?
8. What does LAD mean?
9. Explain what the terms ZPD mean and how this relates to Vygotsky's theory of development.
10. How many modes of thinking did Jerome Bruner identify in children, and how do each mode differ?
11. How many types of memory have psychologists identified, and what are they?
12. Why is dementia different from Alzheimer's disease?

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A3: Emotional development across the lifespan

What do we understand by the term 'emotional development'?

Emotional development starts at birth and continues throughout our lives. Influencing factors are many and varied, and include social experience, our relationships with others, the environment into which we are born and, not least, inherited personality, temperament and characteristics. Key factors in emotional development are:

- awareness of how one is perceived by others
- sense of self – how one feels, personal traits
- awareness of feelings and feelings in others
- developing socially acceptable ways of expressing feelings and emotions
- forming secure attachments and relationships
- self-regulation of feelings and reactions to everyday experiences

Babies are vulnerable and defenceless beings who require 24-hour care and attention to meet their physical and emotional needs. If those needs are not met, they may 'fail to thrive'. Babies who do not experience caring and loving relationships are more susceptible to toxic stress.

It is perfectly normal for us to experience stress, even at a very early age. When we encounter strange or frightening situations, our heart rate rises, breathing quickens and the adrenal gland produces cortisol, the so-called 'fight or flight' reaction. Babies and infants need to have their stress levels managed for them, relying on the actions of loving caregivers (soothing, stroking, using soft voices) to buffer their exposure to what has caused stress levels to rise, allowing cortisol levels to return to normal. If cortisol levels remain high due to a lack of a soothing emotional response, infants will experience toxic stress.

This will have a negative effect on brain development, as synaptic pathways associated with learning will be strengthened, rather than those associated with coping and self-regulation.

What is toxic stress?
Cortisol and adrenaline are hormones we encounter in stressful situations. They cause the muscles of the heart to contract, so it is a narrow vessel. Sustained high levels of cortisol linked to cardiovascular disease.

John Bowlby (1907–1990) was a British psychoanalyst who is considered the father of attachment theory. In 1951, Bowlby was involved in gathering data from social workers and psychologists on the effects of maternal deprivation on homeless or disturbed children for the UK government.

The reports he gathered were all similar and he surmised that maternal deprivation had a profound impact on children's emotional development. His work has influenced government policy which government agencies interact with vulnerable families.

John Bowlby's theory of attachment proposed that children enter the world biologically preprogrammed to form attachments with others. It is a vital part of an infant's biological survival mechanisms, on a level with the innate reflexes of sucking and crying, as it reinforces the need to stay close to the mother. Additionally, the mother is biologically preprogrammed to respond to these innate reflexes and survival mechanisms. Without attachment, vulnerable and fragile babies grow up exhibiting emotionally insecure behaviour. Attachment is established when a child is held, allowing them to forge an emotional bond with a warm, responsive adult, usually the mother. Feeding a baby and keeping them warm and playing with them is not enough to create this bond.

Bowlby also recognised that the environment had a strong impact on attachment. He devised the term 'internal working model' to describe how an infant subconsciously develops their behaviour and thinking subliminally from interactions with others and the environment. This model shapes how we understand our place as an agent in the world about us, and how we expect and react to what we choose to do and how we choose to do it.

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Bowlby describes four stages of attachment:

- The pre-attachment phase, 0–3 months. Infants cry in order to draw the attention of the caregiver. The baby recognises the soothing and caring reaction of the caregiver.
- The indiscriminate attachment phase, 3–7 months. Infants recognise they have a caregiver and will show a preference for the main caregiver.
- The discriminate attachment phase, 7–9 months. Infants are strongly attached to their main caregiver and will show emotional distress and anxiety when they are separated.
- The multiple attachment phase, 9 months and onwards. Infants can have strong attachments to multiple care caregivers.

Temperament and environmental factors will have an effect on the age of each stage.

Mary Ainsworth (1913–1999) was a developmental psychologist from the USA who worked both with John Bowlby at his clinic, and in Uganda, studying mother–child attachment. After her return to the USA in 1960, she developed the Strange Situation approach to study the attachment relationship between a child and their caregiver.

The Strange Situation experiment examines the attachment level between a caregiver and a child aged 18 months, and takes place in a room with two chairs and some toys. There are eight stages to the experiment which takes about 20 minutes:

1. Caregiver and infant are shown the room where the experiment will take place.
2. Caregiver and infant come into the room and are alone for a while.
3. Stranger comes into the room and joins the caregiver and infant.
4. Caregiver leaves the room, leaving the infant alone with the stranger.
5. Caregiver comes back and stranger leaves the room.
6. Caregiver leaves the room so the child is completely alone.
7. Stranger comes back into the room so it is just the stranger and the infant in the room.
8. Caregiver comes back into the room and stranger leaves.

Observations are made in a room with a precoded list to record reactions and interactions.

Ainsworth concluded there were three different types of attachment between caregiver and child: secure attachment and two types of insecure attachment: anxious avoidant and anxious resistant.

Children who show secure attachment behaviour happily explore the toys when the caregiver is present, and when the caregiver leaves and become subdued and unsure. When the caregiver returns, they are happy. When the caregiver is not present, the child will avoid the stranger, but will show more interest in the stranger.

Children who show anxious avoidant behaviour are insecurely attached and uncomfortable with the caregiver's presence, whether there or not, and are not particularly interested in the toys. They show little emotion and avoid both the stranger and the caregiver.

Children who show anxious resistant or ambivalent behaviour are insecurely attached. They explore toys when the caregiver is there, and are either immensely distressed when the caregiver leaves or they do not interact with the stranger and the stranger appear to be afraid of them. When the caregiver returns, they stay close to her but are resistant and resistant to the caregiver's attempts at comfort.

These are the three main forms of attachment that Ainsworth uncovered in her research. A fourth, third insecure category (fourth category overall), disorganised/disoriented attachment style. Children with this type of insecure attachment style will cry when separated from their caregiver, but when the caregiver is there and may even rock or hit themselves. Such children have often experienced trauma and show fear of their parent or caregiver.

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As with any experiment involving emotions and personal interactions, certain limitations apply:

- Is the experiment itself culturally biased – do Chinese families exhibit the same behaviours as Western families?
- Has a traumatic event such as miscarriage, asylum experience, etc. influenced the results?
- Is 20 minutes long enough to observe such complex interactions?
- Could results be skewed if one of those involved in the experiment is feeling particularly stressed?

Many different stressors can affect how the attachment link between a child and their parent is formed. The stressors shown in the figure below:

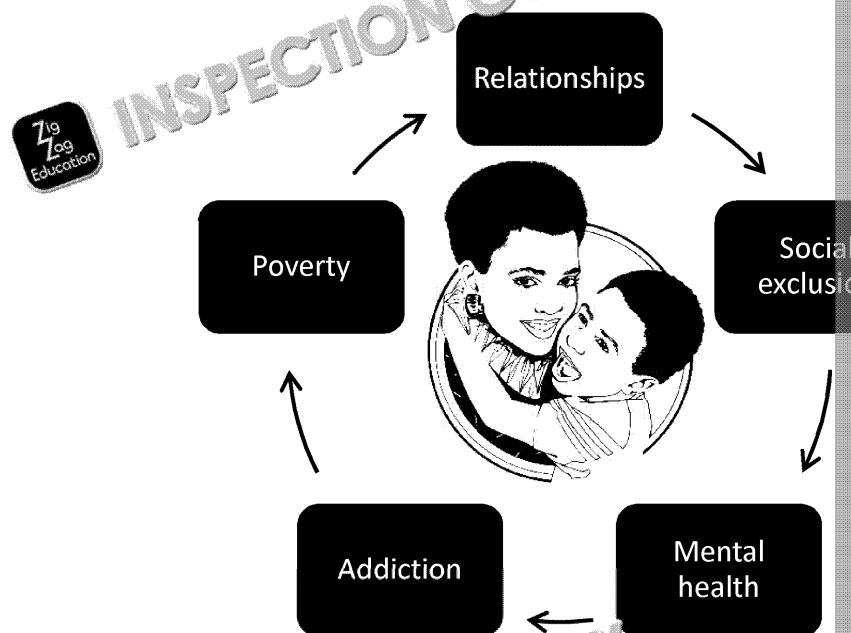


Figure showing attachment stressors

These stressors can affect us at any time during our lives and have a greater or lesser strength of the support we receive from families, neighbours, social services and other community members.

How stress in relationships affects attachment

There is a reciprocity in relationships that is not only influenced by sociocultural norms but also by the temperament and traits each person has. The way we are raised by our own parents and the culture we live in, will influence parenting style and expectations. There are four main parenting styles: authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and uninvolved. Each style has its own weaknesses. Most parents use a mixture of styles depending on the situation. Parenting styles play a significant role in a child's emotional development.

Parenting style	What is the parenting like?	Impact on child
Authoritarian	Structured, rule-driven, use of physical punishment, children may not question	Inability to problem solve, poor social skills, may exhibit aggressive behaviour or violence
Authoritative	Rules that may be discussed, firm but fair, rewards not punishments, set clear boundaries, limits sometimes adjusted	Responsible, happy, good social skills, respect for rules (social norms), good decision-making
Permissive	Lenient, set limits (only when necessary), consider themselves friends of their children	May struggle academically, poor social skills, low self-esteem and depression, poor relationships
Uninvolved	Neglectful, unable to parent, overwhelmed by responsibility of having a child, avoidant, may have dependence issues (drugs or alcohol)	Unhappy, struggle academically, may exhibit addictive behaviours, poor relationships

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Faced with a particular parenting style, children and adolescents will soon learn whether they either get what they want or avoid punishment. Montandon (2001) identified ten strategies: conformity, circumvention, wearing the parents down, vociferous defeat (crying or shouting), negotiating, arguing, bargaining, substitution (have two choices, e.g. either do it or don't), accompli (just do it anyway and risk the consequences) and terrorism (attacking parents).

Temperament governs how we tend to behave when faced with a situation, and is also a factor in the success or failure of a relationship. Psychologists believe that temperament traits are genetically inherited from our parents.

Psychologists Stella Chess (1914–2007) and Alexander Thomas (1914–2003) researched the different temperaments of babies, looking at how easily they were soothed when they were active or passive, etc., and concluded we are born with one of three basic temperament characteristics: easy, difficult and slow to warm up.

Easy babies generally adapt well, are happy, easy to soothe and feed and sleep well. Difficult babies are more unsettled and less happy, they cry more, sleep less and have irregular feeding patterns. Slow to warm up babies show their emotions and take time to adapt to new foods or routines, although they are generally happy. They later expanded on this research and suggested that there are nine temperament traits.

Thomas and Chess's nine temperament traits:

1. Activity level
2. Distractibility
3. Intensity of reaction
4. Regularity (e.g. sleep patterns)
5. Sensory threshold
6. Approach/withdrawal
7. Adaptability
8. Persistence
9. Modesty

Thomas, A and Chess, S (1977) Temperament and Development, (New York, Brunner/Mazel)

Their work also showed that a child's temperament often matched that of the parent. This can lead to stronger and better attachments. For example, if a parent has an anxious temperament, it is difficult to connect with the child. Stress between the goodne...

Our temperament tends to stay the same, thus affects the way we approach change. Changes in routine or unforeseen events are connected to our self-concept. Children who do not have adequate loving role models during infancy tend to have lower levels of self-esteem and are more susceptible to depression.

How poverty affects attachment

In 1995, the United Nations adopted two definitions of poverty, absolute poverty and relative poverty.

Absolute poverty is defined as:

'a condition characterised by severe deprivation of basic human needs, including food, shelter, sanitation facilities, health, shelter, education and information. It depends not only on income but also on access to services.'

Overall poverty is defined as:

'lack of income and productive resources to ensure sustainable livelihoods; hunger and malnutrition; ill health; limited or lack of access to education and other basic services; increased vulnerability to disaster; homelessness; and inadequate housing; unsafe environments and social inequalities. ... lack of participation in decision making and in civil, social and cultural life. ... mass poverty. In many developing countries, pockets of poverty amid wealth exist. ... livelihoods as a result of economic recession, sudden poverty as a result of disaster, poverty among low-wage workers, and the utter destitution of people who fall outside family support institutions and safety nets.'

Source: United Nations (1995), The Copenhagen Declaration and Programme of Action, World Summit for Children, 6–12 March 1995, New York, United Nations

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There are two ways of measuring poverty. Each creates a poverty 'threshold', either by a percentage (currently 60%) of median income, or by measures of deprivation (not being able to afford certain goods). Median refers to the central point of a range, where equal numbers of households are above and below the point. Using the standard of 'deprivation' as a base allows for the inclusion of different standards (i.e. the type of phone you own, or the number of times you can eat out). However, as a measure of deprivation is subjective and may not take into account cultural factors, present, the government uses median income as the marker for the poverty threshold.

Poverty can affect attachment in many ways. Families below the poverty threshold often struggle with daily living, perhaps holding down several part-time jobs. They are financially drained, spend less time with their children and may resort to harsh parenting techniques (e.g. physical punishment, neglect and abuse). Parents who lack money to buy essentials for their children will experience feelings of guilt and helplessness as they may not be able to afford laptops or Internet access, which affects education outcomes. Children with no devices, will lack supportive adult role models, and lack of secure attachment may lead to behavioural problems. Families living under the poverty threshold often live in unsafe housing, have a greater likelihood of experiencing substance abuse, violence, health issues, and less time to do homework or relax, all of which are stressors that impact on the attachment bond.

How social exclusion affects attachment

In 2007, a report submitted to the social exclusion task force defined social exclusion as:

'...a complex and multi-dimensional process. It involves the lack or denial of resources, rights, goods and services, and the inability to participate in the normal relationships and activities, available to the majority of people in a society, who are in similar economic, social, cultural or political areas. It affects both the quality of life for individuals and the equity and cohesion of society as a whole.'

Source: *The National Commission on Social Exclusion, 2007*

Issues that might lead to social exclusion

- Peripatetic lifestyle
- Mistrust of state institutions
- Adult level of education
- Unsafe environment
- Access to information
- Transport availability
- Lifestyle and cultural differences
- Unemployment
- Disability and other health issues
- Mental health issues

Social exclusion can affect attachment because it isolates individuals and groups from the rest of society. Isolation may mean that families make poor or uninformed choices. Families with disabled children will experience greater stress and face more difficulties accessing healthcare, education and other services, which will affect personal relationships. Socially excluded families may struggle to maintain a strong social network and network support, which also can affect the ability of parents and children to maintain secure and stable attachments.

Social exclusion can also be a choice made by certain groups for personal, religious or cultural reasons. This may strengthen attachment bonds between members of that group; for example, ethnic or religious minorities, due to the shared understanding of being different from the majority. They choose not to engage with the majority as they wish to keep their independence.

How addiction affects attachment

Addiction is considered by many healthcare experts to be a disease and a mental health condition. It is a chronic obsessive-compulsive disorder that can be treated. The damaging behaviours pursued by addicts affect brain processes and reward functions. These dysfunctional emotional responses support a downward spiral of craving and dependency.

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It is unclear why some people become addicts, although genetic, psychological and temperament factors probably play a role. Emotional responses to pleasure and reward are controlled in the brain by the neurotransmitter dopamine. A person with low levels of dopamine may be more at risk of developing addictive behaviours as they are trying to increase dopamine levels.

Types of addiction

- Prescribed medication
- Non-prescribed medication
- Alcohol
- Gambling
- Gaming
- Certain foods
- Smoking

Addiction may become part of a person's life due to:

- a need to blot out unpleasant memories (abuse, poverty, war, death)
- depression and unhappiness with life
- a need for excitement and in control
- a lack of self-esteem
- lack of friends / someone to talk to
- work pressures and inability to cope with stress
- inability to come off prescribed medication
- mixing in a sporting environment where the use of performance-enhancing drugs is common

Addiction often starts in adolescence or early adulthood when peer pressure is at its highest and the influence of society and affects males and females regardless of ethnicity.

Addiction can cause psychological imbalances such as extreme mood swings, paranoia, and delayed emotional development, which affects personal relationships and attachment. This can be influenced by the lifestyle of a family, leading to social exclusion, poor nutrition and emotional neglect of children. These environmental factors may affect the security of attachment bonds (e.g. attachment and poverty and social exclusion). Addicts may struggle with parenting involvement in their child's welfare, education and upbringing, focusing more on their own needs. Drug addicts will experience withdrawal symptoms after birth from the drugs used during pregnancy, affecting social and emotional interactions with caregivers.

Health stressors such as HIV, hepatitis, STDs, and other diseases can be a result of addictive behaviour, and children born into a family with a history of addiction are at a higher risk of developing asthma and other lung-related illnesses. Research into the effects of addiction on families shows an increase in stress, depression and anxiety levels, which affects social relationships (Coyne, 2006).

How mental health issues affect attachment

In the 2016 review of poverty and mental health*, it states that one in four adults experience mental health problems to some degree in any year. The review also states that people from certain groups are more likely to be affected by mental health issues.

- young people
- looked-after children
- adults, children and young people living in poverty
- children and young people living in domestic or substance abuse households
- adults with a history of domestic violence and substance abuse
- travellers
- asylum seekers
- homeless people
- isolated people

* *Poverty and Mental Health: A review to inform the Joseph Rowntree Foundation Mental Health Foundation, Elliott, I (June 2016)*

Additionally, mental health issues are likely to affect a greater percentage of women than men.

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Parents who struggle with mental health issues will often find parenting and raising children overwhelming. Mental health problems may lead to issues with lifestyle (substance abuse, health (over- or underuse of prescribed medicines or the side effects of prescribed medicines) and money problems.

A lack of support within the community and health services can affect the family, with children becoming the caregivers for the parent(s), affecting their opportunities to complete their education and ultimately work to support the family. Poverty may place them on the periphery of society, facing social exclusion, living in poor housing conditions, feeling isolated and ignored. Issues with mental health can also affect employability and their families.

During adolescence, more than at any other life stage, stresses and pressures can include depression, anorexia, drug-related psychosis and self-harm. It is believed that mental health problems begin during or towards the end of this life stage, and is particularly high in care.

Asylum seekers and refugees may feel even more isolated and excluded than others due to language problems and cultural differences. Many struggle with the trauma of their experiences and create a new life for themselves.

Explanation of theories about personality development

How do our personalities develop? Are we born with them or do they evolve? The personality emerges and evolves through social and emotional interactions with others and the environment, not to be confused with temperament and is unique to every individual. Temperament is a trait that provides the fundamental characteristics that influence personality development, the canvas on which personality is painted.

Personality develops through interactions with the environment, cultural expectations, and techniques, etc. How it develops will be influenced by the way our temperament and act in different situations. Our personalities can change throughout our lives due to experiences that counter, which means everyone is unique.

Sigmund Freud (1856–1939). Father of psychoanalysis. His Structural Model of the mind has three components:

1. **Id:** drives basic needs and urges. We are born with this.
2. **Ego:** controls the id, and acts as a moderator between the id and the superego.
3. **Superego:** develops over time and contains all values, morals and ideals learned from parents, families and the sociocultural environment.

The libido drives all three components. Freud believed that our behaviour is controlled by the id, particularly primal sexual urges. The tensions that arise through controlling these urges are released, which gives pleasure. As a result, psychosocial development influences the ego. A constant tension between the id, ego and superego can lead to anxiety and depression.

Sigmund Freud was the first to develop a theory about how personality develops. Since psychoanalysis developed, others have come forward with different theories, including Erik Erikson (1902–1994). He believed that it was more to how our personality develops than Freud, in regard to how we interact with society and the desire we have to be part of a group and lead a life. He developed an eight-stage theory of human personality development, which links to life stages from birth to death.

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Erikson's Stages of Psychosocial Development is interesting because it shows how how successfully we tackle the crises and social conflicts we encounter. Erikson's stages show that at the end of each stage depend on social influences, relationships and interactions. The outcome of each stage contributes to the next stage, so if we do not complete a stage successfully by resolving the crisis, our personality will remain for the rest of our lives. The ages given to each stage are approximate, as during the adult years, as events such as marriage, work and having children can blur the boundaries between the narrow bands suggest.

Erikson's eight Stages of Psychosocial Development

1. **Trust versus Mistrust: infancy (birth to 18 months)**
Positive outcome dependent upon the type of care and affection the child receives. Children who are not being looked after them and establishment of secure attachment.
2. **Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt: early childhood (2–3 years)**
Positive outcome dependent on developing independence (e.g. toilet training). A negative outcome would be feelings of shame and anxiety.
3. **Initiative versus Guilt: preschool (4 to 5 years)**
Children are finding ways to control and use their environment, and figure out their own ideas. Children need to understand that there are boundaries to their behaviour. A negative outcome would be ashamed or fearful.
4. **Industry versus Inferiority: school age (6–12 years)**
School years and learning how to cope with social and academic requirements. A negative outcome would be feelings of inadequacy and low self-worth. Conflicts between success and failure, and interactions and the development of empathy.
5. **Identity versus Role Confusion: adolescence (13–18 years)**
'Who am I?' and 'How do I fit in?' are important questions. Relationships are important as a source of support. A negative outcome would be confusion, crisis, experimentation and conflict. Success leads to a positive outcome and a sense of self-esteem.
6. **Intimacy versus Isolation: young adulthood (19–40 years)**
Love and affectionate and close relationships with others and experience. A negative outcome would be loneliness and depression.
7. **Generativity versus Stagnation: middle adulthood (41–65 years)**
Family, work, supporting the community and creating a legacy that helps the next generation. A negative outcome would be disconnected and unproductive. A 'life' crisis, and either take steps to change things or stagnate, feeling bitter.
8. **Ego Integrity versus Despair: maturity (66 years to death)**
Positive outcome when adults have a sense of fulfilment and accomplishment. A negative outcome would be experience despair, bitterness and depression. Everyone has things that they regret, but Erikson argues that those who have a sense of contributing to society and raising children will be more satisfied.

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Five core OCEAN:
 Openness
 Conscientiousness
 Extraversion
 Agreeableness
 Neuroticism

Further research into personality has identified five core personality traits that influence how we approach interactions and experiences. The theory is that everyone shares some or all of these traits, but they exist at different levels in each person. Research has found that these five traits are not only stable across our lifetime, but also common to cultures and societies around the world (McCrae et al., 2005). This implies that these personality traits may have a biological origin, are key to how we develop as social beings, and exist in parallel or in addition to temperamental characteristics.

What does each of these traits infer about personality?

- Openness** This relates to how we engage with new ideas and perspectives. Those who obtain a high score in this trait are creative, imaginative and interested in new things. Those who obtain a low score in this trait struggle to think outside the box and are more traditional in their mindset.
- Conscientiousness** This relates to how we plan and control things. Those who obtain a high score in this trait are not impulsive, and are goal-oriented, thoughtful and organized. Those who obtain a low score in this trait are disorganized, egotistical and impulsive.
- Extraversion** This relates to interactions with others. Those who obtain a high score in this trait seek others out, are assertive, talkative and animated. Those who obtain a low score in this trait are likely to be shy and introverted.
- Agreeableness** This relates to how we relate to others. Those who obtain a high score in this trait are altruistic, kind and trusting. Those who obtain a low score in this trait are manipulative, selfish, ambitious and competitive.
- Neuroticism** This relates to how we relate to our own needs and problems. Those who obtain a high score in this trait may struggle with depression, anxiety and pessimism. Those who obtain a low score will be more emotionally stable.

The development of self-esteem
 Self-concept is a general umbrella term for the three areas relating to how we perceive ourselves in relation to others: ideal self, self-esteem and self-image.

- Ideal self:** is a personal idea of what we would like to be.
- Self-image:** is our actual self and how we define ourselves (by gender, work, relationships or body image).
- Self-esteem:** is how positive we feel about ourselves. If we have high levels of self-esteem we feel confident, optimistic and do not worry about what other people think.

Ideal self

Our self-concept can change depending on social interactions and personal thoughts. If our self-image coincides with our ideal self, we are often highly critical of ourselves, and have a distorted view of our abilities. Psychologists such as Carl Rogers believe a positive self-concept is developed through interactions that satisfy our need for approval and affection. If parents only provide conditional approval, are not met, the child will grow up feeling unloved and not good enough or worthy of affection. Psychologist Susan Harter, the closer our level of self-image is to the image of our ideal self, the more confident we will be. A disparity between the two may give rise to confusion, especially in children, and lead to negative outcomes.

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Our sense of self develops as we interact with the world around us. Babies as young as 18 months are establishing a sense of self as they interact with caregivers and toys, imitating their actions and movements. Children's ideas of self-image focus first on physical attributes, such as height and weight. If you put a dab of red lipstick on a baby's nose and then sit them in front of a mirror, they will touch their nose. They are beginning to develop a self-image when they touch their nose. Around the age of 2, children start to apply categories to themselves, for example, age and gender.

In early childhood, children start to compare themselves to others and attribute negative or positive characteristics to themselves. Personality and temperament will influence the way children process feedback from others about their appearance, clothing, hairstyles, etc. If feedback does not match with the child's image of their ideal self or self-image, it can negatively affect self-esteem.

Attribution
A skill or characteristic that affects self-esteem, such as swimming.

As children move into puberty and adolescence, the pressure from friendship groups increases. Children who already have low self-esteem will struggle to cope and handle the changes. At the same time they are coping with physiological changes caused by hormones and their reactions. The adolescent learns to create 'multiple selves' that act differently depending on the situation. There will be the self that interacts with parents compared to the self in a group of peers compared with the self in a romantic situation. Learning to differentiate between these selves is a huge part of our personality development, and success depends on our ability to manage our self-image. The ability to organise our personality into different selves depending on the situation is a skill that we use throughout the rest of our lives.

Charles Cooley (1864–1929) was an American sociologist who developed the concept of 'the looking-glass self'. It refers to the way our self-image develops due to the reactions and comments of other people. It starts in infancy and continues through social interaction (for example, due to the effects of Alzheimer's).

The looking-glass theory (Charles Cooley)

First, we imagine how we seem to others.
Second, we react in a way that we think others will judge.
Third, we use other people's judgements to develop our self-image.

Third, we use other people's judgements to develop our self-image.

Cooley recognised that we are born as social beings, and soon learn that certain actions might cry because they are wet or hungry, and being fed or changed is enough, but we will get other types of reactions, hopefully affectionate ones, and those responses help us understand how others see us. If parents or others, for example, continually react negatively to a child's clumsy actions, then the child will always believe it no matter how clever or well-coordinated they are. This self-image, buried deep inside our self-image, will be difficult to change. Development of the ability to see ourselves as others do, whether those mirror images are justified or not, is unique to humans.

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Are you part of the in-crowd?

The looking-glass theory has come in for criticism as it does not take into account the influence of social groups and out-groups. An in-group is the group that you identify with and feel a sense of belonging to, either because of your culture, or because of your common interests. An out-group is one with which you do not identify. The influence of social groups will have a stronger influence on a person's self-image and self-esteem.



Factors involved in the development of positive or negative self-esteem and self-image

Factor	How it affects self-esteem and self-image
Home and family relationships	Our families influence the way we think, act and behave. Relationships will support the positive development of self-esteem. Parenting styles and expectations will also have a role. Divorce, care, adoption, etc. can have a negative impact on self-esteem.
Educational environment	Learning environments that are appropriate, with a variety of different learning styles, will influence positive development. Negative experiences such as bullying, public singling out by teachers or other students can have a negative impact on self-esteem and self-image.
Society	Society and the cultures within society set certain standards. These are not always easy to follow, but influence the way we think and act. They are part of our in-group, and may also become part of our self-image and choose others.
Mass media	Images projected through TV, advertising, etc. affect self-esteem and self-image, particularly in adolescence and early adulthood.
Criticism and pejorative comments	If someone continuously labels you as lazy or shallow, it can affect self-esteem. That person is right, even though it is not true. Criticism is hard to accept, especially if it appears to be unreasonable. Comments on how a person looks or how they are dressed easily affect self-esteem.
Abuse	Abuse of any kind, whether neglect, psychological, physical or sexual, has a negative effect on all areas of our self-concept.
Life events	Events (e.g. divorce, death, war, natural disaster) that are traumatic can have a strong negative effect. People with strong personalities and secure attachments will cope better. People who are overwhelmed, out of control and unable to cope with what is happening can cause feelings of incompetency and low self-esteem.
Attainment	Success, recognition and attainment support feelings of self-worth. When successful you feel you are in comparison to others. When you attempt something that is out of your comfort zone and fail, it can have a negative effect on self-esteem.
Popularity	Approval from peer groups, such as friends and family, can affect self-esteem and self-image. We feel confident and proud when we are popular and feel liked and well regarded.
Disability and other medical issues	Support and understanding of the disability, both at home and in the workplace, support feelings of self-worth and self-confidence. Lack of support or supportive environments will have the opposite effect. Mental health, pain management, cancer treatment, etc. can have a negative effect on self-esteem and self-image. Isolation and impotency.

Moral development

When and how do we learn what is right from wrong?

Morality concerns the choices we make and whether they fit together with the expectations of the society and culture we live in. It is linked to the theories of self-concept (ideal self, self-esteem and self-image). A person with low self-esteem is more likely to be indecisive and have no opinion about issues, so may have lower moral values. Alternatively, they may just follow the moral values of the group they associate with, even if they feel they are wrong. If you are confident in your self-image and self-esteem you will be more decisive and willing to take a stand.

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Theories differ on how we develop a sense of morality. Psychoanalytical theories on innate destructive egotistical drives that need to be controlled, whereas social believe we are born as a moral 'blank slate' that has to learn acceptable codes of cultural interactions. Maybe, as Piaget believes, children construct their morality assimilation of information from the environment, linked to stages of development.

Piaget's stages of moral development loosely follow his stages of cognitive development. From the ages of zero to two years, he considered that children were pre-moral. At this stage, they are discovering the effect their own actions have on the people and environment around them. This changes between the ages of two and seven, when children start to understand the concept of right and wrong to follow them and the consequences of not following them. Between seven and 11, children become engrossed in the concepts of fairness and justice. After 11, children begin to understand that not everyone should be treated in the same way, for example, educational needs will need more support in class than an A* student.

Piaget – Stages	
0–4	Pre-moral
4–11	Moral
11+	Moral

Laurence Kohlberg (1927–1987) was a psychologist who extended Piaget's ideas of moral development, with each stage divided into two substages (some refer to stories about moral dilemmas to determine levels of moral judgement. For example, he told the story about a man whose wife was dying of cancer. The drug, manufactured by a chemist, was expensive for him, but the chemist would not lower the price, so the man stole the drug. He asked a series of questions, such as 'Was it right to steal the drug?' or 'Would it make a difference if the stranger was your friend?', and correlated the answers according to age. The study was longitudinal, following up at first 10–16 years, who were followed up at three-yearly intervals to see how their moral reasoning developed.

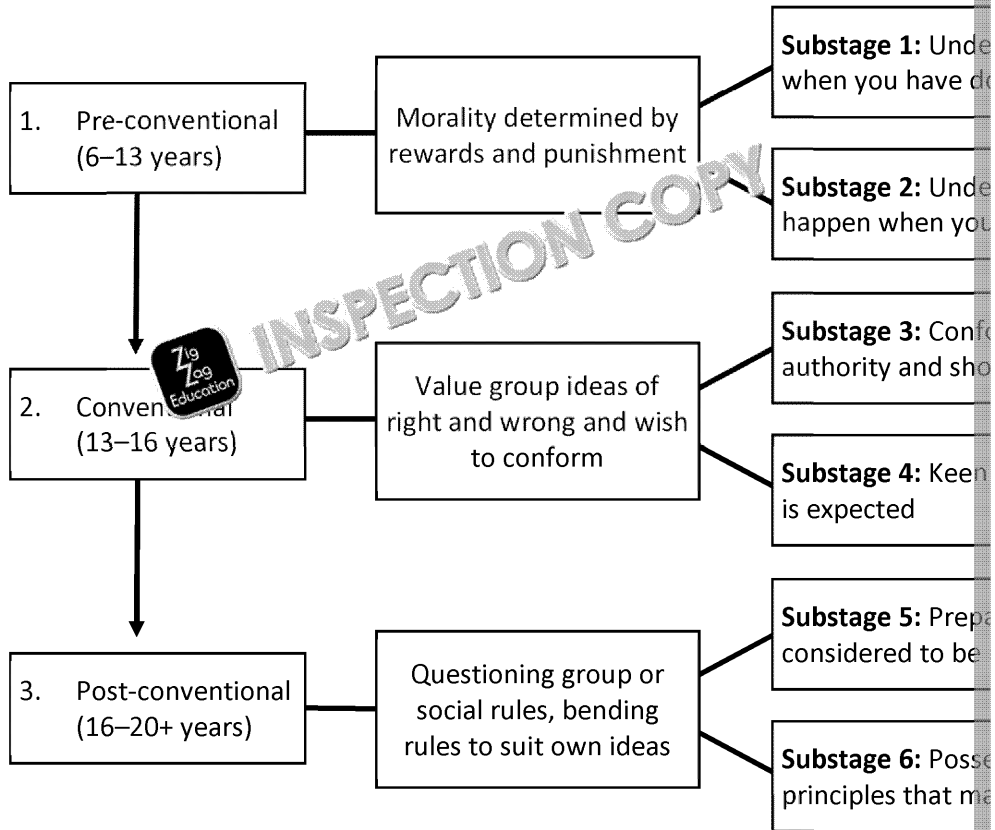
Kohlberg's stages only start at the age of six because younger children were purely concerned with what happens to them, with no understanding of what is right or wrong. Children first learn moral values through a behaviourist approach, through reward and punishment. At the end of the first stage (pre-conventional; substage 2), they recognise the moral aspect to getting what they want, and will consider a situation more from the perspective of a pursuer than a wrong viewpoint.

During the second stage (conventional), the moral development of children takes a step forward and an understanding that sometimes you can get it wrong, even if you meant well. The moral code of fairness and should not be broken. By the time we reach the third stage, however, it has changed and we question the rules that bind society, particularly in relation to personal interests, and are prepared to break them.

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Kohlberg's three stages of moral development



Kohlberg's ideas about how moral growth develops are important to understanding when we make a moral decision. Deciding on what moral action to take is also dependent on the ability to possess the skills to make a decision and to understand what is right and what is wrong. One criticism of Kohlberg's theory is that it is biased and culturally specific.

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A3 Revision questions

1. Which hormone is associated with stress and toxic stress?
2. What is toxic stress and how does it affect babies?
3. What did John Bowlby call his theory on mother-child relationships, and what are the key parts of this theory?
4. What are the four stages in Bowlby's theory?
5. Mary Ainsworth's research into attachment theory led her to devise the Strange Situation. What are the key parts of the actual task?
6. What relationship types between parent or caregiver and infant did she identify using the 'Strange Situation' task?
7. What three main temperament characteristics did Thomas and Chess identify?
8. Name the two ways in which poverty can be measured.
9. How is attachment affected by relationships?
10. How is attachment affected by poverty, social exclusion, addiction and mental health issues?
11. What is the difference between temperament and personality?
12. How do Erikson's eight Stages of Psychosocial Development inform personality development?
13. What five core personality traits have been identified by psychologists?
14. 'Self-concept' is an umbrella term for three things; what are they?
15. How does self-concept begin in babies?
16. What affects self-concept, particularly in early childhood, adolescence and adulthood?
17. Charles Cooley's looking-glass theory has three parts; what are they?
18. What external factors can have an effect on self-esteem?
19. What are Piaget's stages of moral development?
20. Why do Kohlberg's stages of moral development only start at the age of 7?
21. What are the different stages of moral development according to Kohlberg?

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A4: Social development across the

The stages of play in infancy and early childhood

In the early stages of life, the quality of our interactions with caregivers and the environment has a significant impact on our social and cognitive development. In many cultures, play and work are seen as separate activities as they are in Western cultures. Children's play is an imitation of real life. On the other hand, our culture sees play as something separate from real life. An interesting study involved six-year-old children asked to draw pictures of adults and children doing various activities. The children's pictures of adults showed them washing the car, hoovering, etc., while the children's pictures of children showed them playing, going to school or kicking a ball around.

It is no coincidence that we talk about children 'learning through play', and many educational systems around the world have developed along those lines, such as the EYFS (Early Years Foundation Stage) in the UK, Montessori, Froebel and Steiner Schools. Montessori even went as far as to state that 'play is the work of the child'. Didactic materials deliberately do not encourage social play as this only interferes with individual learning. A specially developed resource is available within the classroom, and few are designed for social play.

Why play is important:

- Provides sensory stimulation that supports the development of neural pathways and memory development
- Provides the foundation blocks for fine and gross motor skills development
- Provides an avenue for imagination and creativity
- Allows you to engage with something repeatedly, fine-tuning skills and experiences laid before progressing to more complex tasks
- Allows you to be curious, to think 'what if' and 'what happens if'
- Allows you to be inventive, developing problem-solving skills
- Allows you to develop social skills, including sharing, collaboration, cooperation, understanding needs and feelings of others
- Reinforces language ability to communicate, prompting the development of language skills
- Provides a basis for social interaction and the development of friendships
- Provides a platform on which we can build skills in self-regulation, courtesy and respect
- Allows children to develop an understanding of rules and how to share
- Allows children to investigate difficult themes, such as death

Play is a social construct, dependent upon the culture children play in. Play is important because it is through play that children develop the skills and learning habits that they will need throughout their lives. Introducing play to areas that are 'play-deprived' improves children's cognitive, motor and social skills (Barnes et al., 2002). Play therapy is often used for children who have experienced adversity.

There are many different theories and studies that have been made about play. Maria Montessori developed her theory that children engage in six different types of play while observing children aged two to five, during the late 19th century. She defined free play as anything that is not done for production or profit.

These stages of play are targeted from infancy through to early childhood, and are not necessarily sequential.

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Mildred Parten's six stages of play

Stage of play	Characteristic
Unoccupied	Children are not playing with anything or watching anyone else play.
Onlooker	Children watch each other play, and may interact socially but do not participate in the play activity itself.
Solitary	Children play by themselves with no input from others.
Parallel	Children play alongside each other, sometimes copying each other's actions.
Associative	Children are playing together but their play is uncoordinated and they do not have shared play agendas.
Cooperative	Children interact and play together without adult support.

Once children have achieved the stage of cooperative play, they are beginning to form a group, for example, a football team. Cooperative play requires a high level of social skills, and the ability to understand the importance of rules and adhere to them.

Developing these ideas about types of play, Tina Bruce, a social learning theorist who is influenced by the work of Friedrich Froebel (1782–1852), has developed a system of 12 features of play. Each feature can occur at any age. Bruce uses the term 'free-flow play' to explain how children use the experiences they get from social interactions and developing skills to 'wallow in their play'. The concept of free-flow play has been a major influence on present educational terminology, however, it is children's ability to move fluidly between areas inside and outside the classroom.

Many fear that children's play is becoming a rare commodity. Symbolic learning (letters and numbers) is entering the previously play-dominated realm of the preschool and reception class. Children no longer play outdoors, with parents overly worried for their safety. The rise and rise of computer games means many children, adolescents and adults spend hours glued to a screen, interacting with unknown others over an Internet connection in an artificial world. The term 'helicopter-parenting' has gained notoriety as parents, in a bid to help their children avoid the stress of day-to-day living, end up overprotecting and dominating them, filling their free time with sports, dance or other activities and not allowing them to take risks such as climbing trees or cycling to a friend's house a few minutes away.

Tina Bruce's Twelve Features of Play

1. Children use first-hand experience to learn.
2. Children make up rules to keep control.
3. Children symbolical thinking and adapting.
4. Children choose to play to play.
5. Children rehearse their skills.
6. Children sometimes play alone.
7. Children pretend with others.
8. Children play with a partner cooperatively in pairs.
9. Children have a personal agenda, may or may not be shared.
10. Children are deeply engaged, do not distract from their play and learn from their play.
11. Children try out the skills and competences they know.
12. Children coordinate their play with a sense of relationship and cultures.

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Educationally, we have even tried to quantify the types of play that one would see if you took the view in 2015 that:

‘as children grow older, and as their development allows, it is expected that the child-initiated experiences will gradually shift towards more activities led by adults for more formal learning, ready for Year 1.’

(OFSTED, *Teaching and play in the early years – a balancing act?* 2015, No. 150085)

The following play terminology is often used in relation to preschool and Reception:

- Free-flow play: sustained play where children are free to explore, select and use resources both indoors and outdoors, as they like without interruption
- Structured play: play that has been organised and planned for by more knowledgeable adults, including child-initiated and adult-directed play, usually with a pre-agreed learning intention
- Adult-initiated play: play which may or may not be preplanned, but which is based on children's interests and provision of appropriate resources or provocations that children take up from an adult and then independently
- Adult-directed play: play which may or may not be preplanned, but which is based on children's interests and provision of appropriate resources or provocations that require more direct involvement from an adult than adult-initiated play
- Child-initiated play: sustained play that has been initiated and continued by children with minimal adult involvement

The importance of social interactions

We are highly social beings, defining ourselves by complex interactions at family, community and international levels. Platforms such as Facebook or Instagram have grown enormously as we socialise, and to be part of a group. Aristotle is quoted as saying over 2,000 years ago: ‘an individual who is unsocial naturally and not capable of living either in solitude or in a group is either a beast or a god.’ Quite why we are so sociable, compared to other animals, anthropologists believe it has to do with survival. A family unit is stronger than an individual, and is stronger than a single family, all the way up through village and city to nation and empire. ‘It is only by everyone is in agreement.

Additionally, our brains appear to be hardwired to interact socially. Bowlby, in his research on positive attachment between babies and caregivers, realised that just caring for a baby (providing warmth, cleanliness, sleep) was not enough. Babies need to be held, nurtured and comforted. Earlier, Mary Ainsworth's research in the quality of mother-child relationships uncovered insecure attachment (anxious resistant and anxious avoidant), which affected the child's relationship with the mother and the stranger (Strange Situation experiment) and would impact on relationships later in life.

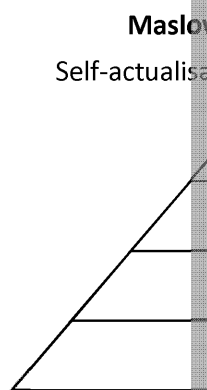
Babies born to depressed mothers are shown to have lower levels of social and emotional skills (Fonagy and Brockington, 1997). Research also shows that babies are hardwired to look at faces that resemble a face, and can process faces to an adult level by the age of four months, but at a much lower level in the brain at this age (Faraz et al., 2012). Researchers believe that babies learn about social and emotional cues from facial expressions, and start to imitate behaviours learned from the reactions and interactions they get from parents and caregivers.

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So what exactly are the social benefits and importance of friendship groups?

Maslow (1908–1970), in his theory on what motivates humans, argued that once basic needs such as food and safety are fulfilled, the next basic need is to feel loved and have a sense of belonging. He recognised the strength of this need, particularly throughout childhood, and how it can dominate the other levels, such as safety or physiological needs. For example, children and adults will still cling to those closest to them for love and affection even if they are being physically abused from them.



A lack of love and sense of belonging can negatively affect family relationships and friendships later in life. People who do not have a sense of belonging feel, to a greater or lesser extent, lonely, anxious, isolated and ostracised. As well as where we live or lack of mobility and illness can also reduce that feeling of belonging.

A feeling of belonging is what drives us to take part in social activities and join groups. It is part of the way in which we organise our sense of self-concept and is particularly important in early adulthood, when peer pressure may cause us to join groups that are not beneficial to our emotional development. Maslow recognised that the hierarchies are interrelated and each other, and that they are relevant at all stages of our lives.

Positive effects of social interaction

Belonging to a social group is one of a human being's basic psychological needs and can be met in many different ways. There are many different group settings that we can belong to, such as political, professional – but the one thing they have in common is that other members share similar ideas or characteristics as we do.

Social interaction helps us to:

- stay motivated by helping and motivating us to connect, take part, do better or help others
- communicate ideas, needs, cultural beliefs and social values
- provide a support system, e.g. drug rehabilitation, postnatal, bereavement
- promote a cause or express personal beliefs, whether as a protest or in a profession
- feel positive and happy (research shows that socially engaged adults age better)
- achieve goals such as weight loss or running a marathon

Negative effects of social interaction

Not all social interaction is positive. Intimidation, violence, abuse, bullying and peer pressure occur throughout our lives, and everywhere we go. The effects can be:

- lowered levels of self-esteem, especially if a person is ostracised from a group (peer pressure)
- fear – fear of being hurt, fear of being found out, fear of letting other people down
- anger and aggression – often a defensive reaction triggered by fear
- bullying, intimidation and violence – carried out by you on those you can do harm to (children, partners, pets)
- depression – loss of confidence and a feeling of belonging, low feelings of self-worth, difficulty moving on or away from the negative behaviour
- powerlessness – inability to change the situation, such as move job, or leave a relationship
- physical reactions – migraines, stomach cramps
- stress – although stress can have a positive effect, raising concentration levels, if not managed well, it can also have negative effects, such as weight gain, affect sleep patterns
- obligation – feeling obliged to join the group so as to be part of something and not stand out

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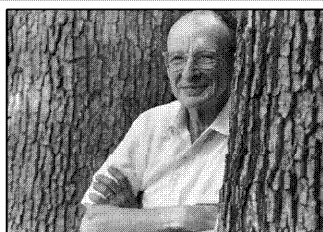


We often think of bullying or peer pressure as something that happens at school, in groups, but they can also happen in the workplace, at church, or in a family relationship. Patterns of behaviour that often start in childhood or adolescence. At these stages, the self is still fragile and immature, and needs positive interactions to build it up. The behaviour of the bullied will often change, and this is not just due to hormonal and physiological changes.

- becoming secretive and withdrawn, and unable to share what is happening with others
- becoming irritable, argumentative and aggressive
- becoming less confident, with lower levels of self-esteem
- losing trust, particularly if having been betrayed by someone, that person 'tells' a friend about the incident
- pretending to be ill to avoid seeing the bully
- lying and blaming others
- becoming convinced that it is their fault, and having feelings of self-doubt and guilt

People who engage in negative social behaviour and become the bully, may have had negative and emotional interactions while growing up, or are suffering from stress or tiredness, or have been abused by others.

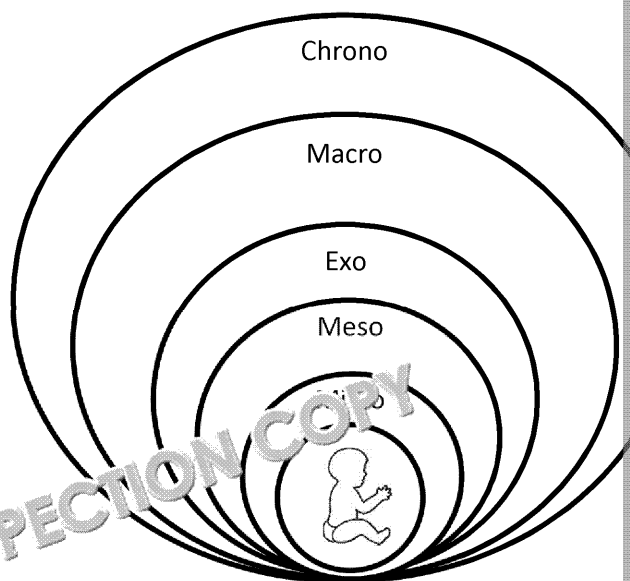
The development of relationships with others



The developmental psychologist **Urie Bronfenbrenner** was born in Russia, but moved with his parents to the USA in 1933. He was a co-founder of Head Start, a programme designed to help disadvantaged preschool children in the USA. He was the first to consider that child development occurs within a context of social influences, such as education and sociocultural norms.

There is a vast complexity to human relationships. Relationships develop through family, friends, teachers, work colleagues, etc. In 1979, Urie Bronfenbrenner published his Ecological Systems theory, in which he sought to explain how different social systems we encounter affect child development. These systems both influence and are influenced by, the child.

Diagram of Urie Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems theory



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Each circle represents a different layer that will influence how relationships develop

Micro: This layer is closest to the child. Within it are the environments with which the child has direct contact, e.g. family and home. The child can influence this layer through personality traits, and the family and home structure can influence the child through cultural beliefs.

Meso: This next layer contains environments and structures which are still very close to the child. They include any kind of nursery or school environment, health care, doctor, neighbours and friends. At this level, the child is an active participant who comes into contact with such as school. The child is also influenced by the environment with other people in this layer. A positive relationship between school and family can lead to better child development than a negative one.

Exo: Within this layer are environments that do not affect the child directly but are felt. This could be a parent's workplace, and how their working schedule affects the family. It could also refer to decisions taken by local council or other institutions, etc. that indirectly affect their lives. TV and other media are also part of this layer. An example would be a council decision to build 200 new homes on the edge of town.

Macro: This layer refers to environments and structures over which the child has no direct control. This could refer to the customs of the country or particular ethnic group, the dominant culture of the society, central government decisions about schools and healthcare, and major crises and conflicts that some children in minority culture families face when they move to the dominant culture of the new country.

Chrono: Chrono refers to time, and this layer is about the history behind the society that makes up the society the child is born into. What effect do war, trade, migration, and the lifestyles of the child and their family have on the way the society the child grows up in?

How do relationships develop?

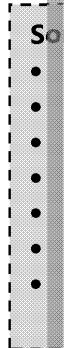
A relationship is a two-way interaction between two people, during which one or both people are affected. Relationships between people, or between people and groups, develop over time and are influenced by maturity, temperament, traits and self-concept. Some relationships will involve people who are close, such as family or friends, others will be acquaintances and yet others will be people who are far from our lives. Relationships can change across social boundaries, for example, if your boss is a friend, you may have a different relationship with them out of work compared to in work.

Relationships are based on trust, respect, understanding and some kind of similarity or perceived similarity, between people. A person who dislikes running will never enjoy playing on a football team, for example.

We often compartmentalise relationships under different headings, such as best friend, manager, family, and each relationship will be treated differently with regard to the importance we attach to it. Some relationships will be built on solid foundations and have a certain degree of consistency and reliability, while others will be less so.

On a social level, we build up new relationships through stages:

1. Pre-relationship: learning that another person or group exists
2. First stage: meeting for the first time, making quick judgements, learning the person's name. At this stage you may decide they are not your type and the relationship will not develop.
3. Second stage: follow-up meeting(s) with them, getting a better understanding of who they are, and deciding whether the relationship will be close, or more an acquaintance. Some relationships go beyond this stage.
4. Getting closer, sharing thoughts, dreams and secrets
5. Strengthening the relationship, devoting time and energy to it, perhaps marriage



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The idea that all relationships are based on the concept of give and take led to the development in the early 1960s of Social Exchange theory. Social Exchange theory is actually not a true theory but a framework for several theories. It states that people only engage in relationships because they want to get something out of them for themselves.

According to the theory, everything that is done in a relationship is driven by ideas of:

- Is it to my advantage?
- Do I deserve it?
- Can I get something like this elsewhere?



If our actions have been positively and receive approval, we are more likely to repeat them. If our expectations are not met, we may be looking for another relationship. Cultural norms play a strong part in Social Exchange theory in many different ways, from a simple smile to a special gift.

Detractors of Social Exchange theory argue that it does not take into account the needs and feelings of individuals, particularly with regard to personal relationships. Also, it views a relationship as a transaction between individuals, and does not consider so-called 'group mentality', where a person will do what is good for the group even though the Worth outcome is negative.

Within successful relationships, partners are tuned in to the needs and interests of each other. In order to understand the feelings of others we need to be able to mentally represent and understand the state of mind of others. Infants and children up to the age of around four years old are incapable of inferring accurately what others are thinking. They interpret everything from their own point of view and belief.

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The 'Smarties' test for Theory of Mind

A box is filled with something that would not usually be there, e.g. a Smarties tube is filled with pencils. Three questions are then asked:

1. What do you think is in the box? (before opening it)
2. What did you think was in the box before you opened it?
3. What do you think your friend will think is in the box?

A **three-year-old** will answer 'Smarties' and be surprised that it is pencils, but will then answer 'pencils' to questions 2 and 3. A **four-year-old** will answer 'Smarties' to all three questions.

Have a look at this video on YouTube:

[zzed.uk/7993](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zzed.uk/7993)

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The ability to understand other people's feelings is a particularly human trait (research shows that primates such as chimpanzees and apes also have a Theory of Mind, although some are better than others). It allows us to build, maintain and manage complex relationships. It also provides us with the codes and rules that govern our behaviour that ensure stability and social cohesion. Theory of Mind allows us to empathise and put ourselves in someone else's situation, or sympathy, acknowledging another person might be facing. People born with Autistic Spectrum Disorder (ASD) lack a Theory of Mind, and need assistance in developing social skills.



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The development of independence through the

Referring back to Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems Theory, we can see there are many factors that influence our growth and development throughout the life stages. Also, that there is a reciprocal relationship between us and the environment we have with other people, groups and institutions, in other words, they influence our lives and our lives will be dependent on some things that are out of our control, for example, the type of education we receive, and others that are within our control, for example, the choices we make, or the hobbies we like to do.

The development of independence through the life stages:

Infancy:	learning to communicate needs and wants, undressing, learning to walk
Early childhood:	going to playgroup and school, having school friends, walking to school, living in the house alone
Adolescence:	going to secondary school and/or sixth-form college, having a part-time job, learning to drive (car or motorbike) and romantic relationships
Early adulthood:	leaving home, going to university, working full-time, getting married, having children
Middle adulthood:	children leave home, more time for hobbies, interests and career
Late adulthood:	take part in social groups and hobbies, loss of independence, medical needs

The choices we make as we become more independent are influenced by the culture we live in. Choices such as marriage or having children, might be considered as 'traditional' choices; other choices might be more unusual. Some choices may be influenced by social media or advertising. Some choices are now being labelled by social commentators, e.g. 'millennials', 'baby boomers', because they have certain characteristics. Social research suggests that 'millennials' (children born between 1981 and 1996) are more self-obsessed, and value personal freedom more than previous generations. They are also more involved in volunteering than previous generations and have more liberal social attitudes.

As we become more independent, we take on the roles and responsibilities of our parents (e.g. caring for children, mortgage, etc.). These roles and responsibilities will change from generation to generation and cultural changes, particularly as 'traditional' values alter or become less valid. Our society are continually affected by the effects of globalisation, immigration and multiculturalism, as well as secular changes and the fragmentation of our society as families no longer live on the same street, or in the same town, as other relatives.

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A4 Revision questions

1. Give as many reasons as you can think of for why play is important.
2. What are Mildred Parten's six stages of play?
3. What do the following terms referring to play mean: free-flow play, parallel play, adult-led play, adult-directed play and child-initiated play?
4. Draw and label a picture of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs.
5. What are the social benefits of having a friendship group?
6. What are the negative results of social interaction?
7. Name Bronfenbrenner's different circles of influence in his Ecological part of society each circle represents.
8. What is the equation for Social Exchange theory?
9. Explain Theory of Mind.
10. Provide one example of how we gain independence for each life stage.



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Chapter 2: Factors Affecting Human Growth

B1: The nature/nurture debate

Key Terms

Nature	Development shaped by innate, inherited predispositions; also known as <i>tabula rasa</i> .
Nurture	Development shaped by appropriate educational environments and experiences.



What makes us the person we are has been the subject of conjecture and debate. Present-day development theories lie in the work of the seventeenth- and eighteenth-century philosophers John Locke (1632–1704) and Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712–1778).

Prior to this time, society generally viewed children as immature or miniature adults (*Childhood*). Also, the Christian doctrine of original sin meant that sociocultural behaviour was born with a tendency for evil, and it was, therefore, the moral responsibility of all parents to correct this tendency through the use of discipline and punishment.

Locke refuted this philosophy of original sin, and proposed that children are blank slates. Knowledge only develops as a result of interaction with people and the environment. Everyone is born with different temperaments and mental capabilities, which affect how they acquire knowledge to previously acquired knowledge (Piaget's later theory of association). Knowledge is acquired through *nurture*.

Rousseau, however, saw children as 'savages' shaped by nature and internal drives. He believed children were born inherently good, with the ability to understand and reason. He wrote about childhood as a separate stage of life, and believed that development was not just physical growth.

Charles Darwin's (1809–1882) seminal work *On the Origin of Species*, published in 1859, provided detailed observations of his own son. His view that in order to understand the natural world, we should study our children, was taken further by the psychologist Charles Hall (1844–1914) and the Study Movement. This coincided with major social changes and reforms taking place in the areas of health, welfare and education of children and families.

Psychologists continue to disagree about the split between nature and nurture, arguing over inherited traits and predispositions, or supportive environments and relationships. In light of modern research the debate is now archaic and out of time, since we know how the genome and how different genes are linked to certain physiological and possibly psychological traits. For example, from the Romanian orphanages of the 1980s, research showed that social and physical development are inhibited if babies do not receive appropriate responses. This suggests that if we are born with innate structures these can only develop with environmental influences. It is not enough just to be born and survive.

Both Locke and Rousseau viewed the child as entirely passive in nature, open to what the environment offers, but later theorists such as Piaget, Vygotsky and Bruner saw the child as active in learning. Learning was constructed either as a result of maturation (Piaget) or social interaction (Vygotsky).

What do we mean by the term 'environmental factors' in human growth and development?

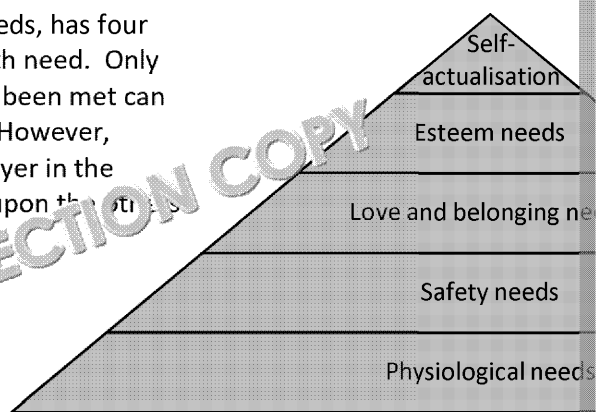
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In Chapter 1, we considered how Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs supported theories of learning. We looked at the headings on which to hang the complexities of the needs that drive and motivate

Maslow’s basic Hierarchy of Needs, has four deficiency needs and one growth need. Only once the deficiency needs have been met can we address our growth needs. However, Maslow considered that each layer in the hierarchy was interdependent upon the others and all were equally important.



Layer	Positives for growth and development	Negatives
Physiological	Nutritious food Ability to keep warm or cool Safe and comfortable shelter Clean drinking water Good sanitation	Lack of food Unable to keep warm Unsafe drinking water Unsafe or no shelter Poor sanitation Poor health
Safety	Good economic circumstances Tolerance Inclusion Personal and familial security Respect of others and property Care of others within family and society	Poverty War, persecution Family breakdown Abuse, neglect Lack of respect Violence and crime
Love and belonging	Family support Friendly relationships Social attachments Self-worth Dignity Confidence Love and intimacy	Low self-esteem Bullying Fear and insecurity Lack of support Depression Isolation and loneliness
Esteem	High feelings of self-worth and self-esteem Dignity Education Confidence	Low feelings of self-worth Poor self-image Loss of skills Feeling undervalued Mental health issues
Self-actualisation	High morals Creative Open-mindedness Tolerance and acceptance	Immorality Destructive Bullying and violence Hatred and prejudice

The physiological layer refers to environmental influences that affect us physically. We need food, water, warmth and clothing. Once we no longer struggle to achieve these we can concentrate more on the second layer, safety. Failure to achieve them results in malnutrition, illness, isolation or ostracism from society.

The safety layer refers to our personal feelings about security. We may well feel we are meeting our basic physiological needs, but once these are satisfied we will turn to the environment for ourselves and immediate family. Factors that would be included are housing, law and order, rules and regulations, employment, health and general social conditions. The effects of war, social unrest and persecution may also impact on basic physiological needs such as clothing and shelter.

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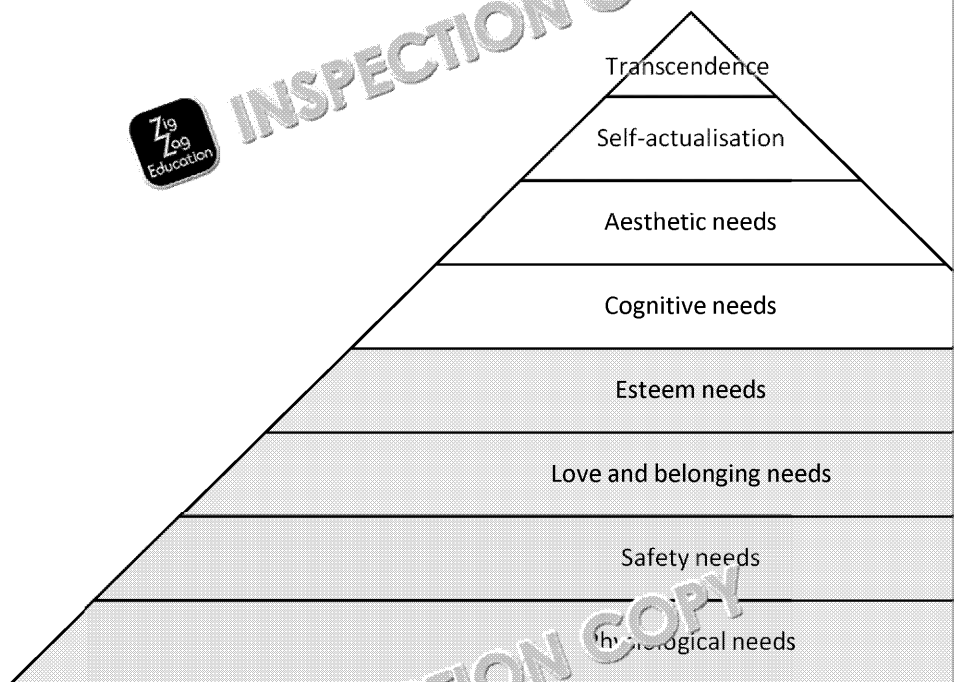
Love and belonging can only occur once we feel safe and secure, although, as discussed, children and adults who do not feel safe and secure in a relationship or situation may stay in the relationship because their physiological and safety needs are not being met, and will stay in the relationship because they feel they have no choice but to remain. Our need for love is satisfied through the development of caring relationships with family and friends, and feeling part of society. Loss or lack of a feeling of love and belonging can affect mental health, lead to a feeling of isolation and cause mental health or dependency issues, leading to holding down a job, lowered self-esteem and difficulties in relationships.

Once we are secure in our physiological, safety and belonging needs, we can concentrate on the growth part of our needs, our self-actualisation. Maslow defines esteem as something that comes from pride in one's achievements and recognition from others support feelings of self-esteem is linked to many negative behaviours, social outcomes and ill health.

Once all four deficiency needs have been met, we can concentrate on the growth part when we turn our attention to realising our own potential. At each level, Maslow requires a certain level of acceptance or ability, otherwise we will be compromised at the next level. For example, if you are starving you will not be concentrating on finding a safe place to live, or a loving relationship as your first priority.

Later psychologists and researchers added three more layers to the growth part of Maslow's model, referred to as Maslow's Motivation Model, it includes cognitive needs (learning, knowledge), aesthetic needs (the need for creativity and beauty); and after self-actualisation, the need to contribute to society by helping others achieve their full potential).

Maslow's Motivation Model



Although Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs is firmly based in nurture, and how the environment we are born into can take into account how we personally choose to deal with it. For example, if you are hungry, do you run away from a confrontation about the last slice of bread and not share, or maybe grab it all for ourselves?

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Arnold Gesell's Maturation Theory of Child Development

Arnold Gesell (1880–1961) was an American developmental psychologist who developed the Maturation Theory of Child Development. He believed that both nature and nurture were equally important in a child's development. Gesell saw development occur in a cyclical spiral, moving from equilibrium to disequilibrium.

He was one of the first child development psychologists to use video recording and one-way mirrors to record observations of children in his research, and was driven to provide appropriate learning environments for all children, including gifted and those with delayed development. His work is continued by the Gesell Institute of Child Development in USA.



Gesell was in direct opposition to learning theory because he felt it did not take into account how learning is assimilated and accommodated. He argued that the learning environment can modify development but it cannot change growth or maturation.

According to Gesell's Maturation Theory of Development, physiological and behavioural development occur in a fixed sequence (which is not age specific), starting within the womb and continuing throughout early childhood and adolescence. Development is driven by both maturational and genetic traits and is faster in early childhood than in adolescence. Each cycle of the spiral has a high point, equilibrium, and a low point, disequilibrium.

Within each cycle are six stages:

- equilibrium or smooth
- disequilibrium or break-up
- sorting out
- inward
- expansion
- neurotic 'fitting together'



Children from birth to six years old will go through this cycle approximately every six months. This will change to an annual cycle between six and seven years old and become longer still as we reach maturity.

Gesell's work is based on thousands of detailed observations of children of all ages and covers physical development, adaptive (cognitive) development, language development and social development. He believed that every child was unique, and possessed innate knowledge inherited through biological selection over many generations, that drove physical development, personality, behaviour and cognitive ability. Gesell acknowledged that children do not develop in a vacuum, but are influenced by their social and cultural environment, but this is limited by innate structures related to the maturation of the brain. Research has shown that certain physical development milestones (pointing, grasping and crawling) are consistent across different social and cultural environments, suggesting that these milestones have a genetic foundation possibly linked to brain development and neural pathways to memory.



Another aspect of Gesell's research was the idea that innate knowledge about perception is hardwired into the brain from birth. This would explain why newborn infants track objects and how we seemingly acquire language effortlessly (Noam Chomsky's Language Acquisition Theory). This is not to say that there is no interaction with the environment, led by genetically inherited temperament and physical details for the innate structures.

What does Gesell mean by 'equilibrium'?

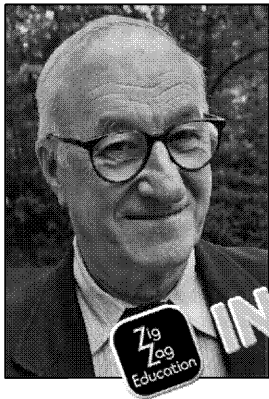
Equilibrium
Calm
Consolidating use of known skills
At a stage or plateau of development
In harmony with environment and self
Stability
Confident
Pleasant to be with

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Albert Bandura's Social Learning theory



Albert Bandura (1925–) is an American psychologist who developed the Social Learning theory. In the theory he states that we learn from others do, than from rewards and punishments (behaviorist structures (nativist model)).

Bandura's theories and research in the 1960s led him to the Bobo experiment, a series of experiments where children of different sexes and ages in a play area involving a doll called Bobo. In the first, the doll was aggressive with the doll, shouting and hitting it, in the second, the doll was normally, and in the third the doll was completely passive. When the children were left by themselves in the play area, those who had seen the doll aggressive to the doll also acted aggressively to it.

Bandura therefore concluded that we learn through observation and imitation rather than through rewards and punishments, or pure maturation, as the children had received no incentive to play with the doll, but had just copied what they had seen the adult doing.

Bandura's work builds on that of Vygotsky, who believed that we learn within a social context provided by more knowledgeable adults. Bandura, however, believed that behaviour (both of the child and the adult) affects learning within the environment. This relates to the enactive and iconic Modes of Thinking proposed by Jerome Bruner, whereby we learn by doing something (enactive) and then create a mental image of what we should be doing (iconic). As we mature (around seven years old) we can abstract that thought to situations that we have not personally experienced, such as stroking a hot surface.

The four stages of learning

1. Attention: Child must be attending to a child.
2. Retention: Child must be able to accommodate the information.
3. Motor reproduction: Child must be able to reproduce the behavior.
4. Motivation: If the child is motivated, the behavior will be successful, and the child will learn.

Generally, it is believed that growth and development are influenced by all of the above factors to different degrees. Maturation, genes, innate biological systems, environments and social interactions all play a part in shaping who and what we become.

In health and social care, it is important to understand the interaction between the different stressors that can affect an individual at different stages in their lives. The stress–diathesis model is a tool that attempts to quantify the relationship between stressors and predispositions, vulnerability and resilience.

The stress–diathesis model explains how a genetic predisposition to a disease can be triggered by environmental factors (personal, social, biological, psychological, and resilience). It also explains how a network of social support can reduce the risk of illness.

The term 'diathesis' refers to inherited genetic or biological susceptibility and predisposition to develop a particular disease, disorder, allergy or mental health condition (nature). It means we are all vulnerable to developing these diseases, allergies and conditions but this may not happen if we are resilient to stress.

Stress in the stress–diathesis model refers to the different stressors or traumatic events in our lives. This could be a physical stressor, for example, problems in personal relationships, learning pressure or financial stress (nurture). How our minds and bodies cope or do not cope with biological changes or cell mutations that will cause the onset of certain diseases and conditions depends on the stressor we encounter, and our reactions to them, change as we mature and we build on new coping mechanisms. Also, protective factors, such as a solid social network and resilience to traumatic events, improve resilience and reduce the biological and mental effects of stress.

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B1 Revision questions

1. What is the difference between nature and nurture?
2. What do we mean by 'tabula rasa'?
3. What are the four deficiency levels in Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs?
4. How does each level in Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs have a positive and development?
5. What does Maslow mean by 'self-actualisation'?
6. In Maslow's Motivation Model, what skills or areas do the terms 'cognitive needs' and 'transcendence' cover?
7. What is Gesell's Maturation Theory of Development?
8. Who developed the ideas behind Social Learning theory, and how was it developed?
9. What are Bandura's four stages of observational learning?
10. What is the stress–diathesis model?



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B2: Genetic factors that affect development

Every cell in our body contains 23 pairs of chromosomes, and each pair is composed of two chromosomes. Genes are composed of deoxyribonucleic acid, or DNA. Each gene contains a unique sequence of DNA, which provides the specific genetic characteristics that pass down the generations. Genes provide instructions for a specific task; for example, to create muscle fibres, or decide the colour of our eyes.

At conception, a child will inherit an equal number of 23 chromosomes from each parent, which combine together. Each chromosome will contain a pair of genes from the parents, which is what makes a person unique (apart from identical twins). Within the genes some will be dominant and some recessive, which will affect development. This information can be used to work out the probability of a child inheriting certain traits or conditions using Punnett squares.

A **chromosome** is a structure of DNA and protein that carries genetic information.

A **gene** is a unit of heredity that carries the instructions for providing a specific trait.

Punnett squares

Punnett squares were created by an English geneticist, Reginald Punnett. They are used to determine the probability of children inheriting certain traits from their parents; for example, cystic fibrosis, the Punnett squares could be as below:

Example 1

If both parents have one dominant gene (A) and one recessive gene (a): there is a 25% chance their children will have cystic fibrosis (aa), a 25% chance their child will be a carrier of the recessive gene (Aa).

		Parent A	
		A	a
Parent B	A	AA	Aa
	a	Aa	aa

Example 2

If one parent has the disease: there is a 50% chance that their children will either have the disease (aa) or carry the disease (Aa).

		Parent A	
		A	a
Parent B	a	Aa	aa
	a	Aa	aa

Children can inherit two recessive genes from one or both parents and be born with a condition such as cystic fibrosis. Sometimes the chromosomes themselves are changed or missing, as in the case of Down's syndrome where children are born with a full or partial extra copy of chromosome 21 in every cell. This affects how a cell functions. Mutations, which may arise due to lifestyle choices, such as smoking, can also lead to conditions such as cancer or colon cancer. Most people have no idea that they are carriers for certain genetic conditions. A carrier has one gene that predisposes them to certain diseases such as cancer or cardiovascular disease.

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The term 'congenital defect' is used to describe all forms of physical or metabolic child. They may be discovered while the child is still in the womb, e.g. tests for Down's syndrome, spina bifida, or they may only be discovered once the child is born, or later as the child reaches milestones. The anomaly can be caused by a variety of factors, such as genetic disease, exposure to chemicals or drugs, poor nutrition, consanguinity or age of the mother. Some have a known or identifiable cause. Some physical defects, such as a cleft palate or heart defect, can be corrected through surgery; others require medication and/or support throughout the child and their lives.

There are many different defects and conditions that may affect the unborn child's growth and development. Some are life-limiting, some create severe difficulties for the child and their family as they negotiate their way through battling the condition. Support is available with regard to health, education, respite care, etc.

Below are some types of congenital defects, listed according to the predominant cause: genetic, chromosomal, gene mutation, mitochondrial, glandular, biological and environmental.

Note: Conditions marked in grey are additional to those mentioned in the specific condition.

Genetic Predispositions to particular conditions

Some single genetic conditions. These occur when the child inherits the recessive gene from both parents.

Genetic condition	Health and development indications
<p>Colour blindness Mutation of lack of cone cells in the eye. We have three types of cone cell, each registering either green, red or blue light.</p>	<p>Inability to differentiate between colours or shades of colour, particularly red and green. This may cause problems with learning to read or learning to drive.</p>
<p>Cystic fibrosis Presents with different symptoms or severity. Caused by a defect in the 'cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator' gene which controls the movement of water and salt in and out of cells, causing a build-up of thick and sticky mucus in different organs, e.g. lungs and pancreas.</p>	<p>Life-limiting (up to around 40 years of age) and progressive disease. Build-up of mucus in the lungs, pancreas and intestine affects breathing and digestion. Sufferers are prone to respiratory diseases, and have difficulty digesting food.</p>
<p>Duchenne muscular dystrophy Caused by the absence of the protein dystrophin that keeps muscle cells intact. Starts in early childhood. Primarily affects boys.</p>	<p>Life-limiting. Deterioration in muscle tone including heart and diaphragm, which affects breathing. Learning difficulties.</p>
<p>Haemophilia Inability of blood to clot. Affects only males.</p>	<p>Uncontrolled bleeds can cause damage to joints, brain damage or organ failure. Infections received through blood transfusions. Haemophiliacs should not take part in contact sports. Can affect self-esteem, particularly in adolescence.</p>

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Genetic condition	Health and development Indications	Treatment
<p>Huntington's disease A progressive brain disorder that usually develops in people aged 30–50, but can develop any time between the ages of two and 80 years.</p>	<p>Life-limiting. Causes involuntary movements of the arms, legs, head, face and upper body. Affects memory, concentration, reasoning, judgement and ability to plan. Changes within the brain cause mood swings, depression, volatility and obsessive compulsive behaviour.</p>	<p>No cure. Support from a specialist centre such as a language therapy can help with communication.</p>
<p>Osteoporosis (brittle bone disease) Deterioration in bone density that causes bones to break easily.</p>	<p>Often occurs in women after menopause, but may also affect children (osteogenesis imperfecta or osteoporosis pseudoglioma syndrome) and is hereditary. May also present as a result of ageing disorders, and due to long-term medication, such as corticosteroids for polymyalgia. Susceptibility to bone fractures in spine, wrist and hip areas. Spinal fractures may cause stooping in older people as the spine no longer supports the body effectively.</p>	<p>Treatment includes medication to improve bone density and posture to less falls.</p>
<p>Phenylketonuria (PKU) Inability to metabolise the amino acid phenylalanine. Can lead to brain damage and seizures. Babies born with PKU may have heart problems, and low birth weight.</p>	<p>Babies born with PKU are healthy at birth. All babies are screened through blood tests for PKU. If treatment starts immediately and is followed people with PKU can lead normal lives.</p>	<p>No cure. Some babies may be born with PKU.</p>
<p>Sickle cell anaemia Genetic mutation that prevents the production of haemoglobin, used to transport oxygen in the blood cells. Red blood cells die after only 10–12 days (usually live for 120 days), causing severe anaemia.</p>	<p>Anaemia (low levels of oxygen in the blood). Swelling of hands and feet due to circulation problems. Chest and vision problems due to blockages in the small blood vessels that supply the organs. Fatigue. Overproduction of bilirubin, which breaks down red blood cells, leading to the formation of gall stones.</p>	<p>Medication to manage symptoms. Transfusions where production of red blood cells is difficult.</p>
<p>Tay-Sachs disease Lack of a specific enzyme that causes fat build-up in the brain, destroying cells.</p>	<p>Muscle weakness and contractions. Loss of vision. Swelling of the brain.</p>	<p>Life-limiting. Symptoms appear between 6 months and 2 years of age. Medication to manage symptoms.</p>

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Chromosomal disorders occur when the number of chromosomes within the cells is added to. Many fetuses conceived with a chromosomal disorder do not make it, as they are aborted by the body. The most common chromosome disorder is Down's syndrome.

Chromosomal condition	Health and development indications
<p>Down's syndrome Caused by the presence of an extra chromosome (number 21)</p>	Children with Down's syndrome will have particular facial features. Many will have poor muscle tone, heart and vision problems and learning difficulties.
<p>Klinefelter syndrome Boys are born with an extra X chromosome.</p>	Infertility. Abnormal body proportions (short body and long legs). Sometimes have learning difficulties. Predisposition to breast cancer and autoimmune diseases.
<p>Turner syndrome Quite rare. Only affects girls. Girls are missing or only partly have the X chromosome. They will have a low hairline at the back of the head, a short, webbed neck, low-set ears, short stature and swollen hands and feet.</p>	Unable to have children. More susceptible to heart problems, low thyroid and diabetes.

There are many different conditions attached to gene mutations, some of which affect health or life expectancy. Additionally, scientists now believe that gene mutations (along with environmental factors) may cause cancers, cardiovascular disease and Type 2 diabetes.

Gene mutation condition	Health and development indications
<p>Achondroplasia Caused by a genetic mutation in a protein responsible for converting cartilage to bone</p>	Disproportionately short arms, fingers and legs. Large head and specific facial features. Weak muscle tone. May cause medical problems such as back pain and breathing problems. The condition does not affect brain development.
<p>Behçets disease A type of autoimmune disease caused by a genetic mutation that causes inflammation of the blood vessels – prevalent in certain communities in the Far and Middle East.</p>	Ulcers. Eye inflammation. Sensitive skin. Predisposition to stiff and swollen joints, blood clots and aneurisms. If diagnosed early, medication can alleviate symptoms.
<p>Cancer Abnormal cell growth causes tumours, which can spread to other parts of the body</p>	Depending on the cancer and age of the patient. Older patients, cancers tend to develop more slowly than in younger patients. Cancer can affect every organ in the body and red blood cell production. Causes weakness, tiredness and pain, depending on where the cancer is situated. Treatment can lead to hair loss and tiredness, affecting ability to work, take care of the family, etc.

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Mitochondrial myopathies or diseases are caused by mutations in the mitochondria. Mitochondria are present in every cell in the body and act as power plants converting glucose into energy. Different myopathies are connected to damage to different parts of the mitochondria. Mitochondrial diseases can only be passed on by a mother. A woman can carry defective mitochondria without symptoms and pass these on to her children. Due to the complexity and variation of mutations, they can affect one or several organs, and may develop later in life (in adulthood or adolescence), rather than be visible at birth.

In 2015, an amendment to the 2008 Human Fertilisation and Embryology Act was passed, allowing the use of the genetic material from three people (father, mother and another woman) to create an embryo. This is done if the mother is known to have defective mitochondria. The genetic material from the father and the mutated genes from the mother are used to create an embryo before it is implanted in the mother. However, the mother is unaware that she is a carrier of the mutated genes.

Some conditions caused by mitochondrial genetic mutations, for which there is no cure, are listed in the table below.

Syndrome	Health and development indicators	Prognosis
Kearns–Sayre syndrome (KSS)	Vision problems, heart defects and involuntary muscle movements (ataxia). May also cause learning difficulties, and short stature. Onset around the early 20s.	Supportive care
Leber’s Hereditary Optic Neuropathy	Causes blindness in adolescence or early adulthood.	Supportive care
Leigh syndrome and maternally inherited Leigh syndrome (MILS)	Brain abnormalities, seizures, muscle weakness and developmental delay.	Symptomatic treatment
Mitochondrial DNA depletion syndrome (MDS)	Muscle weakness and ‘floppiness’. Feeding difficulties, liver failure and developmental delay. Starts in infancy.	Lifelong supportive care may be needed. Life expectancy is limited.
Pearson syndrome	Severe anaemia, pancreas, liver and kidney malfunction. Starts in infancy.	Can be fatal. Life expectancy is limited.

Scientists do not yet fully understand how some conditions and diseases develop. Some are caused by either genetic, biological or environmental causes. For example, Parkinson’s disease is caused by a lack of production of dopamine and causes nerves to perform abnormally, causing tremors in the body, is one such condition, and allergies such as asthma or Crohn’s disease are also caused by a combination of genetic and environmental factors.

Lifestyle factors or exposure to chemicals can affect certain genes, causing them to work differently. This is particularly true for some cancers, such as lung cancer or colon cancer. Genes responsible for reducing or fighting tumours are either destroyed or switched off by exposure to certain chemicals, such as nicotine. Research shows that some people are more susceptible to certain substances responsible for triggering cancer than others. For example, some people are more susceptible for women whose families have a predisposition to breast cancer and take preventative action while they are still healthy.

There may be a genetic link to other diseases which is not solely based on lifestyle factors. Certain people have a susceptibility to put on weight or have a low metabolic rate and thus, have a genetic background that predisposes them to develop cardiovascular disease.

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Conditions related to glandular malfunction:

Name of condition	Health and development indicators
<p>Addison's disease Failure of the adrenal gland.</p>	<p>Tiredness. Inability to cope with stressful situations or trauma (e.g. birth, loss of blood). Osteoporosis (side effect of medication).</p>
<p>Cushing's syndrome Caused by a tumour on the pituitary gland resulting in high levels of cortisol in the blood.</p>	<p>Weight gain around the torso, but weight loss from arms and legs. Easily bruised.</p>
<p>Diabetes Failure of the body to produce insulin responsible for processing sugar, etc. into energy in the body's cells. This is not the same as Type 2 diabetes.</p>	<p>Excessive thirst and weight loss. Blindness, poor circulation in feet and legs (may lead to amputation), kidney and heart failure.</p>
<p>Hyperthyroidism Overproduction by the thyroid gland.</p>	<p>Too much calcium in the blood as it has not been absorbed by the body to support bone mass and development, causing osteoporosis.</p>
<p>Hypothyroidism Underproduction by the thyroid gland.</p>	<p>Weight gain. Eye problems. Low metabolism. Chronic tiredness.</p>

Growth and development may also be affected by biological factors, which will affect biological factors can be caused by the mother's lifestyle choices, or poor access to a safe place to live, which expose her to greater risk of infection, disease or stress and

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Some biological factors that can affect growth and impact on health outcomes

Name of condition	Caused by	Health and development indicators
Cerebral palsy 	Multiple causes, including: oxygen starvation, flu at birth; infection at or premature birth; twins or multiple births; infection during pregnancy and low birth weight.	Affects coordination and muscle tone, often causing a person to make unintended movements or have rigid muscles. Some individuals may have learning difficulties.
Chicken pox	Infection.	Learning difficulties and limb deformities if contracted during the first trimester.
Foetal Alcohol syndrome	Excessive intake of alcohol during pregnancy.	Affects brain and organ development. Babies born with characteristic facial features, developmental delay and learning disabilities.
Malnutrition	Lack of a nutritious diet either before or during pregnancy.	Low birth weight or premature birth. Susceptibility to bacterial and viral infections.
Neonatal Abstinence syndrome 	Intake of and addiction to drugs during pregnancy.	Dependent upon severity of exposure, may affect social and emotional, cognitive and motor development.
Rubella (German measles)	Infection.	Deafness, eye problems, heart defects and possible learning difficulties.
Zika virus (from the bite of mosquitoes in certain countries, such as Brazil)	Infection.	Microcephaly (baby is born with a small head and small brain). Developmental delay, hearing, sight and feeding problems. May be life-threatening depending on severity.

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B2 Revision questions

1. What is the difference between a chromosome and a gene?
2. Create a Punnett square to show the birth outcomes for two parents. One parent has a double recessive genotype and the other is a carrier.
3. What does the term 'congenital defect' mean?
4. What factors can cause congenital defects?
5. What is the difference between a genetic disorder and a genetic mutation? Give an example.
6. What causes Down's syndrome?
7. What are mitochondria, and what are some of the diseases associated with them?
8. What are Addison's disease and diabetes caused by?
9. What biological factors can affect a baby in the womb?



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B3: Environmental factors affect growth and development

Many factors within the environment can affect growth and development, both pre- and postnatal. These factors can occur anywhere, and affect all sectors of society, although it is more often families on lower incomes that are affected by them. Environmental factors can cause illness, temporary or chronic disability and depression, which can lead to missed schooling, time off work or job loss. Individuals who miss too much school may struggle to pass exams, which affects their job prospects later and choice of where to live. This may lead to issues with self-esteem, struggles with poverty or other problems, leading to social isolation and alienation.

Envi
grow



Pollution

There are many different types of pollution and they can all have a greater or less effect on growth. Pollution causes allergy, illness and disability, affecting the air we breathe. The effects of pollution on health can lead to premature death, poor school attendance and families that remain in a particular house or area, displacing families and communities.

Airborne pollution: This affects many cities around the world and is often seen as smog, or a layer of dirty air that settles over an area. Smog can be particularly prevalent in the winter when cold air pushes downwards and prevents the escape of exhaust fumes, smoke from wood-burning coal fires, etc. (known as inversion). The smog layer will be full of particulates, which are mixtures of dust or chemicals such as arsenic, mercury and sulphur oxides. Particulates are so small that the body's normal defence mechanisms are unable to remove them and they embed themselves deep within organs and are unable to sneeze or cough them out as they are so small.

Scientists link this to an increase in allergies, asthma, other respiratory diseases and cardiovascular disease. The particulates do not remain only in the lungs, but are carried in the blood vessels to other organs, causing inflammation and damage along the way. Our bodies react to them by producing an allergic reaction, such as coughing, skin rash, running nose and in the worst case, anaphylactic shock, which can be fatal.

Families where parents smoke are more likely to suffer from allergies and respiratory diseases. Asthma, a chronic disease that causes airways to constrict and can be fatal, is increasingly common. Sudden, frightening and debilitating, requiring hospitalisation, and dependency on medication. Children suffering from asthma may miss a lot of school and find it difficult to catch up. Adults can be off work for so long they lose their job. The medication used to treat asthma can have side effects such as drowsiness and stunted physical growth in children and young adults.

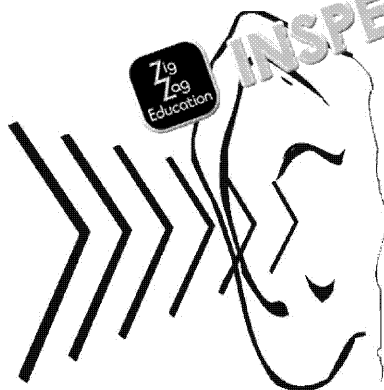
Water pollution: In the Western world clean drinking water is considered normal, but not the case in many other parts of the world. However, even in developed countries water can become polluted due to poor farming practices, industrial pollution of waterways, breakdown in sewage treatment facilities, or building on contaminated land. Waterborne diseases such as cholera, typhoid, giardiasis (caused by a parasite), hepatitis A and dysentery are a cause of fatality throughout the world, according to the World Health Organisation. These conditions which may be made worse by the difficulty some families may face in accessing clean water. Water pollution is caused by a natural disaster or war. Babies, young children, those suffering from chronic conditions and the elderly can be badly affected by the effects of drinking contaminated water, leading to hospitalisation and long-term medication. If the body becomes weakened by prolonged illness or diarrhoea, it is more likely to contract other infections, some of which may be fatal.

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Soil pollution: Often this is linked to water pollution as contaminants leach through levels and end up in the water table. If water is not sufficiently filtered and cleaned before being used as drinking water or for food preparation, then people will be affected. Soil pollution affects how crops grow. They may appear to grow perfectly but the contaminants will be taken up into the plants, which are then consumed by people. Exposure to heavy metals such as lead and mercury can lead to liver or kidney damage in children and adults, or cause congenital birth defects. Alternatively, crops may fail, affecting the income of the family, leading to stress, poverty and unwanted changes in lifestyle if the farm is no longer viable.



Noise pollution: Exposure to unwanted levels of noise, when trying to relax or sleep, can trigger high cortisol levels in both children and adults. High levels of cortisol in babies can affect attachment bonds to parents and caregivers. Noise can also affect health, and may cause headaches, anxiety, and can affect the immune system. Noise pollution may also affect sleep. According to research, infants and children grow up with longer periods of non-REM (Rapid Eye Movement) sleep when high hormones are secreted. Studies have also shown that children deprived of sleep are prone to becoming obese, possibly due to poor secretion or metabolism.

Lack of sleep can impact on our concentration levels at school or work, affecting our decision-making. People who are chronically stressed often find it difficult to focus, leading to stress within the family, and inappropriate parenting. Adults who are poorly rested may find it more difficult to provide an appropriate emotional response to their children, or job, or learn a new skill.

Physically, high noise levels can permanently damage the inner ear, causing hearing loss. This is often caused by work-related noise, for example, on a building site, or through listening to music on headphones for long periods. Deafness is a disability that affects communication, and can limit opportunities for education and employment.

Light pollution: Artificial light pollution is an increasing problem as it affects the circadian rhythm (our natural biological rhythms of sleeping and waking) in both animals and humans. Scientists have found that the blue light emitted by mobile phones, computer screens, clocks and certain types of light bulbs, can negatively affect our production of melatonin. Melatonin is a hormone produced by the pineal gland, located in the brain. Production is triggered by darkness and causes us to feel sleepy, while natural light inhibits melatonin production, and melatonin levels in the body are hardly noticeable during the day. Disrupting the circadian rhythm can stress the body, making us tired and irritable, and possibly triggering autoimmune disorders or even gene mutations.

In the winter, some people suffer from SAD (Seasonal Affective Disorder) triggered by a lack of natural light. This is a particular problem in countries where the sun may not be seen for several weeks, but may also affect people in the UK. People suffering from SAD often feel depressed, and are prone to illness. Light therapy, using lamps which recreate natural light, helps alleviate symptoms and supports the immune system.

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Substandard living conditions

Substandard housing, temporary housing and homelessness affect individuals and families in multiple ways. Although there appears to be no 'standard' for what constitutes substandard housing, the Department for Work and Pensions (DWP) in the UK defines acceptable conditions as 'homes that are warm and weatherproof with reasonably modern facilities'.

Poor housing

- health
- self-esteem
- education
- poverty

Houses which are substandard are often cold and damp. This is an ideal environment for the proliferation of dust mites, both of which can trigger allergies, respiratory and adolescent asthma. There may also be a further link between mould and cardiovascular health is affected. Children may miss a lot of school due to illness or find it difficult to do homework, limiting cognitive development, and limiting job choices later on in life. Cold, damp conditions are also a breeding ground for cockroaches, which are also associated with allergies such as asthma and disease. Substandard housing is also prone to rat or mouse infestation.

In late adulthood it is likely that we feel the cold more than when we were younger. Reasons for this include, for example, reasons, such as health (medication for heart problems thins the blood), thinning of subcutaneous fat, or because elderly people move around more slowly than younger people. Living in substandard housing, where poor insulation means that heating rooms is both difficult and expensive. In adulthood, perceived or true poverty living on a pension may mean that difficult choices have to be made between buying nutritious food or paying for heating, not both. Hypothermia occurs when the body temperature falls below 35°C, which causes confusion, loss of mobility and unconsciousness. Older people living by themselves are more at risk due to a fall or accident that leaves them unable to move, get help, or keep themselves warm. Severe hypothermia occurs when the body temperature falls below 28°C (or 82°F or 37°C). Prolonged exposure to cold and hypothermia can affect organs and cause death. It is more limited to older people, as babies and children can be affected too.

Substandard housing can also affect levels of self-worth and self-esteem. It is difficult to live in your home if the conditions are awful, limiting the simple pleasures of socialising and going to school because of where they are living and parents will feel guilty that they are unable to provide the best care for to their children's surroundings.

Temporary accommodation may not be substandard, but often there are problems. A young parent family with two young children will often be assigned a room in a hostel or a small flat with no bathroom or cooking facilities. The stress caused by lack of space and privacy can lead to mental health issues, which can lead to substance dependency and abuse, crime and other problems. Children will have no safe space to play, or quiet place to do homework. Temporary accommodation means families have to move frequently, and may not be able to stay in the same area, which affects their schooling and the parents' ability to find and keep a job.

Substandard living conditions will affect anyone who becomes homeless. Homelessness affects people of all walks of life and all ages. The reasons a person becomes homeless are many and varied, including job loss, arguments with family or partner, mental health issues, substance dependency issues, and domestic violence, etc. People living on the street are more likely to suffer from violence, have multiple health problems, and will die at a younger age than is usual in our society (around 47 years of age compared to 77 for the homeless in the UK). Homelessness affects our ability to register for school, to access services from social services and other agencies, due to the lack of a permanent address. As a result, people are often isolated and unable to access the services that they are entitled to and need.

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Insecure environments

Insecure environments will affect the health, physical development and mental well-being of children and families, particularly as they are often linked to poverty, homelessness, mental health issues. Individuals and families who are in temporary accommodation or homeless and living in an insecure environment that is more likely to be unsafe, cold, damp and dilapidated. Insecure environments include areas where there is drug and alcohol abuse, at home or in the community, where a child or one of their parents is subjected to physical, psychological or sexual abuse.



Children living in areas with high traffic density limit when they play and develop physically, this will impact their ability to achieve gross and fine motor milestones. Children in these areas and schools may find that they provide them with the opportunity to learn how to kick a ball or ride a bicycle. Children living in these areas at home, school and the wider community (Bronfenbrenner's Systems theory) influences all areas of learning (cognitive and personal, social and emotional) and development. Adolescents who have no access to youth services are more likely to join gangs and engage in risky behavior.

Insecure environments will also affect health, especially if a family struggles with addiction. Children who grow up seeing others struggling with addiction. Such environments can trigger feelings of fear, anxiety and depression as parents struggle to keep both themselves and their children safe. Children who experience physical or sexual abuse, either against other family members or in public areas. Children who are exposed to violence at an early age may come to see it as a normal way of dealing with people and problems (e.g. aggression, experimentation), and find it difficult to adjust in other social arenas such as school. This can lead to educational difficulties and learning (perhaps having to repeat a year) which can lead to exclusion.

Children living in environments where they are exposed to abuse, or with adults who have a history of abuse as children, are less likely to succeed at school or have good relationships later in life. Abuse of all kinds leads to poor self-esteem and feelings of worthlessness. Victims of abuse often self-harm or attempt suicide, and this affects future adult relationships.

Access to healthcare

This is an issue for many families living in poverty where some parts of healthcare are not covered or have to be paid for. In the UK, free healthcare is available for those who are deemed to be in need, but visitors or failed asylum seekers have to pay for treatment. Families who can afford private healthcare can avoid long waiting lists and have the option of different treatments through the NHS. Some health trusts do not offer medication or operations that are available in other trusts, leading to a 'postcode lottery' as to what you are entitled to receive, which can affect the effectiveness of treatments, especially with life-limiting or chronic diseases such as cancer or asthma.

Some health trusts and services in the UK are under such pressure that they are unable to provide checks as recommended by the Department of Health; for example prenatal and well-woman checks. Babies born to mothers who were unable to access prenatal support may have low birth weight or other conditions as a result of poor nutrition or the mother's lifestyle choices during pregnancy. Low birth weight babies are more susceptible to infection and illness during their first year of life. Once born, developmental milestones may be missed if the baby is not visited by a health professional, or does not attend a clinic regularly during the first three years of an infant's life. Congenital defects, conditions or illnesses may not be diagnosed or treated for the same reason. Poverty or difficulties in access may mean the family is unable to access specialist support such as speech and language therapy.

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Families might be registered at a surgery or clinic, but may find it difficult to get to. Patients with a disability (for example, wheelchair users) may be prevented from attending due to a lack of lifts or ramps, or are physically unable to get on a bus. Those who work, and those who see a doctor for what they consider is a minor ailment, may only get an appointment when it is necessitating more expensive and long-term treatment. Opening hours may also be inconvenient for follow-up appointments. Actually getting an appointment within a reasonable time is a challenge in areas of dense population, due to pressure on health services.

How we interact with the healthcare system and healthcare professionals can also affect growth and development. Studies have found that children and adolescents who are obliged to stay in hospital, without proper emotional care and support, are susceptible to depression, low self-esteem, and are missing out on education and social stimulation. Families may also suffer feelings of guilt, powerlessness and anxiety.

Families who do not have English as their main language may have difficulty in accessing services, do not understand how the system works, or the information they receive. Certain groups of people are only entitled to emergency care, which may not address deeper issues, particularly for those who have lost a loved one. If issues are not addressed, they may cause mental health problems later in life, and may not be able to access a new and secure environment.

War, famine, social disorder (strikes and riots) or natural disasters can put immense pressure on healthcare systems, and they can offer and how they can be accessed, affecting treatment outcomes and long-term health.

B3 Revision questions

1. What types of environmental factor can affect growth and development?
2. How can air pollution affect development?
3. What situations might cause water to become polluted or contaminated?
4. How can noise pollution affect growth and development?
5. Why is noise pollution a problem for growth and cognitive development?
6. How does light pollution affect growth and development?
7. What is melatonin?
8. How can substandard living conditions affect growth and development?
9. What is an insecure environment, and how might it affect growth and development?
10. What issues might affect a person's ability to access healthcare?

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B4: How social factors affect growth and development

Various social factors can influence how people interact with others and how life affects personal growth and development. Our social status can be defined by our ethnic background, income, where we live, relationships, social class, education and age. As Bronfenbrenner's theory shows, there is a multitude of different systems and subsystems that influence the child and their family throughout life.

Family dysfunction

Family relationships are key to emotionally anchoring the child securely and supporting cognitive, communication and physical development. Families that experience divorce, separation or bereavement may struggle because of the emotional strain that this loss and trauma causes. These changes can lead to a loss in status, changes to lifestyle and income, house and school moves and loss of friends and family. Negative emotions such as jealousy, sibling rivalry and arguments can tear families apart, or, if tackled positively, bring them closer together. Loss, trauma and bullying will affect how we view personal relationships and affect our levels of self-esteem, both at the time and in the future. Children and adults who have experienced any of this may resort to violence, bullying or other forms of abuse to retrieve some form of self-worth or control in their lives. Family relationships are also affected by parenting styles, as shown in the table, as they create interactions and relationships between child and parent that will have a long-term effect on relationships.

How the social effects growth and development

Authoritarian	In...
Authoritative	Res...
Permissive	Ma...
Uninvolved	Un...

Mental health and other health issues, such as postnatal depression, can also affect cognitive development. Mary Ainsworth's Strange Situation test showed that children who are not attached had difficulty in exploring a new environment full of toys and interacting with them. High levels of cortisol are seen in babies who are not nurtured, leading to the health and stress. Disability of any kind may lead to a family being socially excluded and becoming dependent on charity. Poverty, limited access to transportation and services or dependence upon charity can also affect cognitive development.

Bullying

Although bullying can happen at any time during our lives in any relationship, many people experience bullying, either at school or in peer groups, as they develop their own psychosocial development. The social effects of bullying can have a negative impact on development and lifestyle choices as it lowers levels of self-esteem. There are many types of bullying including cyber bullying (through social media), physical bullying and psychological bullying. Adolescents who are bullied feel ostracised, isolated, misunderstood, afraid and alone. This can lead them to engage in risky behaviours such as violence, self-harm or suicide. The bullying affects self-esteem, which are raised in the power that bullying gives them. These social effects can be passed on to children as children become adults and parents.

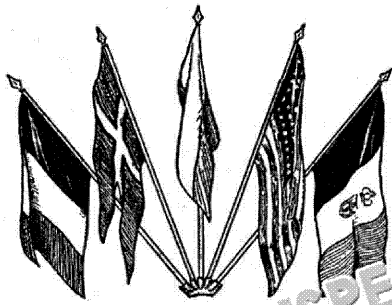
If bullying at school becomes too severe, parents may feel obliged to find a new school for the child not only has to cope with a new set of friends and teachers, but also with a different point in the curriculum, which may have implications for education results. Bullying in the workplace is also an issue for both men and women. It can affect job performance and depression. It can also affect possibilities for promotion, with others being promoted over them. Income and status.

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How culture, religion and beliefs affect growth



Throughout history, culture, religion and beliefs are raised and educated, and what is expected of their lives. For example, some cultures and religions have a particular style of clothing, or some families believe in their own room from birth. In other cultures children remain at home with the children rather than in a nursery. Many second- and third-generation immigrants face challenges and difficulties, caught between their family's cultural traditions and those of their

How we interact with each other is also culturally led. By the age of five, most children will apply sex-stereotyping to jobs, activities or characteristics that are similar to adult ideas of stereotypes (Katz, 1983). As a generalisation, boys are expected to be more confident, aggressive and assertive, whereas girls are expected to be more caring, quieter and emotionally 'in tune' with others. Some cultures find it more difficult to accept a woman in a position of authority. Members of the LGBT community may also face cultural and social ostracism, bullying and violence because of the way they lead their lives.

Studies carried out by Marjorie Goodwin (1994), concerning peer-to-peer interactions between African-American children and Caucasian American children, showed that when playing hopscotch, the African-American girls were more likely to ignore the rules being kept (e.g. not step on the line) through dramatic gestures and what we might think of as 'blame' put on the child who made the mistake, whereas the Caucasian American girls let the mistake pass, which Goodwin believed showed a 'lack of accountability' or 'excuses'.

Religious and personal beliefs can also affect growth and development because of their understanding. Schools may find that some children are not allowed to take part in activities as it is contrary to the family's beliefs. Jehovah's Witnesses will not allow anyone to have a blood transfusion, even if this would save a life. Females from certain ethnic or religious groups may not be examined or treated by a male doctor and avoid treatment because there is no female doctor. In some areas, swimming pools operate ladies nights, in order to allow Muslim and other women to swim without having men present, as otherwise they would not access that form of health and leisure.

Social and cultural ideas can also affect our diet and nutrition. Many people become vegetarian (no fish or meat) or vegan (no animal products, including fish, eggs, honey, etc.). These diets affect the balance of proteins, vitamins and carbohydrates they are eating, leading to weaker bones or a compromised immune system. A balanced diet is vital for physical development in childhood, adolescence and early adulthood.

Cultural and social environments also influence lifestyle choices, including food, exercise, use of alcohol, smoking and sexual activity. People who eat a diet high in fats and sugars will be more likely to suffer from obesity, hypertension, cardiovascular disease and Type 2 diabetes. People who do not exercise are more likely to develop osteoporosis, osteoarthritis, and cancers, such as colon cancer. Smoking is strongly linked to lung cancer, cirrhosis of the liver, stomach and bowel cancers and hardening of the arteries (atherosclerosis). Drug abuse is linked to mental health problems such as psychosis and depression. People who use drugs will have circulation problems causing ulceration or amputation of limbs. Sex without partners or without taking precautions is likely to result in becoming infected with sexually transmitted infections such as gonorrhoea or HIV. Exercise of all kinds is recommended for people of all ages. It improves heart health, improves bone density and promotes a general feeling of well-being.

FGM (female genital mutilation) is a cultural practice where women choose to have part of their genitalia removed. In the UK, it is called female genital mutilation. In Indonesia, it is called *kebon* and involves removing the inner and outer labia minora and the vulva so a woman cannot menstruate. In some cultures, girls as young as five years old are subjected to FGM, which can lead to infections, pain, and difficulty with intercourse. In some families, it is seen as a rite of passage and some families send their daughters to other countries where it can be done to their advantage.

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Older members of ethnic minority families may find it difficult to learn English. Visiting is as much a sociocultural tool as showing someone how to do something. Without communication tools such as signing, it is difficult to understand and assimilate new needs. Families who have not yet mastered the language of the country they are living in, may be out on, or be unable to access, local social institutions such as playgroups, schools, and health services. They receive help and assistance to which they are entitled. This isolation makes them more vulnerable to the consequences of poverty, such as loan sharks, poor diet and poor standard housing. These are cultural standards that are not reflected in this society. For example, regarding parents' role to support their children's learning and development.



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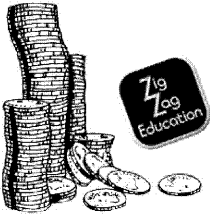
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B5: How economic factors affect growth and development

Income, expenditure and employment status

The links between the health and wealth of a population for a country are many and complex. The World Health Organisation publishes annual statistics on world health which highlight the differences between rich and poor countries. For example, according to WHO figures from 2015, there are 239 maternal deaths per 100,000 live births in low- and middle-income countries, versus 10 in developed countries. However, disparities occur within areas. Figures from the Office for National Statistics (2012–2014), however, are persistently lower in some areas of northern England and Scotland.



The health education of a population is relative to the economic status of a country. Governments use taxes to inform the population of healthy life choices (and the consequences of poor choices) through services and benefits in many different ways, such as advertising, leaflets and information campaigns, health centres, websites, drink-driving or anti-smoking campaigns, etc.

Adults and children from poorer families have poorer health generally, will miss more work through illness, and have lower attainment outcomes at school (DWP: State of the nation report on welfare dependency in the UK, 2010). Living in poor or overcrowded conditions – substandard housing – increases the risk of infectious diseases and chronic conditions. In the UK people are more likely to die from non-infectious diseases related to lifestyle factors such as cardiovascular disease and complications from diabetes.

Poverty is a subjective issue, relative to the economic status of the average population. Families in poverty face difficult choices every day, which may not be life-threatening but impact on the health of children, nursing mothers and the elderly. Providing nutritious food is difficult with little money left after rent, utility and other bills are paid each week. People who are cold and hungry are unable to concentrate, feel tired and may be disruptive and difficult to manage. Poor nutrition (for the mother) is the main factor in low birth weight babies. Low birth weight babies are more prone to infections, and slower to achieve growth and developmental milestones, especially in the first year after the baby is born. Poor nutrition and diet is also a factor in diseases and complications such as, for example, Type 2 diabetes.

Poverty is a major issue for the government, as it means they receive less tax income and are paying out more in social support and services. Poverty affects individuals and families. Lack of money affecting the family's status, the type of housing they live in and the level of education which is not free. Poverty and money worries will affect relationships within the family. A loss of status, due to job loss or change in other circumstances, can affect mental health, creating feelings of anger and envy, or leading to depression and feelings of helplessness. These are some of the main reasons for divorce and separation.

Families in low-income jobs often do not have permanent contracts or guaranteed hours, and they receive no sick pay or pension. Stress and anxiety, resulting from financial worries, can affect family relationships, as well as putting pressure on the main earner. Long hours are often required, even if they impact on family life. Families with higher incomes can afford to have one partner stay at home to raise the family, the type of childcare they can afford, and the level of education for their children.

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The effects of education on growth and development

Statistics show that the better educated a nation is, the higher the average income. In the UK the Office for National Statistics (2013) shows that, in general, an employee earns more over their lifetime than those who join the workforce with only GCSEs.

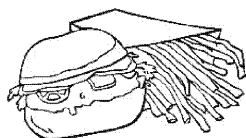
An educated workforce is more likely to be more efficient and productive, and open to innovation and change. This will lead to greater productivity, and higher incomes, which may lead to the introduction of new technologies and again improve productivity. Industries and companies are looking for a place to invest and increase production facilities. They are likely to consider areas that have a well-educated workforce.

The quality of education offered increases as a country's economy improves, and schools, pay teachers' salaries, improve teacher training and offer free education. Schools that provide well-funded Early Childhood Education (ECE) tend to have a better educational outcome. The early years are recognised as a time when children are developing skills at a rapid rate (communication and social and emotional skills). Children at this age need innovative learning environments, as well as educated caregivers and teachers to make the most of this time.

Schools, for all age groups, not only teach cognitive skills but also provide a foundation for life skills such as honesty, perseverance, reliability, problem-solving and independence. These skills bring different social benefits to the community. Some cultures value certain skills more than others; for example, Western cultures value independence and individuality, while Eastern cultures value conformity and reliability.

The higher the level of education within a community, the lower the birth rate as women are more likely to have a child, because they wish to establish a career or improve their economic status, or because they choose to have a child, the child is more likely to be born healthy, and survive infancy. Parents who have a high level of education are more likely to receive support and resources for their children, and go into further education of some kind. Families who have higher income are more likely to pay for the education of their children, either in entirety or through extra tuition. Education offers a better chance for them to succeed later in life. In the UK at present (2017) higher education (college or university) is not funded by the state, which means students have to take family help to cover tuition and living costs.

The effects of lifestyle on growth and development



Lifestyle relates to how we choose to live our lives. It will be influenced by religious, social and cultural norms, income, family and personal choices. Some of these 'choices' are not ours to make or have an influence on, such as those made by poverty, or are religious or culturally based, e.g. diet or gender.

An unhealthy lifestyle will impact on growth and development in many ways. A poor diet high in fats and sugars will predispose a person to obesity, high blood pressure and cholesterol, cardiovascular disease and other related illnesses, including cancers and diabetes. Diets that are low in certain nutrients – for example, iron (causing anaemia) or protein for strong bones – will also affect healthy growth and development.

Studies have shown that better-quality school meals have a positive effect on student concentration and attainment levels in class, and cognitive development in general. Malnourishment can make an individual more vulnerable to stress. During adolescence, body image concerns, combined with low self-confidence and feelings of self-worth, can lead to ultimately anorexia or bulimia. The diet of many adolescents and young adults is high in processed food and based around processed food, rather than fresh fruit and vegetables.

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A lack of exercise can also lead to weight gain and also affect the strength of bones. Osteoporosis in late adulthood. Many elderly people are affected by osteoporosis broken hips, legs and arms, which impacts on their ability to continue to live at home. Those who have led an active life, exercising regularly, tend to have better health prospects.

The impact on health through the use of drugs, including tobacco and alcohol, is usually long-term, and can be lifelong, and life-limiting even if use is occasional, or only happens over a short period. Illnesses associated with their use or addiction include lung cancer, liver cancer, psychosis, Parkinson's disease, and impact on relationships at home and at work. Any long-term illness will affect job prospects, income and the ability to live the life you want.

Some lifestyle choices associated with engaging in risky behaviours, such as not wearing seatbelts, drinking and driving, sex or taking part in extreme sports. Becoming pregnant, or facing a life-changing event, such as a divorce, can be a trigger for depression and feelings of guilt. A life-changing injury may be physical, such as a brain injury, loss of hearing or vision or an injury that leaves you wheelchair-bound. Even a lesser degree, affect feelings of self-worth as well as the ability to do certain things. Emotional issues, such as feelings of isolation and exclusion, anger and depression, especially if health and mobility are affected.

The effects of where we live on growth and development

The location of our homes can have a major impact on growth and development, including access to health and education services, associated with pollution, isolation in rural areas, length of time to get to a hospital or clinic, access to health and education services, etc.

Inner cities: In inner cities and even out into the suburbs, the quality of the air can be poor. Particulate density from cars, lorries and collective traffic increases the closer you are to main roads and motorways. Air pollution impacts on health by aggravating respiratory disease, asthma and other allergies. Where air pollution is high, children may not be encouraged to go out to play, or may not have a safe place to play, affecting gross physical development such as running or riding a bicycle, and social skills. Also, although medical help may appear to be close by, traffic congestion can sometimes negatively affect the length of time it takes to reach a hospital or clinic in an emergency.

Areas of growth and development where we live:

- **Physical development:** access to health and education services in general and access to clubs and groups
- **Cognitive development:** access to education, Internet, and other resources
- **Social and emotional development:** access to clubs and groups, and different types of environments

Suburbs and smaller towns and villages: These too may have hot spots where air pollution is high. However, there is more likely to be a safe place for children to play and develop. Communities may be more cohesive than in inner cities, where housing mobility and social interactions may be more positive, with families and individuals involved in schools and community groups.

Rural areas and farms: Although these areas may seem to provide plenty of health and education services, they are also areas of work. Accidents involving farm machinery, ponds and slurry can be fatal or cause life-changing injury. Depending upon how isolated the rural area is, access to health and education services may be difficult. Children may not meet other people, which may affect their social and emotional development.

Substandard housing: As we have already seen, substandard housing can affect health and development. Overcrowding and poor ventilation can create dangerous environments. Substandard housing is often occupied by people who may struggle with day-to-day responsibilities such as paying the bills and keeping the house clean. Children, who may struggle at school due to lack of support at home, a place to do homework, and a place to come over to play. All family members will be affected by the environment, which may be depressed, helpless and isolated, with nowhere to turn to for support.

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B6: Major life events that affect development

Predictable and unpredictable events

Major life events can happen at any time during our lives. Some are predictable, some are unpredictable. Some you can hedge against, others you just have to take as they come.

Predictable life event	Unpredictable life event
Pregnancy and birth	Chronic illness (physical or mental)
Marriage	Separation and divorce
Getting into school or university	Sudden death of a loved one
Leaving home	Personal accident
Moving house	Being fired from a job
Starting employment	Hospitalisation
Getting a promotion	Seeing or experiencing a traumatic event
Giving a speech	War and social conflict
Getting engaged	Disability (due to accident, illness or ageing)
Retirement	Abuse (physical, sexual, mental)
	Sudden change of circumstances

Predictable life events may not happen to everyone, but they are considered to be normal events that do not come as a surprise when they happen. This does not necessarily mean that we cope with them any better than other events. Unpredictable life events are events that happen suddenly, with little or no warning, although the signs may have been there for a while (e.g. separation and divorce or chronic illness). Both predictable and unpredictable events can be stressful as they involve change, and change leads to stress. Some people respond well to stress, while others do not. How we respond is also relative to our age, life experience and support we receive. The impact of an event as the time of life at which the event occurs, how the change impacts on any responsibilities, mental health at the time, and whether you are in control of what is happening or the event is happening to other people. Your own perception, will also affect your response and ability to cope.

Children and adolescents often show the effects of stress through their behaviour. They may become aggressive or withdrawn, destructive or overly compliant, or have trouble eating and sleeping. Adults may internalise their feelings. On the surface everything will appear to be fine, but otherwise the person will be struggling to deal with what is happening.

Predictable and unpredictable life events can be stressful. Stress can be both a positive and negative driving force in growth and development. Too much stress can demotivate a person, making them mentally and physically unwell. The stress, for example, caused by a family member or a loved one can impact on future relationships, or cause a mental breakdown. Stress causes an increase in the production of cortisol (associated with the 'fight or flight' reaction). If cortisol levels remain high for extended periods of time it can impact on a person's health, behaviour and relationships with others.

The positive and negative effects of experiencing unpredictable life events on growth and development.

Positive	Negative
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Motivates Enhances social and emotional skills, supporting others Brings people together Enhanced self-worth Positively challenges coping skills Positively challenges self-concept 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Demotivates Reduces social and emotional skills, supporting others Drives people apart Reduced self-worth Negatively challenges coping skills Negatively challenges self-concept

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Children who experience an unstable home life will be exposed to more stress than can be due to economic factors (parents losing a job), family break-up (divorce and separation), changes in childcare or school arrangements, or moving house. All will have some kind of

Stress can be a factor in early years and school environments for many children. For example, a child who is 'moved up' into different age group rooms at the age of 18 months, or change setting from day nursery to school nursery at the age of three or four years, or school, they may well have experienced five or six different settings in their early years: minder, baby room, toddler room, preschool, primary or nursery, reception class and so on. Each transition has a different set of adults and different rules and expectations, which, depending on the child, can affect confidence, learning and the attachment of the child to carers.

Children who have to move school, particularly in the middle of an academic year, face challenges relating to changes in curriculum and teaching staff, friendships and social support, and a negative effect on ideas of self-worth and self-concept as well as cognitive development. A University study (Singh et al., 2014) have discovered that frequently changing schools in the later years, especially adolescence. The study discovered a 60% increase in psychological symptoms, such as hallucinations and delusions in adolescents who had moved around a lot during their school years. The study recommended that schools should be more aware of the background of new students and provide support to help them integrate more quickly.

Stress is also associated with various medical conditions, such as irritable bowel syndrome (IBS) or chronic fatigue syndrome (CFS or ME) and fibromyalgia. These conditions are often difficult to treat and affect individuals in many different ways. Those who suffer with chronic stress-related conditions often experience difficulty in holding down a job, taking part in social gatherings or studying and taking on new tasks. Traumatic events may also trigger mental health issues, such as depression, or a fear of

How our lives develop is linked to many different local and cultural aspects, which are influenced due to the effects of globalisation, patterns of immigration and migration and the influence of social media. Traditional ideas of what is a predictable or unpredictable life event are changing and what eventually become

Holmes–Rahe stress model

The Holmes–Rahe stress model has been developed to show how certain stressors affect an individual, predisposing them to developing illness. Two models have been developed for children. In order to work out how stressed you are, look at each event. If you have experienced that event in a year, tick 'yes'. Add up the points (if you have experienced the same event multiple times, tick that event). The number of points you score will show whether you are at risk of developing an illness. 300 points is high risk, 150–299 points is medium risk and below 150 is low risk.

The theory does not take into account that some people may have greater emotional resilience compared to others, or that cultural factors may influence how different people experience stress. It was developed through supportive and loving family and social relationships, as well as a supportive community and work environment.

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Adult life change unit	Rating	Child life change unit
Death of a spouse	100	Death of a parent
Divorce	73	Unplanned pregnancy/abortion
Marital separation	65	Getting married
Death of a close family member	63	Divorce of parents
Imprisonment	62	Acquiring a visible deformity
Personal injury or illness	55	Fathering a child
Marriage	50	Incarceration of parent
Losing a job	47	Marital separation of parent
Marital reconciliation	45	Death of a brother or sister
Retirement	45	Change in acceptance by family
Change in health of family member	44	Unplanned pregnancy of parent
Pregnancy	40	Discovery of being an adoptive parent
Business readjustment	39	Marriage of parent to step-parent
Gain a new family member	39	Death of a close friend
Sexual difficulties	39	Having a visible congenital defect
Change in financial state	38	Serious illness requiring hospitalisation
Death of a close friend	37	Failure of a grade in school
Change to different line of work	36	Not making an extracurricular activity
Change in frequency of arguments	35	Hospitalisation of a parent
Major mortgage	32	Jail sentence of parent
Foreclosure of mortgage or loan	30	Breaking up with boyfriend/girlfriend
Change in responsibilities at work	23	Beginning to date
Child leaving home	23	Suspension from school
Trouble with in-laws	29	Becoming involved with a new partner
Outstanding personal debt	28	Birth of a brother or sister
Beginning a new school	26	Increase in arguments between siblings
Spouse starts/stops work	26	Loss of job by parent
Change in living conditions	25	Outstanding personal debt
Revision of personal habits	24	Change in parent's financial situation
Trouble with boss	23	Accepted at college of choice
Change in residence	20	Being a senior in high school
Change in schools	20	Hospitalisation of a sibling
Change in working hours or conditions	20	Increased absence of parent
Change in church activities	19	Brother or sister leaving home
Change in recreation	19	Addition of third adult to family
Change in social activities	18	Becoming a fully fledged adult
Minor mortgage or loan	17	Increase in arguments between siblings
Change in sleeping habits	17	Decrease in arguments between siblings
Change in eating habits	15	Mother or father beginning to date
Change in number of family members	15	
Vacation	13	
Major holiday	12	
Minor violation of law	11	

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The Holmes–Rahe theory links to the stress–diathesis model, which hypothesises when a person is exposed to different stressors. The stressors may be psychological or physical. Certain cancers, autoimmune diseases and mental health problems have a relationship of stress factors and predisposition to illness.

How can we manage change and foster resilience, so that we continue to live positively? The existence of a strong and supportive social network is crucial to alleviating the consequences of stress and promoting positive emotional well-being. A lack of family or social network can lead to depression and poor life choices. A healthy diet and daily exercise are also important in managing the consequences of stress and the impact of negative life events.

B4–B6 Review Questions

1. What social factors affect growth and development?
2. How does culture affect growth and development?
3. How do economic factors affect growth and development?
4. What are the effects of education on growth and development?
5. What would be considered as unhealthy lifestyle choices?
6. How does the environment where we live affect physical, cognitive and emotional development?
7. What types of event can be considered predictable and unpredictable?
8. What factors may affect your reaction to the stress of change?
9. What does the Holmes–Rahe scale measure?
10. What factors affect mental health?
11. What factors influence becoming independent?

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C1: The physical changes of a

From middle to late adulthood, the effects of ageing on our minds and bodies become more apparent. Deterioration occurs both internally and externally, and affects all parts of the body. Some of the effects of this deterioration may lead to an individual developing certain conditions or diseases which may affect their quality of life and life expectancy. Other effects of ageing, such as hair loss and wrinkles have no particular effect on health at all, but they may affect our self-image and feelings of self-esteem.

Primary body ages cartilage

Secondary due to dis misuse of

Cardiovascular disease (CVD)

Cardiovascular disease is an umbrella term for several conditions that affect the heart and blood vessels. The main diseases associated with CVD are:

- atherosclerosis – build-up of fatty deposits (atheroma) in the arteries supplying the heart muscle, which may be caused by high cholesterol levels, smoking, diabetes or obesity
- angina – a dull ache or pain in the torso, arms or stomach caused by atheroma blocking the arteries that carry oxygen-rich blood to the heart muscle
- myocardial infarction (heart attack) – caused by pieces of atheroma breaking off and blocking the supply of blood to the heart muscle
- arrhythmia (irregular heart beat) – this can be slow (bradycardia), fast (tachycardia) or irregular and may be due to inherited genetic or physical problems, such as blockages in the heart
- heart valve disease – affecting the flow of blood through the heart

Stroke is similar to CVD, but affects the brain instead of the heart. Stroke is caused by blockages in the blood supply to the brain (ischaemic strokes) or burst blood vessels in the brain (haemorrhagic strokes) which cause damage to brain cells and function. Many older people suffer mini-strokes or transient ischaemic attacks (TIAs). TIAs occur because the blood supply to the brain is temporarily blocked and damage is usually minor and short-term.

Signs of a stroke

- F** Facial weakness – one side of the face droops and their mouth is slanted
- A** Arm weakness – one arm is weaker than the other
- S** Speech problems – slurred speech and understanding
- T** Time – Call 999 immediately if you notice any of these symptoms

Both stroke and CVD can be caused by the same factors, many of which are associated with lifestyle choices. The health effects of CVD are shortness of breath, pain in the chest, upper abdomen, back, neck, jaw and throat, fainting attacks, weakness, coldness and sweating. It can be treated with improvements to lifestyle, medication, and surgery to clear blocked arteries or replace faulty valves. Sometimes, a pacemaker is fitted to regulate the heartbeat. Heart attacks are not always fatal, but will weaken the heart and increase the likelihood of future heart attacks or strokes. Strokes happen without warning and the damage caused to the brain can lead to paralysis, aphasia (difficulty in speaking), confusion and dementia. Both CVD and stroke can affect the mental health of the patient, making them depressed and afraid to stress their body in any way in case it happens again.

Factors that underlie CVD and stroke:

- high cholesterol
- diet high in fat and sugar
- smoking
- high alcohol intake
- obesity
- insulin resistance
- high blood pressure or narrowing of arteries
- lack of exercise
- family history
- ethnicity (statistically, African and Caribbean people have a higher incidence of CVD)

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CVD is the number one cause of death in the UK, causing over a quarter of all deaths for those living in areas of high deprivation and poverty (British Heart Foundation). However, death from CVD has halved since the 1960s, which means that people are no longer with the effects of CVD than before. This places greater strain on health care.

Degeneration of nervous tissue

Degenerative diseases of nerves and nervous tissue can affect individuals at all stages of life. The cause of each disease is unknown. The most common of these diseases are: multiple sclerosis, Bell's palsy, myalgic encephalomyelitis (ME) and Parkinson's disease. In addition, some chronic pain associated with autoimmune diseases such as polymyalgia rheumatica and fibromyalgia, and conditions such as sciatica.

Condition and description	Effect on growth and development
<p>Multiple sclerosis Chronic disease of the nervous system where the myelin sheaths of the nerves are gradually destroyed. Cause unknown.</p>	Affects individuals in late childhood to middle adulthood. MS has many symptoms, including muscle weakness, fatigue, loss of balance, vision impairment, spasms and stiffness. MS affects the quality of life and is not life-limiting or fatal.
<p>Bell's palsy Paralysis of the facial nerve on one side of the face. Cause unknown.</p>	The paralysis affects the ability to close one eye and causes one side of the face to droop.
<p>Motor neurone disease (MND) Chronic, progressive disease that affects nerves in the brain and spinal cord. Cause unknown although one form of MND, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, has genetic roots.</p>	MND causes weakness and muscle wasting which affect the way you walk, breathe, eat etc. Often life-limiting. Affects individuals in middle to late adulthood.
<p>Myalgic encephalomyelitis (ME) or chronic fatigue syndrome (CFS) Chronic fatigue which may disappear, or reoccur. May be triggered after a viral infection. Cause unknown.</p>	Affects individuals of all ages. Causes chronic fatigue, inability to concentrate, digestion problems, poor memory and disturbed sleep patterns. ME is not life-limiting, but can be life-changing if symptoms affect relationships, study at school, or keeping a job.
<p>Parkinson's disease Chronic progressive neurological condition caused by the death of nerve cells that produce dopamine. Cause unknown.</p>	Parkinson's disease mostly affects people over 60. It causes tremor, rigidity of movement, tendency to stoop and walk with a shuffling gait, and problems with speaking (aphasia) and swallowing (dysphagia).
<p>Fibromyalgia Condition where the central nervous system becomes oversensitive to sensory stimuli.</p>	Affects people of any age, but generally occurs in women over the age of 50. Causes pain and stiffness throughout the body, fatigue, weakness, trouble sleeping, and irritable bowel syndrome.

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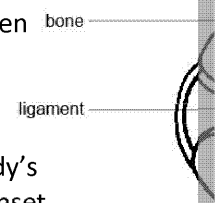
Condition and description	Effect on growth and development
<p>Polymyalgia rheumatica Inflammatory autoimmune condition that affects the muscles and nerves in the neck, shoulders, arms and hips</p>	<p>Can affect people over the age of 50, but more usual in people over the age of 65. Pain and stiffness in affected areas often at the beginning of the day. Flu-like symptoms and weight loss.</p>
<p>Sciatica Pain in the back and legs caused by irritation to or compression of the sciatic nerve</p>	<p>Sciatica can occur at any age, but is common in older people due to physiological changes causing degeneration or slipping of the discs between the vertebrae in the lower back.</p>



Osteoarthritis

Osteoarthritis is a degenerative condition caused by wear and tear to the cartilage between the joints. Cartilage is essential to movement, as it cushions the space between the bones of the joint, preventing them from grating and grinding against each other. If the cartilage is damaged or worn down, friction between the bones will occur, causing inflammation and pain.

Simpl



Rheumatoid arthritis is different to osteoarthritis and is an autoimmune disease where the immune system attacks the body's joints. Rheumatoid arthritis can occur at any stage of life and onset can be swift, whereas osteoarthritis is age-related, occurring in middle to late adulthood, and is a condition that evolves slowly. Both types of arthritis cause pain, inflammation and stiffness in the joints.

Individuals suffering from osteoarthritis can take anti-inflammatory medication or affected joints to alleviate symptoms. Operations to replace hip and knee joints and in the hands can be debilitating as it compromises the strength of grip, making it difficult to tap or chop up food. Osteoarthritis in the feet, knees and hips can make walking and the ability of a person to socialise, go shopping or drive a car.



Degeneration of the sense organs

The ageing process is unique to every individual, but after the age of around 70, we experience deterioration in one or more of our senses. We have seven senses, sight, taste, smell, touch, hearing, balance and proprioceptive (body positioning and motion). The deterioration can be affected by medication, smoking, alcohol, obesity and illnesses associated with Alzheimer's.

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Sight

Presbyopia: This is the inability to focus on nearby objects, and is the most common age-related sight condition. It means you become more long-sighted. This is easily remedied by glasses.

Macular degeneration: The macular is a small area in the eye that controls our central vision, i.e. what we see when we look straight ahead. For some unknown reason, macular function can become impaired, affecting how we see faces, colours and our ability to read. There is no known cure. Macular degeneration may be inherited by some families. Macular degeneration affects only central and not peripheral vision, so a person suffering from this will not become completely blind.

Cataracts: These occur when the lens of the eye becomes opaque, which prevents light striking the back of the eye and producing an image. Vision will become increasingly cloudy as the cataract thickens. Cataract operations to replace the lens with a plastic one are quite common and successful. The cause of cataracts is unknown, but may be genetically linked. Individuals suffering from diabetes, taking certain medication or who smoke are more likely to contract cataracts in later years.

Glaucoma: This is a condition that can lead to blindness. It occurs because a blockage between the cornea and the lens, preventing the watery fluid in the eye from draining. This will increase the pressure in the eye which will damage the optic nerve. Glaucoma is more likely to affect people with a genetic link. Once diagnosed, treatment consists of eye drops, other medication or surgery to reduce the pressure.

Taste

Our sense of taste is inextricably linked to our sense of smell. Although the tongue can only recognise sweet, salty, bitter, and sour tastes. Taste is enhanced by the sense of smell. Food aromas enter the nose, which hit sensory and receptor cells in the nose. The brain then allows us to enjoy the aroma and taste as one sense.

Our sense of taste, however, decreases as we age due to the deterioration and loss of olfactory receptors in the nose. This can affect our enjoyment of food, meaning we either eat less, or eat more to enhance whatever flavour we can taste. Too much salt or sugar in the diet can lead to health conditions, such as diabetes or cardiovascular disease. Many older people lose their sense of taste and lose weight, becoming frail and ill.

Smell

As mentioned above, our sense of smell will deteriorate as we age, as the body's olfactory receptors as they die. Partial loss of the sense of smell is called hyposmia, and complete loss is called anosmia. Factors that are related to a loss in our sense of smell include:

- smoking
- use of some medication (e.g. for asthma)
- chronic rhinitis, sinusitis or colds (especially if treated with nose sprays containing steroids)
- radiation and chemotherapy
- degenerative conditions that affect the brain, such as Alzheimer's, Parkinson's disease
- nasal polyps (growings in the nasal lining and sinuses linked to infection or allergies)

Complete loss of your sense of smell means that you can no longer taste food so you may not know if your food has gone off, or that there is too much salt or sugar in it. It also means that you are more likely to drink dangerous liquids such as bleach which otherwise look like water.

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Touch

Changes in the skin's elasticity and density will affect our sense of touch as we age the body and through the sense of touch it feels cold, heat, pain and contact. Receptors in the skin find it more difficult to judge pressure, vibration and spatial location. This is even more pronounced in the feet, which may explain why elderly people have balance problems, as the nerve stimuli in the feet are not working well enough to provide information it needs for the vestibular and proprioceptive senses.

However, research also shows that texture recognition tends to remain stable throughout life. To hit the right buttons on a remote control, or turn the radio on without looking at it, and pressure sensors and receptors can be affected by medication and medical conditions (Tremblay and Gosselin, 2015) 'Touch in aging').

Hearing

Hearing is a complex process involving tiny hair cells in the inner ear converting sound waves taken by the auditory nerve to the brain. These hair cells do not regenerate, so if they are lost, hearing loss will be permanent. Hearing can be damaged by exposure to loud noise; for example, from headphones or machinery. Also, as we age changes in cell elasticity or deterioration of the inner ear may play a role. Certain medical conditions and medication, genetic hearing loss may play a role in hearing loss. Some people suffer from tinnitus, a ringing or buzzing in the ears that can come and go or become a chronic problem. There is, at present, no cure for tinnitus. Loss of hearing can make it difficult to understand other people and social situations and cause us to miss important information, which is frustrating and isolating. Hearing aids or cochlear implants may help some people.

Vestibular (balance) and proprioceptive (body positioning and movement) senses

These two senses are closely linked. Balance is located in the inner ear, and relies on detecting stimuli from rotational and linear movement to inform our muscles about what our body is doing to stay upright. The proprioceptive sense relies on our understanding of which parts of the body are in contact with the ground, for example, a hand reaching out to hold a shopping handle. Inner ear infections, muscle weakness, injuries, intake of alcohol and some medication can affect both of these senses, leading to dizziness and loss of balance.

Poor nutrition

Ageing, as discussed above, can affect the senses of taste and smell, making food less appealing. Problems with missing teeth, brittle teeth and dentures may cause difficulty for some people to eat the type of food they can eat. As our body ages, the efficacy of the gut to absorb nutrients decreases as well. Elderly people may also have restricted incomes and pensions, which may not afford to buy, or they are less able to get to the shops to buy fresh and nutritious food, affecting their health and type of food eaten. Processed foods, such as ready meals, usually contain preservatives, are cooked from fresh ingredients, and may be high in salt, sugar and fat. Frailty, especially in women, can lower the body's ability to resist and fight infection, or recover from an operation.

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Dementia and Alzheimer's disease

Dementia is an umbrella term for a number of progressive, chronic brain conditions for which there is no cure. It will affect one in 14 people over the age of 65, and affects women more than men. Early onset dementia is a condition which affects people between the ages of 40 and 65 and tends to occur in families where a parent or grandparent also developed the condition at an earlier age.

There are different kinds of dementia, including Alzheimer's, all of which are caused by damage to neurons and neural pathways in the brain, sometimes caused by the build-up of proteins. The symptoms vary, depending on the type of dementia condition and the extent of the damage.

- memory loss
- confusion
- difficulty organising and planning
- forgetfulness
- difficulty in finding the right word
- difficulty in managing simple daily tasks
- loss of independence
- inability to sleep
- changes in mood
- depression and low mood
- frustration and anger

As the dementia condition progresses, patients may lose the ability to speak, move, think or recognise family and loved ones.

The four main dementia conditions

Alzheimer's disease: named after Alois Alzheimer, who discovered the condition in 1906, it is a degenerative, life-limiting disease and is the most common form of dementia. It is caused by the build-up of amyloid plaques and neurofibrillary tangles in the brain, which lead to protein build-ups in the brain and may be inherited. Alzheimer's disease affects most people over 65, but early onset Alzheimer's can affect people as young as 45. There are no known causes for Alzheimer's but there may also be links to genetic factors, head injuries (e.g. car crash or boxing) and lifestyle factors such as smoking and cardiovascular disease. The prognosis of 6–12 years is usual once Alzheimer's is diagnosed. Medication and cognitive stimulation therapy to stimulate the brain may delay degeneration, but the progression cannot be stopped. Care should be swift, regular and specialist care.

Vascular dementia: caused by a reduced flow of blood to the brain which hastens degeneration. A reduced flow can be caused by narrowing of blood vessels in the brain, a major stroke or a series of smaller strokes which means that vascular dementia can occur either suddenly or over a period of months. Symptoms of strokes can lead to dementia symptoms, such as aphasia (difficulty speaking) and motor symptoms such as muscle weakness or paralysis on one side of the body. Vascular dementia is closely linked to conditions such as diabetes, being overweight, smoking and cardiovascular disease.

Alzheimer's disease and vascular dementia often occur simultaneously.

Dementia with Lewy bodies: Lewy bodies are small, round clumps of protein that are found in the brains of people suffering from Parkinson's disease), causing damage to and death of neurons. As yet, there is no known way of preventing or curing this condition. Adults with dementia with Lewy bodies may experience many of the symptoms common for dementia sufferers, such as tremors (similar to Parkinson's), memory loss, unsteadiness, periods of extreme alertness and drowsiness, hallucinations and trouble sleeping.

Frontotemporal dementia: caused by a build-up of proteins in the frontal and temporal lobes of the brain. This part of the brain is associated with language, behaviour and the ability to plan. People with this condition usually suffer memory loss, but they will exhibit differences in behaviour. They may become socially inappropriate, cold and unsympathetic, impulsive or doing things they would not normally do, such as overeating. There is no cure or treatment for the condition, although medication can help to manage some of the symptoms. Due to the behavioural changes, people with this condition often require specialist care.

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Effects of age-related illnesses on general health:

- Weakened immune system
- Prone to more infections
- Unable to recover from simple viral or bacterial infections
- Difficulty in swallowing, leading to dehydration or poor nutrition
- Loss of appetite
- Inability to exercise
- Decrease in bone density (osteoporosis)
- Muscular weakness leading to poor grip and balance
- Loss of vision
- Loss of hearing
- Combination of symptoms may lead to misdiagnosis and wrong treatment
- Communication problems
- Mental degeneration
- Depression caused by isolation, loneliness and low self-esteem
- General slowing down in comprehension, mental agility, organization and

According to Age UK, 40% of people over 65 in 2017 suffer from a life-limiting or disabling condition. However, due to improvements in healthcare, medication and general overall health (including better diet and exercise), it is estimated that people will live longer than they would otherwise have done 50 years ago. This places a significant demand on healthcare and social services and institutions.



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C1 Revision questions

1. What is the difference between primary ageing and secondary ageing?
2. What is atherosclerosis, and which other heart problems is it connected to?
3. What is the difference between ischaemic stroke, haemorrhagic stroke and transient ischaemic attacks (TIAs)?
4. What factors are involved in a person's predisposition to CVD and stroke?
5. What health effects are associated with CVD?
6. What is the difference between the degenerative nervous system diseases multiple sclerosis (MS), motor neurone disease (MND) and myalgic encephalomyelitis/chronic fatigue syndrome (ME/CFS)?
7. At what stage of life might one get Parkinson's disease and what are its symptoms?
8. What is the difference between aphasia and dysphagia?
9. What is the difference between the causes of fibromyalgia and polymyalgia rheumatica?
10. What problems might a person with osteoarthritis face?
11. Is rheumatoid arthritis the same as osteoarthritis?
12. What are the most common sight-related degenerative conditions, and how might they be caused?
13. How can loss of taste affect quality of life?
14. What are anosmia and hyposmia, and how might they be caused?
15. Does olfaction change much as we get older?
16. What is vertigo?
17. What is the proprioceptive sense?
18. What factors can affect the vestibular and proprioceptive senses?
19. Why might some elderly people suffer from poor nutrition?
20. What are the four main types of dementia?
21. What is the prognosis for someone diagnosed with Alzheimer's disease?
22. What are the general symptoms of dementia?
23. What is Alzheimer's disease?

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C2: The psychological changes of ageing

However hard we try to keep fit and healthy our bodies will age and this can have psychological well-being. The realisation that we are gradually losing our independence that previously would have been taken for granted, or suddenly finding it difficult to cope with social changes, can affect us in many ways.

Self-esteem and self-confidence

Self-esteem and self-confidence are linked to our idea of self-image and how positive we feel about ourselves. Throughout our lives we tend to have lower levels of self-esteem than men, and as we reach old age this tends to decrease. The physical effects of ageing – for example, hair loss, weight gain and loss of strength – can negatively affect this self-image and feelings of self-worth. Through age-related illness or disability also affects our self-esteem, which may also be affected by personal worries. A study by Age UK in 2004 estimated that 40% of people in residential care had depression. Levels of self-esteem, however, tend to remain stable for those who are better educated, have good health and a strong social network (and post retirement), are better educated, have good health and a strong social network.

According to recent research (Orth et al., 2010) the process of retirement can have a negative impact on self-esteem. No longer having to go to work, be involved in important decisions or take part in social activities can make a person feel they are no longer important and contributing to society. Changes in financial circumstances may mean a person has to change their normal lifestyle or otherwise change the way in which they live, which is neither what they wanted nor what they expected. Self-esteem may also be affected by the realisation that you have not achieved what you wanted and now it is too late.

Social change

Throughout our lives we will experience many social changes, which can have either a positive or negative impact on our situation at the time. Retirement, chronic illness of a partner or house move (or a combination of these) in late adulthood. A person may also be experiencing depression or low self-esteem as a result of these changes the person is experiencing with ageing.

Retirement and chronic illness of a partner may lead to a need for a person to learn new skills, such as how to cook or clean a house, or helping a partner shower or use the bathroom. These role changes can be stressful and difficult, at a time of life when learning new skills or coping with change may feel particularly daunting. Loneliness can become a particular problem for people in late adulthood as their social network shrinks, and they are less able to take part in daily life due to illness, transport problems or frailty. Many will end up living on their own, trapped and isolated in their own homes. Loneliness is linked to premature death, dementia and self-neglect.

Financial concerns

Living on a pension may cause worry and concern as it is usually much less than a salary. Food and utilities will very likely remain a problem. The government may provide extra payments, but not all elderly people will claim these, either because they are unaware of them or find it difficult to apply for them. It is estimated that around 14% of pensioners are in poverty (as 60% of normal income). Couples are usually better off than single people. Many worry about their money and their ability to pay food, utility, car and other bills. They also worry about not being able to afford to live in their own homes, before poverty or age-related frailty or illness means they have to move to a care home or other type of sheltered accommodation, which is expensive.

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Effects of culture, religion and beliefs

In late adulthood, the strength of social networks is important to the maintenance of well-being. Those who have a strong cultural or religious background and social in accept the consequences of ageing, as they feel respected, loved and cared for with cultures, it is usual for three generations to live in the same house and share diffe

Successful ageing: what the gerontologists say

With ageing comes deterioration in physical, psychological or mental, which and enjoy life. However, the question of what actually constitutes successful ageing is to social context and cultural expectations. How does one define the term 'successful expected on a successful pensioner? Three general theories on ageing have been Social Disengagement theory, Activity theory and the Continuity theory of ageing.

Social Disengagement theory

Elaine Cumming and William Henry's book *Growing Old*, published in 1961, put forward old there is an unwritten contract that expects older people to disengage from social responsibilities. This two-way process, whereby we deliberately disengage ourselves from interactions, is something we do in preparation, ultimately, for our death. They argue that the result of social and emotional development, where we regress to a state of dependence. The loss of our physical independence, due to physical and physiological changes, leads to different things and lowers feelings of self-esteem which leaves us less inclined to interact, including close family and friends. Unsuccessful disengagement occurs when we do not disengage with society in the way we did before we reached late adulthood.

The book was written in the early 1960s and is based on the cultural norms and gender roles of the time, such as that the man goes out to work and the woman stays at home, which do not necessarily tend to be shorter, age-related health issues were more disabling and work was more valued. Cumming and Henry believed that social disengagement differed according to gender and was socially disengaged due to the social changes experienced when they retired, and that success and health were dependent on it. They also saw social disengagement as something that both parties wanted, and that disengagement would not take place if one party insisted on continuing to interact.

Once society, i.e. families, friends or less personal social networks, had decided to 'disengage', then that person would become isolated and no longer considered as useful, successful or relevant to the needs of society. It is a harsh theory, which Cumming and Henry believe happens in all societies but varies according to different cultures, and is necessary to the process of an individual's acceptance of the inevitability of death.

Factors that might affect engagement in or disengagement from society

- cultural expectations
- health
- financial status
- environment they are in
- personal circumstances
- dependent children
- social network

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Activity theory

The educationalist Robert J Havighurst (1900–1991) proposed that successful ageing is continuing to be an active participant in life. This could be through social clubs and taking part in family life, for example, looking after grandchildren. His theory built on the idea that feelings of self-worth and self-esteem were necessary to allow a healthy continuation of life in the face of general physical and mental decline. Activity theory would suggest that adults who remain active feel more successful and are less affected by major life changes such as retirement or even the death of friends and loved ones.

Activity theory, though, is based on the idea that an adult is able and willing to take part in activities, and is capable of learning new skills in order to take part. Not all have the ability to do so, and some may have chronic conditions such as diabetes or cardiovascular disease severe enough to prevent them from engaging in; for example, playing bowls, dancing or playing bingo. Statistics from the Survey 2015–2016 show an increase year on year in the number of people over the age of 65 doing informal and formal voluntary work.

Continuity theory of ageing

Continuity theory does not consider late adulthood to be a separate part of life, but rather a continuation of everything that has gone on before. People who successfully embrace the life changes of old age are those who continue to enjoy the personal lifestyle, habits, relationships and preferences of their earlier adulthood. As such, they have the coping skills necessary to be able to adapt to changes in their lives and have the confidence to forward plan within comfortable parameters. Ageing does not represent a break with a previous life.

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C3: The effects on society of an ageing population

Health provision for the aged

Considering that statistics show that one in three girls and one in four boys born in 2011 will reach the age of 100 (ageuk.org), government and local councils are seeking solutions to what is the best way to support an ageing population. Generally, there is a focus on ensuring that individuals retain their independence and quality of life for as long as possible. In addition, there are several charities and social institutions that work to provide different services for older people to ensure that they can stay in their homes. These services are often more cost-effective than residential care homes, and allow older people to remain in their local communities close to friends, neighbours and family, surrounded by their personal belongings and memories.

Some of the different types of assistance that older people can draw upon should they need it include:

- various needs assessments to assess what services or help a person might need in the home, e.g. having their shopping done for them, a handle on the wall in the bathroom or a stair lift installed
- meals on wheels – provides warm cooked meals for people who are housebound themselves or are unable to cook for themselves and are at risk of malnutrition
- Befriending – operated by many different local groups, befrienders will visit a person twice a week to chat
- Day Centres – offer a range of different activities
- home-help support – offering help and support in the home; for example, with shopping
- telecare – personal alarms and monitoring services
- residential care homes – providing 24-hour personal care and meals
- convalescence home or rehabilitation centre, where a person can recover after hospitalisation, receive support and help at home and receive appropriate therapy and treatment
- sheltered accommodation – residential area where owners have their own private flats, but a manager oversees the entire development, ensuring residents are keeping well. Often includes communal areas and social activities.
- winter fuel payments
- free bus travel

Not everyone is able to live independently after the age of 65. A range of factors can influence successful ageing well lifestyles:

- income
- health
- disability
- mental health
- isolation in later life
- substandard housing
- poor nutrition
- poor education
- abuse
- trauma and stress
- substance dependence
- cultural and language differences
- communication skills (e.g. English as a second language)

Economic effects of an ageing population

According to the Office for National Statistics, life expectancy in the UK has continued to rise. In 1901 it was only 45 years for men and 49 years for women, yet now according to 2015, life expectancy in the UK is 78.5 for men and 82.7 for women. In 1948, the proportion of the population died before the age of 65, which had fallen to just 7% of the population in 2015. In the UK population is increasing.

There are four main reasons accounting for this increase:

- better food supply and nutrition
- better access to medication, GP and hospital services
- better education improving health and lifestyle choices
- better hygiene and sanitation

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People are living longer, and the majority remain fairly healthy even if they suffer conditions. This is due to improvements in medication, treatments available, information and education about lifestyle choices. However, since people are in a social care system, from hospitals to home-care agencies, are having to take care of related conditions, disabilities and diseases, such as dementia, arthritis and cataracts more than ever before. These conditions may require specialist training and environmental changes, putting a strain on the NHS and public healthcare system in the UK.

According to the Age UK publication 'The Funding and Care of Older People in England', public spending in health and social care since 2005 has impacted on all areas of care in the UK. Fewer resources mean that only those with greatest need receive care, all even though they are entitled. This is particularly true for the elderly still living with problems in order to get appropriate support so they can maintain their independence. Additionally, more and more elderly people who are entitled to local-authority-funded care are asked to pay top-up fees, or employ their own private care providers and home care services are overwhelmed with requests from others and unable to provide the services.

The impact of reduced funding and higher numbers of elderly patients affects GP practices, accident and emergency departments and hospital waiting lists and bed availability. Elderly patients are likely to take up more time in accident and emergency departments while needs are more complex than appointments due to complexities of need (both physical and mental). A reduction in hospital convalescence and nursing home places, combined with increased demand, means that beds are free up as they have nowhere else to send recovering patients to (so-called 'bed blocking').

Not everyone over 65 who remains in good health wishes to retire, and many continue to work, paying tax to the state (although retirees are exempt from paying National Insurance). The state allows an employee to continue working for as long as they wish provided it does not affect the company in any way. Many grandparents are provided with private care services for their own care to work and thus pay taxes used to fund government spending. Others may do volunteer work for charities and private organisations in many different ways, allowing donations to be made to whatever the charity or organisation does.



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C2–C3 Revision questions

1. How can ageing affect our self-esteem?
2. What kinds of social changes might we experience in late adulthood?
3. How can financial concerns affect the quality of life in late adulthood?
4. How might culture or religion and beliefs affect the quality of life in late adulthood?
5. Which three theories seek to explain successful ageing?
6. What are the main premises of Social Disengagement theory?
7. What factors might influence how or if an individual disengages from society?
8. What is the main proposal behind Activity theory?
9. How does Continuity theory of ageing differ from Activity theory and Disengagement theory?
10. How does an ageing population affect society?
11. What factors might negatively influence ageing, and make it a less successful process for some people?
12. What was the life expectancy in the UK for men and women in 1901?
13. Why is life expectancy increasing?
14. What are the main economic challenges associated with an increasing ageing population?



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Glossary of Key or Unusual Terms

Key Terms

Anosmia	Complete loss of the sense of smell
Aphasia	Difficulties in speaking and understanding yourself and others
Atherosclerosis	The build-up of fatty deposits (atheroma) in the arteries
Behaviourist	Development is shaped by the environment (nurture)
Carcinogen	Substance responsible for triggering cancer
Cataracts	When the lens of the eye becomes opaque, affecting vision
Chromosome	A ribbon-like structure composed of many genes
Congenital	Any form of physical or metabolic anomaly that affects development from birth
CVD	Cardiovascular disease
Diathesis	Genetic or biological predisposition to illness or disease
Dysphagia	Difficulties in swallowing
Gene	Section of DNA which carries the code for a particular inherited trait
Glaucoma	Condition which can lead to blindness
Haemorrhagic stroke	Stroke caused by burst blood vessels in the brain
Holmes-Rahe scale	List of stressful life events, numbered according to their impact
Hyposmia	Partial loss of the sense of smell
Ischaemic stroke	Stroke caused by blockages in the blood supply to the brain
LMIC	Low- and lower-middle-income countries – World Bank classification
Macular degeneration	Impairment of the macula, affecting how we see fine detail
Maturation	Development occurs in a fixed sequence which is not influenced by the environment
ME	Multiple sclerosis
MND	Motor neurone disease
Nativist	Development is shaped by innate capabilities and is predetermined
Osteoarthritis	A degenerative condition caused by wear and tear to the joints
Osteoporosis	Brittle bone disease
Presbyopia	Inability to focus on nearby objects
Predisposition	Probability that you will have certain abilities or characteristics
Primary ageing	Changes that occur as the body ages, e.g. wrinkles, loss of hair, joints or grey hair
Punnett square	Probability chart to assess the probability of parents passing on a particular genetic trait
Resilience	The ability to cope with unexpected events and crises
Rheumatoid arthritis	Autoimmune disease where the immune system attacks the joints
Secondary ageing	Changes that occur due to disease, illness, chronic conditions or lifestyle
Siblings	Children who share at least one adoptive or biological parent
Stress	A negative emotional state making you feel unable to cope
Stressor	Any event or situation that causes stress
Tinnitus	Ringing or buzzing in the ears
Transient ischaemic attack (TIA)	Small stroke caused by temporary blockage in the blood supply to the brain

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Answers to Revision Questions

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A1: Physical development

1. What are the six different life stages and what ages are assigned to them?
 - Infancy 0–2
 - Early childhood 3–8
 - Adolescence 9–18
 - Early adulthood 19–40
 - Middle adulthood 46–65
 - Late adulthood 65 plus
2. Define growth.
 - Growth refers to physical and biological changes that affect the body. Physical proportion (increases in height and weight, changes in the size of body organs, etc.) and the maturation of the body (puberty and menopause).
3. Define development.
 - Development refers to how the body organises itself within the physical structure, how it acquires new skills and learn to apply them.
4. At what life stage do we reach our adult height?
 - Adolescence for girls (around 18), and early adulthood for boys (around 20)
5. What does 'centile' mean with regard to height and weight charts?
 - Centile means 100. If a child is at the 50th centile, then they are number 50 in a group of 100.
6. What is the difference between proximodistal and cephalocaudal development?
 - The axis along which development happens. Cephalocaudal is longitudinal from head to tail, proximal to distal is horizontal from the centre to the periphery, e.g. from shoulder to fingers.
7. What is a developmental milestone?
 - Developmental milestone: the age by which a child should have achieved a certain skill, such as walking, talking, or crawling
8. Provide examples of growth milestones for each life stage.
 - Infancy: 0–2 years
 - Doubling in weight by the end of the first year
 - Doubling in height by the end of the second year
 - Head circumference increases from around 14 inches (35 cm) to 19 inches
 - Fusing of the fontanelles by 18 months to two years
 - Brain reaches 80% of the size of an adult brain by 24 months
 - Strengthening of bones and muscles to support weight of body
 - Early childhood: 3–8 years
 - By three, will have all 20 primary teeth
 - Walk upstairs with alternating feet
 - Improved gross motor skills, e.g. hop, run, jump and kick a ball
 - Improved fine motor skills, e.g. cutting with scissors and writing
 - Adolescence: 9–18 years (puberty)
 - A time of rapid growth spurts
 - Pituitary gland secretes hormones that start physical and sexual changes in the body
 - In boys:
 - Production of testosterone, causing penis and testicles to grow
 - Production of sperm
 - Growth of facial, underarm and pubic hair
 - Voice drops
 - In girls:
 - Production of oestrogen in the ovaries, starting ovulation
 - Growth of underarm and pubic hair
 - Breasts develop
 - Hips broaden
 - Adult height achieved around the age of 18

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- Early adulthood: 19–45 years
 - reaches full physical maturity
 - boys reach their full adult height around the age of 20
 - pregnancy
 - perimenopause
 - neurons in the brain start to die off
- Middle adulthood: 46–65 years
 - signs of ageing (greying hair, losing hair, wrinkles)
 - presbyopia
 - hearing loss
 - drop in oestrogen levels – menopause
 - height
 - bone density
- Late adulthood: over 66 years
 - osteoporosis
 - deterioration in muscle strength
 - deterioration in hearing, vision, memory and problem-solving skills
 - deterioration in immune system

A2: Intellectual development across the life stages

1. Certain areas of the brain are associated with particular functions. Which area is associated with the following functions?
 - Cerebellum – posture, balance, coordination
 - Cerebrum – centre for higher learning, information processing and cognitive functions
 - Parietal lobe – proprioceptive movement, posture
 - Temporal lobe – hearing, memory, speech
 - Occipital lobe – vision
 - Frontal lobe – communication, problem-solving, reasoning, planning
 - Brainstem – heartbeat, breathing
2. What is a synaptic pathway and why is it important?
 - A gap (the synapse) between neurons that allows chemical messages to be sent from one neuron to another.
 - Repetition of the pathway establishes memory.
3. What are Piaget's four stages of learning and development, and at what age do they occur?
 - Sensorimotor (0–2), preoperational (2–7), concrete operational (7–11) and formal operational (11+)
4. What is object permanence, and when do infants understand this concept?
 - Object permanence is the ability to understand that something is there, even if it is not visible. It develops in children around the age of nine months.
5. What does Piaget's constructionist theory teach us about the term 'conservation', and when do children understand this concept?
 - Conservation is the ability to understand that something remains the same even if its appearance changes. Children in the concrete operational stage understand this concept.
6. In Piaget's theory, what does the word 'schema' mean?
 - A pattern of action and interaction that, through repetition, establishes an embodied knowledge.
7. What two words does Piaget use to describe the way our brain processes information?
 - Assimilation: using existing structures and schemata to incorporate new learning
 - Accommodation: modifying existing structures and schemata to incorporate new learning
8. What does LAD mean?
 - LAD stands for Language Acquisition Device. A theory developed by Noam Chomsky that suggests that humans all acquire the ability to learn language within the first years of life. The brain has a structure solely reserved for learning language.

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9. Explain what the letters ZPD mean and how this relates to Vygotsky's social-constructivism.
- ZPD is the Zone of Proximal Development. The ZPD is the area in which a child can learn with the help of more knowledgeable adults or peers. Once the knowledge with the child is able to apply that knowledge independently.
10. How many modes of thinking did Jerome Bruner identify in children, what are they and how do they differ?
- Bruner identified three modes of thinking: enactive, iconic and symbolic. In the enactive mode, we are physically engaged in doing a task. In the iconic mode, we are able to create a mental image of something. In the symbolic mode, which is first evident around the age of seven, thinking is not linked to direct experience.
11. How many types of memory have psychologists identified, and what are they?
- There are five main types of memory:
 - episodic – specific, personal memories, e.g. what I had for dinner last night
 - source – how we know about something related to time and place, e.g. where I bought a book
 - flashbulb – memory related to a specific, surprising moment, e.g. winning a prize
 - semantic – memory related to words and facts, e.g. different names of flowers
 - procedural – memory related to how things are done, e.g. changing a nappy
12. Why is dementia different from Alzheimer's disease?
- Dementia is a syndrome, which refers to a range of different symptoms that together form a condition. Alzheimer's is a chronic, progressive, life-limiting disease caused by a specific brain condition and has some symptoms similar to dementia.

A3: Emotional development across the life stages

1. Which hormone is associated with stress and toxic stress?
- Cortisol
2. What is toxic stress and how does it affect babies?
- Toxic stress occurs when the levels of cortisol remain high for a sustained period. It is caused by a lack of positive nurturing by parents or caregivers. Toxic stress affects brain development. Children who experience toxic stress will have stronger and loss will strengthen, rather than those associated with positive nurturing.
3. What does Bowlby call his theory on mother-child relationships, and what is the attachment theory?
- Attachment theory. Children enter the world biologically preprogrammed to form an attachment to a caregiver as part of an infant's basic survival mechanisms, on a level with the innate reflexes. The caregiver's response reinforces the need to stay close to the mother.
4. What are the four stages in Bowlby's theory?
- The pre-attachment phase, 0–3 months. Infants cry in order to draw the attention of the caregiver and the caregiver recognises. The soothing and caring reaction of the caregiver gives rise to a feeling of security.
 - The indiscriminate attachment phase, 3–7 months. Infants recognise they have a preference for the main caregiver.
 - The discriminate attachment phase, 7–9 months. Infants are strongly attached to the main caregiver and show emotional distress and anxiety when they are separated.
 - The multiple attachment phase, 9 months and over. Infants can have strong attachments to multiple caregivers.
5. Mary Ainsworth's research into attachment theory led her to devise the 'Strange Situation' experiment. What are the parts of the actual task?
- 1. Caregiver and infant are in the room where the experiment will take place.
 - 2. Caregiver and infant leave the room and are alone for a while.
 - 3. Caregiver and infant return to the room and joins the caregiver and infant.
 - 4. Caregiver leaves the room, leaving the infant alone with the stranger.
 - 5. Caregiver comes back and stranger leaves the room.
 - 6. Caregiver leaves the room so the child is completely alone.
 - 7. Stranger comes back into the room, so it is just the stranger and the infant.
 - 8. Caregiver comes back into the room and stranger leaves.

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6. What relationship types between parent or caregiver and infant did Mary Ainsworth task?
- Three main relationship types: secure, anxious-avoidant and anxious-resistant (
 - In secure relationships the child happily explores while the caregiver is the happy when they return. They avoid the stranger but will approach when
 - In anxious-avoidant relationships the child is not interested in the toys and caregiver leaves or returns. They also avoid the stranger.
 - In anxious-resistant or ambivalent relationships the child is unwilling to explore, distressed when the caregiver leaves. Upon return the child will move close to themselves to be cuddled or comforted. They show fear of the stranger.
 - Disorganised/disoriented (this category was added later and describes children who, when separated and room re-entered, they cry when the parent leaves and will have self-harmful behaviours or hit themselves. Such children have often experienced severe trauma)
7. What three main temperament characteristics did Thomas and Chess identify?
- Easy, slow and difficult to warm up
 - Easy babies generally adapt well, are happy, easy to soothe and feed and sleep well
 - Difficult babies are harder to settle and less happy, they cry more, sleep less
 - Slow to warm up babies do not show their emotions and take time to adapt, once they have adapted they are generally happy.
8. Name the two ways in which poverty can be measured.
- As a percentage (currently 60%) of median income or as a measure of deprivation (what a family can buy). Current UK Government uses the median income measure.
9. How is attachment affected by relationships?
- Some of the interactions in relationships that affect attachment are governed by
 - parenting style: authoritarian, authoritative, permissive, uninvolved
 - child's reaction to parenting style: conformity, non-conformity, rebellion, defiance (conforming while slamming doors, shrugging shoulders, negotiating, arguing, bargaining, e.g. either go out, or play Xbox, or accept a bribe, or accept a punishment (just do it anyway and risk the consequences), attacking parents physically)
 - temperament: difficult and slow to warm up – nine temperament traits (activity level, attention span, intensity, regularity, sensory threshold, approach/withdrawal, mood)
 - 'goodness of fit'
10. How is attachment affected by poverty, social exclusion, addiction and mental health?
- Poverty: absent or uninvolved parenting, guilt and stress at not being able to provide for children, crowded housing (no privacy, fear of neighbours/neighbourhood, damp, unheated, no safe space to play or feel secure)
 - Social exclusion: peripatetic lifestyle, mistrust of state institutions, adult level of care (social services will not visit), access to information about services, transport availability and cultural choices, unemployment and disability. Positive choice for certain independent lifestyle and culture
 - Addiction: psychological issues, e.g. aggression and paranoia, social exclusion and isolation on family caused by addiction (parenting, financial, housing), social and emotional issues (to drug addicts suffering withdrawal symptoms during first months)
 - Mental health: parenting issues and finding children's behaviour difficult or overwhelming, lack of access to appropriate help, children become the caregiver for the parent(s), stress and anxiety in early adulthood, children in care can be affected by effects of trauma on mental health (insecure attachment, families), unemployment and poverty
11. What is the difference between temperament and personality?
- Temperament is something we are born with, an innate biological trait providing the foundation for personality development.
 - Personality builds on temperament and is influenced by social, cultural and environmental factors. It is the canvas on which personality is painted.

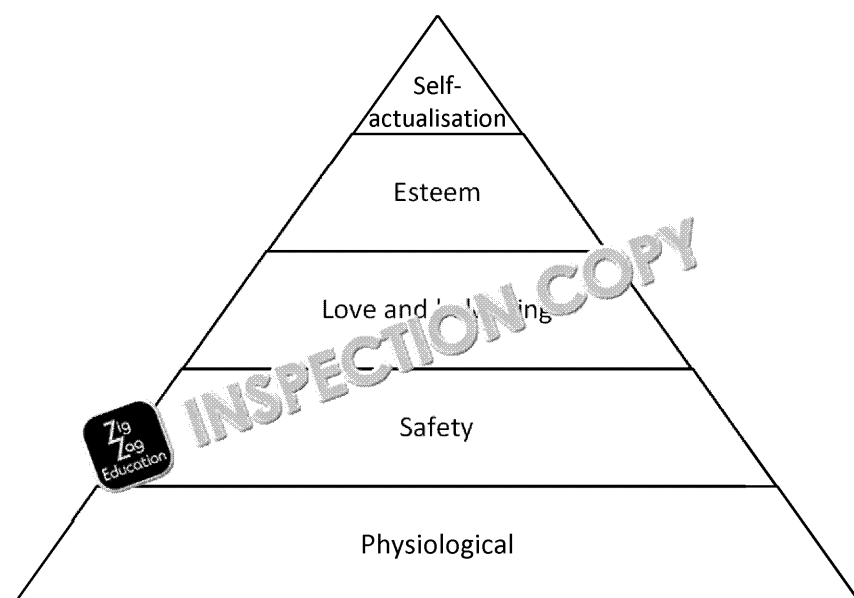
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12. How do Erikson's eight Stages of Psychosocial Development inform us about personality?
- At each stage we encounter a crisis that can have a positive or negative outcome on our relationships and interactions. How we react to each crisis and how we emerge from it are influenced by social influences, relationships and interactions. Each stage influences and can be influenced by whether or not we complete a stage successfully by resolving the crisis, the damage to our personality can be significant in our lives. The ages given to each stage are approximate, particularly during the transition periods. The crises of marriage, work, having children, etc. can happen across a wider time frame than the stage they are associated with.
13. What five core personality traits have been identified by psychologists?
- Openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, neuroticism, or OCEAN
14. 'Self-concept' is an umbrella term for what three things; what are they?
- Identity: is a personal idea of what we would like to be.
 - Self-image: is our actual self and how we define ourselves (by gender, work, relationships, etc.)
 - Self-esteem: is how positive we feel about ourselves. If we have high levels of self-esteem we are more optimistic and do not worry about what other people think.
15. How does self-concept begin in babies?
- Through imitation and initiating reactions (from animate and inanimate objects)
 - Through receiving love and affection that does not have to be earned from parents
16. What affects self-concept, particularly in early childhood, adolescence and early adulthood?
- The way you categorise yourself
 - Feedback from others
 - Self-attribution
 - Peer pressure
 - Wish to conform
 - Multiple identities
17. Charles Cooley's looking-glass theory has three parts; what are they?
- First, we imagine how we seem to others.
 - Second, we react in a way that we think mirrors that judgement.
 - Third, we use other people's judgements to revise our self-image.
18. What external factors can have an effect on self-esteem?
- Home and family environment
 - Education and environment
 - School
 - Mass media
 - Criticism and pejorative comments
 - Abuse
 - Life events
 - Attainment
 - Popularity
 - Disability and other factors
19. What are Piaget's stages of moral development?
- 0–4 Pre-moral: the child is egotistical, discovering the effect of their actions on others
 - 4–11 Moral realism: two stages: first (4–7 years) understanding the concept of right and wrong; second (7–11 years) understanding the concept of fairness and justice
 - 11+ Moral relativism: understanding that everyone cannot be treated in the same way
20. Why do Kohlberg's stages of moral development only start at the age of six?
- Before that age Kohlberg considered children to be amoral and unable to have a conscience
21. What are the different stages of moral development according to Kohlberg?
- Pre-conventional (6–13 years): subdivided into substage 1: Understanding punishment—avoiding doing something wrong; and substage 2: Understanding rewards and praise happens when you do the right thing
 - Conventional (13–20 years): subdivided into substage 3: Conformity—wish to please and substage 4: Keen to obey rules and do what is expected
 - Post-conventional (16–20+ years): subdivided into substage 5: Prepared to break the law if morally or legally 'wrong'; and substage 6: Possess strong morals, ethics and principles that are not dictated by society

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A4: Social development across the life stages

- Give as many reasons as you can think of for why play is important.
 - Provides sensory stimulation that supports the development of neural pathways
 - Provides the foundation blocks for fine and gross motor skills development
 - Provides an avenue for imagination and creativity
 - Allows you to engage with something repeatedly, fine-tuning skills and ensuring progressing to more complex tasks
 - Allows you to be curious, to think 'what if?'
 - Allows you to be inventive, developing problem-solving skills
 - Allows you to develop social skills including sharing, collaboration, cooperation and feelings of others
 - Requires an ability to communicate, prompting the development of language or other skills
 - Provides a basis for social interaction and the development of friendship and friendship skills
 - Provides a platform on which we can build skills in self-regulation, courtesy and respect
 - Allows children to develop an understanding of rules and how to share
 - Allows children to investigate difficult themes, such as death
- What are Mildred Parten's six stages of play?
 - Unoccupied: Children are not playing with anything or watching anyone.
 - Onlooker: Children watch each other play, and may interact socially, but do not play themselves.
 - Solitary: Children play by themselves with no input from others.
 - Parallel: Children play alongside each other, sometimes copying each other.
 - Associative: Children are playing together but their play is uncoordinated and they do not share.
 - Cooperative: Children interact and play together without adult support
- What do the following terms referring to play mean: free-flow play, structured play, adult-directed play and child-initiated play?
 - Free-flow play: sustained play where children are free to explore, select and use materials indoors and outdoors, as they like, without interference from adults
 - Structured play: play that has been organised or planned for by more knowledgeable adults
 - Adult-initiated play: play which may or may not be preplanned, but which is based on the interests and provision of appropriate resources or provocations that children can act on independently
 - Adult-directed play: play which may or may not be preplanned, but which is based on the interests and provision of appropriate resources or provocations that require guidance from an adult more than adult-initiated play
 - Child-initiated play: sustained play that has been initiated and continued by the children
- Draw and label a picture of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs.



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5. What are the social benefits of having a friendship group?
- Stay mentally healthy, motivating us to connect, do better or help others
 - Communicate ideas, needs, cultural beliefs and social values
 - Provide a support system, e.g. drug rehabilitation, new-born baby, bereavement
 - Promote a cause or express personal beliefs, whether as a protest or in a professional setting
 - Feel positive and happy (research shows that socially engaged adults age better)
 - Achieve goals such as weightloss or running a marathon
6. What can be the negative results of social interaction?
- Lower levels of self-esteem, especially if a person is ostracised from a group because of peer pressure)
 - Fear – fear of being left out, fear of being found out, fear of letting other people down
 - Anxiety and aggression – often a defensive reaction linked to fear
 - Bullying, intimidation and violence – carried out by you on those you can dominate (partners, pets)
 - Depression – loss of love and a feeling of belonging, low feelings of self-worth and a need to move on or away from the negative behaviour
 - Feelings of helplessness – inability to change the situation, such as move job, or move home
 - Physical reactions – migraines, stomach cramps
 - Stress – although stress can have a positive effect, raising concentration levels, it can also have negative effects, such as weight gain, affect sleep patterns and affect health
 - Obligation – feeling obliged to join the group so as to be part of something and not be left out
7. Name Bronfenbrenner's different circles of influence in his Ecological Systems theory and what each represents.
- Micro – family
 - Meso – local school, neighbours, shops
 - Exo – parent's workplace, church
 - Macro – government policies and decisions, cultural and ethnic differences
 - Chrono – historical events
8. What is the equation for Social Exchange theory?
- $Worth = Reward - Cost$
9. Explain the concept of Mind.
- The ability to mentally represent and understand from behaviour or body language
10. Provide one example of how we gain independence for each life stage.
- Infancy: communicating needs and wants, undressing, learning to crawl, walk and talk
 - Early childhood: going to playgroup and school, having school friends, walking and talking
 - Adolescence: going to secondary school and/or sixth form college, having a week-end job (e.g. car wash, motorbike) and romantic relationships
 - Early adulthood: leaving home, going to university, working full-time, getting married
 - Middle adulthood: children leave home, more time for hobbies, interests and leisure
 - Late adulthood: may still take part in social groups and hobbies, but there will be a need for physical or medical needs

B1: The nature/nurture debate

1. What is the difference between nature and nurture?
- Nature: development shaped by innate, inherited predispositions; also known as maturation
 - Nurture: development shaped by appropriate educational environments and relationships
2. What does the term 'tabula rasa' mean?
- Philosophical term coined by John Locke (1632–1704) which means a blank slate. Essential knowledge or ability, so it is the responsibility of the parents and greater community
3. What are the four deficiency levels in Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs?
- Physiological
 - Safety
 - Love and belonging
 - Esteem

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4. How does each level in Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs have a positive or negative effect on development?

Layer	Positives for growth and development	Negative
Physiological	Nutritious food Ability to keep warm or cool Safe and comfortable shelter Clean drinking water Good sanitation	Lack of food Unable to keep warm Unsafe drinking water Unsafe or no shelter Poor sanitation Poor health
Safety	Good economic circumstances Tolerance and respect Personal and familial security Respect of others and property Care of others within framework of society	Poverty War, persecution Family breakdown Abuse, neglect Lack of respect Violence
Love and belonging	Family support Friendship Secure attachments Self-worth Dignity Confidence Love and intimacy	Low self-esteem Bullying Fear and anxiety Lack of support Depression Isolation
Esteem	High feelings of self-worth and self-esteem Dignity Education Confidence	Low feelings of self-worth Poor self-esteem Loss of skills Feeling unfulfilled Mental health issues
Self-actualisation	High morals Creative Open-mindedness Tolerance and acceptance	Immoral behaviour Destructive behaviour Bullying and harassment Hatred and prejudice

5. What does Maslow mean by 'self-actualisation'?

- Realising one's full potential

6. In Maslow's Motivation Model, what skills or areas do the terms 'cognitive needs', 'aesthetic needs' and 'transcendence' cover?

- Cognitive needs: learning, education and understanding
- Aesthetic needs: the need for creativity and beauty
- Transcendence: giving back to society by helping others achieve their full potential

7. What is Gesell's Maturation Theory of Development?

- Physiological and behavioural development occur in a fixed sequence (which is determined by genetics) from the womb and continuing throughout early childhood and adolescence. Development is influenced by environmental factors and genetic traits.

8. Who developed the ideas behind Social Learning theory, and how would you define it?

- Albert Bandura (1925–)
- We learn more from imitating what others do rather than from rewards and punishment (nativist model).

9. What are Bandura's four stages of observational learning?

- Attention: Child A notices how an adult comforts a child.
- Retention: Child A remembers and accommodates the information.
- Motor reproduction: Child A tries to comfort a child.
- Motivation: If they are praised, they feel successful, adding to levels of self-esteem.

10. What is the stress–diathesis model?

- The stress–diathesis model considers how a genetic or biological predisposition (diathesis) can be triggered by certain stressors (personal, environmental, genetic, biological, physiological) and how these factors can reduce our vulnerability to illnesses that are caused by stress.

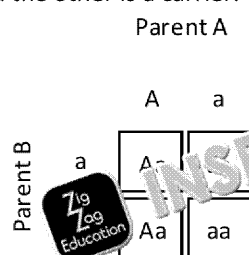
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B2: Genetic factors that affect development

1. What is the difference between a chromosome and a gene?
 - A chromosome is a ribbon-like structure composed of many genes.
 - A gene is a section of DNA which carries the code for a particular protein provided
2. Create a Punnett square to show the birth outcomes for two parents where one parent is a carrier and the other is a carrier.



- This shows that there is a 50% chance that they will have children who carry the disease and a 25% chance that they will have children who have the disease.
3. What does the term 'congenital defect' mean?
 - The term 'congenital defect' is used to describe all forms of physical or metabolic abnormalities that are present at the time of birth or during development in the womb.
 4. What factors can cause congenital defects?
 - Genetic
 - Chromosomal
 - Gene mutation
 - Mitochondrial
 - Biological
 - Environmental
 5. What is the difference between a genetic disorder and a genetic mutation disorder?
 - A genetic disorder occurs when a child inherits recessive alleles from both parents.
 - A genetic mutation disorder occurs because of a mutation within the genetic structure of one parent.
 - Genetic disorder: Duchenne's muscular dystrophy, PKU, Huntingdon's disease
 - Gene mutation disorder: achondroplasia, Behçets disease, cancer
 6. What causes Down's syndrome?
 - Caused by the presence of an extra chromosome (number 21)
 7. What are mitochondria and what are some of the diseases associated with faulty mitochondria?
 - Mitochondria are the powerhouses of each cell in the body, converting fats and carbohydrates into energy. Diseases associated with faulty mitochondria include Kearns-Sayre Syndrome (KSS), Leigh syndrome and maternally inherited Leigh syndrome (MILS), Pearson syndrome, Leber's Hereditary Optic Neuropathy
 8. What are Addison's disease and diabetes caused by?
 - Addison's disease: failure of the adrenal gland
 - Diabetes: failure of the body to produce insulin responsible for processing sugar. This is not the same as Type 2 diabetes.
 9. What biological factors can affect a baby in the womb?
 - Excessive intake of alcohol during pregnancy
 - Intake of and addiction to drugs or other medications during pregnancy
 - Difficult or premature birth
 - Oxygen starvation at birth
 - Lack of a nutrient or vitamin either before or during pregnancy
 - Genetic disease or infection
 - Chlamydia or toxoplasmosis infection
 - Infection from mosquito bite

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B3: Environmental factors that affect growth and development

1. What types of environmental factor can affect growth and development?
 - Pollution: air, water, soil, noise, light
 - Substandard living conditions
 - Unsafe environments
 - Compromised health
2. How can air pollution affect development?
 - Illness – allergy, asthma, CVD and respiratory diseases
 - Poor attendance at school or work due to illness affecting education or promotion
 - Side effects of some medication – drowsiness, stunted physical growth
3. What situations might cause water to become polluted or contaminated in the UK?
 - Poor farming practices and water run-off from farm land
 - Industrial activity and pollution
 - Floods
 - Breakdown in infrastructure
 - Building on coastal areas
4. How can soil pollution affect growth and development?
 - Affects farmers if they are no longer able to farm the land – loss of income
 - Affects health and possibly growth if contaminants come into food chain
 - Increase in congenital birth defects
5. Why is noise pollution a problem for growth and cognitive development?
 - Raises cortisol levels, leading to chronic stress
 - Lack of sleep causes tiredness and irritability, affecting ability to concentrate
 - Affects relationships
 - Causes deafness
6. How does light pollution affect growth and development?
 - Affects circadian rhythm so we feel tired or awake at the wrong time
 - Lack of sleep causes tiredness and irritability affecting ability to concentrate, learning
 - Can cause Seasonal Affective Disorder (SAD)
7. What is melatonin?
 - Melatonin is a hormone produced by the pineal gland, located in the brain. Production is increased at night to help us sleep, while natural light inhibits production so melatonin levels are low during the day.
8. How can substandard living conditions affect growth and development?
 - Cold and damp conditions lead to mould growth – causes health problems such as allergies and possibly CVD
 - Loss of days at school or work due to illness or having to move frequently
 - Social isolation and self-esteem – feel unable to have friends or family visit, ashamed
 - Vermin (rat, mouse or cockroach) infestations are health hazards
 - Inability to heat the room or house can cause hypothermia, especially in infants (hypothermia on the body are confusion, loss of mobility, death)
 - Overcrowding
 - Lack of privacy
 - Difficult for children to play, or do their homework and study
 - Guilt, anger, depression and other mental health issues
 - Homelessness and sleeping on the streets will lessen life expectancy and make GP visits, GP surgeries, etc.
9. What is an insecure environment and how might it affect growth and development?
 - An insecure environment is a place where it is not safe to live a normal life or care for children
 - Effects of an insecure environment on growth and development include:
 - Safety issues – insecure housing, poor nutrition
 - Location issues – location
 - Substance abuse issues – surrounding environment or family problems
 - Health issues – mental health, depression, disability
 - Safe spaces to play – affecting physical development
 - Low self-esteem
 - Safe space to study – affecting attainment at school or promotion at work

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10. What issues might affect a person's ability to access healthcare?
- Poverty – paying for services such as prescriptions
 - Private health insurance – ability to 'jump the queue' or have non-emergency treatment
 - Postcode lottery on services and medication offered by different health trusts
 - Ability to get an appointment when needed (surgery opening hours)
 - Transportation issues (cost, access to public transport, disability access)
 - Long stays in hospital (education, fear and anxiety, self-esteem, depression and mental health issues)
 - Language and communication problems
 - Status – asylum seekers may only access free emergency care
 - Natural disasters, war and social unrest

B4: How social factors affect growth and development; B5: How economic factors affect growth and development

1. What social factors affect growth and development?
- Family relationships
 - Divorce, separation
 - Bereavement
 - Parenting style
 - Bullying
 - Mental health issues
2. How does culture affect growth and development?
- Traditional choices, e.g. clothing, gendered expectations
 - Attachment bonds
 - Ethnic minority traditions and expectations within the family (FGM)
 - Growth and development milestones
 - Social interactions
 - Health choices
 - Religious beliefs
 - Dietary choices
 - Lifestyle choices
 - Language and communication difficulties
3. How do economic factors affect growth and development?
- Life expectancy and access to healthcare and education
 - Lifestyle and health choices, campaigns and advertising
 - Poor food, nutrition, housing, clothing and ability to access services
 - Deprivation
 - Low-income jobs with little or no security or pension rights
4. What are the effects of education on growth and development?
- Higher average income over a lifetime
 - Efficient and productive workforce that encourages companies to invest
 - Higher production, leads to higher taxes and more money to invest in schools, colleges and universities
 - Development of non-cognitive skills such as honesty, perseverance, reliability, punctuality
 - Lower birth rates and healthier children
5. What would be considered as unhealthy lifestyle choices?
- Little or no exercise
 - Unhealthy food high in fats and sugars
 - Smoking
 - Drugs
 - Alcohol
 - Risk-taking behaviour
6. How does the environment where we live affect physical, cognitive and social and emotional development?
- Physical development: access to health services and professionals
 - Cognitive development: access to education
 - Social and emotional development: access to clubs and groups, and other services and activities
 - Childhood play

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7. What types of event can be considered predictable and unpredictable?

Predictable life event	Unpredictable life event
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pregnancy and birth • Marriage • Going to nursery or school • Going to university • Leaving home • Moving house • Starting employment • Getting a promotion • Giving a speech • Getting engaged • Getting married 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chronic illness (physical or mental) • Separation and divorce • Sudden death of a loved one • Personal accident • Being fired from a job / redundancy • Hospitalisation • Seeing or experiencing a traumatic event • War • Disability (due to accident, illness or ageing) • Abuse (physical, sexual, neglect) • Sudden change of home or environment

8. What factors may affect your reaction to the stress of change?

- Age
- Time of life
- Experience
- Responsibilities
- Health
- Level of control

9. What does the Holmes-Rahe scale measure?

- The impact of stressful life events on health. There are two scales, one for adults and one for children.

10. What factors affect mental health?

- Family dynamics
- Unemployment
- Poverty and debt
- Education
- Physical health
- Social contact (neighbourhood, family, friends)
- Stress (parenting, debt, work)

11. What factors influence becoming independent?

- Stable relationships
- Positive self-concept
- Education
- Media (expectations of forming or not conforming to norms)
- Cultural and social expectations (influence of religious or secular belief systems)
- Work/life balance

C1: The physical changes of ageing

1. What is the difference between primary ageing and secondary ageing?

- Primary ageing: changes that occur as the body ages, e.g. wrinkles, shrinkage of cartilage
- Secondary ageing: changes that occur due to disease, illness, chronic conditions

2. What is atherosclerosis, and which other heart problems is it connected with?

- Atherosclerosis is the build-up of fatty deposits (atheroma) in the arteries supplying the heart muscle, which may be caused by high cholesterol levels, smoking, diabetes or high blood pressure
- Atherosclerosis is linked to angina (dull ache in torso, arms and stomach) and myocardial infarction (heart attack)

3. What is the difference between ischaemic stroke, haemorrhagic stroke and transient ischaemic attack (TIA)?

- Ischaemic stroke – blockages in the blood supply to the brain
- Haemorrhagic stroke – burst blood vessels in the brain
- Transient ischaemic attacks (TIAs) – small, temporary blockages in the brain

4. What factors are involved in a person's susceptibility to CVD and stroke?

- High cholesterol
- Diet high in fats and carbohydrates
- Smoking
- High alcohol intake
- Obesity
- Insulin resistance and diabetes
- High blood pressure (caused by hardening or narrowing of the arteries)
- Lack of exercise or sedentary lifestyle
- Family history
- Ethnicity (statistics show that South Asian, African and Caribbean people have a higher risk of CVD and stroke)

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5. What health effects are associated with CVD?
- Shortness of breath
 - Pain in the chest, upper abdomen, back, neck, jaw and throat
 - Fainting attacks
 - Weakness
 - Coldness
 - Sweating
6. What is the difference between the degenerative nervous system diseases of multiple sclerosis (MS) and myalgic encephalomyelitis (ME)?
- MS – chronic disease where the myelin sheaths of the nerves are gradually destroyed from childhood to middle adulthood. MS affects the quality of life (weakness, fatigue and depression) but is not life-limiting or fatal. Cause unknown.
 - ME – chronic, progressive disease that affects nerves in the brain and spinal cord. Causes weakness in muscles and will affect the way you walk, talk, eat, etc. Life-limiting from late adulthood. Cause unknown although one form of MND may have genetic causes.
 - ME or chronic fatigue syndrome (CFS) – chronic fatigue which may disappear, or be caused by a viral infection. Cause unknown. Affects individuals of all ages. ME is not life-limiting. Symptoms affect relationships, study at school, or keeping a job, etc.
7. At what stage of life might one get Parkinson's disease and what are the causes and symptoms?
- Middle to late adulthood (after 60). Chronic, progressive neurological condition that produces dopamine. Cause unknown. Symptoms: causes tremor, rigidity of muscles, difficulty walking with a shuffling gait, and problems with speaking (aphasia) and swallowing.
8. What is the difference between aphasia and dysphagia?
- Aphasia is difficulty in finding the correct word, or mixing up words and phrases, or not understanding what others are saying to you.
 - Dysphagia is problems in swallowing.
9. What is the difference between the causes of fibromyalgia and polymyalgia rheumatica?
- Fibromyalgia – caused by the central nervous system becoming oversensitive to pain.
 - Polymyalgia rheumatica – caused by inflammation of the muscles and nerves in the neck, shoulders and hips.
10. What problems might a person with osteoarthritis face?
- Pain and stiffness in joints
 - Inability to grip
 - Inability to support weight when standing or walking
11. Is rheumatoid arthritis the same as osteoarthritis?
- No. RA is an autoimmune condition. OA is a degenerative condition. Both affect joints.
12. What are the most common sight-related degenerative conditions, and how do they affect vision?
- Presbyopia – inability to focus on nearby objects
 - Macular degeneration – impairment of the macular, affecting how we see faces and objects
 - Cataracts – lens of the eye becomes opaque, affecting sight
 - Glaucoma – blockage between the cornea and the lens, preventing the watery fluid from draining. Can lead to blindness
13. How can loss of taste affect quality of life?
- Enjoy food less
 - Eat less (malnutrition) – leading to frailty and susceptibility to infections
 - Overuse of salt and other flavour enhancers
14. What are anosmia and hyposmia, and how might they be caused?
- Anosmia – complete loss of sense of smell
 - Hyposmia – partial loss of sense of smell
 - Causes: smoking, medication, chronic rhinitis, Alzheimer's, dementia, nasal polyps

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15. Does our sense of touch change as we get older?
- Yes. Degeneration of nerve sensors in the skin makes it more difficult to judge differences, affecting dexterity and balance, but not the recognition of texture.
16. What is tinnitus?
- Ringing or buzzing in the ears caused by damage to the hair cells in the inner ear.
17. What is the proprioceptive sense?
- To do with personal spatial awareness, equilibrium bearing and body functions (human balance).
18. What factors can affect the visual and proprioceptive senses?
- Medication, infections, muscular and nerve degeneration, intake of alcohol.
19. Why might the elderly people suffer from poor nutrition?
- Loss of appetite due to loss of senses of taste and smell
 - Problem with teeth and dentures
 - Inability to shop or cook for themselves
 - Poverty
 - Digestion and inability of the body to absorb nutrients
20. What are the four main types of dementia?
- Alzheimer's disease
 - Vascular dementia
 - Dementia with Lewy bodies
 - Frontotemporal dementia
21. What is the prognosis for someone diagnosed with Alzheimer's disease?
- 6–12 years
22. What are the general symptoms of dementia?
- Memory loss
 - Confusion
 - Difficulty organising and planning
 - Forgetfulness
 - Difficulty in finding the right word
 - Difficulty in managing simple daily tasks
 - Loss of independence
 - Inability to sleep
 - Changes in mood
 - Depression
 - Frustration and some aggression
23. What is Alzheimer's disease?
- Chronic, degenerative, life-limiting disease named after Alois Alzheimer, who died in the 1900s; is the most common form of dementia. Linked to genetic mutations within the brain and may be inherited. Alzheimer's disease is usually diagnosed in patients over 65, but can occur in people as young as 45. It is not known what causes Alzheimer's but it is linked to brain injuries (e.g. car crash or boxing), and lifestyle factors (smoking and cardiovascular disease).

C2: The psychological changes of ageing; C3: The effects on society of an ageing population

1. How can ageing affect our self-esteem?
- Retirement and the ensuing loss of job, work-related connections and feelings of purpose
 - Poverty or financial worries that mean we cannot afford to socialise, and become isolated
 - Financial problems leading to the sale of the family home, moving to accommodation that is less desirable
 - Isolation due to health problems, inability to keep up with new technology, loss of friends
 - Body image – grey or thinning hair, wrinkles, lower stamina, self-esteem and self-confidence
 - Regrets if life has not gone the way you would have wished, and feelings of having been let down
2. What kinds of social changes do we experience in late adulthood?
- Role changes
 - Loss of friends
 - Loss of partners
 - Increase in leisure time
3. How can financial concerns affect the quality of life in late adulthood?
- Fear of losing your home and having to move
 - Less money to buy nutritious food
 - Not enough money to pay for utilities (heating, lighting, cooking, water) and repairs
 - Not enough money to run a car/dependence on public transport which may be unreliable

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4. How might culture or religion and beliefs affect the quality of life in late adulthood?
 - Strong social networks support healthy self-image and sense of well-being.
 - In some cultures, it is usual for three generations to live in the same house and
5. Which three theories seek to explain successful ageing?
 - Social Disengagement theory, Activity theory and the Continuity theory of ageing
6. What are the main premises of Social Disengagement theory?
 - Social expectation that older people disengage from society in return for having
 - Two-way process – if one side does not engage then the process is unsuccessful
 - Regression to the dependency of childhood due to physical, physiological and p
7. What factors might influence how or if an individual disengages from society?
 - cultural expectations
 - health
 - financial status
 - environment they are living in
 - personal circumstances (loss or illness of spouse, dependent children or grandc
 - social network
8. What is the main proposal behind Activity theory?
 - Successful ageing is dependent upon a person continuing to be an active partici
9. How does Continuity theory of ageing differ from Activity theory and Social Disengag
 - Late adulthood is not a separate part of life.
 - Successful ageing is linked to embracing the ageing process and the life changes
 - Changes in lifestyle are minimal and happen gradually.
10. How does an ageing population affect society?
 - Cost
 - Pressure on health services
 - Pressure to maintain an independent lifestyle
 - Pressure on other services such as home care, meals on wheels, transport servi
 - Pressure on family, friends and neighbours to provide a solid social support net
11. What factors might negatively influence ageing, and make it a less successful experie

• Income	• Poor education
• Health	• Abuse
• Disability	• Trauma and loss
• Mental health	• Substance dependency and abuse
• Isolation in rural areas	• Cultural and religious differences
• Substandard housing	• Communication difficulties (aphasia
• Poor nutrition	
12. What was the life expectancy in the UK for men and women in 1901, and what is it n
 - In 1901 it was 45 years for men and 49 years for women. In 2015 it was 78.8 fo
13. Why is life expectancy increasing?

• Better food supply and nutrition	• Better education in
• Better access to medication, GP and hospital services	• Better hygiene and
14. What are the main economic challenges associated with an increase in life expectanc
 - Cost of healthcare – medication, operations, mobility aids, etc.
 - Providing services for all who need them, not just those in greatest need
 - Ensuring people remain able to take part in society and maintain social network
 - Providing transport
 - Providing financial support so the elderly can maintain a relatively independent
 - Providing residential care that is cost-effective (use of top-up fees)
 - Ensuring that appropriate services are available so they can leave hospital after convalescence home or receive home help for the time required (not bed-block
 - Pension payments – ensuring those who do not wish to retire can continue wor

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