

## An Overview of Child Development from the Theoretical Perspectives



Lu Jing Yi<sup>1</sup>, Ooi Boon Keat<sup>2\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Post Graduate Centre, Management and Science University

<sup>2</sup>School of Education and Social and Sciences, Management and Science University

**Abstracts:** While some developmental psychologists see child development as a process of discontinuous change, in which children gain skill through a series of leaps interspersed with quiet, incremental changes, others see it as a process of continuous change in which children become increasingly skilled at what they do. It is noteworthy that several productive steps have been made in further describing child development. This paper aims to discuss the developmental domains of 5 and 6 years old children from developmental psychology perspective. Hence, it aims to investigate the idea of early childhood development and to outline the ideas, conceptualizations, and important viewpoints on the subject matter. Additionally, this paper presents the developmental manifestations of 5 and 6 year olds based on many theories in an effort to educate readers about these ideas and inspire them to learn more about their development. The study highlights the significance of early childhood development as well as the general significance of developmental phases and levels for attitudes and functioning in daily life.

**KEYWORDS:** child development, cognitive development, developmental domains, theories of Child development.

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

The study of child development is where the field of early childhood studies first emerged (Pence, 2022). In the late 19th and early 20th century, the field of child development research expanded rapidly. Early childhood observations quickly led to advancements in a variety of child development-specific techniques and ideas, all of which laid a strong basis for the study of child development as it exists today (Pence, 2022). In the world of a century ago, children did not have a clear concept of how abilities and growth varied from one another, nor did they comprehend the learning process or the distinctions between good and bad adaptations. Children's studies were not popular back then (Anderson, 1956). Hall (1948), one of the new generation of child researchers strongly guided by Darwinian theory and the scientific method, states that in the mid-1900s. Baldwin was a theoretician and astute observer of children's conduct, and his insightful viewpoint on child development is coming to light once more (Marsico & Calandrini, 2020).

### 1.2 THEORIES OF EARLY CHILDHOOD DEVELOPMENT

Some developmental psychologists believe that child development is a process of continuous change, where children become more and more skilled at what they do, while others believe that child development is a process of discontinuous change, where children become skilled in a series of leaps that are separated by periods of calm and small changes (Thomas, 2000). Stage theorists tend to see development as a discontinuous process of change (Keenan et.al., 2016).

#### 1.2.1 The Cognitive Development of Jean Piaget

The best known theory of child development is Piaget's theory of cognitive development. Around the 1950s, Piaget spent a lot of time studying children and carrying out different tests, which gave him a solid foundation on which to build his theory of children's psychological development (Barrouillet, 2015). Based on his theory that cognitive structures are constantly reconfigured

## **An Overview of Child Development from the Theoretical Perspectives**

in an individual's interactions with the environment, Piaget (2003) identified four stages in which children think: the perceptual-motor stage (0 - 2 years old or so), the pre-operational stage (2 - 6 or 7 years old), the concrete-operational stage (6 or 7 years old and 11 or 12 years old), and the formal-operational stage (11 or 12 years old and beyond). Not every child finishes a stage at the same age. The phases are nonetheless completed in the same sequence, with the first one serving as a precondition for the second. The phases of growth are steady, ongoing changes rather than abrupt, sporadic leaps (Barrouillet, 2015). Using Piaget's theory of cognitive development, this study solely addresses the preoperational stage, as the population consists of young children, ages 5 to 6.

The pre-operational stage, according to Piaget (1976), is characterised by the formation and use of words, gestures, marks, and the capacity to imagine expressing them, it also signifies that the person is not yet able to use logic to change one state of affairs into another. Children's cognition advances significantly in the preoperational stage as compared to the sensorimotor stage (Munari, 1994). Children can only adapt real actions to what they are now feeling into thinking at the perceptual-kinesthetic stage, and with the initial internalised actions, a sense of object permanence emerges during the middle and late phases (Gallagher & Reid, 2002). The preoperational stage is also known as the stage of representational thinking because by this point, children have solidified their awareness of object permanence, internalised a large number of actions, and experienced rapid language development and refinement (Bringuier & Piaget, 1980). Children also frequently use representational signs, or verbal signs and symbols, to replace external objects and to place emphasis on external activities (Piaget, 1968). Children also start to abandon concrete actions and engage in representational thinking in their minds due to symbolic formats (Piaget, 2003). According to Piaget (1976), children internalise things and actions in their minds through the use of symbols, including the symbolic and substitutive functions of verbal and symbolic symbols. Internalising something does not mean accepting it in its entirety and creating a copy or photograph (Brown & Desforges, 2013). Internalisation refers to the process of reconstructing sensory-motor events in one's own mind, eliminating unnecessary information and creating mental images (Piaget, 1978). This is exemplified by the case of Pia's daughter in the above paragraph, who refrained from yelling in pain after falling. A significant cognitive development for children is the development of internalised actions, which are thought actions as opposed to tangible bodily acts (Piaget, 2000). Two more subphases of the pre-operational stage are identified by Richmond (2013) as the pre-conceptual or symbolic thinking stage (ages 2 to 4) and the intuitive thinking stage (ages 4 to 7).

Children's intelligence transitions from pre-conceptual to operational thinking during the intuitive thinking stage (Keenan et al., 2016). Children's thinking at this stage is unique in that it still lacks reversibility and conservation, but it is starting to shift from one-dimensional to two-dimensional emphasis in their intuitive thinking (Gopnik, 1996). Operational thinking is emerging, and conservation is ready to take off (Vidal, 1994). Piaget recounts a discussion he had on foot with a young child. When Piaget questioned the child's age if he thought the sun moved, he said that it did, just like the moon, because it moves faster when it runs and pauses when it walks (Gruber & Vonèche, 1977).

Young children at this stage lack the ability to choose a point of view and see the world from their own perspective, and find it difficult to recognise the views of others (Boeree, 2006). The Miyama experiment is one of his points of evidence (Evans, 1973). In order to give two viewers seated across from each other entirely distinct perspectives of the mountains, Piaget constructed a three-dimensional model of three mountains with one mountain in front and two behind (Montangero & Maurice-Naville, 1997). He then conducted experiments on young children, ages three to six. Initially, the toddlers were instructed to explore the model (Sutton-Smith, 1966). Afterward, a doll was positioned across from them, and they had to choose from a collection of images what they saw and what the doll saw (Smith, 2002). Pupils as young as three or four years old and some as young as five or six years old will select precisely the same photos. Accordingly, Piaget thought that kids often draw comparisons between what they can see with their own eyes and what other people can see (Singer & Revenson, 1996).

In addition to this, there is another characteristic of this stage of early childhood development. When asked to look at the relationship between the whole and the parts, children could understand the whole and tell apart two different categories, according to Piaget's (1976) investigation into the relationship between the additive composition of numbers and the whole. Nonetheless, youngsters tended to provide inaccurate responses when asked to think about the link between the whole and the two parts of the whole simultaneously (Erneling, 2014). This shows that they are unaware of the link between the whole and the parts and that their thinking is constrained by the prominent perceptual aspects in front of them (Brown & Desforges, 2013). This is

## **An Overview of Child Development from the Theoretical Perspectives**

what Piaget (1982) referred to as a lack of hierarchical class conceptions, or class inclusion connections.

In the pre-operational stage, young children's thinking is still characterised by irreversibility. The term reversibility of thinking refers to two different forms of mental arithmetic that occur in thinking: inverse reversibility (recognising that a modified shape or direction can return to its previous position) and shape (Duckworth, 1964). For instance, young toddlers are unaware that the inverse operation B is also equivalent to A, even if  $A=B$ .  $A>B$  is another example, although young infants are unaware that  $B<A$  is the converse operation. As a result, Piaget thought that young children had trouble carrying out these operations and were incapable of carrying out reversible operations on such dynamic interactions between objects (Piaget, 1992).

One crucial trait of children in the pre-operational period is their incapacity to preserve. Conservation is the mastery of concepts' core qualities, wherein the concepts are unaffected by the modification of some non-essential elements. Piaget used the two-cup experiment to show how this cognitive trait functions in early children (Webb, 1980). According to Santrock (2015), the experiment started with giving the children two identically shaped cups of water. Next, the children were asked to guess which cup had more water or if there was the same amount of water in both cups. Finally, the children were given the two cups in different-sized cups. During his research, he discovered that children under the age of six or seven years old only considered the height of the water in the cups when judging the amount of water in them, not the size of the calibre of the cups. Piaget thus thought that young infants in the pre-operational stage are unable of understanding that an object's fundamental characteristics remain constant even if its outward appearance changes (Flavell, 1963).

Piaget's theory of cognitive development highlights the developmental idea of the interaction of internal and external elements rather than focussing on the argument and entanglement of genetics and environment. In order to give more individualised instruction and assistance, parents and educators can gain a better understanding of children's cognitive abilities and developmental processes by utilising Piaget's theory of cognitive development. This assists parents and teachers in establishing realistic expectations and goals for children according to their age and cognitive ability, as well as in providing suitable learning opportunities.

### **1.2.2 Erikson Psychosocial Development**

Apart from Piaget, Erikson also categorised human development into different stages according to different ages. Erikson created the theory of psychosocial development between 1940 and 1950 (Gould & Howson, 2019). Erikson argued that social, psychological, and biological elements interacting with the self and the social environment determine personality, focusing a great deal of attention on the consequences of individual-environmental interactions on personality (Franz & White, 1985). He identified eight phases in the human life cycle—four in infancy, one in adolescence, and three in adulthood—and pointed out that there is a significant conflict or crisis at every turn of the developmental process (Elkind, 1970). Positive personality traits are formed and contribute to the development of a sound personality if an individual can reasonably and successfully resolve the crisis or conflict at each stage; on the other hand, negative personality traits are developed and lead to the development of an unsound personality (Erikson, 1995). These eight phases are distinct yet interconnected, and each builds on the one before it. However, these conflicts or crises don't just happen at one stage; they can happen at any point; they just become more significant at a given point in development and play a crucial role in the character development process (Weiland, 1993). This study only discusses psychosocial developmental theories related to the developmental stages of 5--6 year olds.

The early development of 5--6 year olds involves an active struggle between the young child and guilt. If this crisis is effectively resolved, children develop the virtues of purpose and direction; if the crisis is not effectively resolved, children develop feelings of inferiority (Erikson & Erikson, 1981). Little children may do a wider range of tangible motor-neurological tasks, utilise language more accurately, and express themselves more vividly at this time (Bishop, 2013). These abilities enable young infants to plan for the future and generate a variety of ideas, actions, and imaginations. Erikson states that at this age, young children have an open curiosity about variations in body types generally and sexual variations specifically (Weiland, 1993).

This stage is a process of self-discovery for young children, where children experiment with limits to determine what is acceptable and what is not. If parents support their child's creative behaviour and inventiveness, the child will emerge from this stage with a positive sense of self (Degges-White, 2017). On the other hand, if parents make fun of their child's unique conduct and inventiveness, the youngster will grow out of this stage without confidence (Maree, 2022). They prefer to live in the little circle that others have created for them because of this lack of autonomy, which makes them always prone to feeling guilty when

## **An Overview of Child Development from the Theoretical Perspectives**

considering other actions (Zeig,2013).

This stage is essentially a continuation of the autonomy stage; the main distinction is that the toddler is attempting to form new connections at this point rather than just seeking to control others (Batra, 2013). This is the time when toddlers ponder their gender, learn about what is and is not expected of a boy, and participate in very blatant, but to them very subtle, acts of bribery. For instance, they could say, "Mummy, I love you so much. Can I have a cake?" Additionally, at this point, they won't consult anybody (Branje et.al., 2018). At this point, children who are able to overcome shame acquire the virtue of purpose. According to Erikson, purpose is the bravery to confront and follow a noble goal in spite of obstacles caused by guilt, irrational fears of punishment, and fantasies from early infancy (Erikson, 1994). The three positive qualities of hope, will, and purpose are developed when children successfully resolve the crises they face in the first three phases (Marcia, 2004).

All things considered, Erikson's theory, which highlights the individual's active involvement and self-modelling in the developmental process, reflects the subjectivity of the individual. One can effectively use his theory of psychosocial development as a framework to make sense of their own life experiences. It offers a means of assisting educators and carers in comprehending the primary obstacles and developmental tasks that their own youngsters encounter at various phases of life. Knowing this theory may also make it easier for people to reflect on the past and see how their early experiences shaped their present-day attitudes and behaviours. Furthermore, by being aware of this notion, parents and other carers can prepare ahead of time for their children's education by anticipating potential obstacles.

### **1.2.3 Sociocultural Perspective**

Constructivist theory also includes socio-cultural theory and Piaget's theory of cognitive development. According to sociocultural theory, language is a socio-cultural phenomena, and language learners remove the barriers between language usage and learning by applying language to behavioural practises, which helps them gain a particular amount of linguistic and cultural knowledge (Scott & Palincsar, 2013). According to the theory, language serves as the main mechanism for regulating children's mental development, which is essentially a process mediated and controlled by cultural items, activities, and concepts (van Compernelle, 2021). According to this theoretical framework, children develop new cultural tools by using pre-existing ones, and these new cultural tools control their behaviour and physiological processes (Lantolf, 2000). The main tools for mediation are language usage, organising, and creation (Verenikina, 2003). Children's interactions in their social and physical environments are the most significant sources of cognitive activity development (Van der Veer, 2014). Vygotsky (2016) stressed that socio-cultural elements are crucial for the development of children's cognitive functioning. His fundamental idea behind this theory is to use research on children's cultures and histories to better understand how children think. This understanding is mainly used to understand how children think in relation to their cultural, historical, and educational contexts, as well as the fact that social practises, children's consciousness, and material culture are all included in children's thinking and are interdependent and coordinated (van Compernelle, 2021).

Hitchhiking, internalisation, mediation, zone of closest development, and activity theory are among the fundamental elements of sociocultural theory. Vygotsky interpreted child development in terms of these basic elements. Vygotsky (1997), the symbolic world of high-level mental functioning is very much determined by sociocultural factors, and a concrete material world of low-level mental functioning determined by biological factors. Language is employed as a psychological instrument of mediated conversion for mental activities and mental control in the abstract symbolic world; the hands and mind are used as tools of mediated conversion for children's actions in the concrete material world (Vygotsky, 1987). In other words, language symbols not only facilitate socio-cultural communication and interaction but also have an impact on children's spontaneous thinking that enables them to plan ahead and reason logically. The primary kind of mediation that children use to drive a range of individual actions is conditioning, which involves regulating the environment, society, and the psyche (Vygotsky & Cole, 1978). Children progressively participate in language regulation activities during the regulation stage of language acquisition. This process is typically broken down into three phases: self-regulation, others' regulation, and object regulation (Vygotsky et.al., 1997). Self-regulation is the process by which children rely on their own language and behaviour to regulate when dealing with problems. Others' regulation is the regulation of children's behaviour and thinking with the guidance and assistance of adults. Children regulate their environment through a process known as object regulation (Scott & Palincsar, 2013). Others control when children acquire a language cooperatively with the assistance of parents and instructors, and self-regulation occurs when children can rely

## **An Overview of Child Development from the Theoretical Perspectives**

on their own skills to pick up a language on their own (Vygotsky, 2012). Put another way, children continue to internalise external language forms until they become a part of their own thinking by using the second language to interact with speakers of the target language and by engaging in external social and cultural activities (Vygotsky, 2018). For instance, the following story's child's developmental stage provides a clear explanation of it.

Sawyer (2014) saw a young child using tools to learn how to read a calendar. This child had no idea of time other than the present when he started kindergarten, which made it extremely difficult for him to develop social skills and cultural tools. When the teacher pointed to a box on the October page of the calendar to indicate that it was today, he was unable to understand what she meant. For him, yesterday and tomorrow were highly abstract and difficult to understand, but everything changed when the teacher brought up the planned visit to the kids' playground. The instructor indicated to him, pointing to the calendar, that today is October 4, tomorrow is October 5, and on October 6 is our playground day. The kid wants to know if we're going to the playground on the sixth. When the teacher receives an affirmative response, she uses a highlighter to circle the number six on the calendar. The excitement that the number six box creates gets the child ready to comprehend the playground excursion that will happen at a later point. Subsequently, he comprehended the weekly schedule, which mandated that kids attend school on specific days but not on Saturdays and Sundays. He quickly regained the ability to use the amorphous concept of months (Sawyer, 2014). Through the acquisition of cultural instruments, the kid gradually gained a knowledge of what Vygotsky termed a scientific conception of time, which was founded on an impromptu notion of the ordinary and a significant activity deserving of a label.

Higher cognitive functions are formed as a result of socio-cultural collisions throughout a child's mental growth. The first objective law governing a child's mental development is that the mediating mental functions possessed by the child can only emerge from human interaction and cooperative play, which are mediated to the child by the child's social, collective, and cooperative play (Vygotsky, 1962). These activities do not arise spontaneously from within the child. The internalisation mechanism is this process of changing from social, group, and cooperative activities to child-independent types of activity. For instance, when tackling puzzles, one youngster routinely employed emotionally charged, tactful self-talk. "Is it possible for me to move it up?" He muttered during an unlocking duty that involved unhooking and unlatching a door. "What happens next—does it go up or down? Whoa, that treasure is inside!" He murmured to himself as he unlocked the warehouse entrance, "Okay, to relocate this, to the left? or to the right? It's on the left, I see. And then divide, pivot, and go down a pony! I succeeded! It wasn't too difficult." (Sawyer, 2017). These are probably the same questions that he was asked by his parents or teachers in the past when he was working through a challenging issue with them. He is now able to ask these questions to himself in self-talk, which is essentially what Vygotsky refers to as internalisation.

In addition to this, Vygotsky introduced two key ideas concerning learning: the hitchhiker's frame and the zone of closest growth (Haenen et al., 2003). A child goes through two stages of development: the zone of nearest development, which is the level at which the child can solve problems on their own and the difference between their actual and potential levels when working with peers or an adult who can guide them. The actual level of development is related to the child's mental functioning (Vygotsky, 2012). The former is based on the child's capacity for autonomous problem-solving, whereas the latter is influenced by peer collaboration and adult supervision. The child's capacity for self-sufficiency and the performance of certain cognitive tasks are predicted by the zone of closest development (Vygotsky, 1962). Each of these elements happens twice, or at two levels, during a child's growth; Vygotsky refers to this process of transformation from the former to the latter as the basic rule of cultural development (Daniels, 2008). The first appears at the social level, which is between individuals, and the second appears at the psychological level, which is within the person. The development of self-control marks the transition from the social to the psychological level (Wertsch & Sohmer, 1995). This internalisation process involves the child going from performing certain actions with the assistance of others to performing actions independently using their intellect and not depending on outside sources (Gillen, 2000). For instance, when two kids are playing on a slide, neither of them dares slide down the high side. One toddler remains still on the slide and displays tension when an adult reaches out to assist them, whereas the other toddler effortlessly slides down the slide with the assistance of the adult. This demonstrates that every child has a unique zone of closest development (Sage, 2022).

Scaffolding, which is closely associated with the zone of nearest development, is the behaviour of an adult or mentor who assists a child or novice in solving a problem in order to finish a task; that is, although the child or novice is not yet able to use a

## **An Overview of Child Development from the Theoretical Perspectives**

certain knowledge independently to achieve a goal, they can still accomplish their goal by talking to the adult or using scaffolding (Daneshfar & Moharami, 2018). For children receiving language education, peer cooperation reflects the improvement of the closest developmental zone under the scaffolding effect, where children who are good learners and have high ability can build scaffolding between themselves and those who are a little less able to learn (Vygotsky, 1987). Through information sharing and help-giving, the more able child can give the other learning tips and guidance so that the less able children can see the difference between their actual and potential levels of development and then stimulate their own development (Vygotsky, 1994). This stimulates the potential of the less capable children by enabling them to perceive the difference between their actual and prospective levels of development. For instance, when teaching their kids how to ride a bicycle, parents take the child on their first ride (Moll, 2013). In the second step, the child's parents hold them while they learn to pedal a bicycle; in the third step, the parents occasionally release their grip; and in the fourth step, once the child has mastered the skill entirely, the parents release their hold and allow the child to ride the bicycle alone. In reality, this procedure is the scaffolding process that Vygotsky described (Xi & Lantolf, 2021).

Vygotsky's theory also covers ideas about children's activities and behaviour. Verenikina (2010) argues that activity can be used as a framework for observing and studying consciousness. He contends that activity refers to doing things on purpose in response to physiological needs and that consciousness is the subject of psychological study but can only be observed at the behavioural level. Behaviour, can be categorised into three levels: the implementation level, which is an automatic or accustomed behavioural response to the socio-material conditions of the moment; the behavioural level, which is driven by social and physiological needs; the action level, which is driven by goals; and the goal-directed action level. These three levels correlate to motivation, goals, and conditions; action is subservient to conscious goals, and implementation is the particular act of achieving a goal; behaviour is linked to the conscious or unconscious motivation of the active person, and there is no behaviour without motivation (Rieber & Robinson, 2013). To put it succinctly, motivation dictates the degree of effort, the objective sets the direction, and behaviour is executed within certain parameters (Daneshfar & Moharami, 2018).

Constructivism requires a thorough understanding of Vygotsky's research on child psychology. Vygotsky attempted to break free from the constraints of the vulgar behaviourist perspective and transcend the idealistic view of psychological phenomena when faced with the complexity and complete reality of human psychological events. He proposed the cultural-historical understanding of the formation of consciousness and the psychological development of the child, studying these concepts from the historical point of view rather than the abstract point of view, within the social environment, in the interconnection of its action rather than outside of it, in order to assess the significance of the study of "consciousness" for psychology and to study the psychological characteristics of the human being in an objective way. Studying the evolution of consciousness and psychology is done within the framework of the social environment and its connections with it, not outside of it, and from a historical perspective as opposed to an abstract one.

### **1.3.DISCUSSION**

#### **1.3.1 Piaget vs Vygotsky**

Both Piaget's theory of cognitive development and Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory highlight that children are active learners and that education should foster social interaction between kids and adults as well as the development of the child's nature and rich experiences. They both concur that children want to express themselves, and that this need manifests itself in different ways at different ages.

The two, however, differ on the significance of language for a child's development. Piaget holds that a child's language patterns are distinctly egocentric and immature because they are unable to communicate well. Consequently, it is believed that neither children's monologue language nor their capacity for self-expression constitute significant markers of psychological development. In contrast, Vygotsky's theory holds that language develops through social interactions between children and others and that early childhood language development is a meaningful part of a child's quest for understanding and interaction with the outside world.

Furthermore, there is a fundamental difference between the two theories' central ideas, with Vygotsky emphasising the role of adults in guiding and facilitating children's communication and understanding and Piaget highlighting the significance of peer

## An Overview of Child Development from the Theoretical Perspectives

interaction in language development.

The two also have different ideas about how learning and development are related. Piaget argues that learning requires development, and that a child's schema cannot offer particular opportunities for his subsequent learning until it has reached a specific developmental stage. On the other side, Vygotsky proposed the idea of the "zone of nearest development" because he thought that education should support a child's development. The former holds that a youngster at the concrete thinking stage cannot possibly learn a sample of logical notions. According to the latter, youngsters who are still in the figurative stage of thinking should be assisted in organising their ideas so that they might move closer to abstraction.

In terms of the relationship between children's language and thinking, the two are very different. According to Piaget, children's language originates from thinking, and language begins to appear when their cognitive structures have reached a certain stage of development. And language is only one of the signs of cognitive development, language does not play a role in the development of thinking. Instead, the direction of development of the individual is from individualisation to socialisation, and the developmental signs of socialisation of individual thinking. But Vygotsky believed that children's speech plays an important role in cognitive development, and that speech, as an important tool of thinking, plays a role in planning, coordinating and solving problems. It is a mode of raising special patterns by the development of language.

### 1.3.2 Piaget vs Eriksson

Although there are some similarities between Piaget's theory and Erikson's theory about the differentiation of developmental stages, there are also differences in how these phases are defined.

Erikson had eight phases, compared to four for Piaget. While they both agree that a variety of factors affect how people develop psychologically, they place quite different emphasis on these elements. Piaget undervalued children's cognitive development and placed more focus on action, biological adaptability, and schema. He downplayed the importance of society and schooling. One can view human development as the result of balance, experience, and maturity working together. Erikson, on the other hand, highlights the significance of acquired learning, the idea of the "self," the impact of socio-cultural factors on psychological development, the influence of the social environment, and a number of crucial "crisis periods" in an individual's psychological development. Although psychological structure is a topic covered by both of their theories, they diverge in how they define it.

Piaget's theory of the phases of cognitive development makes more sense from an educational standpoint since it helps teachers organise their lesson plans and resources by helping them comprehend the developmental traits of a child's mind at different stages. Teachers can better manage students and guide and intervene in their growth by using Eysenck's theory of personality development phases, which takes milestones and developmental traits into account.

## 1.4 CONCLUSION

Using a range of literature, the goal of this study is to present a thorough review of the topic of early childhood development. This will assist in recognising and condensing significant patterns and fresh fields of study related to early childhood development. By using this literature, policy decisions in the field of early childhood development will be supported by a very accurate image of the field's current status. Additionally, future research needs to be quantitative with larger and higher quality sample sizes in order to obtain a deeper grasp of the state and features of the field of early childhood development. However, this review of the literature offers a preliminary synopsis of current hypotheses and promising findings in the field of early childhood development.

## REFERENCES

- 1) Anderson, J. E. (1956). Child development: An historical perspective. *Child Development*, 181-196.
- 2) Akers, R. L., & Jennings, W. G. (2015). Social learning theory. *The handbook of criminological theory*, 230-240.
- 3) Barrouillet, P. (2015). Theories of cognitive development: From Piaget to today. *Developmental Review*, 38, 1-12.
- 4) Bishop, C. L. (2013). Psychosocial stages of development. *The Encyclopedia of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 3, 1055-1061.
- 5) Brown, G., & Desforges, C. (2013). *Piaget's theory*. Routledge.
- 6) Boyle, D. G. (2013). *A students' guide to Piaget*. Elsevier.

## An Overview of Child Development from the Theoretical Perspectives

- 7) Batra, S. (2013). The psychosocial development of children: Implications for education and society—Erik Erikson in context. *Contemporary education dialogue*, 10(2), 249-278.
- 8) Boeree, C. G. (2006). Jean Piaget. Retrieved October, 2, 2008.
- 9) Bandura, A., & Hall, P. (2018). Albert bandura and social learning theory. *Learning theories for early years practice*, 63-65.
- 10) Branje, S. J. T., Koper, N., & Bornstein, M. (2018). Psychosocial development.
- 11) Bringuier, J. C., & Piaget, J. (1980). *Conversations with jean piaget*. University of Chicago Press.
- 12) Bandura, A., & Walters, R. H. (1977). *Social learning theory* (Vol. 1). Prentice Hall: Englewood cliffs.
- 13) Crain, W. (2015). Bandura's social learning theory. In *Theories of development: Concepts and applications* (pp. 218-237). Routledge.
- 14) Chen, M. F., Wang, R. H., & Hung, S. L. (2015). Predicting health-promoting self-care behaviors in people with pre-diabetes by applying Bandura social learning theory. *Applied Nursing Research*, 28(4), 299-304.
- 15) Degges-White, S. (2017). Erikson's Theory of Psychosocial Development. *College Student Development: Applying Theory to Practice on the Diverse Campus*, 35.
- 16) Daniels, H. (2008). *Vygotsky and research*. Routledge.
- 17) Dalton, T. C. (2005). Arnold Gesell and the maturation controversy. *Integrative Physiological & Behavioral Science*, 40, 182-204.
- 18) Dalton, T. C. (2017). Arnold Gesell and the maturation controversy. In *Thinking in Psychological Science* (pp. 135-162). Routledge.
- 19) Duckworth, E. (1964). Piaget rediscovered. *The Arithmetic Teacher*, 11(7), 496-499.
- 20) Daneshfar, S., & Moharami, M. (2018). Dynamic assessment in Vygotsky's sociocultural theory: Origins and main concepts. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 9(3), 600-607.
- 21) Elkind, D. (1970). Erik Erikson's eight ages of man. *New York Times Magazine*, 5, 25-27.
- 22) Erikson, E. (1995). *Dialogue with erik erikson*. Jason Aronson, Incorporated.
- 23) Erikson, E. H. (1994). *Identity and the life cycle*. WW Norton & company.
- 24) Evans, R. I. (1973). *Jean Piaget: The man and his ideas*. EP Dutton.
- 25) Erneling, C. E. (2014). The importance of Jean Piaget. *Philosophy of the Social Sciences*, 44(4), 522-535.
- 26) Erikson, E., & Erikson, J. (1981). On generativity and identity: From a conversation with Erik and Joan Erikson. *Harvard Educational Review*, 51(2), 249-269.
- 27) Flavell, J. H. (1963). *The Developmental Psychology of Jean Piaget*.
- 28) Franz, C. E., & White, K. M. (1985). Individuation and attachment in personality development: Extending Erikson's theory. *Journal of personality*, 53(2), 224-256.
- 29) Grusec, J. E. (1994). *Social learning theory and developmental psychology: The legacies of Robert R. Sears and Albert Bandura*.
- 30) Gesell, A. (1929). Maturation and infant behavior pattern. *Psychological review*, 36(4), 307.
- 31) Gillen, J. (2000). Versions of vygotsky. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 48(2), 183-198.
- 32) Gruber, H. E., & Vonèche, J. J. (Eds.). (1977). *The essential piaget* (pp. 435-436).
- 33) London: Routledge & Kegan Paul. Gesell, A. (1933). *Maturation and the patterning of behavior*.
- 34) Gopnik, A. (1996). The post-Piaget era. *Psychological Science*, 7(4), 221-225.
- 35) Gould, M., & Howson, A. (2019). Erikson's eight stages of development.
- 36) Gallagher, J. M., & Reid, D. K. (2002). *The learning theory of Piaget and Inhelder*. iUniverse.
- 37) Hall, G. S. (1948). *The contents of children's minds*, 1883.
- 38) Haenen, J., Schrijnemakers, H., & Stufkens, J. (2003). Sociocultural theory and the practice of teaching historical concepts. *Vygotsky's educational theory in cultural context*, 246-266.
- 39) Keenan, T., Evans, S., & Crowley, K. (2016). *An introduction to child development*. Sage.
- 40) Lantolf, J. P. (2000). Introducing sociocultural theory. *Sociocultural theory and second language learning*, 1, 1-26.



## An Overview of Child Development from the Theoretical Perspectives

- 41) McLeod, S. (2011). Albert Bandura's social learning theory. *Simply Psychology*. London.
- 42) Maree, J. G. (2022). The psychosocial development theory of Erik Erikson: critical overview. *The Influence of Theorists and Pioneers on Early Childhood Education*, 119-133.
- 43) Munari, A. (1994). Jean Piaget: 1896–1980.
- 44) Moll, L. C. (2013). *LS Vygotsky and education*. Routledge.
- 45) Marcia, J. E. (2004). Why Erikson. *The future of identity: Centennial reflections on the legacy of Erik Erikson*, 43-59.
- 46) Marsico, G., & Calandrini, A. R. (2020). Getting psychology back onto its feet: The developmental view of James mark Baldwin. *Integrative Psychological and Behavioral Science*, 54, 686-693.
- 47) Maisto, S. A., Carey, K. B., & Bradizza, C. M. (1999). Social learning theory.
- 48) Montangero, J., & Maurice-Naville, D. (1997). Piaget, or, the advance of knowledge. Psychology Press.
- 49) Pence, C. H. (2022). Charles Darwin (1809–1882).
- 50) Piaget, J. (1982). Jean Piaget. Praeger.
- 51) Piaget, J. (1992). Seis estudios de psicología, Jean Piaget. Colección.
- 52) Piaget, J. (1978). Piaget's theory of intelligence. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- 53) Piaget, J. (2003). Part I: Cognitive Development in Children--Piaget Development and Learning. *Journal of research in science teaching*, 40
- 54) Piaget, J. (1968). Le point de vue de Piaget. *International Journal of Psychology*, 3(4), 281-299.
- 55) Piaget, J. (1976). Piaget's theory.
- 56) Piaget, J. (2000). Piaget's theory of cognitive development. *Childhood cognitive development: The essential readings*, 2, 33-47.
- 57) Parcel, G. S., & Baranowski, T. (1981). Social learning theory and health education. *Health Education*, 12(3), 14-18.
- 58) Rotter, J. B. (2021). Social learning theory. In *Expectations and actions* (pp. 241-260). Routledge.
- 59) Rieber, R. W., & Robinson, D. K. (Eds.). (2013). *The essential vygotsky*. Springer Science & Business Media.
- 60) Richmond, R. G. (2013). *Introduction to Piaget*. Routledge.
- 61) Santrock, J. W. (2015). *Essentials of life-span development (Fourth Edition)*. America: McGraw-Hill Education.
- 62) Sawyer, J. (2014). Vygotsky's revolutionary theory of psychological development. *International Socialist Review*, 93, 1-28.
- 63) Sutton-Smith, B. (1966). Piaget on play: A critique. *Psychological review*, 73(1), 104.
- 64) Smith, L. (2002). Jean Piaget 1896–1980. In *Fifty modern thinkers on education* (pp. 37-44). Routledge.
- 65) Sawyer, J. (2017). I think I can: Preschoolers' private speech and motivation in playful versus non-playful contexts. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 38, 84-96.
- 66) Sage, K. (2022). Zone of proximal development.
- 67) Scott, S., & Palincsar, A. (2013). Sociocultural theory.
- 68) Singer, D. G., & Revenson, T. A. (1996). *A Piaget primer: How a child thinks*; Revised Edition. Penguin.
- 69) Thomas, R. M. (2000). *Comparing theories of child development*. Wadsworth/Thomson Learning.
- 70) van Compernelle, R. A. (2021). Sociocultural theory. In *The Routledge handbook of the psychology of language learning and teaching* (pp. 22-35). Routledge.
- 71) Verenikina, I. (2003). Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory and the zone of proximal development.
- 72) Vygotsky, L. S. (1987). *The collected works of LS Vygotsky: Problems of the theory and history of psychology* (Vol. 3). Springer Science & Business Media.
- 73) Vygotsky, L. S. (1994). *The Vygotsky reader*.
- 74) Vygotsky, L. S. (1987). *The collected works of LS Vygotsky: The fundamentals of defectology* (Vol. 2). Springer Science & Business Media.
- 75) Vygotsky, L. (2018). *Lev Vygotsky. La psicología en la Revolución Rusa*. Colombia: Ediciones desde abajo.
- 76) Vygotsky, L. S. (2012). *The collected works of LS Vygotsky: Scientific legacy*. Springer Science & Business Media.
- 77) Vidal, F. (1994). *Piaget before Piaget*. Harvard University Press.
- 78) Verenikina, I. (2010, June). Vygotsky in twenty-first-century research. In *EdMedia+ innovate learning* (pp. 16-25).

## An Overview of Child Development from the Theoretical Perspectives

Association for the Advancement of Computing in Education (AACE).

- 79) Vygotsky, L. S. (2012). *Thought and language*. MIT press.
- 80) Van der Veer, R. (2014). *Lev Vygotsky*. Bloomsbury Publishing.
- 81) Vygotsky, L. S. (2016). *The collected works of LS Vygotsky: Problems of general psychology, including the volume thinking and speech*. Springer.
- 82) Vygotsky, L. (1962). *Thought and language* (p. 1962). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- 83) Vygotsky, L. S. (1977). The development of higher psychological functions. *Soviet Psychology*, 15(3), 60-73.
- 84) Vygotsky, L. S., & Cole, M. (1978). *Mind in society: Development of higher psychological processes*. Harvard university press.
- 85) Vygotsky, L. S., Rieber, R. W., & Hall, M. J. (1997). *The collected works of LS Vygotsky, Vol. 4: The history of the development of higher mental functions*. Plenum Press.
- 86) Weiland, S. (1993). Erik Erikson: Ages, stages, and stories. *Generations: Journal of the American Society on Aging*, 17(2), 17-22.
- 87) Webb, P. K. (1980). Piaget: Implications for teaching. *Theory into practice*, 19(2), 93-97.
- 88) Walker, R. N. (1992). The gesell development assessment: Psychometric properties. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 7(1), 21-43.
- 89) Weizmann, F., & Harris, B. (2012). Arnold Gesell: The maturationist. *Portraits of pioneers in developmental psychology*, 7.
- 90) Xi, J., & Lantolf, J. P. (2021). Scaffolding and the zone of proximal development: A problematic relationship. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour*, 51(1), 25-48.
- 91) Zeig, J. K. (2013). *Experiencing Erikson*. Routledge.



There is an Open Access article, distributed under the term of the Creative Commons Attribution – Non Commercial 4.0 International (CC BY-NC 4.0)

(<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>), which permits remixing, adapting and building upon the work for non-commercial use, provided the original work is properly cited.