

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter discusses about some theories that any relation with the title and based on the problems in the title. Some theories include theories of puberty, theory parenting, theory of personality, theory of attitude change and the last is theory of better education.

#### A. Theory of Puberty

Related with the theory of puberty in order to help analyzing of this research, it could be given the explanation about definition of puberty, characteristic of puberty, characteristic of teenager, environment factor.

##### 1. Definition of puberty

A moment that unforgettable when they become teenage, a moments that full of sadness and happiness is when they become teenage and a moments that colorful is when they become teenage<sup>7</sup>. Based on the Hurlock's definition teenage is the process from the child till they grow up to be teenager<sup>8</sup>.

Based on the Greece puberty is physical's change and attitude because their life is unique and they never back to the time when they become adult. When the teenage grow up they want still looking for their selves, they often curious with something new also make something new although it make someone else uncomfortable. And teenage often feel that he is the only one cool in this world.

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<sup>7</sup><http://melizawardhanic.student.umm.ac.id> (PDF)

<sup>8</sup> Al- Mighwar Muhamad, 2006. *Psikologi Remaja*. Bandung: Pustaka Setia. Hal 17

## 2. Characteristic of puberty

Puberty is the beautiful moment that everyone has and each people have different moment. When they become adult they never gets that moment at the same time because the moment when they puberty has many characteristic, there are 3 characteristics when the puberty happen such as transition, speed growth, negative period.

### a. Transition

Puberty is transition's period, because it is time they change physical, body, mind from the child to the teenage<sup>9</sup>. Some of the characteristic that they have when childhood it will change step by step and it will called the first they throw the childhood characteristic and the first they become teenage.

### b. Speed Growth

When they become a child the attitude change often happen such as they could not speak, walk, watch and hear. But when they become teenager the physical changes prominent happen. Speed growth happen during 1-2 years old before the sexual aspect done and it happen continue during 6 month till 1 years.

Based on the Psychologist that speed growth happen to the girl in the 8,5 and 11,5 years old and the top of the speed growth happen on the 12,5 years then slow down little by little stop when they 17-18

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<sup>9</sup> Ibid 19

years old<sup>10</sup>. And for boy speed growth happen when they 10, 5 and 14,5 years old and the top of the speed growth happen when they 14,5 and 15,5 years old and little by little slow down till they in 20 and 21 years old.

c. Negative Period

Charlotte Buhler explain that puberty is negative period because this period happen in the short time and negative characteristic did not appear yet when the childhood<sup>11</sup>. Because negative period appear when the first time they become puberty. They often do something to attract someone to see it and make someone proud of them. But the negative period more prominent happen to the boy than happen to the girl.

3. Environment factor

There is some environment's factor that influence with the teenage. And the factor that could influence to the teenage such as environment's family, social condition includes economies of family.

a. Family Environment

When the family enharmonic it is not because one of them do the mistake but both of them is do the same mistake. When the parents hope their children do something based on they age but in other hand the parents subjected their children like baby. The other way the children they want to get the freedom but the other hand they obey regulation's family. When the conflict come between parent and

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<sup>11</sup> Ibid 23

children, parents unproofable because parent what they to do is to make their children became good person but sometimes the way how to tell to the children does not suitable.

There are many people in one family and each other should respect and it will give the situation in the family will be comfort and friendly.

b. Social Condition Include Economies of Family

An economy of family is very important because when the teenage feel that they could not have the same thing like their friend they feel underestimate. In other way if the family has good economy it will make the teenage feel confident. But many teenage life in the good economy but they never do best the entire thing, otherwise when the teenage life in the bad economy they always do the best thing and make her parents proud of her.

4. James Marika' Four Identity Statuses

On the basis of Erikson's work, James Marcia (1991) identified four identity statuses from in depth interviews with adolescents<sup>12</sup>. The statuses reflect the degree to which &scents have made firm commitments to religious and political values as well as to a future occupation. These are as follows:

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<sup>12</sup> Slavin, Robert. 2006. *Psikologi Pendidikan : Teori dan Praktek*. Jakarta: PT.Indeks (117)

a. Foreclosure:

Individuals in a state of foreclosure have never experienced an identity crisis. Rather, they have prematurely established an identity on the basis of their parents' choices rather than their own. They have made occupational and ideological commitments, but these commitments reflect more an assessment of what their parents or authority figures could do than an autonomous process of self-assessment. Foreclosure indicates a kind of "pseudo-identity" that generally is too fixed and rigid to serve as a foundation for meeting life's future crises.

b. Identity diffusion:

Adolescents experiencing identity diffusion have found neither an occupational direction nor an ideological commitment of any kind, and they have made little progress toward these ends. They may have experienced an identity crisis, but if so, they were unable to resolve it.

c. Moratorium:

Adolescents in a state of moratorium are those who have begun to experiment with occupational and ideological choices but have not yet made definitive commitments to either. These individuals are directly in the mid of an identity crisis and are currently examining alternate life choices.

d. Identity achievement:

Identity achievement signifies a state of identity consolidation in which adolescents have made their own conscious, clear-cut decisions

about occupation and ideology. The individual is convinced that these decisions were autonomously and freely made, and that they reflect his or her true nature and deep inner commitments.

#### 5. Self-concept and Self-Esteem

Self-concept and self-esteem also change as children enter and go through adolescence. The shift toward more abstract portrayals that began in middle childhood continues, and adolescents' self-descriptions often include personal traits (friendly, obnoxious), emotions (depressed, psyched), and personal beliefs (liberal, conservative) (Harter, 1998). In addition, the self-concept becomes more differentiated. Susan Harter's work has identified eight distinct aspects of adolescent concept: scholastic competence, job competence, athletic competence, physical appearance, social acceptance, close friendships, romantic appeal, and conduct (Harter, 1998). Marsh (1993) identified five distinct self-concepts: academic verbal, academic mathematical, parent relations, same-sex, and opposite sex.

Self-esteem also undergoes fluctuations and changes during adolescence. Self-esteem is lowest as children enter middle school or junior high school and with the onset of puberty (Simmons & Blyth, 1987). Early maturing girls tend to suffer the most dramatic and long-lasting decreases in self-esteem. In general, adolescent girls have lower self-esteem than do boys (Marsh, 1993; Simmons & Blyth, 1987). Global

self-esteem or feelings of self-worth appear to be influenced most strongly by physical appearance and then by social acceptance from peers.

#### 6. Emotional Development

Most adolescents experience emotional conflicts at some point. This is hardly surprising, since they are going through rapid and dramatic changes in body image, expected roles, and peer relationships. The transitions from elementary to middle school or junior high and then on to high school can also be quite stressful (Harter, Whitesell, & Kowalski, 1992; Midgley, 1993). For most adolescents, emotional distress is temporary and is successfully handled, but for some the stresses lead to delinquency, Cook, & McCarthy, 1993; O'Neil, 1991; Range 1993).

Emotional problems related to the physical, cognitive, and social development of upper elementary school-aged children are common. Though preadolescents are generally happy and optimistic, they also have many fears, such as fear of not being accepted into a peer group, not having a best friend, being punished by their parents, having their parents get a divorce, or not doing well in school.

Other emotions of this age group include anger (and fear of being unable to control it), guilt, frustration, and jealousy. Preadolescents need help in realizing that these emotions and fears are a natural part of growing up. Adults must let them talk about these emotions and fears, even if they seem unrealistic to an adult. Feelings of guilt often arise when there is a conflict between children's actions (based on values of the peer group) and

their parents' values. Anger is a common emotion at this age and is displayed with more intensity than many of the other emotions. Just as they often tell their preadolescents that they should not be afraid, parents often tell them that they should not get angry. Unfortunately, this is an unrealistic expectation, even for adults.

## 7. Problems of Adolescence

Adolescence can be a time of great risk for many, as teenagers are now able, for the first time, to engage in behaviors or make decisions that can have long-term negative consequences (Dryfoos, 1998; National Research Council, 1995).

### a. Emotional Disorders

Secondary school teachers should be sensitive to the stresses that adolescents face and should realize that emotional disturbances are common (Galambus & Costigan, 2003). They should understand that depressed, hopeless, or unaccountably angry behavior can be a clue that the adolescent needs help, and they should try to put such students in touch with school counselors or other psychologically trained adult.

### b. Bullying

Taunting, harassment, and aggression toward weaker or friendless peers occurs at all age levels, but can become particularly serious as children enter early adolescence (Juvonen, Nishina, & Graham, 2000; Pellegrini & Bartini, 2000).



c. Dropping Out

Dropping out of secondary school can put adolescents at considerable risk, as dropouts condemn themselves to low-level occupations, unemployment, and poverty. Of course, the factors that lead to dropping out begin early in students' school careers; school failure, retention (staying back), assignment to special education, and poor attendance all predict dropout (Battin-Pearson et al., 2000; Goldschmidt & Wang, 1999; Pallas, 2002). Dropout rates have generally been declining, especially among African American students, although African Americans are still disproportionately at risk (Balfanz & Legters, 2004). For Latino students, however, dropout rates remain very high (Secada et al., 1998). Dropout rates among at-risk students can be greatly reduced by programs that give these students individual attention, high-status roles, and assistance with academic deficits (Burt, Resnick, & Novick, 1998; Fashola & Slavin, 1998). Students in smaller and more academically focused high schools tend to drop out less frequently than other students (Lee & Burkam, 2003).

d. Drug and Alcohol Abuse

Substance use continues to be widespread among adolescents (Perkins & Borden, 2003). Eighty percent of high school seniors drink alcohol, and 31 percent have tried marijuana (Johnson et al., 2001). Drug and alcohol abuse are strongly connected to school failure (Bryant & Zimmerman, 2002).

e. Delinquency

One of the most dangerous problems of adolescence is the beginning of serious delinquency. The problem is far more common among males than among females (U.S. Department of Justice, 1998). Delinquents are usually low achievers who have been given little reason to believe that they can succeed by following the path laid out for them by the school (Hawkins et al., 2000). Delinquency in adolescence is overwhelmingly a group phenomenon; most delinquent acts are done in groups or with the active support of a delinquent subgroup (Branch, 1998; Farmer et al., 2002; Perkins & Borden, 2003).

f. Risk of Pregnancy

Pregnancy and childbirth are serious problems among all groups of female adolescents but particularly among those from lower-income homes (Coley & Chase-Lansdale, 1998; Susman, Dorn, & Schiefelbein, 2003). Just as adolescent males often engage in delinquent behavior to try to establish their independence - from adult control, adolescent females often engage in sex, and in many cases have children, to force the world to see them as adults. Because early childbearing makes it difficult for adolescent females to continue their schooling or get jobs, it is a primary cause of the continuation of the cycle of poverty into which many adolescent mothers were themselves born (Hoffman, Foster, & Furstenberg, 1993). Of course, the other side

of teen pregnancy is teen fatherhood. Teen fathers also suffer behavioral and academic problems in school (Hanson, Morrison, & Ginsburg, 1989). ). Many programs intended to delay intercourse and reduce pregnancy exist. Research on these programs finds that sex education programs that emphasize both abstinence and use of condoms and other birth control methods are more effective than those that emphasize just Abstinence (Kirby, 2000)

g. Risk of Sexually Transmitted Diseases

Compounding the traditional risks of early sexual activity is the rise in AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases (Ihlichman, 1996). AIDS is still very rare during the adolescent years, and rates of infection have been declining (CDC, 1998). However, because full-blown AIDS can take 10 years to appear, unprotected sex, needle sharing, and other high-risk behavior among teens are what often causes the high rates of AIDS among young adults (Hein, 1993). The appearance of AIDS has made the need for early, explicit sex education critical, potentially a life-or-death matter. However, knowledge alone is not enough (Woodring, 1995); sexually active adolescents must have access to condoms and realistic, psychologically sophisticated inducements to use them (Aronson, 1995).

#### h. Sexual identify

It is during adolescence that people begin to explore their sexual identify, including young people who begin to identify with a gay or lesbian orientation. This new awareness can cause great stress for the adolescent and for his or her parents. It also can lead to tension with peer groups, which may have strong norms against homosexuality and may engage in taunting, rejection, or even violent behavior toward gay or lesbian peers. Teachers need to model acceptance of gay and lesbian students and strictly enforce school rules forbidding disrespect toward anyone, gay or straight (Koppelman & Goodhart, 2005).

### **B. Theory of Parenting**

A parent is the only one who can understand and make the children feels safety. Everything that the parents do just because of their children, parent always hard work to make their children become the best all the time they always protects their children. And they feel sad if something bad happen to their children or their children do mistake. Parenting is important to learn. And there are many theories related to parenting and some of them will be discussed in this paper. They are definition of parenting.

Parenting is the process of raising and educating a child from birth, or before, until adulthood<sup>13</sup>. Parenting is the process of promoting and supporting the physical, emotional, social, and intellectual development of a

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<sup>13</sup>Self Improvement Site,

[http://www.selfgrowth.com/articles/Definition\\_Parenting.htm](http://www.selfgrowth.com/articles/Definition_Parenting.htm) (5 maret 2013)

child from infancy to adulthood. Parenting can be simply defined as "the process or the state of being a parent"<sup>14</sup>.

God give a special thing in every girl because they can pregnant and give birth, but not all the girl could feel the same thing. There are several characteristics of parenting. First of all, with the advance of medical knowledge and technology, parenting becomes a choice in life. Secondly, being a parent is a life-long commitment. Thirdly, it involves responsibilities as parents are responsible to take good care of their children physically as well as psychologically. Lastly, parenting involves not just the couple but all the family members since the birth of a child affects the whole family.

The quality of parenting depends on several factors. Firstly, the mature personality of the parents is the basic factor of good quality parenting. It also contributes to the stable and intimate marital relationship, which is the second factor of high quality parenting. Thirdly, the parents' motivation of having a child would affect their way of parenting. Fourthly, whether the pregnancy is planned or not is also an important factor as planned pregnancy implies better preparation to be a parent. Whether the parents' level of expectation on the child is appropriate will certainly affect their parenting quality. Parents' unrealistic expectation will exert pressure on children. Lastly, the child's temperament and physical attributes is also a factor. A difficult

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<sup>14</sup> BMY Chan. *Challenges To Parenting: The Local Scene*  
[www.hkjpae.org/pdf/2004;9;182-184.pdf](http://www.hkjpae.org/pdf/2004;9;182-184.pdf).

child with physical handicap will make the parenting task more difficult than an easy baby with adorable attributes.<sup>15</sup>

### C. Theory of Personality

Personality is the most important thing in human life to show their existences in the world, because it could make them different than others<sup>16</sup>. And this paper describe about definition of personality.

Personality is the set of psychological traits and mechanisms within the individual that are organized and relatively enduring and that influence his or her interactions with, and adaptations to, the intrapsychic, physical, and social environments<sup>17</sup>.

The part of a person that makes them behaves in a particular way in social situations, for example in a friendly or unfriendly way, or in a confident or shy way. You use the word character when you are talking about whether someone is good or bad, or honest or dishonest<sup>18</sup>.

Some people when talk about personality they just want to know about what are the differences each other. Then they are competing each other when they know each personality. But not all the people just want to know about the differences but, they are also looking for the same thing. When they

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<sup>15</sup> *ibid*

<sup>16</sup> C. George ,Boeree, Personality Theories: Melacak Kepribadian Anda Bersama Psikolog Dunia, Translate By Inyak Ridwan Muzir (Jogjakarta: prismashophie,2008)

<sup>17</sup> Jhon D.Mayer. The Online Newsletter for Personality Science Issue  
*www.unh.edu/personalitylab/.pdf*

<sup>18</sup> Mc. Millan, DICTIONARY ,Dictionary Online  
<http://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/personality>

know there is someone has the same thing they feel that they are not the only one who get it.

#### **D. Theory of Attitude Change**

Attitude change Refers to modification of individual's general evaluative perception of a stimulus or set of stimuli. Thus changes for any reason in a person's general and enduring favorable or unfavorable regard for some person object or issue fall under the rubric of attitude change. Not included under the rubric of attitude change are change in knowledge or skill (i.e., education), and change in behavior that require another surveillance or sanctions (i.e. , compliance). Innate prediction to approach or withdraw, such as reflexes or fixed action patterns and irreversible changes in parameters of approach or withdrawal- such as diminished response vigor due to aging, may be related to attitude change but are not themselves considered instance of attitude change. Attitude change, therefore, represents a specific form of self control and social control that do not rely on coercion<sup>19</sup>.

#### **I. Children's develop during the preschool years**

Children can be termed *preschoolers* when they are between 3 and 5 years of age. This is a time of rapid change in all areas of development. Children master most motor skills by the end of this period and can use their physical skills to achieve a wide range of goals. Cognitively, they start to develop an understanding of classes and relationships and absorb an enormous amount of information about their

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<sup>19</sup> Cacioppo, John. *Attitude Change*. Ohio State University. Pdf (10 juli 2013)

social and physical worlds. Children use almost completely mature speech, not only to express their wants and needs, but also to share their ideas and experiences. Socially, children learn appropriate behaviors and rules and become increasingly adept at interacting with other children.

As each of these aspects of development is discussed, keep in mind the complexity of development and how all facets of a child's growth are interrelated. Although physical, cognitive, and social development can be put in separate sections in a book, in real life they not only are intertwined but also are affected by the environment within which children grow up<sup>20</sup>.

a. Physical development in early childhood

Physical development describes the changes in the physical appearance of children as well as in their motor skills. During the preschool years the sequence in which all children develop motor skills is generally the same, though some children gain skills faster than others. The major physical accomplishment for preschoolers is increased control over the large and small muscles. Small muscle development, or fine motor activity, relates to movements requiring precision and dexterity, such as buttoning a shirt or zipping a coat. Large muscle development, or gross motor activities, involves such movements.

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<sup>20</sup>Slavin, Robert. 2006. *Psikologi Pendidikan: Teori dan Praktek*. Jakarta: PT.indeks (90)



❖ Motor Development of preschool children

- 2-year-olds : 'Walk with wide stance and body sway. Can climb, push, pull, run, and hang, by both hands. Have little endurance. Reach for objects with two hands.
- 3-years old : Keep legs closer together when walking and running. Can run and move more smoothly. Reach for objects with one hand. Smear and daub paint Stack block
- 4-years old : Can vary rhythm of running. Skip awkwardly; jump. Have greater Strength, endurance, and coordination. Draw shapes and simple figures; make paintings; use blocks for buildings
- 5-years old : Can walk a balance beam. Skip smoothly; stand on one foot. Can manage buttons and zippers may tie shoelaces. Use utensils and tools correctly.

By the end of the preschool period, most children can easily perform self-help tasks such as buckling, buttoning, snapping, and zipping. g. They can go up and down steps with alternating feet t. They can perform fine motor activities such as cutting with scissors s and using crayons to color a predefined area. . They also begin learning to write letters and words. After 6 or 7 years of age, children gain few completely new w basic skills; rather, the quality and complexity of their movements improve (Berk, 2001)

b. Socioemotional Development

A young child's social life evolves in relatively predictable ways. The social network grows from an intimate relationship with parents or other guardians to include their family members, nonrelated adults, and peers. Social interactions extend from home to neighborhood. And from preschool or other child – care arrangements to formal school. Erik Erikson's theory of personal and social development suggests that during the preschool years, children must resolve the personality crisis of initiative versus guilt. The Child's successful resolutions of this stage result in a sense of initiative and ambition tempered by a reasonable understanding of the permissible. Early educators can encourage this resolution by giving children opportunities to take initiative, to be challenged, and to succeed.

c. Prosocial Behavior

Prosocial behaviors are voluntary actions toward others such as caring, sharing, comforting, and cooperation. Research on the roots of prosocial behavior has contributed to our knowledge of children's moral as well as social development. Several factors seem to be associated with the development of prosocial behaviors (Eisenberg & Mussen, 1989). These include the following:

- Parental disciplinary techniques that stress the consequences of the child's behavior for others and that are applied within a warm, responsive parent-child relationship (Hoffman, 1993).

- Contact with adults who indicate they expect concern for others, who let children know that aggressive solutions to problems are unacceptable, and who provide acceptable alternatives (Iconig, 1995).
- Contact with adults who attribute positive characteristics to children when they do well ("What a helpful boy") (Grusec & Goodnow, 1994).

## **2. Children's development during the elementary years**

Children entering the first grade are in a transitional period from the rapid growth in early childhood to a phase of more gradual development. Shifts in both mental and social development characterize the early school years. Several years later, when children reach the upper elementary grades, they are nearing the end of childhood and entering preadolescence. Children's success in school is particularly important during the early school years, for it is in the elementary grades that they largely define themselves as students (Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1996).

### **a. Physical Development during Middle Childhood**

As children progress through the primary grades, their physical development slows in comparison with earlier childhood. Children change relatively little in size during the primary years. To picture the typical child in the primary grades, we must picture a child in good physical condition. Girls are slightly shorter and lighter than

boys until around the age of 9, when height and weight are approximately equal for boys and girls. Muscular development is outdistanced by bone and skeletal development. This may cause the aches that are commonly known as growing pains. Also, the growing muscles need much exercise, and this need may contribute to the primary grade child's inability to stay still for long. By the time children enter the primary grades; they have developed many of the basic motor skills they need for balance, running, jumping, and throwing. During the latter part of the fourth grade, many girls begin a major growth spurt that will not be completed until puberty. This spurt begins with the rapid growth of the arms and legs. At this point there is not an accompanying change in trunk size. The result is a gangly or all-arms-and-legs appearance. Because this bone growth occurs before the development of associated muscles and cartilage, children at this growth stage temporarily lose some coordination and strength.

By the start of the fifth grade, almost all girls have begun their growth spurt. In addition, muscle and cartilage growth of the limbs resumes in the earlier maturing females, and they regain their strength and coordination. By the end of the fifth grade, girls are typically taller, heavier, and stronger than boys. Males are 12 to 18 months behind girls in development, so even early maturing boys do not start their growth spurt until age 11. By the start of the sixth grade, therefore, most girls will be near the peak of their growth spurt, and all

but the early maturing boys will be continuing the slow, steady growth of late childhood. Girls will usually have started their menstrual period by age 13. For boys the end of preadolescence and the onset of early adolescence are measured by the first ejaculation, which occurs between the ages of 13 and 16.

b. Cognitive Abilities

Between the ages of 5 and 7, children's thought processes undergo significant changes (Siegler, 1998). This is a period of transition from the stage of preoperational thought to the stage of concrete operations. This change allows children to do mentally what was previously done physically and to mentally reverse the actions involved. Not all children make this transition at the same age, and no individual child changes from one stage to the next quickly. Children often use cognitive behaviors that are characteristic of two stages of development at the same time. As individuals advance from one stage to the next, the characteristics of the previous stage are maintained as the cognitive behaviors of the higher stage develop.

In addition to entering the concrete operational stage, elementary school-age children are rapidly developing memory and cognitive skills, including metacognitive skills, the ability to think about their own thinking and to learn how to learn.

c. Socioemotional Development in Middle Childhood

By the time children enter elementary school, they have developed skills for more complex thought, action, and social influence. Up to this point, children have been basically egocentric, and their world has been that of home, family, and possibly a preschool or day-care center. The early primary grades will normally be spent working through Erikson's (1963) fourth stage, industry versus inferiority. Assuming that a child has developed trust during infancy, autonomy during the early years, and initiative during the preschool years, which child's experiences in the primary grades can contribute to his or her sense of industry and accomplishment. During this stage, children start trying to prove that they are "grown up"; in fact, this is often described as the I-can-do-it-myself stage. Works becomes possible. As children's powers of concentration grow, they can spend more time on chosen tasks, and they often take pleasure in completing projects. This stage also includes the growth of independent action, cooperation with groups, and performing in socially acceptable ways with a concern for fair play (McHale, Dariotis, & Kauh, 2003).

**3. Children's develop during the middle school and high school years**

The adolescent period of development begins with puberty. The pubertal period, or early adolescence, is a time of rapid physical and intellectual development. Middle adolescence is a more stable period of

adjustment to and integration of the changes of early adolescence. Later adolescence is marked by the transition into the responsibilities, choices, and opportunities of adulthood. In this section we will review the major changes that occur as the child becomes an adolescent, and we will examine how adolescent development affects teaching, curriculum, and school structure.

a. Physical Development during Adolescence

Puberty is a series of physiological changes that render the immature organism capable of reproduction. Nearly every organ and system of the body is affected by these changes. The prepubertal child and the postpubertal adolescent are different in outward appearance because of changes in stature and proportion and the development of primary and secondary sex features (Susman, Dorn, & Schiefelbein, 2003). Although the sequence of events at puberty is generally the same for each person, the timing and the rate at which they occur vary widely. The average female typically begins pubertal changes 1 to 2 years earlier than the average male. In each sex, however, the range of normal onset ages is approximately 6 years. Like the onset, the rate of changes also varies widely. Some people take only 18 to 24 months to go through the pubertal changes to reproductive maturity; others may require 6 years to pass through the same stage. These differences mean that some individuals may be completely mature before others the same age have even begun puberty. The age of maximum diversity is

13 for males and about 11 for females. The comparisons that children make among themselves, as well as the tendency to hold maturity in high regard, can be a problem for the less mature (Ge, Longer, & Elder, 2001). On the other hand, the first to mature are also likely to experience temporary discomfort because they stand out from the less mature majority. Early-maturing girls, for example, are more likely to engage in delinquency and have school problems than other girls (Stice, Presnell, & Bearman, 2001), and early-maturing boys also are more likely to engage in delinquent behavior (Ge et al., 2001).

b. Cognitive Development

As the rest of the body changes at puberty, the brain and its functions also change, and the timing of intellectual changes varies widely across individuals. One indication of this is that scores on intelligence tests obtained over several years from the same individual fluctuate most during the period from 12 to 15 years of age. Some researchers refer to an "intellectual growth spurt" at this age (Andrich & Styles, 1994). In Piaget's theory of cognitive development, adolescence is the stage of transition from the use of concrete operations to the application of formal operations in reasoning. Adolescents begin to be aware of the limitations of their thinking. They wrestle with concepts that are removed from their own experience. Inhelder and Piaget (1958) acknowledge that brain changes at puberty may be necessary for the cognitive advances of adolescence.



However, they assert that experience with complex problems, the demands of formal instruction, and exchange and contradiction of ideas with peers are also necessary for formal operational reasoning to develop. Adolescents who reach this stage (not all do) have attained an adult level of reasoning. Adolescent cognitive development is characterized more by steady growth in understanding and capabilities (Eccles, Wigfield, & Byrnes, 2003).

c. Socioemotional Development in Adolescence

In adolescence, children undergo significant changes in their social and emotional lives as well. Partly as a result of their changing physical and cognitive structures, children in the upper elementary grades seek to be more grown up. They want their parents to treat them differently, even though many parents are unwilling to see them differently.

They also report that though they believe that their parents love them, they do not think their parents understand them. For both boys and girls in the upper elementary grades, membership in groups tends to promote feelings of self-worth. Not being accepted can bring serious emotional problems. Here in lies the major cause of the preadolescent's changing relationship with parents. It is not that preadolescents care less about their parents. It is just that their friends are more important than ever. This need for acceptance by peers helps to explain why preadolescents often dress alike (Baumeister & Leary,

1995). The story of Sam Stevens's earring at the beginning of this chapter illustrates how young adolescents express their belongingness with other peer group members through distinctive dress or behavior. The middle school years often also bring changes in the relationship between children and their teachers. In primary school, children easily accept and depend on teachers. During the upper elementary years, this relationship becomes more complex (see Roeser, Eccles, & Sameroff, 2000). Sometimes students will tell teachers personal information they would not tell their parents. Some preadolescents even choose teachers as role models. At the same time, however, some preteens talk back to teachers in ways they would never have considered several years earlier, and some openly challenge teachers. Others become deeply alienated from school, starting a pattern that may lead to delinquency and dropout (Murdoch, 1999).

#### **E. Theory of Better Education**

Education in its general sense is a form of learning in which knowledge, skills, and habits of a group of people are transferred from one generation to the next through teaching, training, research, or simply through auto didacticism. Generally, it occurs through any experience that has a formative effect on the way one thinks, feels, or acts.<sup>21</sup> Education is important in our life. And all of people in the world should have better education. Because, it can make help us to get everything what we want. But to get better

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<sup>21</sup> Wikipedia.the free encyclopedia

<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Education> (20 mei 2013)

education is not easy. Need many processes, steps, trick to get better education. Education is the way to reach better future in our life. As Muslim we should study until pass away. It means that education is important in life. There are many people in the world that has better education and has better life. Life could change better than before it is because of get better education.

#### 1. Kinds of Strategies to Help Student

How are you reading this book? Are you underlining or highlighting key sentences? Are you taking notes or summarizing? Are you discussing the main ideas with a classmate? Are you the book under your pillow at night and hoping the information will somehow seep into your mind? Students have used these and many other strategies ever since the invention of reading and such strategies have been studied almost as long. Even Aristotle wrote on the topic. Yet educational psychologists are still debating which study strategies are most effective (Mayer, 1996; Pressley, Yokoi, Van Meter, van Etten, & Freebern, 1997).

Research on effective study strategies is confusing at best. Few forms of studying are found to be always effective, and fewer still are never effective. Clearly, the value of study strategies depends on their specifics and on the uses to which they are put (Weinstein & Hume, 1998; Zimmerman, 1998). Research on the most common study strategies is summarized in the following sections<sup>22</sup>.

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<sup>22</sup> Slavin, Robert. 2006. *Psikologi Pendidikan: Teori dan Praktek*. Jakarta: PT. indeks (254)

a. Note-Taking

A common study strategy that is used both in reading and in learning from lectures is note-taking. Note-taking can be effective for certain types of material, because it can require mental processing of main ideas, as one makes decisions about what to write. However, the effects of note-taking have been found to be inconsistent. Positive effects are most likely when note-taking is used for complex conceptual material in which the critical task is to identify the main ideas (Ricltards, Fajen, Sullivan, & Gillespie, 1997). Also, note-taking that requires some mental processing is more effective than simply writing down what was read (Kiewra, 1991; Kiewra et al., 1991; Slotte & Lonka, 1999). For example, Bretzing and Kulhavy (1981) found that writing paraphrase notes (stating the main ideas in different words) and taking notes in preparation to teach others the material were effective note-taking strategies, because they required a high degree of mental processing of the Information.

One apparently effective means of increasing the value of students' note-taking is for the teacher to provide partial notes before a lecture or reading, giving students categories to direct their own note-taking. Several studies have found that this practice, combined with

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student note-taking and review, increases student learning (Robinson et al., 2004).

b. Underlining

Perhaps the most common study strategy is underlining or highlighting. Yet despite the widespread use of this method, research on underlining generally finds few benefits (Anderson & Armbruster, 1984; Gaddy, 1998; Snowman, 1984). The problem is that most students fail to make decisions about what material is most critical and simply underline too much. When students are asked to underline the one sentence in each paragraph that is most important, they do retain more, probably because deciding which is the most important sentence requires a higher level of processing (Snowman, 1984).

c. Summarizing

Summarizing involves writing brief statements that represent the main ideas of the information being read. The effectiveness of this strategy depends on how it is used (King, 1991; Slotte & Lonka, 1999). One effective way is to have students write one-sentence summaries after reading each paragraph (Wittrock, 1991). Another is to have students prepare summaries that are intended to help others learn the material—partly because this activity forces the summarizer to be brief and to consider seriously what is important and what is not (Brown, Bransford, Ferrara, & Campione, 1983). However, it is important to note that several studies have found no effect of

summarization, and the conditions under which this strategy increases, comprehension or retention of written material are not well understood (Wittrock, 1991; Wittrock & Alesandrini, 1990).

d. Writing to learn

A growing body of evidence supports the idea that having student explain in writing the content that they are learning helps them understand and remember it (Klein, 1999). For example, Fellows (1994) had sixth-graders in a 12-week science unit on states of matter write about their understandings of the concepts at several points in the unit. A control group studied the same content without writing. The writing group retained substantially more of the content at post-test. This and other studies find that focused writing assignments help children learn the content they are writing about. However, evidence is much more mixed regarding the effects of less focused "journal writing," in which students keep logs of their ideas and observations.

e. Outlining and Mapping

A related family of study strategies requires the student to represent the material studied in skeletal form. These strategies include outlining, networking, and mapping. Outlining presents the main points of the material in a hierarchical format, with each detail organized under a higher-level category. In networking and mapping, students identify main ideas and then diagram connections between them (Hyerle, 1995; Robinson & Skinner, 1996). For example, the

schematic representation of the concept, ' "bison" shown in Figure 6.3 might have been produced by students themselves as a network to summarize factual material about bison and their importance to Plains Indians (Clark, 1990; Rafoth, Leal, & De Fabo, 1993).

Research on outlining, networking, and mapping is limited and inconsistent but generally finds that these methods are helpful as study aids (Katayama & Robinson, 1998; Robinson & Kiewra, 1995).

f. The PQ4R Method

One of the best-known study techniques for helping students understand and remember what they read is a procedure called the PQ4R method (Thomas & Robinson, 1972), which is based on an earlier version known as SQ3R, developed by F. P. Robinson (1961). The acronym stands for *preview, question, read, reflect, recite, and review*.

Research has shown the effectiveness of the PQ4R method for older children (Adams, Carnine, & Gersten, 1982), and the reasons seem clear. Following the PQ4R procedure focuses students on the meaningful organization of information and involves them in other effective strategies, such as question generation, elaboration, and distributed practice (opportunities to review information over a period of time) (Anderson, 1990).

g. Giving Motivation

Motivation is a crucial aspect of teaching and learning. In fact, some experts have argued that learning and motivation are so interdependent that it is impossible to understand learning without understanding motivation (Pintrich, Marx, & Boyle, 1993). Evidence for this relationship is the strong positive correlation between motivation and achievement: Students with higher motivation to learn are more likely to learn and achieve as compared to those with lower motivation to learn (McDermott, Mordell, & Stoltzfus, 2001; Wang, Haertel & Walberg, 1993; Weinstein, 1998). People are more or less motivated to accomplish different goals. Motivation to learn is only one of the many goals that humans may have. Other motivations may include motivation to work, to eat, to raise a family, to compete in sports, to get well after an illness, and so on. In general, psychologists define motivation as the psychological processes "involved in the direction, vigor, and persistence of behavior" (Bergin, Ford, & Hess, 1993, p. 437). Therefore, motivation to learn can be defined as the psychological- Motivational processes that direct and sustain students' behavior toward learning. For instance, you know that students are motivated to learn when they come to school early in order to ask questions about yesterday's lesson or when they are persistent in acquiring a skill that does not come easily to them. As you see, motivation is the force underlying achievement. Even if you know that



one of your students has great ability in a certain area, unless the student is motivated to use his/her ability to gain new knowledge or skills, learning will not occur. In this chapter, you will learn that motivation to learn varies from student to student and might even change for the same student, depending on his/her developmental age, the subject matter, or the context of learning. You will also learn that some students might be very motivated to go to school, although their primary goal may not be to learn but rather to make friends with other students, compete against other students, get away from home, and so on (Pintrich, 2000; Stipek, 2002)<sup>23</sup>.

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<sup>23</sup> Moreno, Roxana. 2010. *Educational Psychology*. United State of America: JW sons inc