

CHAPTER II

RELATED LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents the results of extensive literature review framing the thesis topic. It comprised three sections, those were novel as literary work, theories of children development and parents role in children's cognitive development.

A. Novel

Novel and short story are among the most popular fictions, the most written and read in literary works (Somardjo & Saini, 1986: 32). Novel is derived from today's Italian novel, Spanish novel, French news for "new," "news," or "short tale of something different" is a long literary prose narrative. Abrams (1981: 119) said that novella means "a small brand new thing" in the literary sense.

Novel is a literary work that was formed through a narrative story. The story should get the reader entertained. Nevertheless, the experiences and life concerns are typically the key points in the novel, fictions must remain as an entertaining story, remain a cohesive building of the structure, and also have an aesthetical intent. (Wellek & Warren, p. 212).

This study is closely related to the intrinsic elements which can analyze easily because all of the facts are inside the books.

1. Character

Character is one of the elements intrinsic to a literary work. Jones (1968: 33) is a clear picture of someone who appears in the story, explained characters. Meanwhile, according to Abrams (1981: 20) characters are the ones seen in a

narrative work, or play, which the reader interprets. In a play or story, she is an individual (Duffy & Pettit, 1953:24).

The development of character involves both physical description and classification of the person's mental and spiritual qualities (Opdhal, 1968:3). Stanton (1965: 17) said a story had a significant character. His plot, which is linked to each occurrence in the story, will typically reflect the character's shift in the act.

The characters are classified according to their role in the story, whether as the main character or as supporting character. Each character has its own function to complete the story and support the preceding or following event. The narrator is one of the instruments for defining the story 's key messages. The reader should perceive the feeling of each character to strengthen the messages the author conveys.

B. Theories of Children Development

In general, infant development refers to biological and psychological changes that arise in human beings accompanied by birth and the end of puberty as individuals transition from dependency to growing independence. Such variations in growth can be highly affected by genetic factors and near-environmental events. Developmental changes can occur as a result of genetically controlled processes recognized as maturation, interaction with environmental factors, and specific learning as part of socialization.

It can be added that production depends primarily on the interaction with environmental factors flanked by hereditary factors. The environment here refers to

several factors that exist in the society within which the person is growing, including family , school, peer, religious institutions, traditions, culture , norms and mores.

There are several phases in the development of children and the progress made by the child in one stage affects the advancement of the child to the post-that stage of development and the way the child grows up in the present stage of development impacts the growth in the post-this period. Therefore each time is a continuum with individual variations regarding start and end with many stages of development accompanied by continuum beginning and continuum ending.

1. Psychosocial Development

a) Definition of psychosocial development

The psychosocial definition relates to the mix of psychological and social behaviour. It means, in the sense of the combined impact that psychological factors and the surrounding social environment have on their physical and mental well-being and capacity, Psychosocial approach looks at individuals. (Kath, 2015: 3-4)

The term psycho social growth refers to improving the child's ability to establish close and stable adult and peer relationships from birth to early years of life. Learn, control and convey emotions using methods which are socially and culturally appropriate. Explore the environment and learn with family, community, and culture in mind.

Through close and stable interpersonal relationships, early mental wellbeing or early social emotional development is concerned with improving the child's ability to feel, control and convey emotions. Human children are heavily dependent

on adults to help them feed themselves, clothe themselves and take care of all their needs.

b) Erik Erikson's Theory

Psychosocial development is one of the best known personality theories in psychology is psychosocial development theory by Erik Erikson. Erikson believed in a series of stages where personality develops. Erikson's theory explains the effects of lifetime social experience (George, 2006: 6).

Erikson believed that the ego evolves according to an epigenetic theory, a concept borrowed from embryology, during the different stages of the life. Epigenetic development requires a steady growth of the fetal organs. The embryo does not start as a fully developed little individual, waiting only to develop its structure and shape. Rather it develops according to a predetermined rate and in a fixed sequence, or should develop. If the eyes, liver, or other organs are not developed for their development during that critical period, then they will never mature properly.

The ego follows the course of epigenetic evolution in similar fashion, with each stage developing at its proper time. One level arises from and is based on an earlier stage, but this does not replace the earlier one. This epigenetic development is similar to the physical development of babies, who crawl before walking, walking before running, and running before jumping. They develop the potential for walking, running and jumping when children are still crawling; and after they're mature enough to jump, they still retain their ability to run, walk and crawl. Erikson (1968) defined the epigenetic theory by saying that "all that grows has a ground

plane, and that the parts arise out of this ground plane, each part having its own time of special ascension, until all parts arise to form a working whole" (p. 92). More succinctly, "Epigenesis means that space and time evolve one feature on top of another" (Evans, 1967, pp. 21–22).

c) Stages of Psychosocial Development

Erikson divided personality growth into eight stages of psychosocial development. The first four are analogous to the vaginal, genital, phallic, and latency processes of Freud. The big difference between their theories is that Erikson emphasized psychosocial correlates, while Freud concentrated on biological factors.

Erikson proposed that what he called the epigenetic theory of maturation regulated the developmental cycle. In this he meant hereditary powers were the defining features of the developmental stages. The "epi" prefix means "upon;" thus creation depends on genetic factors. The social and environmental forces to which we are exposed influence how the genetically predetermined developmental stages are realized. In this way, the development of personality is affected by biological and social factors, or by personal as well as situation variables.

Human creation in Erikson's philosophy includes a sequence of personal disputes. The capacity for such conflicts exists as inherent predispositions at birth; they will become dominant at various stages when our environment needs such adaptations. A conflict with our surroundings is called a crisis. The crisis entails a change in perspective, which allows us to recentralize our instinctual resources according to the needs of each stage of the life cycle.

Growing stage of growth has its own specific crisis or turning point involving some change in our actions and personality. One of two ways we can respond to the crisis: a maladaptive (negative) way, or an adaptive (positive) way. Only when each conflict has been resolved will the personality begin its usual sequence of growth and gain the power to face the crisis of the next level. If the conflict remains unresolved at any stage, we are less likely to adapt to later issues. It is still possible to achieve a positive result but it will be more difficult to accomplish.

Table 2.1: Erikson's eight stages of psychosocial development

Stage	Basic Conflict	Important Event	Key Questions to be answered	Outcome
Infancy (0 to 18 months)	Trust vs Mistrust	Feeding/comfort	Is my world safe?	When carers provide reliability, care and affection, children develop a sense of trust. A shortage of that will lead to mistrust.
Early Childhood (2 to 3)	Autonomy vs Shame and Doubt	Toilet Training/Dressing	Can I do things by myself or need I always rely on others?	Children need to develop a sense of personal responsibility over their physical abilities and a sense of self-reliance. Success

				leads to a sense of control, and failure leads to feelings of guilt and doubt.
Preschool (3 to 5)	Initiative vs Guilt	Exploration/ Play	Am I good or bad?	Children need to start exercising control over the world and power over it. In that environment, performance leads to a sense of intent. Children who try to exert too much power experience disapproval, resulting in a sense of guilt.
School Age (6 to 11)	Industry vs Inferiority	School/ Activities	How can I be good?	Children need to cope with new academic and social demands. Performance leads to a sense of competence while failure leads to a sense of inferiority.
Adolescence (12 to 18)	Identity vs Role Confusion	Social Relationships/ Identity	Who am I and where am I going?	Teenagers need to develop a sense of

				personal identity and self.
Young Adult (19 to 40)	Intimacy vs Isolation	Intimate Relationship	Am I loved and wanted?	Young adults need to develop close, affectionate relationships with others. Success leads to strong relationships whereas failure leads to isolation and loneliness.
Middle Adulthood (40 to 65)	Generativity vs Stagnation	Work and Parenthood	Will I provide something of real value?	Adults need to build or cultivate things that can outlive them, either by getting kids or by making social change that helps others. Performance leads to a sense of worth and achievement, thus failure leads to superficial participation in the community.
Maturity (65 to death)	Ego Identity vs Despair	Reflection in life	Have I lived a full life?	Older adults need to look back on life, feeling

				fulfilled. Success in this state leads to a sense of wisdom whereas failure leads to regret, bitterness and despair.
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2. Cognitive Development

Cognition is the act or procedure of knowing the environments and themselves, which helps in perceiving, evaluating, learning, thinking, taking decisions and solving problems, as a whole a psychological aspect that focuses on the conscious mental activities of an individual personality (Schultz D P., Schultz S E. 2005: 353), such rational cognitive processes may be based on improper self-image (ibid. 61).

Prinsloo et al. (1996) cognition is mental activity such as "acquiring, processing, organizing, and using knowledge" generally accumulated as cognition, which includes "observation, representation, imagination, reasoning, and fantasy." Many empirical work (Boca D. D., Monfardini C., Nicoletti C., 2012: IZA Discussion Paper No. 6868) indicates that children's experience at different stages of their infancy and adolescence feeds multiple inputs to children who are captivated during childhood and weights their cognition-producing function, And does not significantly rely on the family participation in developmental facilitation services during adolescence, and increases their own involvement in the cognitive cycle.

a) Stages of cognitive development

Piaget identified four main phases or stages of cognitive development: sensorimotor stage (birth to 2 years), preoperative stage (2 to 7 years), concrete stage of operation (7 to 11 years), and formal stage of operation (11 years and beyond). Such stages of intellectual growth reflect qualitatively different rates of functioning, which form what Piaget calls an invariant sequence of development; that is, all children advance in the same order through the stages. Piaget argued that stage can never be skipped because each successive stage builds on previous stage achievements. (David, p. 253).

Table 2.2: Four stages of cognitive development by Jean Piaget

Sensorimotor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Birth to 2 years • The environment is experienced through the five sense. 	Understands world through sense and action
Preoperational	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2 years to 6 years • Illogical thinking • Language development 	Understands world through language and mental images
Concrete Operational	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 7 years to 12 years • Logical but practical • Linear thinking 	Understands world through logical thinking and categories
Formal Operational	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 12 years and on • Logic with multiple possibilities • Abstract training 	Understands world through hypothetical thinking and scientific reasoning

The first is sensorimotor. Infants organize their sensory inputs and motor skills during the sensorimotor-period, developing behavioral schemes that enable them to "act on" and "learn" their environment. During the first 2 years, children evolve from reflexive beings with very little awareness into playful problem solvers who have already learned a lot about themselves, their close associates, and the objects and events during their daily environment. So drastic is the cognitive growth of the infant that Piaget divided the sensorimotor period into six sub-stages which describe the progressive transition of the child from a reflexive to a reflective being. Our analysis will concentrate on three important aspects of sensorimotor development: problem-solving skills (or activities involving means / end), imitation, and object concept growth. (David, p. 253)

The latter is pre-operational. The preoperative phase is characterized by the emergence of the symbolic function — the ability to make something else — a word or an object — represent or stand for something. Judy DeLoache (1987, 2000) refers to the awareness that, as representational wisdom, an object can stand for something other than itself. This transition from curious hands-on-all infants to contemplative, symbolic pre-school children is indeed remarkable. Consider, for example, that since 2- to 3-year-olds can use words and images to represent their experiences, they are now quite able to reconstruct the past and think about objects that are no longer present, or even compare them. Symbolic 3-year-old has potentially more in common with a 21-year-old adult mentally than with a 12-month-old child. Although the thought of a 3-year-old can evolve in several respects over the next few years, it is similar to that of an adult in that both pre-school children and adults

think by manipulating mental signals such as images and words, with most "thought" being done "in the head" covertly. (David, p. 261)

The third stage is operational concrete. During the concrete-operational period of Piaget , children quickly acquire cognitive operations and apply these important new skills when considering objects and events they have experienced. A cognitive process is an internal mental activity that helps children to change and rearrange their images and symbols to arrive at a reasonable conclusion. For these strong new operations in their cognitive arsenal, grade-school children are moving well beyond the preoperative static and focused learning. (David, page 272).

According to Piaget, concrete-operational children's impressive thinking is limited, because they can only apply their operational schemes to real or imaginable objects , situations, or events. For example, transitive inferences from concrete operators are likely to be valid only for actual objects that are physically present (or have been) there. Seven- to 11-year-olds are also unable to extend this relational logic to abstract signifiers like the Xs, Ys, and Zs we use in algebra. Formal operations, by contrast, first seen between the ages of 11 and 13, are mental actions performed on ideas and propositions. No longer thinks tied to the factual or observable, since formal operators can reason quite logically about hypothetical processes and events which in reality cannot have any basis. (David, p. 273)

3. Moral Development

a) Definition of Moral Development

John W. Santrock writes in his book, *Child Development* (2007: 117), that the change in thinking, feeling , and behavior about the right and wrong stuff is

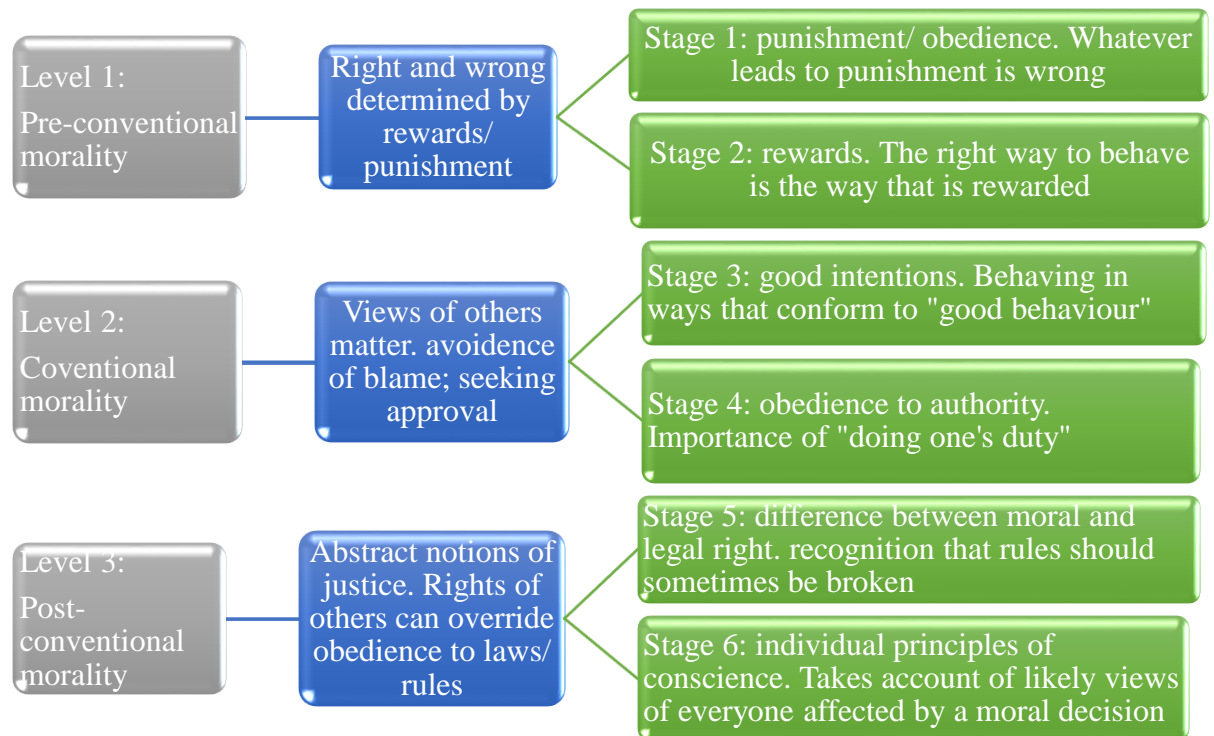
moral growth. We learn about the terms of morality, immorality, and nonmorality in everyday life. Moral behavior is the conduct according to the social group's moral code. This occurs because of inconsistency with the laws of the social norm. Non-moral conduct is caused by a failure to abide by social rules.

Newborn baby cannot be treated as amoral and no children can be expected to develop moral values on their own. On the other side, everyone has to be taught the definition of good and wrong. Day after day most kids know that they need to align themselves with the customs to be relevant. There are four important things to consider when studying positive behaviors. The four things are learning what the custom-based social group is hoping for, cultivating the attitude, learning to be embarrassed when the customary conduct is incorrect, and getting the ability to have social contact and understand what the social group is hoping for. (Hurlock, 2008: 75)

b) The Stage Of Moral Development by Kohlberg

After the Piaget era, there was another scholar, Lawrence Kohlberg, who stated that in some universal stages the way of thinking about morality develops. This hypothesis was stated after Kohlberg had conducted an observation for some years by interviewing several kids. He stated, based on the outcome of the interview, that there are three stages of morality and each stage consists of two parts. (Santrock, 2007:119)

Table 2.3: The stage of moral development by Kohlberg



The first stage consists of pre-conventional morality. At this point, reward and punishment define the right and the wrong. This stage consists of two stages, first of all morality with heteronomy, secondly individualism and trade. In morality of heteronomy, the children believe they must follow the law or else a penalty would be imposed on them. The best thing in individualism and trade is something which involves proper exchange. If they do anyone a favor, then the people will be generous to them.

The next step is that of conventional morality. The kids at this stage think behavior is standard. The norm is decided by certain individuals, such as parents or the government. This stage consists of two parts, individual relationship and the morality of the social system. In the first part, the children appreciate other people's care and loyalty as the basis for assessing morality. The kids want to follow the

parents' moral ideal for being a good boy. In the second part, somebody considers understanding the rules in community, law, justice, and duty when assessing morality. The children's main point is by obeying the rules and law they will support the social system.

In this principle the final stage is post-conventional. Individuals realize the alternative way to make morale-based decisions at this stage. This also consists of two parts, social contract and the concept of universality. Individuals in social contract think the values, rights and principles are more important than the law. Someone judges the law based on the law 's ability to protect the human rights. Someone has created morality standards based on universal human rights in a universal theory. If there is a contradiction between the law and justice, then justice is the one that must be chosen. (Santrock, 2007: 119-120)

C. Parenting Style

1. Deinition of Parenting Style

Parenting is a compound activity of many specific behaviors working individually or together which affect children's behavior (Baumrind, 1966). In understanding this concept two points are important. First, parenting style is intended to identify the common parenting variations. In other words, parenting is not deviant, for example abusive or negligent homes. Second, Baumrind assumes the parenting is about control issues. Although parents that vary in how they do this, it is agreed that all parents have a primary role to play here.

2. Construct of Parenting Style

Parenting can be described as parenting practices with the intention of helping bring forward their child. There are two key dimensions underlying parental behavior (Maccoby & Martin, 1983); parental sensitivity and parental demands are these. Parental responsiveness (also referred to as parental warmth or encouragement or acceptance) refers to "the degree to which parents actively promote autonomy, self-regulation and self-affirmation by being personalized, compassionate and sensitive to the needs and demands of children"(Baumrind, 1971). (Baumrind, 1971). Parental demandingness (also referred to as behavioral control) refers to "the claims parents make on children to become integrated to the family whole, by their maturity demands, supervision, disciplinary efforts and willingness to confront the child who disobeys" (Baumrind, 1971).

According to Baumrind (1966), The word "demanding" applies to statements in which parents are to be incorporated into the community and family through their standards of maturity, corrective actions, supervision and willingness to confront a disruptive child. Simons, Simons, and Wallace (2004) argue in the same way that strict parenting can be measured by the degree of well-defined supervision methods, direct interaction, and patterns of discipline used by parents. It would therefore be rational to say that parents with higher levels of patterns of discipline, confrontation, and monitoring are challenging, while parents with lower rates of confrontation, inconsistent discipline, and monitoring are defined as undemanding.

Baumrind (1966) defines the term responsiveness as the ratio of fostering self-assertion and individuality by attuning parents, acquiescing and supporting the children's demands and needs. Furthermore, Baumrind (1966) argues that the

degree of responsiveness can be calculated by the level of contact, reciprocity and warmth that parents exhibit when interacting with adolescents. Parents who emphasize higher levels of reciprocal behavior, warmth and communication are considered highly responsive from this perspective, whereas low levels of delineated factors represent low responsiveness. Maccoby and Martin (1983) argue that there is a higher level of responsiveness in the permissive and/or authoritative style of parenting. At the other hand, Simons, Simons, and Wallace (2004) show that low rates of sensitivity are expressed by neglect and/or authoritarian style of parenting.

Table 2.4: Baumrind's Typology of Parenting Styles

	Low Demandingness	High Demandingness
Low Responsiveness	Neglecting Parenting Style	Authoritarian Parenting Style
High Responsiveness	Permissive Parenting Style	Authoritative Parenting Style

Classification of parents according to whether they are high or weak in parental demand and responsiveness generates a quadrant of parenting styles: indulgent, authoritarian, hierarchical and uninvolved (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Growing of these parenting styles vary in naturally occurring parental principles, habits and behaviors trends (Baumrind, 1971), and a distinct combination of sensitivity and demandingness.

The definition of authoritarian parenting was first proposed by Baumrind. The authoritative parents, according to Baumrind (1966), provide their children with instructions on issues-oriented and logical manner. Since the level of demand in this parenting style is higher, parents typically welcome good communication and a good partnership between them (Piko & Balazs, 2012). Hoskins (2014) points out that authoritarian parents are more supportive and sensitive to negative actions by providing more encouragement. These parents are promoting verbal giving-and-take, voicing reasons behind rules and using control, purpose, and shaping to reinforce goals. This parenting style is more closely correlated with positive outcomes for teenagers. As a result it is found among most families to be the most beneficial and effective parenting style. Authoritative parenting style, in other words, fosters healthy adolescent well-being. In order for parents to be classified as authoritative, the criteria suggested by Baumrind should be met; but, in order for parents to be classified as authoritative, they should have low score in terms of passive accepters. Nijhof and Engels (2007) are firmly convinced that authoritative parenting style plays an influential role in psychologically and socially healthy adolescent development. It is particularly so because authoritarian parenting style helps children achieve a higher degree of self-reliance, self-esteem, and ability to use successful coping mechanisms while maintaining positive self-image (Parker & Benson, 2004).

The authoritarian parents try to evaluate, shape and control their children's attitudes and behavior in accordance with set standards of conduct, known as absolute standard. Children are supposed to follow very strict rules defined by their

parents in light of this absolute norm. They are punished in the event the children fail to comply with such rules. Cherry (2015) points out that authoritarian parents prefer not to come up with reasons behind such laws. Authoritarian parents display poor responsiveness, and are extremely demanding, according to Hoskins (2014). Parents stress conformity and obedience in this parenting style, and thus expect them to be obeyed in a less warm environment without explanation. In addition, authoritarian parents exhibit low level of commitment and trust towards their children. Too often they discourage free communication and make the actions of a child strictly regulated. In other words, an authoritarian parent is generally known to be strict, aggressive, and believes a child should strive to work in compliance with ethics, and should be compliant. Parents are more concerned with the traditional family structure in the authoritarian parenting style; therefore they restrict the autonomy of the child along with the relationship between parent and child. As the primary concern of this parenting style lies within the conventional family system, the child is expected to adhere to the instructions of the parent without any questions; thus, it can be argued that the authoritarian parenting style appears to rely on rules which are considered concrete. According to Nijhof and Engels (2007), the authoritarian parenting style is linked to the lower level of skill and self-confidence to employ adolescent coping mechanisms and thus limits a child's capacity to explore his / her abilities and social experiences, ultimately contributing to dependency on parental guidance and direction for the kid.

According to Baumrind (1966), permissive parents seek to respond towards the urges, behaviors and wishes of their children in an accommodating, positive and

non-punitive manner. Given Baumrind 's concept that this parenting style appears to have a higher degree of responsiveness, it means that a sensitive parent is more likely to identify and decide family-related laws, thus allowing adolescents to regard it as a tool (Johnson & Kelley, 2011). Parents who are negligent are those who show very low level of involvement as well as strictness with their child (Kremers, Brug, de Vries, & Engels 2003). According to Hoskins (2014), permissive parents can be characterized as having low demands and high responsiveness, while neglecting parents are not responsive or demanding. We behave in a way that is more positive about teenage instincts, behaviors and expectations when communicating with them about family decisions.

Table 2.4: Parental behaviors characterizing the four parenting styles

	High Responsiveness	Low Responsiveness
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High control	<p style="text-align: center;">Authoritative</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Firm and consistent control • Monitor and impart clear standards for their children's conduct • Give priority to child's needs and abilities • Implying age appropriate maturity demands • Encourage children to be independent • Attentive • Forgiving • Encouraging autonomy • Offering democratic climate 	<p style="text-align: center;">Authoritarian</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Firm in control practices • Expecting strict, unquestioned obedience to parental authority • Not ready to accept individuality of child • Disobedience is dealt by forceful and punitive discipline • Relative neglect of child's needs • Little communication between parent and child • Highly directive behaviors
Low control	<p style="text-align: center;">Permissive</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Frequent expression of warmth and affection • Low enforcement of rules and authority • High acceptance • Taking the role of friend rather than parent • Allow the child to make their own decision • Minimal punishment 	<p style="text-align: center;">Neglecting</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inattentive behavior • Neglecting the child • Little interaction with child