
ASSESSMENT OF THE NATURE AND COMPONENTS OF PSYCHOLOGY FOR ADOLESCENT STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

This study was to assess the nature and components of psychology for adolescent students. Adolescent psychology is the field of psychology that focuses on the issues that are unique to adolescents. Adolescence is the period of time when you physically and emotionally grow from childhood to adulthood. Adolescence is a time of fluctuating and rapidly changing interests and desires, high energy, sexual maturation, physical growth, and limited emotional insight. However, this creates fertile ground for many emotional problems and challenges that might benefit from professional intervention. The study concluded that adolescents are blamed for everything that happens in a society, ranging from an increase in crime, violence, suicide, cultism, and political upheaval to the breakdown of traditional, familial, and religious values. The nature and components of psychology for adolescents is a critical period of a student's development that is manifested at the biological, psychological, and social levels of integration and is marked by the acceleration of cognitive growth and personality formation. The nature and components of adolescent students' termination differ greatly from society to society. Even though adolescence is defined in terms of the three levels, it is to be noted that life is simultaneous and interactive. One of the recommendations made was that the government should assist students in understanding the psychology of adolescent development from a multidisciplinary perspective.

KEYWORDS: Nature, Components of Psychology, Adolescent and Students

Introduction

Adolescence is the period of time when you physically and emotionally grow from childhood to adulthood. Basically, it's when you're old enough to want to be an adult but young enough that no one takes you seriously! Adolescent psychology is the field of psychology that focuses on the issues that are unique to adolescents. Adolescent psychology refers to the unique mental health needs of adolescents (defined as individuals between 10 and 19 years of age). Adolescents are a distinct group, no longer children but not yet adults, and as such, have unique needs. Adolescence is a time of fluctuating and rapidly changing interests and desires,

high energy, sexual maturation, physical growth, and limited emotional insight. This creates fertile ground for many emotional problems and challenges that might benefit from professional intervention. Different psychological theories provide different perspectives on understanding the features and processes of adolescent development, including adolescent development (both physical and cognitive changes), puberty, gender and sexual development, and the emotions of adolescents.

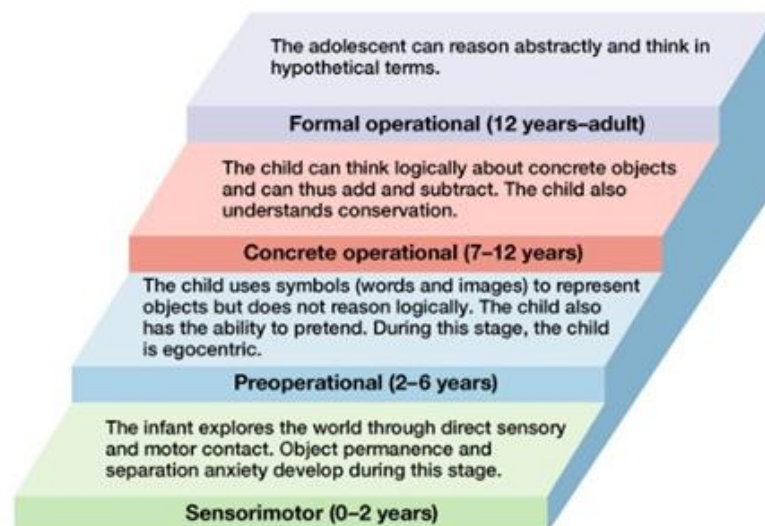
Working in adolescent psychology means considering the specific needs of someone whose brain has developed past the childhood stage but has not fully matured into adulthood. Adolescents spend a lot more time with their peers than younger children do and are more heavily influenced by them than younger children are. The drive for affiliation and acceptance at this stage makes adolescents more open to peer influence and also tends to promote the rapid development of new relationships—with less time spent on negotiation of the basis for the friendship than at other stages of life.

Main Theories of Adolescent Psychology

They are the lifespan perspective, the learning perspective, the humanistic perspective, the ecological perspective, the sociocultural perspective, and the positive youth development perspective.

Stages of Cognitive Development

Piaget believed that as children grow and their brains develop, they move through four distinct stages that are characterized by differences in thought processing. In his research, he carefully observed children and presented them with problems to solve that were related to object permanence, reversibility, deductive reasoning, transitivity, and assimilation (described below). Each stage builds upon the knowledge learned in the previous stage. Piaget's four stages correspond with the age of the children and are the sensorimotor, preoperational, concrete operational, and formal operational stages.



Piaget's Stages of Cognitive Development: Jean Piaget's theory of cognitive development includes four stages: sensorimotor, pre-operational, concrete operational, and formal operational.

Sensorimotor Stage: The sensorimotor stage occurs from birth to age 2. It is characterized by the idea that infants "think" by manipulating the world around them. This is done by using all five senses: seeing, hearing, touching, tasting, and smelling. Children figure out ways to elicit responses by "doing", such as pulling a lever on a music box to hear a sound, placing a block in a bucket and pulling it back out, or throwing an object to see what happens. Between 5 and 8 months old, the child develops object permanence, which is the understanding that even if something is out of sight, it still exists (Bogartz, Shinsky, & Schilling, 2000). For example, a child learns that even though his mother leaves the room, she has not ceased to exist; similarly, a ball does not disappear because a bucket is placed over it. By the end of this stage, children are able to engage in what Piaget termed "deferred imitation." This involves the ability to reproduce or repeat a previously witnessed action later on; rather than copying it right away, the child is able to produce a mental representation of it and repeat the behavior later on. By 24 months, infants are able to imitate behaviors after a delay of up to three months.

Preoperational Stage: The preoperational stage occurs from age 2 to age 7. During this stage, children can use symbols to represent words, images, and ideas, which is why children at this stage engage in pretend play. A child's arms might become airplane wings as she zooms around the room, or a child with a stick might become a brave knight with a sword. Language development and make-believe play begin during this stage. Logical thinking is still not present, so children cannot rationalize or understand more complex ideas. Children at this stage are very egocentric, meaning they focus on themselves and how their actions will impact them rather than others. They are not able to take on the perspective of others, and they think that everyone sees, thinks, and feels just like they do.

Concrete Operational Stage: The concrete operational stage occurs from age 7 to age 11. It is characterized by the idea that children's reasoning becomes focused and logical. Children demonstrate a logical understanding of conservation principles: the ability to recognize that key properties of a substance do not change even as their physical appearance may be altered. For example, a child who understands the principles of conservation will recognize that identical quantities of liquid will remain the same despite the size of the container in which they are poured. Children who do not yet grasp conservation and logical thinking will believe that a taller or larger glass must contain more liquid.

Formal Operational: The formal operational stage occurs from age 11 to adulthood. It is characterized by the idea that children develop the ability to think in abstract ways. This enables children to engage in the problem-solving method of developing a hypothesis and reasoning their way to plausible solutions. Children can think of abstract concepts and have the ability to combine various ideas to create new ones. By the end of this stage, children have developed logical and systematic thinking skills, are capable of deductive reasoning, and can create hypothetical ideas to explain various concepts.

The Behavioural Psychology

Behavioral psychology is the study of the connection between our minds and our behaviours. Sometimes you will hear behavioural psychology referred to as behaviorism. Researchers and scientists who study behavioural psychology are trying to understand why we behave the way we do and they are concerned with discovering patterns in our actions and behaviors. The hope is that if psychologists can use behavioural psychology to help predict how adolescents will

behave, we can build better habits as individuals, create better products as companies, and develop better living spaces as communities.

People frequently use behavioural strategies such as classical conditioning and operant conditioning to teach or modify behaviours (Kendra, 2022). For example, a teacher might use a system of rewards in order to teach students to behave during class. When students are good, they receive gold stars, which can then be turned in for some sort of special privilege. Behavioral psychology concerns the conditions involved in the development, maintenance, control, and elimination of the behaviour of individuals and other organisms. Behavioral approaches have been developed in many areas of applied psychology. Behavior theory divides behaviour into two classes: respondents and operants. Respondents' behaviours are elicited or controlled primarily by preceding events. They are involuntary, involving the autonomic nervous system and the smooth muscles and glands.

Respondents occur automatically following their eliciting stimulus unless the organism is exhausted or incapacitated; thus, respondents are sometimes referred to as "reflexive." Operant Behavior, on the other hand, involves the organism acting on the environment to produce an effect. Operants are controlled primarily by the events that follow them, called consequences. However, once the response-consequence relationship has been established, the response can then be brought under the control of preceding events, called discriminative stimuli. The process is called "stimulus control." Since much of human behaviour is operant, the principles of operant behaviour are extremely important in understanding adolescents' behavior. Respondent behaviour is measured primarily in terms of the latency or delay between the presentation of a stimulus and the occurrence of the response and the intensity or magnitude of the response.

Operant behavior, because of its greater complexity, is measured in several ways: rate or frequency, latency, duration, and intensity or amplitude. Rate or frequency is by far the most common measure, but the preferred measure of an operant depends substantially on the aspect of behaviour which is of concern. Tantrums, for example, are often measured in terms of duration and intensity as well as frequency (Krapfl, 2016). Understanding behavioural science is crucial to understanding the mental state and psychology of adolescents. Psychologists have identified four basic types of human behaviour (Maheen, 2021). Here are the common types of behaviours human beings can have:

1. Molecular and Moral Behaviour. Molecular behaviour is an unexpected behaviour that occurs without thinking. One example is suddenly closing your eyes when something is about to hit them. While on the other hand, moral behavior is a type of behaviour that occurs after thinking. For example, a person changes their ways when she or he sees something harmful.

2. Overt & Covert Behaviour. Overt behaviour is a visible type of behaviour that can occur outside of human beings. Eating food, riding a bicycle, and playing football are some examples of overt behaviour. However, covert behavior unlike overt behavior, is a type of behaviour that is not visible. Thinking is a good example of covert behaviour because no one can see us thinking.

3. Voluntary and Involuntary Behaviour. Voluntary behaviour is a type of behaviour that depends on human wants. We can characterize walking, speaking, and writing as voluntary behaviors. While involuntary behaviour, a type that occurs naturally and without thinking. Breathing air is a perfect example of involuntary behaviour.

Today, behaviour theory has been applied to institutionalized psychotic people, adolescents in schools, businesses and industry, and other settings. The scope of behaviours addressed is equally broad, including the elimination of problem behaviours like tantrums, the establishment of basic social skills such as toileting, education, and social concerns such as conservation of resources and litter reduction. Behavior principles have even been applied in Christian education and pastoral ministries.

Educational Psychology

Educational psychology is one of the oldest branches in the field of psychology, with roots dating back at least to Plato (Zysberg, & Schwabsky, 2020). Today's educational system is highly complex. There is no single learning approach that works for everyone. That's why psychologists working in the field of education are focused on identifying and studying learning methods to better understand how people absorb and retain new information. Educational psychologists apply theories of human development to understand individual learning and inform the instructional process. While interaction with teachers and students in school settings is an important part of their work, it isn't the only facet of the job. Learning is a lifelong endeavor. People don't only learn at school, they learn at work, in social situations, and even while doing simple tasks like household chores or running errands.

Psychologists working in this subfield examine how people learn in a variety of settings to identify approaches and strategies to make learning more effective. Psychology professors working in education study the social, emotional, and cognitive processes involved in learning and apply their findings to improve the learning process. Some specialize in the educational development of a specific group of people, such as children, adolescents, or adults, while others focus on specific learning challenges such as attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) or dyslexia. Educational psychology is the branch of psychology concerned with the scientific study of human learning. The study of learning processes, from both cognitive and behavioural perspectives, allows researchers to understand individual differences in intelligence, cognitive development, affect, motivation, self-regulation, and self-concept, as well as their role in learning. The field of educational psychology relies heavily on quantitative methods, including testing and measurement, to enhance educational activities related to instructional design, classroom management, and assessment, which serve to facilitate learning processes in various educational settings across the lifespan.

Although the discipline of educational psychology includes numerous theories, many experts identify five main schools of thought: behaviorism, cognitivism, constructivism, experientialism, and social-contextual learning theories (Toomas, 2011). The following overview summarizes these five major theory groups:

Behaviorism. Behaviorism relies on the prediction or analysis of behaviour based on causal stimuli, while education uses the process of positive and negative reinforcement to encourage or discourage behaviors. This school of thought emphasizes behavior's learned causes over its biological ones; therefore, behaviourism deeply values the ability of education to shape individuals. Behaviorism has significantly shaped the disciplines of psychology and education, illuminating major influencing factors in human behaviour and learning. In psychology, both behaviour modification and behaviour therapy owe their origins to behaviorism. Behaviorism also influences the sequence and methods used during the teaching and learning process.

Teachers work toward their desired objectives by using external stimuli, explaining and demonstrating a skill or behavior, and then inviting students to practice and providing feedback that reinforces the behaviours or skills they wish students to learn or unlearn.

Cognitivism. Using the computer as a metaphor for the human mind, cognitivists see learning as a product of mental faculties and activities, including thought, knowledge, memory, motivation, reflection, and problem-solving. Recasting learning as the acquisition of knowledge and the development of understanding, this approach emphasizes reading and lectures as learning modalities. Rather than measuring learning based on observable behaviors, cognitivists evaluate learning based on a learner's demonstration of knowledge and understanding. Cognitivism emphasizes the importance of an expert in transmitting accurate information and sees a learner's success or failure in absorbing this information as largely dependent upon the learner's mental capacity, motivation, beliefs, and effort. The setup of many learning experiences today reflects persistent cognitivist ideas, approaches, and assumptions.

Constructivism. This school of thought suggests that learners create their own subjective information by interpreting their world and restructuring their thinking. Constructivist theories take a learner-centered approach in which the teacher serves as a guide rather than the source of the student's learning. Constructivists agree that learners create knowledge rather than passively receiving it, and that preexisting knowledge plays a crucial role in their learning. However, two differing strands of constructivism bear mentioning. Constructivism influences the lesson planning methodologies employed by many teachers today. For example, constructivist influence shapes the common teaching practice of posing questions or problems and then inviting students to answer and solve them in their own ways. Constructivism is also evident in popular classroom practices such as having students create their own questions, welcoming multiple points of view and intelligence styles, and using group work as a collaborative learning tool.

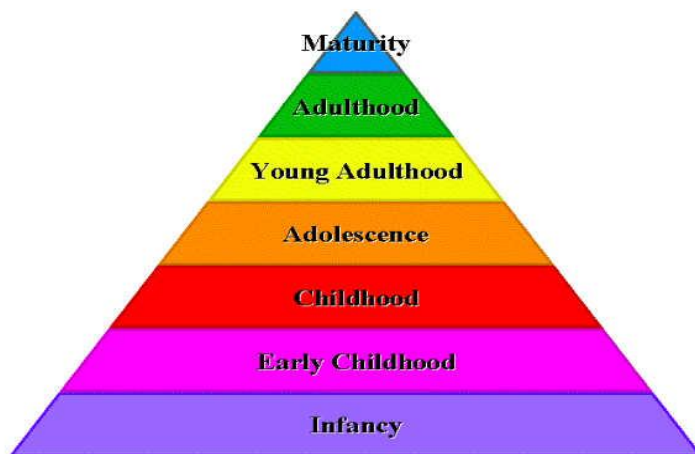
Experientialism. Experiential learning theories identify meaningful everyday experiences as the most central factor in increasing a learner's knowledge and understanding, as well as transforming their behavior. Rejecting all didactic approaches, experientialism argues that one person cannot effectively impart knowledge directly to another person; people must learn for themselves. A teacher can facilitate the learning process by engaging students through an experience, but they cannot control exactly what students learn from that experience. By placing an emphasis on activities that prompt effective perception and processing, educators can activate the learner's prior experience, demonstrate a new skill for the learner, ask the learner to practice the skill, and then invite the application of those skills in practical scenarios. Many educational institutions include experiential learning as a formal component in their programmes and curricula. These experiences often take the form of field trips or projects, internships, or study abroad programs.

Social and Contextual. The situated, relational nature of knowledge and the social, engaged nature of effective learning are the foundational principles of social and contextual learning theories. This theory posits a reciprocal determinism between the environment, personality, and behavior, arguing that these factors influence one another while also shaping learning situations. Emphasizing learner attention, motivation, and memory, it encourages educators to

use natural tendencies toward observation, modeling, and imitation when designing learning situations.

Over the years, educational psychology has embraced various fields of education, such as intelligence testing, mental abilities, achievement testing, child psychology, developmental psychology, school performance, mental deficiency, curriculum, personality, character, educational measurement, and so on (Toomas, 2011). In conclusion, we may note that the aim of educational psychology is to apply psychological concepts and principles in order to improve educational practice. Educational psychology, which has evolved as a new discipline, tends to represent all the areas within psychology in general. These include some distinct areas dealing with human development; individual differences in ability, aptitude, and temperament; perception, motivation, learning, thinking, problem-solving, psychopathology; the dynamics of personality and group interactional processes.

Developmental Psychology



Maturity: Maturity is the period of time in your life after your physical growth has stopped and you are fully developed. In psychology, maturity can be operationally defined as the level of psychological functioning one can attain, after which the level of psychological functioning no longer increases much with age (Wikipedia, 2022). The status of maturity is distinguished by the shift away from reliance on guardianship and the oversight of an adult in decision-making acts. Maturity has different definitions across legal, social, religious, political, sexual, emotional, and intellectual contexts.

Adulthood: Adulthood is the period in the human lifespan in which full physical and intellectual maturity has been attained. According to the Editors of Encyclopedia Britannica (2018), adulthood is commonly thought of as beginning at age 20 or 21 years. Middle age, commencing at about 40 years old, is followed by old age at about 60 years old. Adulthood begins around 20 years old and has three distinct stages: early, middle, and late. Each stage brings its own set of rewards and challenges.

Young Adulthood: Young adulthood is a unique developmental period that occurs between the ages of 18 and 25, during which there are key developmental tasks that allow the young adult to participate in self-exploration and identity formation (Higley, 2019). Young adulthood is

fundamentally a period of maturation and change, although the degree of change may seem less striking than the changes that occurred during childhood and adolescence.

Adolescence: Adolescence is the period of transition between childhood and adulthood. Children who are entering adolescence are going through many changes (physical, intellectual, personality, and social development). It begins at puberty, which now occurs earlier, on average than in the past. Csikszentmihalyi, (2021) noted that adolescence is the transitional phase of growth and development between childhood and adulthood. The World Health Organization (WHO) defines an adolescent as any person between the ages of 10 and 19. This age range falls within WHO's definition of young people, which refers to individuals between ages 10 and 24.

Childhood: Childhood is generally considered to be either a natural biological stage of development or a modern idea or invention. It is generally referred to as the preschool or school period. Childhood is the early period or state in the development of a child. Childhood has thus been identified as a stage of life, associated with chronological age, located between infancy and youth, and including adolescence.

Early childhood: Early childhood is a stage in human development. It generally includes toddlerhood, which is between the ages of one and two years old. In psychology, the term "early childhood" is usually defined as the time period from birth until the age of eight years, therefore covering infancy, kindergarten, and first grade (Doherty & Hughes, 2009). Early childhood is a stage in human development. It generally includes toddlerhood and sometime afterwards. "Play age" is an unspecific designation approximately within the scope of early childhood.

Infancy: Infancy is the earliest part of a person's life when they're a baby. It's extremely rare for anyone to remember their own infancy. Infancy is defined as the first year of life after birth (CK-12, 2016). For the first month after birth, an infant is called a "newborn." A newborn has a distinctive appearance. The head is very large, and the arms and legs are relatively short. The shoulders and hips are narrow, and the abdomen protrudes slightly. Many newborns still have lanugo in some areas of their bodies, but this usually disappears within a few weeks after birth. Head hair can vary from almost no hair to a full head of hair. The stub of the umbilical cord remains for a few weeks until it dries up and falls off, forming the navel.

Developmental psychology is the branch of psychology that focuses on how and why human beings change over the course of their lives. Originally concerned with infants and children, the field has expanded to include adolescence, adult development, aging, and the entire lifespan. Developmental psychologists aim to explain how thinking, feelings, and behaviours change throughout life. This field examines change across three major dimensions, which are physical development, cognitive development, and social-emotional development. Those who specialize in this field are not just concerned with the physical changes that occur as people grow; they also look at the social, emotional, and cognitive development that occurs throughout life (Burman, 2017). Developmental psychology examines the influences of nature and nurture on the process of human development as well as processes of change in context across time. Many researchers are interested in the interactions among personal characteristics, the individual's behavior, and environmental factors. This includes the social context and the built environment.

Developmental psychology is a scientific approach that aims to explain growth, change, and consistency throughout the lifespan. Developmental psychology looks at how thinking, feelings, and behaviour change throughout a person's life. It involves a range of fields, such as

educational psychology, child psychopathology, forensic developmental psychology, child development, cognitive psychology, ecological psychology, and cultural psychology. A significant proportion of theories within this discipline focus on development during childhood, as this is the period during an individual's lifespan when the most change occurs. The three goals of developmental psychology are to describe, explain, and optimize development (McLeod 2017). To describe development, it is necessary to focus both on typical patterns of change (normative development) and on individual variations in patterns of change (i.e., idiographic development). Although there are typical pathways of development that most people will follow, no two people are exactly alike. Developmental psychologists must also seek to explain the changes they have observed in relation to normative processes and individual differences. However, it is often easier to describe development than to explain how it occurs. Finally, developmental psychologists hope to optimize development and apply their theories to help people in practical situations (e.g., helping parents develop secure attachments with their children).

Adolescence Psychology

Adolescence psychology is an entity within a major branch of psychology, developmental psychology, which also comprises child and adult psychology. Adolescence is an in-between period, beginning with the achievement of physiological maturity and ending with the assumption of social maturity—that is, with the assumption of social, sexual, economic, and legal rights and duties of the adult. The definition is biological at the outset, but except for the word "sexual," its termination is entirely in social terms. In other words, the termination of adolescence is subject to the particular customs of the culture; it is culturally specific. Adolescence is thus subject to human judgment. It has the implication that adults can willfully prolong adolescence through decisions about what defines the termination of it. Adolescence as a concept is said to have appeared in literature in the 15th century (Weiner, Richard, Easterbrooks, and Mistry, 2012). Prior to that, during the Middle Ages, children were treated as miniature adults. Children and adolescents were believed to entertain the same interests as adults, and, since they were simply miniature adults, they were treated as such, with strict, harsh discipline. In the Middle Ages, neither the adolescent nor the child were given status apart from the adult.

Biological changes that take place during puberty have a tremendous effect on an adolescent psychologically. One of the changes, for example, is menarche. Adolescent girls usually have psychological reactions to physical appearance as well as menstruation. However, a girl's reaction to menstruation could be a result of culture or how her parents view the event. In some cultures, or families, girls are prepared ahead of time so that when they reach puberty, menstruation does not take them by surprise. This is helpful in the sense that those who are prepared have a more positive attitude towards menstruation and usually experience less distress, since research has shown that menarche involves physical discomfort and may be disruptive. Menarche and other physical changes in the body can have a psychological effect on an adolescent girl. For instance, she can be upset, especially when she is not prepared for the changes or if her friends mock her. Secondly, early maturity means being forced to behave like an adult. On the other hand, late bloomers are also affected psychologically. It is worth pointing out at this time that psychologists have come up with different views as regards early and late maturation. As far as boys are concerned, those who mature early tend to enjoy several advantages.

Early mature people look more poised, more relaxed, more good-natured, and less affected. They tend to be more popular with peers, more likely to be leaders, and less impulsive. Even though such is the case, early-advanced individuals sometimes have problems living up to the expectations of others, particularly when they should act as they look. Those who mature late, as opposed to those who mature early, have a negative self-concept, feelings of inadequacy, dependency, and rebelliousness. Because of the many disadvantages that come with late maturation, research has shown that late-maturing individuals are more talkative and hungrier for attention. Since late-maturing individuals feel and act more childish, they may benefit from the longer period of childhood when they do not have to deal with the new and different demands of adolescence (Weiner, Richard, Easterbrooks, and Mistry, 2012).

Needs of Adolescent Psychology

Adolescents face two broad challenges during the transition from childhood to adult life: the entrance into the production and reproduction fields of culture and society. Entry into production entails becoming an economically independent individual capable of making a living in society and the economic system. This developmental trajectory consists typically of a complex set of decisions concerning schooling, education, and career. In turn, entrance into the reproduction domain includes a pattern of sequential commitments to romantic relationships, building up intimate relations, founding a family, and taking care of children. Although there is a lot of variation in how these two broad challenges are approached, dealt with, and solved, they seem to be the key challenges in all cultures and societies. The reasons for this are simple. When adolescents participate in these two processes, they become agents in the reproduction of society, its economy, and its way of life. Moreover, working through these two general challenges builds up a basis for the adolescent's individuation from his or her childhood family, as well as for his or her entrance into adult life and identity.

Conclusion

The study concluded that adolescents are blamed for everything that happens in a society, ranging from an increase in crime, violence, suicide, cultism, and political upheaval to the breakdown of traditional, familial, and religious values. The nature and components of psychology for adolescents is a critical period of a student's development that is manifested at the biological, psychological, and social levels of integration and is marked by the acceleration of cognitive growth and personality formation. The nature and components of adolescent students' termination differ greatly from society to society. Even though adolescence is defined in terms of the three levels, it is to be noted that life is simultaneous and interactive.

Recommendations

1. The government should assist students in understanding the psychology of adolescent development from a multidisciplinary perspective.
2. School administrators should take the lead in transforming disruptive adolescents into model students.
3. School administrators should especially work to prepare adolescents to meet the challenging issues surrounding the nature and components of psychology for adolescent students.

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