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Introduction

Psychology Education

Psychology is the systematic scientific study of human behaviour, experiences and mental processes. Psychologists use stringent scientific methods and standardized scientific procedures to collect information and to analyze and interpret data. Psychology education involves students in learning about the science of psychology, as well as in conducting their own psychological research and exploring how their results can be applied to their lives and the world around them.

Psychology 30

The focus of this course is human development. Developmental psychology is the field of psychology that focuses on human development across the life span. Students will learn about human growth and changes in behaviour associated with age, including the various stages of development from infancy through childhood, adolescence, adulthood and old age. As well, students will learn how psychological studies are conducted, and engage in studies of their own. Students will be encouraged to re-assess preconceived ideas and prejudices, and begin to discover how psychological theories, methods and studies lead to greater understanding of how, in general, humans think, feel and behave relative to each stage of development.

Program Aim

The program aim of Psychology 20 and Psychology 30 is to develop students' understanding and appreciation for psychology as a field of scientific knowledge, and to give students a frame of reference for understanding themselves, others and social relationships.

Goals

The general goals of Psychology 20 and 30 are to help students to:

- understand the fundamentals of the science of psychology
- understand and engage in scientific methods of research
- develop problem-solving and decision-making skills with regard to psychological research and issues
- develop critical analysis and dialectical thinking skills, including the ability to evaluate and resolve psychology-related issues

- communicate effectively to share their understanding and ideas, and to share and defend their opinions
- develop an appreciation for the contributions of the science of psychology to human self-understanding
- explore psychology-related career opportunities and options
- develop skills in working independently, as well as collaboratively and cooperatively

Principles

Curriculum principles are fundamental beliefs intended to guide and support decisions related to teaching and learning—decisions about curriculum, classroom environment, resource selection, instruction, and assessment and evaluation. The following principles, based upon current research and knowledge about teaching and learning, are designed to guide instruction and learning in Psychology 20 and 30.

Curriculum Principles

Learning

Students learn most effectively in environments that promote active learning through purposeful and challenging experiences.

Students learn and develop in different ways and at varying rates.

Students learn most effectively when they know and actively select and apply strategies to develop understanding and make meaning.

Students learn most effectively when they find personal relevance in the concepts, knowledge, skills and values being taught.

Students develop a sound understanding of their abilities and needs when assessment and evaluation are integral components of the learning process, and when they are aware of the criteria by which they will be assessed, prior to the assessment.

Students develop and clarify their own views and values, and come to understand and respect the views and values of others, through opportunities to reflect on information and ideas from a variety of perspectives.

Students' language skills and abilities are integral tools for learning, both independently and collaboratively.

Teaching

Instructional strategies that provide for maximum student participation such as debate, role play, simulation and field experiences encourage problem solving, dialectical thinking, decision making, discussion and reflection.

Instructional strategies that appeal to a variety of learning styles provide opportunities for interaction and collaboration, as well as for independent learning. Adaptations to the learning environment, the resource materials, or in the areas of instruction and assessment accommodate individual needs and abilities.

Instruction should provide opportunities for students to learn a variety of strategies for understanding, generating and applying new knowledge, skills and attitudes.

Instruction should clearly establish connections between what is taught and students' current lives and situations, encouraging them to make meaningful connections between their prior knowledge and experiences and newly acquired knowledge and experiences.

Assessment and evaluation should be continuous, and consist of a variety of methods of collecting, sharing and using data. Teachers should provide frequent opportunities for students to assess and evaluate their own learning and performance, and to set goals for further learning. Assessment and evaluation must include skills and processes, as well as content and products.

Instruction should use a variety of strategies to encourage students to examine, clarify and reflect upon their values and viewpoints, as well as to consider and discuss several perspectives regarding a variety of concepts, issues and topics.

Instruction should engage students in the language processes of listening, speaking, reading and writing, and should provide support for them as they use these processes to develop concepts and clarify and extend their understanding of subject-specific material and vocabulary.

Teachers' Roles

The teacher's role in understanding students' needs, and engaging them in their learning experiences includes:

- learning about the students and their interests, abilities and learning styles
- planning classroom environment and routines
- organizing classroom facilities and resources
- planning and organizing for instruction
- planning and organizing for assessment and evaluation
- planning for communication with students' families
- reflecting upon the effectiveness of their planning, instruction and assessment as a means of gathering information about their students' progress and instructional needs, and the success of their practice.

Learning About the Students

One important aspect of planning and organizing for instruction is acquiring an understanding of the students. While talking directly with each student provides information about how each student perceives himself or herself as a learner, it is also useful to:

- administer oral or written diagnostic questionnaires or surveys to assess students' current skills, abilities, attitudes and interests
- consult available personnel, student portfolios and records from previous years
- consider the potential for using previously successful adaptations with each student, and plan other adaptations that address specific students' learning requirements.

Instruction and learning are both improved when teachers take every opportunity to learn about their students' strengths and needs. The diagnostic information gathered allows teachers to individualize instruction and assessment to meet the needs of each student.

Planning Classroom Environment and Routines

Another aspect of planning and organizing for instruction involves establishing the classroom environment and routines conducive to learning. Teachers are encouraged to include students in setting some of the routines and expectations for use of classroom spaces, and for participating appropriately as a community of learners. When

establishing positive environments and clearly defined routines, it is important to:

- emphasize the value of a classroom community where students feel safe enough to take risks when expressing their ideas or attempting new learning experiences
- establish roles and expectations for group members during collaborative and cooperative discussion and activities
- establish expectations for independent learning experiences
- involve students in determining some expectations and routines so that they take ownership and responsibility for adhering to them
- explain and discuss the regular use of learning and assessment tools (e.g., learning logs/notebooks, computers and computer programs, portfolios, checklists).

Organizing Classroom Facilities and Resources

Some suggestions for organizing classroom facilities and resources to support the philosophy of learning advocated in this curriculum guide include:

- Arrange the classroom furniture to accommodate both group and individual student activity. Clusters of desks or large round tables facilitate large and small group interaction, while single desks and secluded nooks provide places for individuals to work and learn independently.
- Collaborate with the teacher-librarian or other personnel to develop a classroom resource collection that supports the current unit of study.
- Reserve at least one wall or bulletin board area for displays related to the current unit of study. Encourage students to contribute to the display.
- Designate display areas for students' projects and multimedia products.

Planning and Organizing for Instruction and Assessment

Saskatchewan Learning has identified the amount of instructional time that must be allocated to each Specified Area of Study. Teachers are expected to provide 100 hours of instruction for each of Psychology 20 and Psychology 30.

Information about a variety of instructional and assessment strategies, as well as sample assessment templates are included in this document. Teachers are encouraged to adapt these

as necessary to meet the needs of individual students.

Communicating with Students' Families

It is important to establish regular, positive communication with students' families. The following suggestions may be helpful:

- involve students in establishing procedures for regular communication with their families
- provide opportunities for significant, relevant involvement of parents in classroom activities and learning experiences
- acknowledge and be sensitive to the diversity of family structures, and to the economic, ethnic and cultural backgrounds of family members
- encourage the exchange of informal notes and telephone calls between family members and the teacher
- arrange in-home visits to get to know parents and caregivers, and encourage them to ask questions and to discuss students' progress reports
- use available technology (e.g., post, e-mail, Internet) whenever possible to enhance communication with family members
- invite students' parents/caregivers or other family members to volunteer in the classroom or school, in capacities that make them feel comfortable and feel that their contribution is worthwhile, but be aware of and sensitive to such matters as family schedules and availability.

Reflecting Upon Practice

Whether beginning the second year or second decade of their careers, teachers benefit from the accumulated understanding that is the result of reflection on past practice and experience. In the contexts of their classrooms, teachers are asking questions and gathering information that continues to shape their practices as they apply what they discover to subsequent classroom teaching and learning situations.

Teachers who approach each day as reflective practitioners consider what they know and believe about aspects of their daily practice such as:

- students: their interests, strengths, needs, personal learning goals, etc.
- curriculum: philosophy and expectations, aim, goals, instruction/assessment suggestions, etc.

- their own philosophy: about instruction/assessment, and how theirs is similar or different to that of the curriculum
- their own reflective practices: what they reflect upon, why they choose those areas, what requires reflection next, etc.

Note: Sample reflective checklists for many subject areas can be located on the Saskatchewan Learning website at <http://www.sasked.gov.sk.ca>. These checklists may be used to construct ones that are applicable to individual teacher needs and goals.

Core Curriculum Components and Initiatives

Saskatchewan's Core Curriculum includes seven Required Areas of Study, several Specified Areas of Study (of which Psychology 20 and 30 are two), Locally Determined Options, the Adaptive Dimension and the Common Essential Learnings. In addition, Saskatchewan Learning has implemented a number of related initiatives to ensure an inclusive learning environment such as gender equity, resource-based learning, Aboriginal education and multicultural education. This section describes these components and initiatives, and their particular application to Psychology 20 and 30.

Adaptive Dimension

The Adaptive Dimension refers to the teaching practice of making adjustments in approved educational programs to accommodate diversity in student learning needs and abilities. Teachers have flexibility in selecting resource materials, instructional methods, assessment strategies and learning environments that are appropriate for each student.

The essence of the Adaptive Dimension lies in the phrase "seeking other ways." Providing students with alternative means of accessing and expressing their ideas and knowledge facilitates their abilities to learn. Just as physical environments can be made more accessible through modifications such as ramps or wider doorways, learning environments can be made more accessible through adjustments in settings, instructional and assessment strategies or resource materials.

The Adaptive Dimension serves to:

- maximize student learning and independence

- reduce discrepancies between ability and achievement
- promote positive self-concept and a sense of belonging
- foster a willingness to become involved in learning.

Teachers are encouraged to engage in collaborative planning for instruction, which may involve consultation with students, parents/caregivers and various professionals in order to determine the adaptations necessary to maximize students' potential, and enhance their abilities as independent learners.

Effective implementation of the Adaptive Dimension means tailoring instruction, assessment, resources and the learning environment to meet individual needs; therefore, the extent of the adaptation and the duration of the adaptation will vary for each student. This is why groupings of students should be set for short durations, in response to needs rather than as permanent arrangements.

Some guidelines for incorporating the Adaptive Dimension include:

- create a classroom environment in which students' backgrounds, cultures, interests, language, thinking abilities and learning styles are accepted and respected.
- vary instructional strategies and methods to meet the needs of all students.
- use a variety of assessment techniques to ensure the continuous observation, recording and reporting of students' growth, strengths and needs.
- alter the pace of lessons to ensure that students understand the concept being presented or that students are being challenged by the presentation. Give students sufficient time to explore, create, question and experience as they learn.
- encourage a variety of responses and culminating activities, including oral, written, visual, dramatic and multimedia.
- incorporate flexible grouping, cooperative learning strategies, peer response and collaborative groups to promote development of concepts, language and skills.
- involve students, as often as possible and when appropriate, in planning for their own learning, instruction and assessment.

The Adaptive Dimension includes all practices teachers employ to make concepts and activities more appropriate and relevant for students. Reflective practice allows teachers to make informed decisions about individual student needs and

abilities. It is important to be flexible; the less rigid the setting and approach, the more easily it can be adapted. For more information about adapting for student learning, refer to *The Adaptive Dimension in Core Curriculum* (Saskatchewan Education, 1992).

Common Essential Learnings

The Common Essential Learnings refer to those learnings that are common to all subject areas and can be incorporated in relevant contexts throughout the year. Psychology 20 and 30 offer many opportunities for developing the Common Essential Learnings (C.E.L.s) in authentic ways. Some guidelines for incorporating each of the C.E.L.s follow.

Communication

The teacher should:

- encourage students to represent their thoughts and understandings in written, spoken and visual formats
- instruct students about reading and writing strategies that are useful in the content area of Psychology (e.g., selecting appropriate formats for expository text, summarizing, locating the main idea or viewpoint expressed) and model these strategies to scaffold student learning
- develop students' psychology related vocabulary so that they acquire the terms and the language with which to discuss the subject-specific information, issues and concepts
- value students' existing language competencies and extend their language abilities by building on the language skills they bring to the classroom
- follow student responses with requests for elaboration, clarification, evidence, reasons and judgement.

Creative and Critical Thinking

The teacher should:

- facilitate students' reflective and dialectical thinking, and encourage their critical and creative responses to issues and ideas
- encourage students to articulate interpretations, opinions and conclusions, then to support and/or defend their assertions and responses to ideas, actions and information
- have students analyze the content, presentation and biases of popular media for accurate and realistic portrayal of society and human behaviour
- encourage students to use analogies and metaphors in descriptions and comparisons, and in attempts to understand unfamiliar concepts, ideas and information

- encourage students to look for and create patterns and identify relationships among ideas, as well as among historical and contemporary issues, people and events
- extend students' abilities to infer, generalize, classify, categorize, organize and summarize ideas and information, orally, visually and in written form.

Personal and Social Values and Skills

The teacher should:

- model and encourage sensitive, respectful responses to the beliefs, views and abilities of others
- help students' connect their understanding and life experiences with historical and contemporary events and issues, so that they begin to acquire rational processes for examining value claims and moral dilemmas
- incorporate multicultural content and perspectives into units of study to extend students' understanding and appreciation of cultural diversity and richness
- extend students' awareness of cultural, racial and gender bias in print and non-print resources and in real life experiences
- provide frequent opportunities for students to work collaboratively and cooperatively in a variety of group structures (e.g., interest groups, friendship groups, homogenous groups, ability groups, gender mixed groups)
- provide instruction and practice for students to develop their collaborative and cooperative skills, abilities and attitudes.

Independent Learning

The teacher should:

- encourage students to gather information and ideas from a variety of sources and materials
- provide frequent opportunities for student choice in selecting psychology related research topics, issues and events
- involve students in reflecting upon and assessing their learning experiences and identifying their strengths and needs
- extend students' abilities to reflect on experiences through the use of oral, written and visual means (e.g., learning logs, surveys, reports, discussion, graphic organizers)
- involve students in a variety of ways of learning (e.g., observing, interviewing, discussing, reading, viewing).

Numeracy

The teacher should:

- provide opportunities for students to interpret and produce relevant graphs and charts to enhance their own understanding of information, and to convey their ideas and information to others
- provide opportunities for students to discuss the meaning of commonly used quantitative terms in the context of their learning experiences (e.g., in understanding statistics, making comparisons, making inferences)
- develop students' understanding of quantitative information as it contributes to their learning in a lesson or unit of study.

Technological Literacy

The teacher should:

- extend students' technological vocabulary and their awareness of how technological developments affect and change cultures
- develop students' understanding of ways that technology impacts their lives, the environment and society at large
- help students determine and understand their role in using, and therefore in shaping, technological developments.

The development of the Common Essential Learnings throughout the Psychology 20 and 30 programs will assist students with various personal, social and academic challenges. For more information, refer to *Understanding the Common Essential Learnings: A Handbook for Teachers* (Saskatchewan Education, 1988).

Within the units of study in this curriculum guide, the C.E.L.s objectives are identified using the following abbreviations:

Communication	COM
Critical and Creative Thinking	CCT
Personal and Social Skills and Values	PSSV
Independent Learning	IL
Numeracy	NUM
Technological Literacy	TL

Gender Equity

Expectations based primarily on gender limit students' ability to develop to their fullest potential. While some stereotypical views and practices have disappeared, others remain, and endeavors to provide equal opportunity for male and female students continue. It is the responsibility of schools to create an educational environment free of gender bias. This can be facilitated by increased

understanding and use of gender-balanced resources and language, and by employing non-sexist language and non-sexist instructional and assessment approaches.

The suggestions in *Gender Equity: Policy and Guidelines for Implementation* (Saskatchewan Education, 1991) will help educators to promote gender equity and understanding. The following guidelines reflect the equitable approach incorporated in this curriculum guide.

The teachers should:

- select and use resources that reflect the current and evolving roles of women and men in society
- have equally high expectations for both male and female students
- incorporate flexible and diverse groupings for projects and activities
- model and encourage gender-fair language in all classroom interactions
- instruct students on how to recognize gender inequities in what they read, view, hear, say and write
- examine classroom resources for gender equitable content and perspectives and discuss gender-biased materials with students
- seek a balance of female and male representatives of historical and contemporary concepts, issues and events
- ensure that students of both genders have comparable time and access to equipment and resources, including the teacher's time and attention.

Resource-Based Learning

In a resource-based program, teachers can assist the development of attitudes and abilities needed for independent, lifelong learning by using a variety of resources and instructional approaches. Teachers, in collaboration with teacher-librarians or other personnel, can plan to use resources in diverse ways for different purposes. This approach teaches students the processes required to locate, select, organize, analyze and apply information.

Resource-based learning offers students and teachers increased opportunities to share the responsibility for determining the skills, processes and resources for individual learning requirements. Students in resource-based classrooms learn to select and use resources produced in a variety of media that are best suited to their learning needs, abilities and interests. Resource-based education accommodates all learning styles and provides opportunities for students at all levels of ability.

The following guidelines will help teachers to implement resource-based learning in their Psychology 20 and 30 classrooms.

The teachers should:

- collaborate with teacher-librarians and other personnel in planning and teaching units of study
- involve students in the planning process whenever appropriate by discussing unit topics, objectives, resources, activities, concepts, interests and needs
- allow flexibility and choice over the course of the school year by negotiating such things as research topics, activities and projects with students
- select a wide range of visual, auditory and human resources
- encourage students to explore a wide range of print and non-print material for information and enjoyment, and to investigate a variety of sources such as those found in school and public libraries, electronic databases and at home or in the immediate community
- use the bibliography that was developed for the course, and the annual updates, as starting points to acquire resources in all formats
- model resource use by performing as a co-learner with the students and by choosing diverse resources for instruction and student use
- include learning experiences that incorporate the need to locate, analyze, organize and apply information gathered
- instruct students about how to determine the skills and identify the resources that they will need to accomplish a learning task or address personal needs and interests
- design learning activities that incorporate resource-based assignments and unit projects.

Aboriginal Content, Perspectives and Resources

The inclusion of Aboriginal content, perspectives and resources in the Psychology 20 and 30 curricula fulfills a central recommendation of the *Indian and Métis Education Policy from Kindergarten to Grade Twelve* (Saskatchewan Education, 1995), which states:

Saskatchewan Education recognizes that the Aboriginal peoples of the province are historically unique peoples and occupy a unique and rightful place in society today. Saskatchewan Education recognizes that education programs must meet the needs of Aboriginal peoples, and that changes to existing programs are also necessary for the benefit of all students (p. 6).

Knowledge of Aboriginal peoples promotes understanding and positive attitudes in **all** students, including those who are from Aboriginal backgrounds. An effective way of teaching the content is to use quality resources written and produced by and about Aboriginal peoples. Carefully selected materials and resources can provide a vehicle whereby harmful effects of inaccurate thinking can be identified and addressed in a positive manner. Awareness of one's own culture and the cultures of others develops self-esteem and promotes appreciation of Canada's cultural diversity.

As is the case for all students, Aboriginal youth grapple with the complex factors at work in identity formation (such as gender, family, socio-economic class, culture, religion and regional background) and the nature of their own membership in society and the global community. Unfortunately, the issues around identity for Aboriginal students can be further complicated by the negative attitudes and perceptions that they sometimes encounter. This can result in a serious loss of self-esteem, confidence and/or motivation to succeed in school. Informed teachers can counter these negative effects on identity and self-concept through effective teaching.

Aboriginal students in Saskatchewan possess a wide range of physical characteristics and come from extremely diverse cultural backgrounds and social environments including northern, rural and urban areas. Levels of ethnicity or the degrees to which individuals choose to identify with the cultures of their families of origin also vary and change over time. Teachers who recognize and affirm this diversity, and the complex factors surrounding identity formation, enhance the educational experience of all students. It is important that curriculum, resources and instruction and assessment strategies foster personally meaningful and culturally identifiable experiences for Aboriginal students.

The language abilities of Aboriginal students in Saskatchewan range from fluency in an Indian language, to degrees of bilingualism in an Indian language and in English, to fluency in English. Some students may speak a variety of dialects of English. (Dialects feature variations in pronunciation, grammar and syntax that are the result of influences from the mother tongue.) Such variations in oral language are normal and should not be perceived as evidence of language deficiency. Teachers who understand and respect linguistic diversity use a variety of teaching strategies that build upon their students' existing knowledge of language to further extend their English language abilities. Cross-cultural education,

language acquisition theory and second language teaching strategies will assist teachers in meeting the needs of individual students. As well, it is crucial to use a variety of instructional, motivational and assessment approaches that are sensitive to the range of Aboriginal cultural values and ways of communicating.

Psychology 20 and 30 must include accurate and appropriate Aboriginal content, resources and perspectives. Teachers have a responsibility to evaluate all resources based upon criteria such as literary and structural excellence, informational accuracy and freedom from bias and stereotyping. As students develop their ability to think critically, they will be able to recognize bias and stereotyping in what they read, view, hear, say and write.

Guidelines in *Diverse Voices: Selecting Equitable Resources for Indian and Métis Education* (Saskatchewan Education, 1995) can assist teachers and students in understanding examples of bias and stereotyping in resources that inaccurately portray Aboriginal peoples, and assist teachers and students in choosing materials that present Aboriginal peoples in a fair and equitable manner.

The following points, taken from *Indian and Métis Education Policy from Kindergarten to Grade Twelve* (Saskatchewan Education, 1995), summarize the expectations for inclusion of Aboriginal content, perspectives and resources in curriculum and instruction.

- Curricula and resource materials will concentrate on positive images of and accurate information about Aboriginal peoples.
- Curricula and resource materials will reinforce and complement the beliefs and values of Aboriginal peoples.
- Resources and materials by Aboriginal authors and creators will be used whenever possible and appropriate.
- Curricula and materials will reflect the legal, political, social, economic and regional diversity of Aboriginal peoples.

Multicultural Content, Perspectives and Resources

Multicultural education fosters understanding, acceptance, empathy and constructive and harmonious relations among people of diverse cultures. It encourages learners of all ages to view cultures different from their own as sources of learning and enrichment. "All students benefit from an opportunity to experience a wide variety of world views to help learn compassion, acceptance, and

understanding. The classroom should be a place that celebrates and honors diversity to the benefit of ALL its members” (Melenchuk, 1996, p. 3).

While the first and most lasting influence on a child is that of the home environment, educators and educational institutions have a responsibility to prepare children to function in our culturally diverse society. The educational system must address a variety of issues with cultural diversity in mind: second language programming, teaching and learning styles, curriculum and resource materials, teacher attitudes and expectations, student groupings, and assessment and evaluation. Sound teaching practices such as being aware of a child’s social and psychological background, encouraging the development of self-esteem and responding to individual needs are consistent with the philosophy underlying multicultural education.

Multicultural Education and Heritage Language Education Policies (Saskatchewan Education, 1994) identifies goals that provide a foundation for multicultural education in the classroom. These goals include self-concept development, understanding and relating to others, spiritual development and membership in society.

To demonstrate and promote cultural respect and understanding, teachers should:

- affirm each student’s language use as unique and important
- accept and respect the language that each student brings to the classroom
- become educated about the cultural backgrounds of their students
- determine if unexpected behaviours and actions reflect a student’s culture
- respect students’ knowledge about their own cultures
- build a classroom environment that discourages racial put-downs of others’ language usage and abilities, and their cultural and ethnic backgrounds
- deal with racist incidents in a positive manner, if they occur
- view students of all cultures as having equal potential
- become informed about a variety of cultures and inform their students
- help students to understand that individual identities are shaped by many factors, one of which is cultural background
- give students opportunities to select and respond to the resources that they listen to, read and view
- encourage students to read, view and listen to a variety of resources and media representative of

cultural groups with which they do and do not identify

- encourage students to take risks when expressing themselves in spoken and written forms
- use interpreters for second language speakers (e.g., parents, community members)
- use a variety of instructional and assessment strategies to accommodate students’ cultural learning preferences and backgrounds
- develop students’ collaborative and cooperative skills and attitudes through group work, problem solving discussions and consensus activities
- encourage students to talk and write about their experiences and places they have lived or travelled
- provide opportunities for students to tell their stories orally and in writing
- choose resources and media selections that represent a diversity of cultures and cultural perspectives
- discuss stereotypical beliefs and cultural biases in resources and media.

The inclusion of multicultural content, perspectives and resources helps students to develop multicultural perspectives that prepare them to live more enriched and compassionate lives while contributing harmoniously to a pluralistic society.

Portrayal of Persons with Disabilities

Persons with disabilities have often been depicted inaccurately in print, media and other classroom resources. Stereotypical depictions have served to give readers, listeners and viewers inappropriate information and have engendered attitudes ranging from feelings of pity or revulsion to expectations of superhuman powers of intellect or insight. It is critical that teachers use resources and materials that portray persons with disabilities realistically and fairly.

Wherever possible, ability rather than disability should be emphasized. Materials implying that persons with disabilities must be cared for or pitied should not be used. Materials should convey respect for the individuality of **all** persons, including those with disabilities. For example, terminology such as “people with disabilities” or “has a disability” should be used rather than terms like “the less fortunate”, “afflicted” or “suffers from a disability” that tend to have negative connotations.

Heim (1994) suggests that it is important to be aware that literature, the media and other resources frequently portray people with disabilities in a

stereotypical way. When evaluating material for use in the Psychology 20 or 30 classroom, the teacher should consider the following:

Accuracy of Information

Accurate and up-to-date information should be used in the resource to describe the disability. The best approach is one where aspects of the disability are revealed, not as the main focus of the text, but through the unfolding of the documentary or story.

Stereotypes

Stereotypes frequently found in media portrayals of people with disabilities include: pitiable and pathetic, objects of violence or burdens who are incapable of fully participating in everyday life. Material that include characters or people with disabilities should provide an insight into the feelings and thoughts of the individuals with disabilities. The characters should not be used to provoke certain feelings and thoughts in the reader, listener or viewer (e.g., pity).

Growth in Character

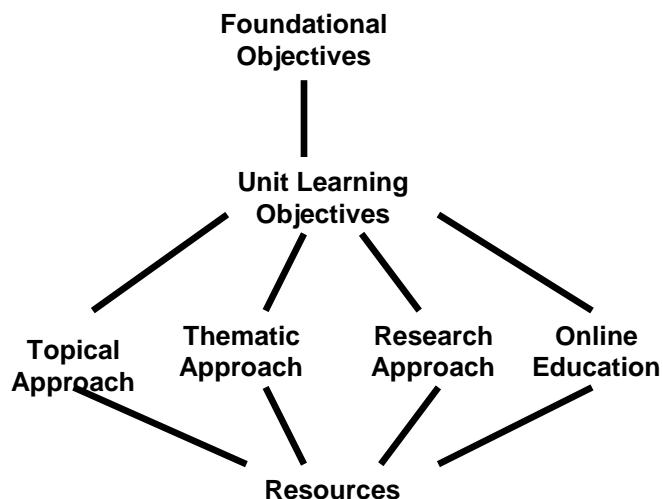
Often, in fiction, a character with a disability is used as a vehicle for the growth of another character who is “normal”. The “normal” character gains sensitivity or awareness as a result of his or her relationship with the character with a disability. The character with a disability does not grow or change. This treatment is troubling because the character with a disability is relegated to a passive role; the character is not treated as an unique, whole individual.

Using This Curriculum Guide

The Psychology 30 curriculum guide supports one to four approaches to instruction, or any combination thereof: topical, thematic, action research oriented and online education.

The course is based upon a number of foundational knowledge, skill and values objectives. Each of the seven units of study is based upon knowledge, skill and values learning objectives that relate specifically to the content for each unit.

It is at this point in the process of organizing for instruction that the teacher can select from one, or several approaches to using this curriculum guide.



Topical Approach

The courses can be taught in a sequential manner, with the teacher selecting from among the topics in each unit, and then within each topic, choosing specific lesson objectives and instructional strategies. Each topic of study contains specific lesson objectives, suggested instructional activities, making connections activities that relate the topic content to other aspects of social psychology and other subject areas and instructional resources that include curriculum support materials (handouts, overhead masters, websites and *Ages and Stages* student journal articles). In addition, each specific lesson objective is supported with teacher information that provides background reference material.

Thematic Approach

The courses can also be taught from a thematic perspective. For example, teachers may choose to select a theme (personality, gender, relationships, family, learning, etc.) and then select the content from any of the units in the curriculum guide. It is important to emphasize, however, that the focus for the two courses is different. For Psychology 20, the perspective is social behaviour. For Psychology 30, the perspective is human development across the lifespan. Resources and supports are provided for each unit and topic of study and these can be used to facilitate a thematic approach. In addition, teachers are directed towards the online psychology resources located at http://www.centuralschool.ca/web_resources.

Research Approach

The third approach is that of a research-based approach. Each unit of study contains suggested research topics organized into one of six research

methods: interview, observation, case study, topical, experiments and surveys. Using these suggested research topics, or others that the teacher has used in the past, students can engage in research projects. Once the research studies have been designed and approved by the classroom teacher (including obtaining permission to conduct research if necessary), the results from the studies can then serve as a basis upon which the content of the unit, topic or theme may be addressed. For example, using the research approach to teach infancy might include the design and development of research studies on language development, socialization and play, the influence of television, learning, memory, basic temperaments, toys and gender differences in certain developmental tasks. Once the results of the research studies have been analyzed and presented, the teacher would then use the knowledge, issues and questions raised by the research as the basis upon which to introduce the content for the unit found in the curriculum guide.

Online Education

The fourth approach to organizing for instruction incorporates web-based resources into the design and development of a course of studies. Online education includes accessing web-based content, e-mail, chat and discussion groups, and electronic transmission of content among students and among students and teacher. The online psychology resources to support both psychology curriculum guides are located at http://www.centralischool/web_resources. The online resources include curriculum guides, *Ages and Stages* journals for downloading and printing, e-journals for each unit of study in the curriculum guide, as well as links to related websites and online resources. The design, development and incorporation of web-based resources is an ongoing process. Teachers are encouraged to access the online resources on a regular basis to take advantage of the resources that have been recently approved and added to the database.

The online resources offer teachers and students an exciting, rich source of contemporary information and reference materials. Online resources can be incorporated into all aspects of this curriculum guide. There are several approaches to using web-based resources to complement and supplement the traditional methods of teaching psychology depending on Internet access. In those teaching situations where computer lab access is readily available, teachers may choose to take the whole class into the lab and access the online resources as a whole group activity on a regular basis. Alternatively, teachers may assign independent research topics that require individuals or small groups to access the online resources under their

general guidance and supervision. Finally, teachers may assign individual students or small groups to access the resources at home, or during out-of-class times.

Supporting all four approaches to using this curriculum guide are the variety of resources that have been identified, organized and approved for inclusion into the curriculum guide. There are four types of resources available to teachers: paper-based, online, local, and bibliographic.

The paper-based resources include the curriculum guides, the teacher information for every lesson objective in the curriculum guide, the curriculum support materials (handouts, transparency masters, etc.), the instructional philosophy and strategies document, the assessment and evaluation strategies as well as support documents for dialectical reasoning.

The online resources include both curriculum guides, the *Ages and Stages* journals for each of the four required units of study, e-journals for each of the units of study, and links and resources to specific online resources to support the curriculum guide.

The local resources include fellow teachers, medical professionals, family members, parents, local health professionals, health agencies and community agencies.

The annotated bibliography includes all of the print and non-print resources evaluated and approved by Saskatchewan Learning.

In summary, teachers are encouraged to organize for instruction in human development in one, or several approaches: topical, thematic, research-oriented and online. Regardless of the approach taken, resources and supports are provided that complement and supplement the experiences, teaching styles, needs, interests and resources of the teacher.

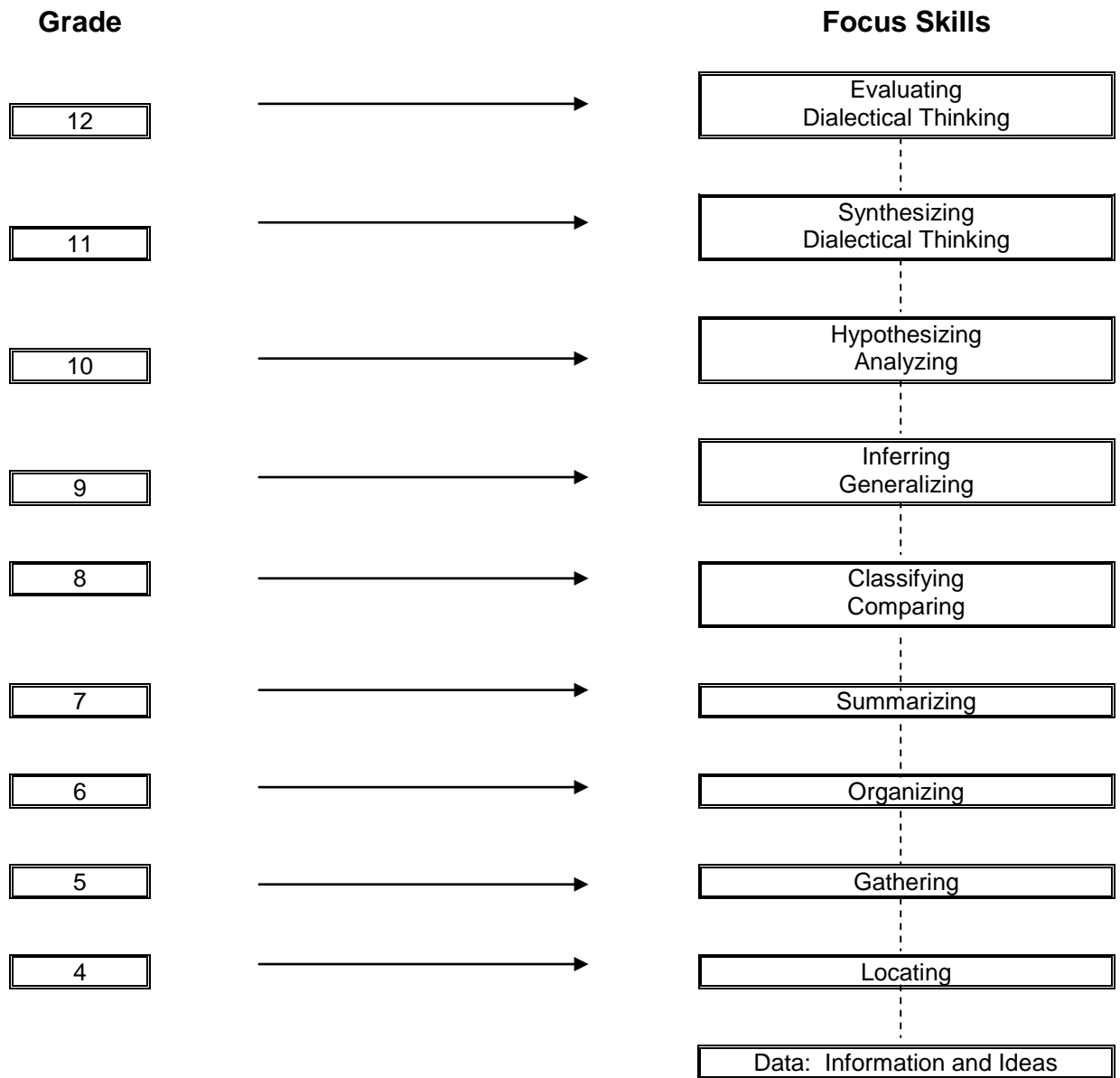
Learning Skills Development

Skill development requires systematic instruction within meaningful contexts, immediately followed by opportunities to practise and apply new skills. Social Sciences tasks require both technical and cognitive

skills, skills that assist students to locate and process information, attain concepts, learn new skills and develop understanding of values and attitudes. While students use all of the skills, to some degree, in each grade, skill attainment requires sequential learning within a development context. Therefore, the skills that provide the focus in one grade serve

as the basis for the skills to be learned in subsequent grades. Teachers should not assume that all students have achieved independence in a skill identified at a lower grade level. Teachers need to make diagnostic assessments on a continuous basis, and help students to develop skills as necessary.

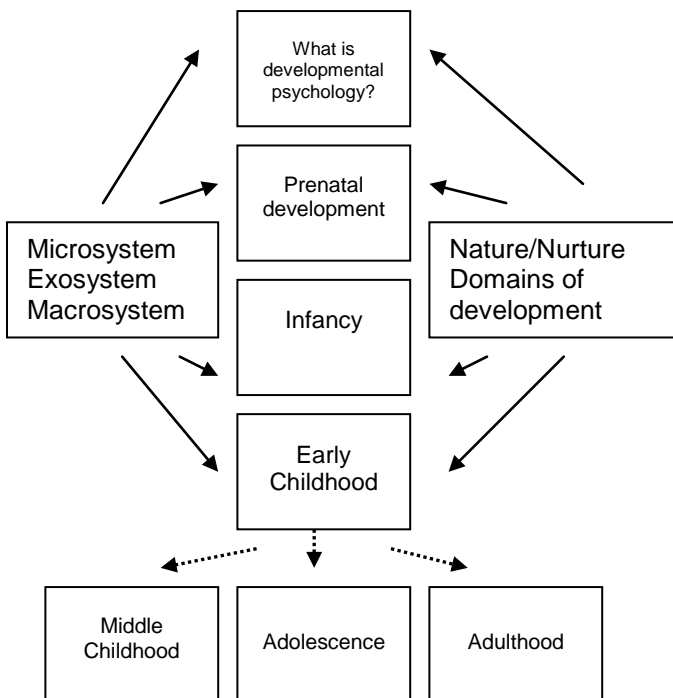
Sequence of Skills (Grades 9-12)



Course Overview

Psychology 30 is the study of human development across the time spans of human life. Students will learn about human growth and changes in behaviour associated with age, including the various stages of development from conception to old age, and apply such knowledge to investigate issues in their everyday lives.

Concept Map



Foundational Objectives

Knowledge

- To acquire knowledge about the concepts of developmental psychology.
- To understand the roles that biology and experiences play in human development.
- To understand how the sociocultural context influences development.
- To understand how the biological, cognitive and socioemotional domains interact and influence development.

Skills

- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings by making connections with existing knowledge and understandings.

- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings within the discipline of psychology.
- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings with other disciplines.
- To apply those concepts and understandings to a variety of practical, pertinent and contemporary issues.

Values

- To appreciate the complex, dynamic, reciprocal and personal aspects of human development across the lifespans.

Course Organization

Psychology 30 will address the two major themes of human development:

- What roles do nature and nurture play in the developmental stages?
- How do the various domains (biological, emotional, cognitive, and social) influence development from the perspectives of the developing person?
- The two themes will be explored in relationship to the systems of support (Bronfenbrenner, 1979):
 - microsystems (family, classroom, religious setting, and peer group)
 - exosystems (community, school, mass media, and health agencies)
 - macrosystems (culture, nationality, political, economic, and social).
- The themes will be explored across the lifespan from conception to death:
 - preconception to birth
 - infancy (0-2 years)
 - early childhood (2-6 years)
 - middle childhood (6-12 years)
 - adolescence
 - adulthood.

Psychology 30 is organized into four required units of study:

- What is developmental psychology?
 - What is the developmental process during the prenatal stage?
 - What is the developmental process during infancy?
 - What is the developmental process during early childhood?
- and three optional units of study:**
- What is the developmental process during middle childhood?

- What is the developmental process during adolescence?
- What is the developmental process during adulthood?

Each of the units of study contains:

- Unit overview
- Unit concept web
- Concepts and Lesson Objectives overview
- Lesson plans for each concept that include:
 - objectives
 - suggested instructional strategies and methods
 - “making connections” with other issues within psychology and other subjects and disciplines
 - teacher information for each objective
 - instructional resources for each lesson.
- Action research in developmental psychology issues and topics
- *Ages and Stages: A Student Journal of Developmental Psychology*
 - articles related to each of the concepts for the unit of study
 - suggested activities connecting the concept to other concepts in psychology, and other disciplines.

Units of Study

Unit One: What is developmental psychology? (5 to 10 hours)

- 1.1 Introduction to developmental psychology
- 1.2 Looking through the eyes of What do you see?
- 1.3 How do we make sense of our behaviour?
- 1.4 Action research in developmental psychology

Unit Two: What is the developmental process before birth? (15 to 20 hours)

- 2.1 Unit Overview: Developmental changes from conception to birth
- 2.2 Issues and challenges in becoming a parent
- 2.3 Looking through the eyes of the fetus, what do you see?
- 2.4 What is the process of biological development from conception to birth?
 - 2.4.1 Heredity and genetics
 - 2.4.2 The stages of prenatal development
- 2.5 What is the process of cognitive development from conception to birth?
- 2.6 What is the process of socioemotional development from conception to birth?
- 2.7 What is the process of labour and delivery?
- 2.8 Looking through the eyes of the systems of supports, what do you see?

- 2.9 What new reproductive technologies exist for creating life?
- 2.10 What are the prenatal influences and issues for healthy development?
- 2.11 Action research in prenatal development
- 2.12 Lifespan approach to prenatal development

Unit Three: What is the developmental process during infancy? (15 to 20 hours)

- 3.1 Unit Overview: Developmental changes during infancy
- 3.2 Looking through the eyes of the infant, what do you see?
- 3.3 What is the process of physical development during infancy?
- 3.4 What is the process of cognitive development during infancy?
- 3.5 What is the process of socioemotional development during infancy?
 - 3.5.1 Temperament and the beginnings of personality
 - 3.5.2 Early socialization
- 3.6 Looking through the eyes of the systems of supports, what do you see?
- 3.7 Action research in infant development
- 3.8 Lifespan approach to development during infancy

Unit Four: What is the developmental process during early childhood? (15 to 20 hours)

- 4.1 Unit Overview: Developmental changes during early childhood
- 4.2 Looking through the eyes of the young child, what do you see?
- 4.3 What is the process of physical development during early childhood?
- 4.4 What is the process of cognitive development during early childhood?
- 4.5 What is the process of socioemotional development during early childhood?
 - 4.5.1 The self and the beginnings of personality
 - 4.5.2 Socialization and play
 - 4.5.3 Moral development
 - 4.5.4 Gender identity
- 4.6 Looking through the eyes of the systems of supports, what do you see?
- 4.7 Action research in early childhood development
- 4.8 Lifespan approach to development during early childhood

Unit Five: What is the developmental process during middle childhood? (15 to 20 hours)

- 5.1 Unit Overview: Developmental changes during childhood
- 5.2 Looking through the eyes of a child, what do you see?
- 5.3 Physical and cognitive development during childhood

- 5.4 Socioemotional changes during childhood
 - 5.4.1 Childhood issues
- 5.5 Looking through the eyes of the systems of support, what do you see?
- 5.6 Action research in middle childhood development
- 5.7 Lifespan approach to child development

Unit Six: What is the developmental process during adolescence? (15 to 20 hours)

- 6.1 Unit Overview: Developmental changes during adolescence
- 6.2 Looking through the eyes of an adolescent, what do you see?
- 6.3 Physical development during adolescence
- 6.4 Cognitive development during adolescence
 - 6.4.1 Social cognition
 - 6.4.2 Social perception
- 6.5 Socioemotional changes during adolescence
 - 6.5.1 Self-understanding: How do you develop a sense of yourself in the world?
 - 6.5.2 Development of self-concept
 - 6.5.3 Culture and the self
 - 6.5.4 Gender and the self
 - 6.5.5 Self-schemas and identity
 - 6.5.6 Identity management
 - 6.5.7 Mass media
 - 6.5.8 Adolescent issues
- 6.6 Looking through the eyes of the systems of support, what do you see?
- 6.7 Action research in adolescent development
- 6.8 Lifespan approach to adolescent development

Unit Seven: What is the developmental process during adulthood? (15 to 20 hours)

- 7.1 Unit Overview: Developmental changes during adulthood
- 7.2 Looking through the eyes of an adult, what do you see?
 - 7.2.1 Lifestyle choices
 - 7.2.2 Stress and resiliency
 - 7.2.3 Aging
 - 7.2.4 Death and dying
- 7.3 Socioemotional changes
 - 7.3.1 Attraction and intimacy
 - 7.3.2 Love
 - 7.3.3 Relationships
 - 7.3.4 Marriage and divorce
 - 7.3.5 Personality development
 - 7.3.6 Senior citizens
 - 7.3.7 Careers, work, leisure
 - 7.3.8 Gender issues
 - 7.3.9 Retirement
- 7.4 Looking through the eyes of the systems of support, what do you see?
- 7.5 Action research in adult development
- 7.6 Lifespan approach to adult development

Resources and Resource-Based Learning

Resource-based learning is an integral part of all units. The accompanying bibliography will assist you in incorporating a variety of resources from different media into each unit. This annotated bibliography should be available from your teacher librarian. It is available from Saskatchewan Learning through the website at www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/ or from the Learning Resources Distribution Centre at 306-787-5987. The bibliography contains annotations of current, useful resources including print, video, Internet sites, and other media selections. Teachers are encouraged to assess their current resource collection, identify those resources that are still useful, and acquire small quantities of each new title, rather than class sets, in order to provide students with a broad range of perspectives and information.

The following list of evaluated resource titles provides a **starting point** for developing a resource collection that is current and relevant, and that addresses students' various learning styles and abilities. **Please refer to the bibliography for a complete list of resources giving the full citation, annotation, and ordering information.** Please note that many of these resources can be ordered through the **Learning Resources Distribution Centre** (<http://lrdc.sasked.gov.sk.ca/>). Videos may be available from **Media Group** (<http://www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/video>). **At the time of publication all of the resources listed here and in the bibliography were in print and available.**

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Print Resources

Beginning Psychology: A Comprehensive Introduction to Psychology
Corsini Encyclopedia of Psychology and Behavioural Science
The Developing Person: Through Childhood and Adolescence
Dictionary Of Psychology
Essentials of Psychology
Lifespan Development
Psychology (Baron)
Psychology (Lefton)
Psychology (Travis and Wade)
Psychology and You

Psychology for Kids II: 40 Fun Experiments That Help You Learn About Others
Psychology for Kids: 40 Fun Tests That Help You Learn About Yourself
Psychology: A New Introduction
Psychology: The Adaptive Mind
Psychology: The Science of Behaviour
Simply Psychology
Understanding Psychology (Kasschau)
Understanding Psychology (Robbins)
The World of Psychology

Non-Print Resources

Discovering Psychology Series

Internet Sites

The following sites provide a brief overview of what is available. These sites were checked for availability in March 2002. To access sites that have been formally evaluated and linked to the curriculum visit the Evergreen Curriculum at the Saskatchewan Learning website -
<http://www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/docs/evergrn.html>.

American Academy of Pediatrics -
<http://www.aap.org/family/medemredirect.htm>
American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry -
<http://www.aacap.org>
American Psychological Association -
<http://www.apa.org>
Canadian Psychology Association -
<http://www.cpa.ca/contents.html>
Childhood and Adolescence Website - Health Canada -
<http://www.hc-sc.gc.ca/hppb/childhood-youth>
Developmental Psychology -
<http://www.apa.org/journals/dev.html>
Mental Health - Health Canada -
<http://www.hc-sc.gc.ca/hppb/mentalhealth>
Parents Place - <http://parentsplace.com>
National Parent Information Network – <http://npin.org>

Glossary of Terms

Accommodation: In Piaget's cognitive theory, accommodation refers to changes in existing ways of thinking in response to encounters with new stimuli or events.

Altruism: An unselfish concern for another person.

Assimilation: In Piaget's cognitive theory, assimilation is the process through which people understand an experience in terms of their current state of cognitive development and way of thinking.

Attachment: An intense emotional relationship that is specific to two people, that endures over time, and in which prolonged separation from the partner is accompanied by stress and sorrow (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 328).

Biotechnology: Biological science when applied, especially to genetic engineering and DNA technology.

Cephalocaudal trend: A newborn's head is about one-fourth of its body length; a two-year-old's head is only one-fifth of its body length. This pattern of growth is called the cephalocaudal trend (Lefton, Boyes and Ogen, 2000, p. 339).

Cloning: To make a copy of.

Cognition: Includes all the mental processes that are used to obtain knowledge or to become aware of the environment. Cognition encompasses perception, imagination, judgement, memory, and language. It includes the processes people use to think, decide, and learn.

Culture: Culture can be defined as a program of shared rules that govern the behaviour of people in a community or society, and a set of values and beliefs shared by most members of that community that are passed from one generation to another.

Ego: According to the psychoanalytic perspective on human development, the ego is the part of the personality that is rational and reasonable. Providing a reality check for the demands of the id, the ego acts as a buffer between the outside world and the primitive id. The ego operates on the "reality principle", in which instincts are restrained in order to maintain the safety of the individual and help integrate the individual into society.

Embryonic period: The embryonic period is the period of prenatal development that occurs from two to eight weeks after conception.

Ethnicity: Ethnic character, background, or affiliation.

Exosystem: Surrounding the microsystems is the exosystem, which includes all the external networks, such as community structures and local educational, medical, employment, and communications systems that influence the microsystem.

Fetal period: The fetal period is the period of development that begins two months after conception and lasts for seven months, on the average.

Gender: Gender refers to culturally constructed distinctions between masculinity and femininity. Individuals are born female or male; however, they become feminine and masculine through complex developmental processes that take years to unfold.

Genetics: The study of how heredity works and, in particular, of genes. A gene is a section of a long deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) molecule. It carries information for the construction of a protein or part of a protein.

Genetic engineering: Genetic engineering is the alteration of an organism's genetic instructions through the insertion of additional genes. In humans, genetic engineering involves adding normal genes, either directly via a blood transfusion or bone marrow transplant or directly into a cluster of cells, thereby enabling the body to replace ailing cells with healthy ones.

Germinal period: The germinal period of development is the first two weeks of development. It is characterized by rapid cell division, the beginning of cell differentiation, and implantation of the blastocyst into the uterine wall.

Heredity: The process of transmitting biological traits from parent to offspring through genes, the basic units of heredity. Heredity also refers to the inherited characteristics of an individual, including traits such as height, eye colour, and blood type.

Heuristics: Heuristics are rules of thumb people follow in order to make judgements quickly and efficiently. People use judgemental heuristics to deal with the large amount of social information with which we are faced.

Id: According to the psychoanalytic perspective on human development, the id is the raw, unorganized, inborn part of personality that is present at birth. It represents primitive drives related to hunger, sex, aggression and irrational impulses. The id operates according to the "pleasure principle", in which the goal is to maximize satisfaction and reduce tension.

Macrosystem: The macrosystem influences all other systems. It includes cultural values, political philosophies, economic patterns, and social conditions.

Maturation: The predetermined unfolding of genetic information.

Microsystem: Microsystems are the systems that intimately and immediately shape human development. Interactions among the microsystems, as when parents and teachers coordinate their

efforts to educate the child, take place through the mesosystem.

Nature/nurture: Nature refers to traits, abilities, and capacities that are inherited from one's parents. Nature encompasses any factor that is produced by the predetermined unfolding of genetic information, a process known as maturation. These genetic inherited influences are at work as we move from the one celled organism that is created at the moment of conception to the billions of cells that make up a fully-formed human being. Nurture refers to the environmental influences that shape behaviour. Some of these influences may be biological, such as the impact of a pregnant mother's substance abuse on the fetus, or the amount and kind of food available to children. Other environmental influences are more social, such as the ways parents discipline their children and the effects of peer pressure on adolescents (Feldman, 2000, p. 10).

Perception: Perception is more than the sum of all the sensory input supplied by our eyes, ears and other receptors. It is the active selection, organization, and interpretation of such input.

Personality: Personality is a particular pattern of behaviour and thinking prevailing across time and situations that differentiates one person from another.

Privation: The failure to develop an attachment to any individual. In humans, it is usually (but not necessarily) associated with children reared in institutions, either from or shortly after birth.

Proximodistal trend: Another growth pattern, the proximodistal trend, has growth moving from the centre (proximal part) of the body outward to the more "distant" extremities, that is, the head and torso grow before the arms, legs, hands, and feet.

Psychology: Psychology is the science of human thought and behaviour.

Reflex: An involuntary response to a stimulus.

Reliability: The extent to which research yields the same results each time it is applied to the same issue.

Social cognition: Focuses on the way in which our thoughts are affected by the immediate social context, and in turn how our thoughts affect social behaviour. The approach can be summarized as follows:

- people take cognitive shortcuts such as stereotyping in order to minimize the cognitive load

-
- we develop schemata that represent our knowledge about ourselves, others and our roles in the social world. Once formed, schemas bias our judgement
 - schemata become more complex and organized over time and are harder to change (Cardwell, 1996, p. 218).

Social perception: The process by which someone infers other people's motives and intentions from observing their behaviour and deciding whether the causes of the behaviour are internal or situational. Social perception helps people make sense of the world, organize their thoughts quickly, and maintain a sense of control over the environment. It helps people feel competent, masterful, and balanced because it helps them predict similar events in the future (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 457).

Sudden Infant Death Syndrome (SIDS): The term 'sudden infant death' is more a description after the fact than a diagnosis of cause. Despite decades of research, the root cause of Sudden Infant Death Syndrome is still unknown. In all probability, Sudden Infant Death Syndrome results from a combination of factors (characteristics of the mother, characteristics of birth, situation at death, and sleeping conditions), and each factor adds slightly to the overall risk for certain infants who, for unknown genetic reasons, are vulnerable.

Superego: According to the psychoanalytic perspective on human development, the superego represents a person's conscience, incorporating distinctions between right and wrong. It develops around age five or six and is learned from an individual's parents, teachers, and other significant figures.

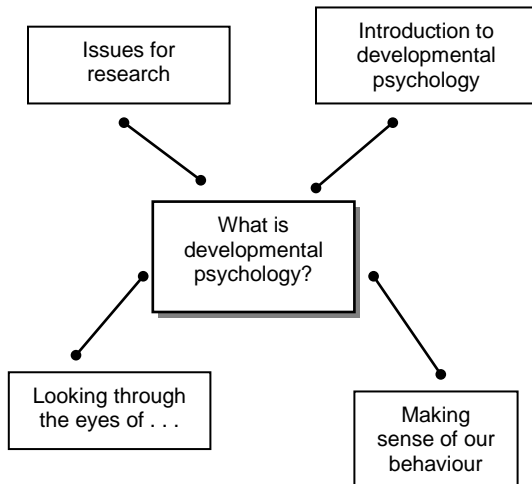
Temperament: Every individual is born with a distinct genetically-based set of psychological tendencies or dispositions. These tendencies, which together are called temperament, affect and shape virtually every aspect of the individual's developing personality. Temperament, and therefore personality, is not merely genetic. It begins in the multitude of genetic instructions that guide the development of the brain and then is affected by the prenatal environment (Berger, 2000, p. 219).

Teratogens: The broad range of substances (such as drugs and pollutants) and conditions (such as severe malnutrition and extreme stress) that increase the risk of prenatal abnormalities.

Validity: The extent to which a research methodology measures what it is supposed to measure (Baron, Earhard and Ozier, 1998, p. 459).

Unit One: What is Developmental Psychology?

Concept Web



Unit Overview

This unit serves as the basis upon which all of the other units of study will be developed. This first unit sets the context for the course by describing psychology as an empirically-based, scientifically-conducted, discipline. This unit introduces students to the origins, development, and perspectives of psychology, setting the foundation for a consideration of research methods by which the students can then begin to acquire knowledge about the concepts of developmental psychology. Students are then directed to organize and integrate the new knowledge by making connections with their existing knowledge and understandings, as well as between psychology and other disciplines. The final step in the process is to apply those concepts and understandings in a practical, contemporary manner.

Unit Objectives

Knowledge

- To define developmental psychology.
- To appreciate the role and utility of developmental psychology in our lives.
- To understand the careers, roles and contributions of developmental psychologists.
- To understand the lifespan approach to human development.
- To acquire knowledge of the four domains of human development.
- To understand the influence of the various “systems of support” in terms of nurturing and promoting healthy development.
- To understand the scientific method of research.
- To appreciate the methods, issues and challenges in conducting research.

Skills

- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings by making connections with existing knowledge and understandings.
- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings within the discipline of psychology.
- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings with other disciplines.
- To apply those concepts and understandings to a variety of practical, pertinent, and contemporary issues.
- To conduct research into topics and issues related to developmental psychology.
- To compare and contrast methods of data collection, synthesis, organization, and presentation.

Values

- To appreciate the complex, dynamic, reciprocal and personal aspects of human development.
- To value and cherish human life as precious and sacred.

Lessons and Lesson Objectives

- 1.1 Introduction to developmental psychology
 - What is developmental psychology?
 - Why should we study human development from conception to death?
 - Who are developmental psychologists and what are the career options in developmental psychology?
 - What is the lifespan approach to human development?
 - What are the key issues and questions in developmental psychology?
- 1.2 Looking through the eyes of What do you see?
 - What are the four domains of human development?
 - What are the theoretical perspectives on human development?
- 1.3 How do we make sense of our behaviour?
 - How do we make sense of our behaviour?
 - What are the methods of research in developmental psychology?
 - What are the methodological issues in conducting research?
 - What are some of the ethical issues in conducting research?
 - How do I conduct research using the scientific method?
- 1.4 Action research in developmental psychology

- Should the federal government subsidize daycare for all children?
- Should parenting courses for expecting parents be compulsory?
- Should expectant mothers be given fully-paid maternity leave for the term of the pregnancy?
- Should we allow cloning (copying) of human tissue for transplants and surgery?
- Should family size be restricted?
- Should the family allowance be increased to cover all food, educational and health costs for children up to the age of three?
- Should adults wait until they are at least 25 years of age before starting a family?
- What are the play behaviours of young children?
- Are there gender differences in aggressive behaviour?
- Are there gender differences in the choice, type and use of toys?
- Do mixed gender playgroups change the nature and type of play behaviours?
- Group dynamics: How do groups solve problems?
- What are the various forms and techniques of discipline?
- What effect does violence on television have on people?
- Lives lived. Conduct a case study of a senior or Elder in your family or community and construct a presentation or report on their lives.
- Who was B.F. Skinner and what role did he play in developmental psychology?
- Who was Ivan Pavlov and what role did he play in developmental psychology?
- Who was Jean Piaget and what role did he play in developmental psychology?
- Who was Albert Bandura and what role did he play in developmental psychology?
- Who was Abraham Maslow and what role did he play in developmental psychology?
- Who was Lev Vygotsky and what role did he play in developmental psychology?
- How reliable is eyewitness testimony?
- How have parenting styles changed from when your parents were children?
- What was it like being a teenager when your parents or grandparents were adolescents?
- How has the role of the father in parenting and child-raising changed?

Resources and Resource-Based Learning

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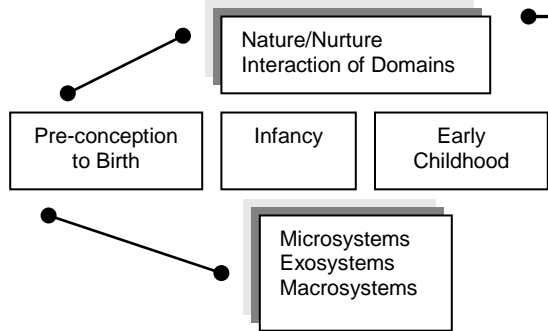
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Print Resources

How to Think Like a Psychologist: Critical Thinking in Psychology
How to Think Straight About Psychology Perspectives in Psychology
Sacred Tree
Understanding Psychological Research: An Introduction to Methods

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



1.1 Introduction to developmental psychology

Psychology 30 is a course that examines the developmental process across the lifespan, from the perspectives of the developing person, and the systems of support that nurture healthy development.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• What is developmental psychology?• Why should we study human development from conception to death?• Who are developmental psychologists and what are the career options in developmental psychology?• What is the lifespan approach to human development?• What are the key issues and questions in developmental psychology?
Suggested Instructional Strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• <i>Ages and Stages</i>: “Welcome to <i>Ages and Stages</i>!”<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Have the students read the article, and answer any questions they might have regarding the course conceptualization, organization and content. Particularly note the role of the <i>Ages and Stages</i> journal.• <i>Discussion</i>: Endless Possibilities<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Based on the template provided in the Curriculum Support Materials, Endless Possibilities, discuss what the quotation means to the students.• Think-Pair-Share: Introduction to Developmental Psychology<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Read <i>Ages and Stages</i>, “Introduction to Developmental Psychology”. Create your own <i>Ages and Stages</i> article. Interview a family member, friend, or senior. You can select an issue from the many which were raised by Dr. Robinson, or you can use the issue(s) that you found in the newspaper or magazine article.• <i>Ages and Stages</i>: (1) “Introduction to developmental psychology”, (2) “An Aboriginal perspective on “psychology”, (3) “Book review: <i>The Sacred Tree</i>”<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Based on the articles listed, discuss with your students the definition of “psychology” and how different cultures will define and interpret it differently.• Discussion: Key issues and questions<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Using the information supplied in the Teacher Information section, discuss with the students the four key issues and questions in developmental psychology.• Discussion: Lifespan approach to human development<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Using the template found in the Curriculum Support Materials, brainstorm with students the examples that support the lifespan approach.• Research: Lives lived<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Interview an Elder or a senior, and based on the interview, write your own article for <i>Ages and Stages</i>. What were their lives like? What advice would they have for the younger generations? What have they learned? What would they do differently? What were their greatest successes, sadnesses, and challenges?
Making Connections	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Create a collage to illustrate the course content.• Why do you think the editor of <i>Ages and Stages</i> chose the cover graphic? What do you think it means? What connection does that graphic have to developmental psychology?• Design your own cover graphic.
Resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• <i>Ages and Stages</i>: “Welcome to <i>Ages and Stages</i>!”• Curriculum Support Materials: Endless Possibilities• Curriculum Support Materials: The Lifespan Perspective on Human Development

Lesson 1.1: Teacher Information

What is developmental psychology?

Lifespan development is the field of study that examines patterns of growth, change, and stability in behaviour that occur throughout the entire human lifespan (Feldman, 2000, p. 5).

Why should we study human development from conception to death?

Developmentalists assume that the process of development persists throughout every part of people's lives, beginning with the moment of conception and continuing until death.

Developmental specialists assume that in some ways people continue to grow and change right up to the end of their lives, whereas in other respects their behaviour remains stable. At the same time, developmentalists believe that no particular single period of life governs all development. Instead, they believe that every period of life contains the potential for both growth and decline in abilities, and that individuals maintain the capacity for substantial growth and change throughout their lives (Feldman, 2000, p. 5).

Who are developmental psychologists, and what do they do?

Because I teach at the University of Regina, my primary focus is academic, on the teaching of the concepts of psychology. But a large part of my responsibilities also involves research with children, going out to see what children do, and how they change. Developmental psychologists also perform community work, for example working with parenting groups, or support groups for parents with children with special needs. Developmental psychologists also work closely with educators to assist them with children with developmental problems and learning disabilities. You will also find developmental psychologists working with and for social welfare groups, and involved in legal issues related to psychology, for example, determining how reliable children's eyewitness testimony is, or the validity of childhood memories in legal cases (Robinson, 2001).

What is the lifespan approach to human development?

The lifespan perspective on human development has seven basic characteristics. Development is:

- Life-long
 - No age period dominates development.
- Multi-dimensional
 - Development consists of biological, cognitive, socioemotional, and spiritual dimensions.

- Multi-directional
 - Some aspects of development increase, while others decrease.
- Plastic
 - Depending on the individual's life conditions, development may take many paths.
- Historically-embedded
 - Development is influenced by historical conditions.
- Multidisciplinary
 - Psychologists, sociologists, anthropologists, neuroscientists and medical researchers all study human development and share a concern for unlocking the mysteries of development throughout the lifespan.
- Contextual
 - The individual continually responds to and acts on contexts, which include a person's biological makeup, physical environment, social, historical, and cultural contexts (Santrock, 1999, p. 10).

What are the key issues and questions in developmental psychology?

From the time of its establishment, several key issues and questions have dominated the field of developmental psychology. Among these issues are the nature of developmental change, the importance of critical periods, lifespan approaches versus the more focused approaches, and the nature/nurture issue.

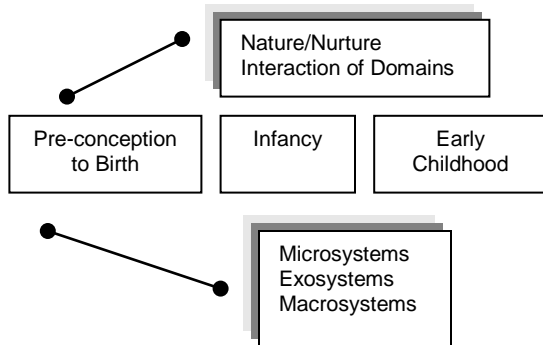
- **Continuous change versus discontinuous change:** In continuous change, developmental change is gradual, with achievements at one level building on those of previous levels. In contrast, discontinuous change occurs in distinct stages or steps. Each stage brings about behaviour that is assumed to be qualitatively different from behaviour at earlier stages.
- A **critical period** is a specific time during development when a particular event has its greatest consequences. Critical periods occur when the presence of certain kinds of environmental stimuli are necessary for development to proceed normally.
- **Lifespan approaches versus a focus on a particular period:** Developmentalists now believe the entire lifespan is important, for several reasons. One is the discovery that developmental growth and change continue during every part of life. Furthermore, to understand fully the social influences on people of a given age, we need to understand the people who are, in large measure, providing those influences. For instance, to understand development in infants, we need to unravel the

effects of their parents' ages on the social environment.

- **Nature versus Nurture:** One of the enduring questions of development involves how much of people's behaviour is due to their genetically-determined nature and how much is due to nurture, the physical and social environment in which a child is raised. In this context, **nature** refers to traits, abilities and capacities that are inherited from one's parents. Nature encompasses any factor that is produced by the predetermined unfolding of genetic information, a process known as maturation. These genetic inherited influences are at work as we move from the one-celled organism that is created at the moment of conception to the billions of cells that make up a fully-formed human being. In contrast **nurture** refers to the environmental influences that shape behaviour. Some of these influences may be biological, such as the impact of a pregnant mother's substance abuse on the fetus, or the amount and kind of food available to children. Other environmental influences are more social, such as the ways parents discipline their children and the effects of peer pressure on adolescents (Feldman, 2000, p. 10).

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...

1.2 Looking through the eyes of.... What do you see?



This lesson is the "lens" lesson. It addresses the various lenses through which we look at developmental psychology: the physical, mental, emotional and spiritual domains of development, and the various theoretical perspectives that interpret human behaviour and development.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What are the four domains of human development?
- What are the theoretical perspectives on human development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Case Study: The Wild Boy of Aveyron
 - Read the *Ages and Stages* article, "The Wild Boy of Aveyron".
 - Based on the article, discuss how the physical, cognitive, and socioemotional aspects of the young boy's development were impaired or delayed. What might have accounted for the boy's behaviour?
 - What issues does the article raise in terms of the relative influence of nature and nurture?
- Discussion: The Medicine Wheel
 - Using the conceptual organizer of the medicine wheel found in the Curriculum Support Materials, discuss the four domains of development across the lifespan. Ask students to provide examples of each of the four types of development.
- Jigsaw: Theoretical perspectives on human development
 - Using the materials supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials, assign one of the six theoretical perspectives to a group of students.
 - Using observational research methods, direct the students to find examples of behaviour that support their assigned theoretical perspective.
 - Discuss the results next class. How can each perspective explain some aspects of human development and behaviour? Is there one "correct" perspective?
 - Discuss interconnectivity between perspectives. In what ways do these perspectives work together, and in what ways do these perspectives interfere with each other?
 - Refer back to the article, "The Wild Boy of Aveyron". How would each of the different theoretical perspectives explain the boy's development?

Making Connections

- Find examples of the ways in which the cultural industries of fashion, music, and beauty influence our thoughts, feelings and behaviours. Create a collage of advertisements, song lyrics, magazine articles, etc. to demonstrate the techniques used by these industries to promote, direct, and market their ideals.
- Research: Have the students conduct an informal genealogical study into their own family history in terms of hair colour, eye colour, preferences, talents, skills, or abilities.

Resources

- *Ages and Stages*: "The Wild Boy of Aveyron"
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Medicine Wheel
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model of Human Behaviour
- Curriculum Support Materials: Nature/Nurture and Human Development
- Curriculum Support Materials: Theoretical Perspectives on Human Development

Lesson 1.2: Teacher Information

What are the four domains of human development?

Biological processes involve changes in the individual's physical nature. Genes inherited from parents, the development of the brain, height, weight, changes in motor skills, the hormonal changes of puberty, and cardiovascular decline all reflect the role of biological processes in development (Santrock, 1999, p. 16).

Cognitive processes involve changes in the individual's thought, intelligence and language. Watching a colourful mobile swinging above the crib, memorizing a poem, imagining what it would be like to be a movie star, and solving a crossword puzzle all reflect the role of cognitive processes in development (Santrock, 1999, p. 16).

Socioemotional processes involve changes in the individual's relationships with other people, changes in emotions, and changes in personality. An infant's smile in response to her mother's touch, a young boy's aggressive attack on a playmate, a girl's development of assertiveness, an adolescent's joy at the senior prom, and the affection of an elderly couple all reflect the role of socioemotional processes in development (Santrock, 1999, p. 17).

By spirituality we mean the experiences that appeal to the human spirit and our connection to God or some spiritual power outside ourselves. Through this spiritual dimension, we try to supply meaning to our lives. We also try to understand the profound sense of awe and mystery at the core of our Beings. It is also our spiritual nature that fuels our drive to express ourselves in painting, music, drama, poetry, architecture, sculpture and other art forms (Badley, 1996, p. 142).

What are the theoretical perspectives on human development?

Lifespan development has produced a number of broad conceptual perspectives representing different approaches to development. Each broad perspective encompasses a number of theories, explanations and predictions concerning phenomena of interest. A theory provides a framework for understanding the relationships among an organized set of principles or facts. The six major theoretical perspectives include:

- **Psychodynamic Perspective: Focusing on the inner person.** Rooted in Freud's theory, the psychodynamic approach maintains that all behaviour and mental processes reflect the constant and mostly unconscious psychological struggles that rage silently within each person.

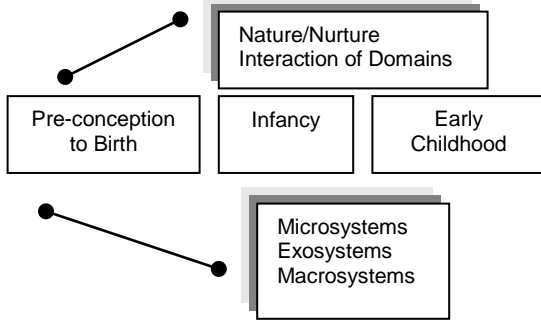
Usually, these struggles involve conflict between the impulse to satisfy instincts or wishes and the need to play by the rules in society. Anxiety, depression and other disorders are outward signs of this inner turmoil (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).

- **The Behavioural Perspective: Considering the outer person.** As founded by John Watson, the behavioural approach views behaviour and mental processes as primarily the result of learning. Psychologists who take this approach see rewards and punishment acting on the raw materials provided by genes, evolution and biology to shape each individual. So, whether considering a person's aggression or drug abuse, behaviourists would look at that person's learning history. Since people learn problem behaviours, they can also learn to change or even prevent them by unlearning old habits and developing new ones (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).
- **The Cognitive Perspective: Examining the roots of understanding.** The cognitive perspective focuses on how people take in, mentally represent and store information. Cognitive psychologists then relate perception and information processing to patterns of behaviour. They study such areas as decision-making, problem-solving, interpersonal attraction and intelligence. Aggression, for instance, might be viewed as a result of poor problem solving (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).
- **The Humanistic Perspective: Concentrating on the unique qualities of human beings.** According to the humanistic approach, our capacity to choose how to think and act determines our behaviour. Each person's unique perceptions – not instincts, cognitive processes, or rewards and punishments – dictate the choices made. Humanistic psychologists believe that people are essentially good, that they are in control of themselves, and that they seek to grow toward their highest potential (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 12).
- **The Evolutionary Perspective: Focusing on biology as the determinant of development.** Darwin's ideas on evolution and adaptation of species laid the foundation for the evolutionary approach. The evolutionary approach to psychology holds that the behaviour of animals and humans today is the result of evolution through natural selection. Psychologists who follow this approach are concerned with the adaptive value of behaviour, the anatomy and biology that make it possible and the environmental conditions that encourage or discourage it (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).

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- **The Sociocultural Perspective: Emphasizing the systems of support.** Calling attention to the external influences on human behaviour such as the physical surroundings and social interactions that provide incentives, opportunities and pathways for growth, Urie Bronfenbrenner (1979) began to emphasize the ecological approach to the study of human development. In Bronfenbrenner's application of this concept, human ecosystems include both the physical environment (the climate, the space per person, that arrangement of the dwelling) and the social environment (the people, the culture, the economy) (Berger, 2000, p. 4).

1.3 How do we make sense of our behaviour?

Under the global concept of “making sense of our behaviour”, this lesson describes the scientific method and various ways of conducting research.



Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How do we make sense of our behaviour?
- What are the methods of research in developmental psychology?
- What are the methodological issues in conducting research?
- What are some of the ethical issues in conducting research?
- How do I make research more valid and reliable?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- *Ages and Stages: Research Methodologies in Developmental Psychology*
 - Describe the scientific method of research.
 - Describe the research methodologies in developmental psychology.
 - Complete the comparison chart that will list the research methodologies described in the article, briefly describe their methodology, their strengths (pros) and their weaknesses (cons).
 - Refer to the Curriculum Support Materials for issues and questions concerning each type of research method.
- *Media Studies: Awakenings*
 - View the movie, *Awakenings*, and have the students note the various research methodologies used to arrive at a diagnosis of the patient’s condition.
- *Research: Methods and issues in conducting research*
 - Divide the class into six groups. Assign one research method to each group. Assign a research topic (see Topic 1.4 Action Research for suggested topics) to each group and have the group create a research project.
 - Each group will complete the permission to conduct research template.
 - The research project should be discussed with the teacher, issues raised and concerns noted, and agreed upon before the research project is conducted.
 - Upon completion of the project, each group will present its findings. A general debrief of the research method, issues, validity, and reliability of the conclusion should be discussed.
- *Debate: Should animals be used for research purposes?*
 - Using the *Ages and Stages* template, *From both perspectives ...*, as a starting point, create a formal or informal debate in class of the ethics of using animals for research purposes.

Making Connections

- *Milgram’s Obedience Experiments:*
 - To research the topic of obedience, Stanley Milgram conducted experiments in which participants administered electric shocks to subjects. Is this a moral or ethical process? Does the end justify the means?

Resources

- *Ages and Stages: “Research Methodologies in Developmental Psychology”*
- Curriculum Support Materials: Scientific Method of Research
- Curriculum Support Materials: Comparison Chart for Research Methodologies
- Curriculum Support Materials: Permission to Conduct Research
- Curriculum Support Materials: Research Methods: Issues and Questions

Lesson 1.3: Teacher Information

How do we make sense of our behaviour?

Science is fundamentally a rational process. In its simplest form, the rational model consists of four steps: (1) formulating a theoretical problem, which is then translated into testable hypotheses; (2) selecting the appropriate research method, and designing and carrying out the study; (3) analyzing and interpreting the results; and (4) using the results to confirm, deny or modify the theory (Alcock, Carment and Sadava, 1998, p. 17).

What are the methods of research in developmental psychology?

Experimental methods came into being because of the need to draw causal inferences about how variables influence one another. Using the experimental method, the researcher deliberately assigns subjects randomly to two or more groups and applies an independent variable to one group and not the other. Then the researcher measures the effect of the treatment by comparing the two groups (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 23).

Interviews typically involve a face-to-face meeting in which a researcher (interviewer) asks an individual a series of questions. The interviewer usually tape records or writes down the participant's responses (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 14).

Observation involves direct observation of the spontaneous behaviour of an individual, or group of people in a natural setting. The observer may remain aloof and simply observe or become a participant-observer (Baron et al., 1998, p. 20).

A **case study** is an intensive study of one individual. Typically, the case study is based on interviews with the subject regarding his or her background, present thinking or actions; it may also utilize interviews of others who know the individual. Additional case study material may be obtained through observation, experiments, and standardized tests, such as personality inventories and intelligence tests (Baron et al., 1998, p. 21).

A **topical** research study involves the acquisition, synthesis, organization and presentation of information. Typically, the topical research study will involve both paper-based as well as web-based resources. Additional information may be gained through the other research methods and strategies.

Survey research involves going out and asking, or sending out, questions about the phenomenon of interest. The survey method is especially useful for collecting data from a large number of people and is

often the only way of obtaining data about thoughts, feelings, and private behaviour not open to direct observation (Alcock et al., 1999, p.21).

What are the methodological issues in research?

Reliability is the extent to which the research yields the same results each time they are applied to the same issue. For instance, if we were conducting an observational study of the play behaviours of children during recess, and our findings at the end of one study indicated that the boys were more aggressive than girls, but when we repeated our study at a different school and we found the opposite, that the girls were more aggressive than the boys, then we could not claim that our study was reliable (Baron et al., 1998, p. 459).

Validity is the extent to which a research methodology measures what it is supposed to measure. Continuing with our example of the play behaviours of young children, is the observational approach a valid means of studying the topic? Let's say that we had chosen to do an interview, and we interviewed the children and asked them questions about what happened at recess time. Would this method be considered valid as a way to gain information from which we could draw a conclusion? Probably not, or not as valid as directly observing them (Baron et al., 1998, p. 459).

What are some of the ethical issues in research?

Confidentiality is the right of privacy for subjects concerning their participation in research. All steps must be taken to assure that subjects' participation is confidential. If any possibility exists that someone other than the researcher may have access to the data, the subjects must be informed of this possibility before they provide their informed consent to participate (Buskist, Carlson, Enzle and Heth, 1997, p. 42).

Informed consent requires that potential subjects understand exactly what is expected of them during the course of the research and that the investigator protects participants from physical and psychological discomfort, harm, and danger (Buskist et al., 1997, p. 42).

Debriefing requires that research participants be given full information about all aspects of the study after they have participated in it, thus assuring that they leave with a full understanding of its purpose, and receive a full disclosure of the information gathered (Baron et al., 1998, p. 31).

Researchers must be careful to avoid subtle **biases** that influence results, such as gender (male or female), ethnicity (people's common traits, background, and allegiances which are often

cultural, religious, or language-based), and cultural (a person's racial and ethnic background, religious and social values, artistic and musical tastes, and scholarly interests) bias (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 15).

particular research result occurred by chance (Berger, 2000, pp. 22-23).

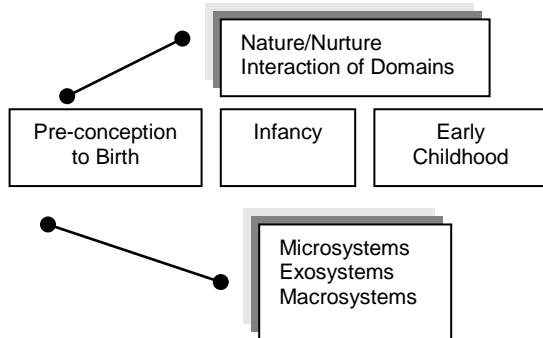
How do I make research more valid and reliable?

Scientific investigation includes the possibility that researchers' procedures and/or biases may compromise the validity of their findings.

Researchers can, however, use a number of techniques to increase the validity of their research:

- **Sample size:** To make statements about people in general, scientists study groups of individuals chosen from populations. Each such group, called a sample, must be large enough to ensure that a few extreme cases within the sample do not distort the picture it gives of the population.
- **Representative sample:** Data collected from one group of individuals may not be valid for other people who are different in significant ways, such as in gender or ethnic background. Thus it is important that every sample be a representative sample, that is it consists of people who are typical of the general population the researchers wish to learn about.
- **"Blind experimenters":** When experimenters have specific expectations about their research findings, those expectations can affect the research results. As much as possible, therefore, the people who actually gather the data should be "blind", that is, unaware of the purpose of the research.
- **Operational definitions:** When planning a study, researchers must establish operational definitions of whatever phenomena they will be examining. That is, they must define each variable in terms of specific, observable behaviour that can be measured with precision.
- **Experimental and control groups:** To test a hypothesis accurately in an experiment, researchers must gather data on two samples that are similar in every important way except one. They must compare an experimental group which receives some special experimental treatment, and a control group, which does not receive the experimental treatment.
- **Statistical significance:** Whenever researchers find a difference between two groups, they have to consider the possibility that the differences occurred purely by chance. Determining the statistical significance is a mathematical measure of the likelihood that a

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



1.4 Action research in developmental psychology

This summary lesson integrates all of the concepts covered in the first unit, by actively engaging students in the design and conduct of research in developmental psychology.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How do we use the scientific method to make sense of our behaviour?

Suggested Research Methods

- Survey
- Naturalistic Observation
- Interview
- Experimental Research
- Case Study
- Topical

- Review/discussion: The scientific method of research
 - Refer to the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials.
 - Review and discuss the steps in the scientific method of research:
 - Develop a research question
 - Describe the hypothesis
 - Select a research method
- Observation Experiment Interview Case Study Survey Topical
 - Describe the process to be followed
 - Gather the data
 - Analyze the data
 - Report the findings, account for reliability and validity
 - State conclusions in relation to the hypothesis
- Discussion: A comparison of research methods in the social sciences
 - Using the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials, complete the comparison chart of research methods.
 - Invite students, individually or in groups to defend their choice of the most appropriate research method based on their chosen topic.
 - Discuss the many formats for presentation of the data and research findings. Depending on the topic chosen and the research method selected, presentation formats may include written reports, oral presentations, portfolios, role plays and drama activities, three-panel displays, posters, brochures, bulletin board displays, PowerPoint or other computer-based presentation software, web pages, etc.
- Review/Discussion: Issues in social science research
 - Using the six templates supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials (Frequently Asked Questions about interviews, surveys, case studies, observation, experiments and topical research methods), review and discuss the issues and methods for each individual or group research project.
- Discussion: The research process
 - Ensure that each individual or group research project has completed all documentation (The Scientific Method of Research, Permission to Conduct Research) before commencing the research.

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Scientific Method of Research
- Curriculum Support Materials: Permission to Conduct Research Form
- Curriculum Support Materials: A Comparison Chart For Research Methods
- Curriculum Support Materials: Frequently Asked Questions: Interviews, Surveys, Case Studies, Naturalistic Observation, Experiments and Topical

Lesson 1.4: Suggested Issues and Research Methods

Type of Research	Suggested Research Topics
<p>Survey</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conducting research using a survey involves going out and asking questions about the phenomenon of interest. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Should the federal government subsidize daycare for all children? Should parenting courses for expecting parents be compulsory? Should expectant mothers be given fully-paid maternity leave for the term of the pregnancy? Should we allow cloning (copying) of human tissue for transplants and surgery? Should family size be restricted? Should the family allowance be increased to cover all food, educational and health costs for children up to the age of three? Should adults wait until they are at least 25 years of age before starting a family?
<p>Interview</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The interview method of research, typically, involves a face-to-face meeting in which a researcher (interviewer) asks an individual a series of questions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> How have parenting styles changed from when your parents were children? What was it like being a teenager when your parents or grandparents were adolescents? How has the role of the father in parenting and child-raising changed?
<p>Naturalistic Observation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> In naturalistic research, the observer does not intervene at all. For all intents and purposes, the researcher is invisible and works hard not to interrupt the natural dynamics of the situation being investigated. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What are the play behaviours of young children? Are there gender differences in aggressive behaviour? Are there gender differences in the choice, type and use of toys? Do mixed gender playgroups change the nature and type of play behaviours? Group dynamics: How do groups solve problems? What are the various forms and techniques of discipline? What effect does violence on television have on people?
<p>Case Study</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A case study is an intensive study of one individual. Typically, the case study is based on interviews with the subject regarding his or her background, present thinking or actions. It may also utilize interviews of others who know the individual. Additional case study material may be obtained through observation, experiments and standardized tests, such as personality inventories and intelligence tests. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lives lived. Conduct a case study of a senior or Elder in your family or community and construct a presentation or report on his or her life. Who was B.F. Skinner and what role did he play in developmental psychology? Who was Ivan Pavlov and what role did he play in developmental psychology? Who was Jean Piaget and what role did he play in developmental psychology? Who was Albert Bandura and what role did he play in developmental psychology? Who was Abraham Maslow and what role did he play in developmental psychology? Who was Lev Vygotsky and what role did he play in developmental psychology?

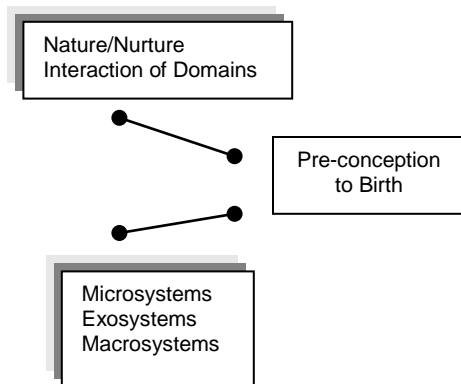
Experimental Research

- Experimental researchers take care to create an environment in which they can make causal statements. They manipulate variables, randomly assign participants to various conditions, and seek to control other influences that could affect their research.
- Eyewitness testimony: How reliable is it? Design a research study to evaluate the accuracy of the recall of observers to an unanticipated event. Stage an unexpected event such as a person bursting into the classroom and describing an “emergency” situation. Once the actor leaves, ask the students to write down exactly what they heard described. Share individual descriptions with the class and discuss the variances in the testimony.

Unit Two: Prenatal Development

Concept Web

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Unit Overview

We begin our inquiry into the nature of the developmental process by considering the many issues in the creation and prenatal development of a human being. Using our conceptual organizers of the relative influences of nature and the environment, as well as the interaction of the biological, cognitive and socioemotional domains of development, we examine the process of developmental change from the perspective of the fetus. Then, using Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Model as the conceptual organizer, we consider the developmental process from the perspective of the systems of support that promote and nurture healthy development.

Unit Objectives

Knowledge

- To understand the issues and challenges in becoming a parent.
- To understand the biological changes from conception to birth.
- To understand the cognitive changes from conception to birth.
- To understand the socioemotional changes from conception to birth.

- To understand the issues, challenges and support systems from the perspective of microsystems, exosystems, and macrosystems of support.

Skills

- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings by making connections with existing knowledge and understandings.
- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings within the discipline of psychology.
- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings with other disciplines.
- To apply those concepts and understandings in a variety of practical, pertinent and contemporary issues.

Values

- To appreciate the complex, dynamic, reciprocal, and personal aspects of human development across the lifespan.

Lessons and Lesson Objectives

- 2.1 Unit Overview: Developmental changes from conception to birth
 - What roles do nature and nurture play in the development of a fetus?
 - How do the various domains influence development during the prenatal development stage?
 - What are the sociocultural influences on prenatal development?
- 2.2 Issues and challenges in becoming a parent
 - What are the issues and challenges in becoming a parent?
 - What do you need to know before deciding to have a child?
- 2.3 Looking through the eyes of the fetus, what do you see?
 - What is the process of biological development from conception to birth?
 - What is the process of cognitive development from conception to birth?
 - What is the process of socioemotional development from conception to birth?
- 2.4 What is the process of biological development from conception to birth?
 - What role does heredity and genetics play in determining human development?
 - What is the process of development during the three stages of prenatal development?

- What are the critical periods in prenatal development?
 - 2.4.1 Heredity and genetics
 - What are heredity and genetics?
 - How are traits passed from one generation to the next?
 - What is genetic engineering?
 - How do doctors test for genetic disorders?
 - What are the ethical and moral issues involved in genetic engineering?
 - How can we test the morality of our decisions?
 - 2.4.2 The stages of prenatal development
 - How delicate is the developing life form at each of the three stages?
 - What are the factors that contribute to low birth weight?
 - Why are some babies born prematurely?
 - What are some common genetic conditions that can be detected during prenatal development?
- 2.5 What is the process of cognitive development from conception to birth?
 - What is the process of development of the nervous system and the brain?
 - What is the process of development of the sensory and perceptual systems?
- 2.6 What is the process of socioemotional development from conception to birth?
 - What socioemotional development takes place before birth?
 - What do temperament and personality mean?
 - What are the basic temperaments of newborn babies?
- 2.7 What is the process of labour and delivery?
 - What are the stages of birth?
 - What are the strategies used in childbirth?
 - What are some of the complications that can arise in labour and delivery?
 - What is the father's role in the labour and delivery process?
- 2.8 Looking through the eyes of the systems of supports, what do you see?
 - What influence does the microsystem have on prenatal development?
 - What influence does the exosystem have on prenatal development?
 - What influence does the macrosystem have on prenatal development?
- 2.9 What new reproductive technologies exist for creating life?
 - How do scientists genetically engineer a human being?
 - What are some alternative methods of conception?
- 2.10 What are the prenatal influences and issues for healthy development?
 - What are some influences that have a negative impact on healthy prenatal development?
 - What are the factors that influence the degree of affect?
- 2.11 Action research in prenatal development
 - When does a fetus become a person?
 - Should cloning of human organs be allowed?
 - Should mothers receive full maternity benefits from conception until one year past delivery?
 - Should expectant mothers be paid a nutritional allowance?
 - Should genetic information be made available to employers and insurance agencies?
 - Should we encourage the development of genetic engineering to produce "designer babies"?
 - Should people be allowed to sell their own organs?
 - What happens during labour and delivery?
 - What are the types and amounts of teratogens in your house?
 - Before you were born, were you an active baby, quiet baby? What was your basic temperament as a newborn child?
 - What are the effects of smoking and alcohol on prenatal development?
 - What prenatal programs are available in your community?
 - What do they teach in prenatal classes for expecting parents?
 - Who is Francis Collins?
 - Who is J. Craig Venter?
 - What is Spina bifida?
 - What is Cystic fibrosis?
 - What is PKU?
 - What is Down Syndrome?
 - What is Fetal alcohol syndrome?
- 2.12 Lifespan approach to prenatal development
 - How is prenatal development described from the perspective of the lifespan approach?
 - How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to prenatal development?
 - How would each of the six theoretical perspectives on human development explain prenatal development?

Resources and Resource-Based Learning

Baby Centre - <http://www.babycenter.com/>
Safe Motherhood - <http://www.safemotherhood.org>
Saskatchewan Institute on Prevention of Handicaps
- <http://www.preventioninstitute.sk.ca>

Resource-based learning is an integral part of all units. The accompanying bibliography will assist you in incorporating a variety of resources from different media into each unit. This annotated bibliography should be available from your teacher librarian. It is available from Saskatchewan Learning through the website at www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/ or from the Learning Resources Distribution Centre at 306-787-5987. The bibliography contains annotations of current, useful resources including print, video, Internet sites, and other media selections. Teachers are encouraged to assess their current resource collection, identify those resources that are still useful, and acquire small quantities of each new title, rather than class sets, in order to provide students with a broad range of perspectives and information.

The following list of evaluated resource titles provides a **starting point** for developing a resource collection that is current and relevant, and that addresses students' various learning styles and abilities. **Please refer to the bibliography for a complete list of resources giving the full citation, annotation, and ordering information.** Please note that many of these resources can be ordered through the **Learning Resources Distribution Centre** (<http://lrdc.sasked.gov.sk.ca/>). Videos may be available from **Media Group** (<http://www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/video>). **At the time of publication all of the resources listed here and in the bibliography were in print and available.**

Please note that LRDC will be closing effective March 31, 2003. If you need assistance acquiring Saskatchewan Learning materials after that date, please contact 787-5987.

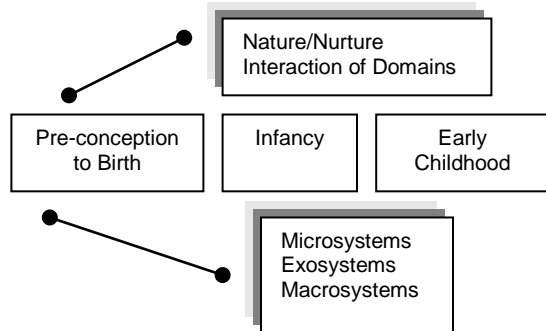
Print Resources

A to Z of Child Development: From Birth to Five Years
Child Development

Internet Sites

The following sites provide a brief overview of what is available. These sites were checked for availability in March 2002. To access sites that have been formally evaluated and linked to the curriculum visit the Evergreen Curriculum at the Saskatchewan Learning website - <http://www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/docs/evergrn.html>.

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



2.1 Unit Overview: Human development from conception to birth

This introductory lesson provides an overview of prenatal development from the perspectives of the developing fetus and the systems of support.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What roles do nature and nurture play in the development of a fetus?
- How do the various domains influence development during the prenatal stage?
- What are the sociocultural influences on prenatal development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Prenatal development
 - From the student's perspective, what meaning does the graphic on the cover of the *Ages and Stages* journal have in terms of prenatal development?
 - Using the Nature/Nurture template found in the Curriculum Support Materials, discuss the relative influences of genetic inheritance and the environment on prenatal development.
 - Using the Ecological Model as a template, discuss with the students the influences of each of the levels of support:
 - Microsystem: The importance of maternal nutrition, stress reduction, abstinence from teratogens; the emotional support of the father; positive emotional, mental and financial family support; positive peer group support
 - Exosystem: Community and health agency support programs; school programs for teen moms or expecting moms to allow these students to complete their education; daycare facilities
 - Macrosystem: Cultural influences such as the roles of males and females in promoting healthy development of the fetus, socioeconomic status, national policies on health and welfare, and the role of governments in health care.
- Psychology Squares!
 - Challenge the students to a game of Psychology Squares! Divide the class into groups, write the categories on the board, and by converting the answers given in each square to questions, you can use this game as a motivational set exercise, or at the end of the unit as a summative activity. All of the information comes from the topics and Lesson Objectives in this second unit.

Making Connections

- Research:
 - Examine genetic conditions such as spina bifida, PKU or cystic fibrosis and their influence on development.
 - Refer to Topic 2.13 Prenatal Influences and Issues for Healthy Development for further information.
- Using a medium of their choice, students will compose, construct or create a visual metaphor for the nature of prenatal development.

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model of Human Development
- Curriculum Support Materials: Nature/Nurture and Human Development
- Curriculum Support Materials: Psychology Squares! Games #1, #2, #3

Lesson 2.1: Teacher Information

What roles do nature and nurture play in the development of a fetus?

Both genes and environment are necessary for a person to exist. Without genes, there is no person; without environment, there is no person (Scarr and Weinberg, 1980). Heredity and environment operate together, or cooperate, to produce a person's intelligence, temperament, height, weight, abilities, and so on. The emerging view is that many complex behaviours likely have some genetic loading that gives people a propensity for a particular developmental trajectory. But the actual development requires more - an environment. And that environment is complex, just like the mixture of genes we inherit. Environmental influences range from the things we lump together under "nurture" (such as parenting, family dynamics, schooling, and neighbourhood quality) to biological encounters (such as viruses, birth complications, and even biological events in cells) (Santrock, 1999, p. 83).

How do the various domains influence development during the prenatal development stage?

Physical Development:

- The **germinal** period is the first two weeks of development. This period is characterized by rapid cell division, the beginning of cell differentiation, and implantation of the blastocyst into the uterine wall. By approximately one week after conception, the zygote is composed of 100 to 150 cells. The differentiation of cells commences and the zygote becomes differentiated into two layers: The blastocyst is the inner layer of cells that later develop into the embryo; the trophoblast is the outer layers of cells that later provides nutrition and support for the embryo. Implantation of the zygote into the uterine wall takes place about 10 days after conception (Santrock, 1999, p. 103).
 - The **embryonic** period is the period of prenatal development that occurs from two to eight weeks after conception. The embryo's endoderm, the inner layer of cells, primarily produces internal body parts such as the respiratory and digestive systems. The middle layer of cells, called the mesoderm, will become the circulatory system, bones, muscle, excretory system, and reproductive system. The outer layer of cells, the ectoderm, will become the nervous system, the sensory receptors (eyes, nose, ears), and skin. As the embryo develops so too does the placenta, the umbilical cord and the amnion (fluid-filled sac) (Santrock, 1999, p. 103).
- The **fetal** period is the period of development that begins two months after conception and lasts for seven months, on the average. Three months after conception the fetus is 10 centimetres long and weighs approximately 60 grams. It has become active, moving its arms and legs, opening and closing its mouth, and moving its head. The face, forehead, eyelids, nose, and chin are all distinguishable, as are the arms, hands and legs. At four months, a growth spurt occurs in the fetus' lower parts. By the end of the fifth month the toenails and fingernails have formed and the fetus is more active. By the end of the sixth month the eyes and eyelids have completely formed, a grasping reflex is present and irregular breathing occurs. In the last two months, fatty tissues develop and the functioning of various organs such as the heart and kidneys steps up (Santrock, 1999, p. 103).

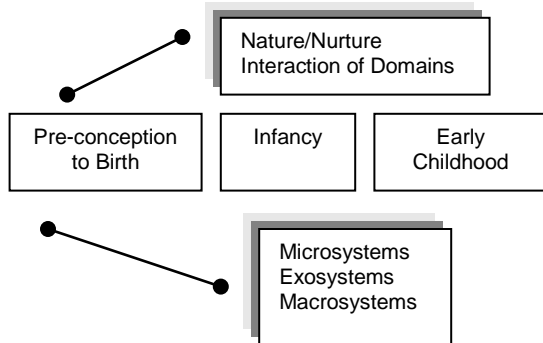
Cognitive Development:

- Some simple aspects of the functioning of the human nervous system appear very early. Indeed the blood circulation system and the nervous system are the first to function in embryonic life, with heartbeat commencing in the third week following conception. By the second month, an avoidance reaction, the withdrawal of the hand region by contraction of the neck muscles, occurs if an unpleasant stimulus is applied to the embryonic upper lip. These developments imply that simple arc reflexes are already differentiated at this stage, with appropriate synaptic connections and interneuronal activity being brought into play in order to coordinate muscular movements (Rose, 1989, p. 192).

Temperament/Personality Development:

- Every individual is born with a distinct, genetically-based set of psychological tendencies, or dispositions. These tendencies, which together are called temperament, affect and shape virtually every aspect of the individual's developing personality. Temperament, and therefore personality, is not merely genetic: it begins in the multitude of genetic instructions that guide the development of the brain and then is affected by the prenatal environment (Berger, 2000, p. 219).

2.2 Issues and challenges in becoming a parent



This lesson addresses, through the use of role play and simulation, the variety of issues and challenges to be faced in making a conscious decision to become a parent.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What are the issues and challenges in becoming a parent?
- What do you need to know before deciding to have a child?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Role Play: The National Procreation Council (NPC)
 - What if prospective parents had to apply to some authority for permission to have children? What if you had to have a license to become a parent? Who should have children? What are the qualities of a good parent? Why do people want and choose to have children? Why do others choose not to have children? These basic questions are the focus of the role play activity.
 - Prospective parents (Groups of two students).
 - Form family units and prepare a case to present to the National Procreation Council. The family units may consist of any combination of people with any type of cultural, religious, socioeconomic, sexual orientation, educational and career background.
 - Produce an application and a letter of reference to the NPC. The aim is to indicate:
 - The personal qualities you possess that would qualify you to be a good parent
 - The situational factors that affect families and the raising of children
 - Your reasons for wanting children
 - How you intend to raise and care for children.
 - Present the application and letter to the NPC to show how worthy you are of children and why your application should be approved.
 - Respond to any questions asked by the NPC.
 - National Procreation Council (five to six students)
 - Your job is to develop criteria for evaluating and deciding who shall be approved as parents.
 - Produce a set of criteria for evaluating cases and a set of questions to ask prospective parents that will elicit the necessary information for determining each case.
 - Role play procedure
 - Read the What if ...? Scenario included in the Curriculum Support Materials, and discuss it with the class. Parent applicants swear an oath to tell the truth as in a judicial procedure and present their case to the NPC. Courtroom-like order is expected to prevail. The NPC hears each case, collects and reads applications, and questions the prospective parents. The NPC then deliberates and evaluates each case. The outcome of each case is presented along with the reasons for the Council's decision. Debrief the activity after the last case is heard.

Resources

- <http://womencentral.msn.com/> - Website related to aspects of conception and parenting
- Curriculum Support Materials: What if ...? Scenario
- Curriculum Support Materials: NPC Role Play Debriefing

Lesson 2.2: Teacher Information

What are the issues and challenges in becoming a parent?

Direct students to interview their parents or other parents in their family or community to discuss the many financial, emotional, career, societal, and familial issues and challenges in becoming a parent. These issues can be incorporated into the role play activity and can form the basis for the students application to the National Procreation Council.

What do you need to know before deciding to have a child?

These questions will direct you toward a better understanding of the demands of parenting and the skills you will need to be successful. Exploring these questions in depth (try writing your answers out) may help you:

- uncover surprising information about yourself
- provide a reality check about who you are and where you are in life
- weed out underlying assumptions that may not be useful
- identify changes you can make that can help prepare you for parenting, if that's the path you choose.

Your expectations

- Do you currently spend time with children? Do you enjoy it? (Whether you answer yes or no does not predict how you will feel about your own children, but giving some thought to the issue can highlight some of your assumptions and attitudes about life with children.)
- With what ages of children are you particularly comfortable? What age do you gravitate toward? (If you are not comfortable with a particular age group, it may hint at issues in your own childhood that need resolving. Also, addressing this question is a good reality check: parenthood is permanent and you can not just raise your kids during the “fun” years.)
- What are your thoughts on the responsibilities and commitment of parenthood? (This question is just a way to help you reflect on the demands of parenting and whether you are comfortable with them.)
- How do you cope with stress? Is your reaction to stress something you would want your child to witness? How did you learn that method of coping? (Research shows that your level of stress can affect your children and your ability to parent effectively. If you feel you do not have a

good handle on managing your stress, now is a great time to start learning some new coping mechanisms.)

- What are your hopes about being a parent? What if these hopes are not met? (Parenthood is not all shared hugs and fits of giggling. There will be tough times and disappointments and your children may not be what you expect. This is a good reality check question.)
- What are your fears? What if your fears *are* met? (You cannot work out your fears in advance. Aspects of parenting are frightening – it is a big responsibility. But it can help to voice your fears and examine them now.)
- How much like your own parents do you want to be? How different do you want to be? (Our own parents are the best models we have for raising children. Some of their lessons are positive and others negative. Examine your life with your parents and think about what you can learn from their triumphs and shortcomings.)
- As a child, what messages did you get about what a parent is supposed to be? (This is another question that can help you examine your expectations of parenthood and weed out underlying assumptions that may not be useful.)

Your family history

- These questions can help you access blocked feelings that may be clouding your decision-making process. Often unresolved, possibly unrecognized, grief from earlier losses stands in the way of making big decisions, such as whether to become a parent.
- What did you enjoy about being a child? What did you not enjoy? (If you are having trouble deciding whether you want children it may have something to do with unresolved issues from your own childhood.)
- What did you appreciate about the parenting you received? What did not go well? (Our own parents teach us many lessons, both positive and negative. Think about what you would like to emulate from your own childhood and what you would like to change.)
- Was one of your parents (or other family members) gravely ill during your childhood? Did one or both die? Have you effectively grieved this loss?

Your values

This set of questions will help you pinpoint the personal attitudes and values you will bring to the role of parent. It will also help identify differences

that may exist between you and your partner (if you have one). A discussion with a classmate could help to clarify your perspective.

- What would you like to pass on that you got from your parents? What would you not like to pass on? (This question helps you hone in on and verbalize what you think is important to bring to the role of parent).
- What are your priorities for your children? For example, do you want them all to have a college education? What values do you want to instill in them? (We all come to parenthood with a set of expectations, often unspoken. This question helps you clarify your hopes and dreams for your children.)
- What are your thoughts about disciplining children? Check with your partner or classmate and compare (This is an area where partners often disagree. Talking about these issues now would not prevent future problems, but it will give you a chance to talk about setting limits and how you might go about doing so.)

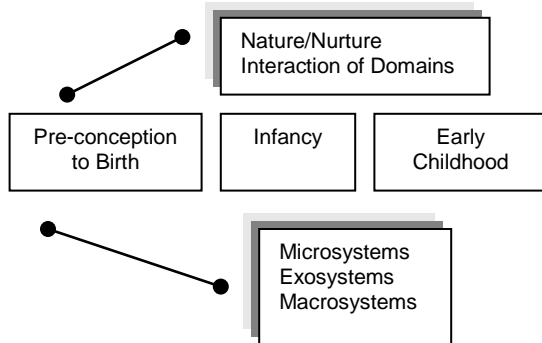
Your life and how it could change

Answering these questions will give you insight into the practical realities of your situation, which you should consider before becoming a parent.

- Talk to people who have decided not to have children; talk to people who have decided to have children. How does what they tell you make you feel? (We are not suggesting that you base your decision on what others say but hearing friends and relatives talk about their own parenthood choices can raise new issues for you to consider.)
- What does your support system look like? (We are not saying you need a *whole* village to raise your child but a few people to lean on can really help. Childrearing is difficult to do on your own. Do you have a partner or family and friends nearby that you can look to for assistance? This is not a prerequisite for parenthood, but it is a wonderful addition.)
- What do you do when you have free time? What will you do when you do not have any free time? (This is one of the practical realities of parenthood. You will never again be able to do whatever you want, whenever you want, without considering the effect on your children. They will and should become your number one priority – are you ready for that?)
- How do you think your life will change? (This is a given). Your life will change irrevocably. Most parents say it is for the better, but the effect on your time, energy, wishes, and desires can be

enormous. Take a moment now to think seriously about the new life you are considering (Source: [Women Central](#)).

2.3 Looking through the eyes of the fetus



This overview lesson considers the biological, cognitive and socioemotional aspects of prenatal development.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What is the process of physical development from conception to birth?
- What is the process of cognitive development from conception to birth?
- What is the process of socioemotional development from conception to birth?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- *Ages and Stages*: “Looking through the eyes of the fetus.... What do you see?”
 - Using a medium of your choice, compose, construct, or create a visual metaphor for the nature of prenatal development.
 - Using the table of human development from conception to birth supplied in the *Ages and Stages* journal, convert the table to a different graphics organizer such as a poster or timeline.
 - Finding pictures or diagrams of prenatal development will greatly enhance your poster or timeline.
 - Using the statistics about embryonic and fetal weight and length create a bar graph of prenatal development.
- Reflection: *An important point about hereditary influences is that there are no genes for behaviour.*
 - What is the significance of this statement?
 - If there are no genes for behaviour, how is our behaviour determined?
- Discussion: Interaction of the domains
 - Using the template Interaction of the Domains discuss and describe how the three aspects of the development of the fetus interact and influence each other.
- Jigsaw/Research/Independent Study: Prenatal development
 - Divide the class into three groups and assign one of each of three aspects to the groups.
 - Each group will conduct research into its aspect of prenatal development.
 - Presentation formats might include posters, three-panel displays, models, timelines, computer-based presentation software, oral presentations, Ask an Expert, games (e.g., “Prenatal Jeopardy!” or “Psychology Squares!”), or written submissions using the *Ages and Stages* journal as the organizing format.

Making Connections

- Research the issues regarding cloning of human genetic material for transplant.
- Genetic engineering: Refer to *Ages and Stages*, *A Double-Edged Sword*.
- Technology and medicine: How has technology improved our understanding of human development from conception to death?

Resources

- *Ages and Stages*: “Looking through the eyes of the fetus.... What do you see?”
- Curriculum Support Materials: Interaction of the Domains

Lesson 2.3: Teacher Information

What is the process of biological development from conception to birth?

Refer to Lesson 2.1 Unit Overview: Human development from conception to birth, for information regarding the three stages of prenatal development.

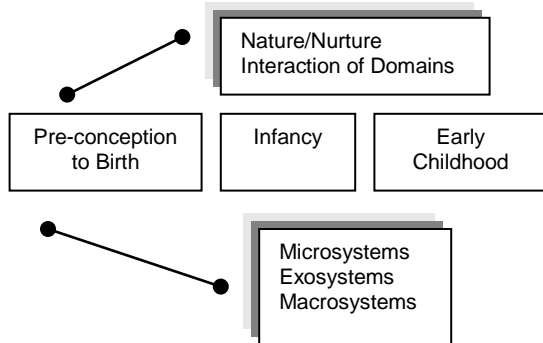
What is the process of cognitive development from conception to birth?

Some simple aspects of the functioning of the human nervous system appear very early. Indeed the blood circulation system and the nervous system are the first to function in embryonic life, with heartbeat commencing in the third week following conception. By the second month, an avoidance reaction, the withdrawal of the hand region by contraction of the neck muscles, occurs if an unpleasant stimulus is applied to the embryonic upper lip. These developments imply that simple arc reflexes are already differentiated at this stage, with appropriate synaptic connections and interneuronal activity being brought into play in order to coordinate muscular movements (Rose, 1989, p. 192).

What is the process of socioemotional development from conception to birth?

The fetus is no passive passenger in the womb, nor is the woman simply "carrying" the fetus (Kisilevsky and Low, 1998). Development is interactive even before birth. Research suggests that, at least in some ways, fetuses prepare more than just their reflexes and organ systems for physiological functioning after birth: they also begin to accustom themselves to the particulars of the social world that they soon will join. Meanwhile, mothers begin to identify features of their future offspring: almost all pregnant women, by the last trimester are talking to, patting, and dreaming about their long-awaited child (Berger, 2000, p. 106).

2.4 Prenatal Development: Physical domain



This lesson presents an overview of the biological development from conception to birth. If further study is required, the topics of heredity and the developmental process through the three stages are explored as sub-topics.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What role does heredity and genetics play in determining human development?
- What is the process of development during the three stages of prenatal development?
- What are the critical periods in prenatal development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Research: Family Tree
 - The students will create a genealogical family tree listing such attributes as the colour of the hair, skin, and eyes; the gender; body shape (height and weight); special talents or abilities (multiple intelligences); and basic personality traits, such as emotional, stable, extraverted or introverted. Refer to Eysenck's Personality Trait Model in the Curriculum Support Materials section for more attributes and traits.
- *Ages and Stages*: “Looking through the eyes of the fetus.... What do you see?”
 - Using the table of human development from conception to birth supplied in the *Ages and Stages* journal, the students will convert the table to a different graphics organizer such as a poster or timeline.
- Research: Images of fetal development
 - Using the Images feature of the Altavista search engine (<http://www.altavista.com>) search the Internet for images of fetal development that can be used to illustrate the development process.
 - Create a visual time line of fetal development.
- Research: Neonatal nursing
 - Interview a neonatal nurse or doctor. How early can a fetus be born and still survive? How has technology improved premature babies' chances for survival? What are the biggest obstacles that premature babies must face?
- Discussion: *An important point about hereditary influences is that there are no genes for behaviour.*
 - What is the significance of this statement?
 - If there are no genes for behaviour how is our behaviour determined?

Making Connections

- Create a bar graph of the critical periods in prenatal development.
- Research the challenges that premature births present to neo-natal medicine.
- What are some career options in neonatal health care?

Resources

- *Ages and Stages*: “Looking through the eyes of the fetus.... What do you see?”
- Curriculum Support Materials: Emotions, Attitudes, and Personality Traits

Lesson 2.4: Teacher Information

What role does heredity and genetics play in determining human development?

The basic characteristics of an individual are established at conception; these include the colour of the hair, skin, and eyes; the gender; the likelihood that the person will be tall or short, fat or lean; and perhaps basic intellectual abilities and personality traits (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 39).

Although the genetic influence exerts its power by keeping organisms on a particular developmental path, genes alone do not directly determine human

behaviour. For example, hormones that circulate in the blood make their way into the cell, where they influence the cell's activity. The flow of hormones themselves can be affected by environmental events, such as light, day length, nutrition and behaviour (Santrock, 1999, p. 74).

What is the process of development during the three stages of prenatal development?

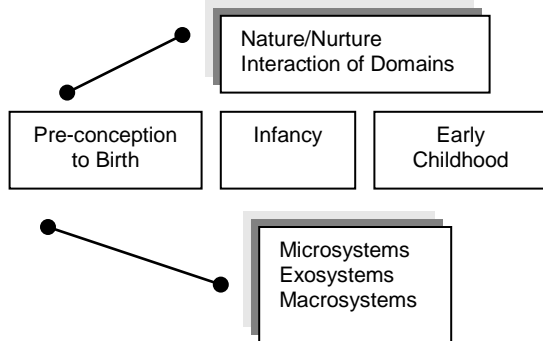
Refer to Lesson 2.1 Unit Overview: Human development from conception to birth, for information regarding the three stages of prenatal development.

What are the critical periods in prenatal development? Source: Fetal Development (1999)

Body System	Epecially Sensitive	Development up to ...
Central nervous system/Brain	4 th to 8 th weeks	Postnatal, through to adulthood
Heart	5 th to 9 th weeks	12 th week
Upper limbs	6 th to 10 th weeks	12 th week
Eyes	6 th to 10 weeks	Term
Lower limbs	6 th to 10 th weeks	12 th week
Teeth	9 th to 11 th weeks	Term
Palate	9 th to 11 th weeks	16 th week
External genitalia	9 th to 11 th weeks	Term
Ears	6 th to 11 th weeks	13 th week

See also: Berger, 2000, p. 108.

2.4.1 Heredity and genetics



This lesson describes the basic concepts involved in heredity and genetics – and then applies that knowledge in leading students to consider some of the fundamental issues surrounding genetic engineering.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What are heredity and genetics?
- How are traits passed from one generation to the next?
- What is genetic engineering?
- How do doctors test for genetic disorders?
- What are the ethical and moral issues involved in genetic engineering?
- How can we test the morality of our decisions?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- *Ages and Stages*: “Cloning: A Twist on Creation”
 - Ian Wilmut, one of the scientists who created Dolly the sheep at the Roslin Institute in Scotland, says the cells from which stem cells are derived are embryonic in nature with no evidence of the formation of a nervous system. In an article in *The Globe and Mail* in February 2000, he wrote that “the human nervous system will not begin to form until several weeks into a normal pregnancy. In these circumstances, I would consider using the cells of human embryo.” Dr. Wilmut points out that, under British law, a human embryo has special status but not that of a full human being.
 - Discuss his view on using human embryos for research.
 - What does Canadian law say about the issue of fetal rights?
 - What are the legal issues involved in the question of fetal rights?
- From both perspectives: Cloning of genetic material
 - Is it appropriate for scientists to be able to recreate genetic material such as human organs that could potentially save millions of lives? Where do we stop? If we can develop the technology to clone organs, and have already cloned animals such as Dolly the sheep, should we be developing the technology to clone humans?
- Research: Cloning
 - Design and conduct a survey research study investigating people’s attitudes towards the cloning of genetic material.

Making Connections

- Research: Case Study
 - The scientists who mapped the human genome: Francis Collins and J. Craig Venter.
- Genetic engineering in agriculture: Humankind’s hope for the future?
 - What are the benefits and possible issues in biotechnology directed at agriculture? From the biotechnologist’s perspective an excellent resource is the Biotechnology Council’s website listed below.

Resources

- *Ages and Stages*: “Cloning: A Twist on Creation”, “A Double Edged Sword”
- Biography Online: www.biography.com
- Council for Biotechnology Information: www.whybiotech.com
- Moral tests, Teacher Information

Lesson 2.4.1: Teacher Information

What is heredity and genetics?

Heredity is the process of transmitting biological traits from parent to offspring through genes, the basic units of heredity. Heredity also refers to the inherited characteristics of an individual including traits such as height, eye colour, and blood type. Genetics is the study of how heredity works and, in particular, of genes. A gene is a section of a long deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) molecule and it carries information for the construction of a protein or part of a protein. Through the diversity of proteins they code for, genes influence or determine such traits as eye colour, the ability of a bacterium to eat a certain sugar, or the number of peas in a pod. A virus has as few as a dozen genes. A simple roundworm has 5 000 to 8 000 genes, while a corn plant has 60 000. The construction of a human requires an estimated 50 000 genes. If the DNA in a single human cell could be unraveled, it would form a single thread about 1.5 metres long and about 100 trillionths of a centimetre thick (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 39).

How are traits passed from one generation to the next?

Humans have 23 pairs of chromosomes. In each pair, one chromosome comes from the mother and the other from the father. Twenty-two of the pairs are the same in both men and women and these are called autosomes. The twenty-third pair consists of the sex chromosomes, so called because they are the primary factor in determining the gender of a child. The sex chromosomes are known as the X and Y chromosomes. Females have two X chromosomes and males have one X and one Y chromosome. The Y chromosome is about one-third the size of the X chromosome. A sperm, the reproductive cell produced by the male, can carry either one X or one Y chromosome. An egg, the reproductive cell produced by the female, can carry only the X chromosome. When a sperm with an X chromosome unites with an egg the result is a child with two X chromosomes, a female. When a sperm with a Y chromosome unites with an egg, however, the result is a child with one X and one Y chromosome, a male. Thus, the father determines the gender of the child (Baron et al., 1998, p. 74).

What is genetic engineering?

Genetic engineering is the alteration of an organism's genetic instructions through the insertion of additional genes. In humans genetic engineering involves adding normal genes, either directly via a blood transfusion or bone marrow transplant or directly into a cluster of cells, thereby enabling the body to replace ailing cells with healthy ones. The technique is being used experimentally for

hemophilia, cystic fibrosis, rheumatoid arthritis, several types of cancer, and dozens of rare diseases (Berger, 2000, p. 95).

How do doctors test for genetic disorders?

Scientists have developed a number of tests to determine whether the fetus is developing normally:

- Amniocentesis is a prenatal medical procedure performed between the 12th and 16th weeks of pregnancy in which a sample of amniotic fluid is withdrawn by syringe. It is tested to discover if the fetus is suffering from any chromosomal or metabolic disorders.
- Ultrasound sonography is a prenatal medical procedure in which high frequency sound waves are directed into the pregnant woman's abdomen. The echo from the sounds is transformed into a visual representation of the fetus's inner structures.
- The chorionic villus test is a prenatal medical procedure in which a small sample of the placenta is removed at some point between the 8th and the 11th week of pregnancy.
- The maternal blood test (alpha-fetoprotein test) is a prenatal diagnostic technique that is used to assess neural tube defects. This test is administered to women 14 to 20 weeks into pregnancy only when they are at risk for bearing a child with defects in the formation of the brain and spinal cord (Santrock, 1999, p. 72).

What are the ethical and moral issues involved in genetic engineering?

Gene mapping and genetic engineering create some dilemmas. Do people want to know about their genetic defects even though these defects cannot be corrected? When the issues are genetic screening and abortion, ethical values often clash with practicality and parental rights. Do parents want to bring to term a child that will have a severe disorder? One country has already instituted a policy about such disorders. In 1993, China had a program of abortions, forced sterilization, and marriage bans to avoid new births of "inferior quality" infants and raise the standards of their country. Worries abound that the information housed in people's genes will be used to their detriment. A drop of blood or a lock of hair contains all of the genetic information a potential employer or insurer would need to determine whether someone is at risk of contracting any of a long list of debilitating diseases. Ethical dilemmas will increase in the next decade as scientists on the Human Genome Project continue to make headway in mapping out human genes (Santrock, 1999, p. 74).

Some experts get nervous about genetic technology for other reasons. One is genetic screening. This can be done today for some conditions and it will become more commonplace in the near future. Careful study of a sample of DNA can reveal how likely a person is to succumb to certain illnesses. Where the moral dilemma creeps in is whether anybody else should know, and this applies to all genetic screening. Another concern is the possibility of creating "designer babies." Today, when a sperm and an egg unite, chance plays a major role in how the life thus created will turn out. The embryo will get half its genes from its mother and half from its father. Whether it inherits its father's tallness or its mother's blue eyes pretty much depends on a roll of the dice. But genetic engineering holds within it the promise of overcoming the random nature of heredity (Taylor, 2000, p. 7).

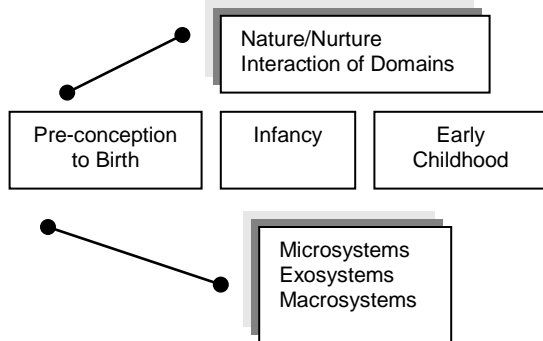
How can we test the morality of our decisions?

In our daily lives, we must make choices that involve questions of honesty, the treatment of other people, acting responsibly, etc. These are moral choices because they are about right and wrong. Moral choices are choices between what might be good for us personally and what would be good for others. We may want to do one thing, but we have doubts about whether we are doing the right thing. When a situation is morally doubtful we have to have some basis for deciding what to do. Should an individualistic, personal point of view be taken? Should one always be "nice" and make sure that everyone else is satisfied? When should individuals look out for themselves and when should they be concerned about others?

Applying Moral Tests to Everyday Situations

The Situation or Issue	The New Cases Test	The Role Exchange Test	The Universal Consequences Test
Should you be angry over receiving a ticket for jaywalking near your home?	What if you were caught jaywalking on a busy freeway in a large city? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Anyone who jaywalks in that situation deserves a ticket for being stupid! 	How would you feel if the police showed up with your two-year-old brother or sister who had been jaywalking? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> I would warn him or her of the dangers of jaywalking. 	What if everyone jaywalked in your neighbourhood? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Who would care except for the police? It should not matter.
Should scientists be allowed to clone human genetic material such as organs for transplant?	How would this work in another situation such as cloning to produce "designer babies"?	How would you feel if you were the parents of a child waiting for a transplant?	What if everyone had access to cloned organs? Who would control or manage the use of cloned organs?
Should people have the right to buy and sell their own organs?	How would this work in another situation such as	How would you feel if you had a life-saving need for an organ such as a kidney?	What if everyone
An insurance company refuses you insurance because a genetic defect has appeared.	How would this work in another situation such as	How would you feel if you were the employer?	What if everyone

2.4.2 The stages of prenatal development



This overview lesson focuses on the physical development of the fetus from the moment of conception through the germinal, embryonic and fetal stages, to birth.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How delicate is the developing life form at each of the three stages?
- What are the factors that contribute to low birth weight?
- Why are some babies born prematurely?
- What are some common genetic conditions that can be detected during prenatal development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Jigsaw: Genetic conditions
 - Assign one of the several genetic conditions to a small group of students and have them conduct research into the genetic condition, its critical period, the physical results of the condition and the origin of the condition (heredity, environmentally influenced)
- Discussion: Nature/nurture and birth weight
 - Based on the information about the way that the social context influences low birth weight, in what ways is the interaction between nature and nurture demonstrated?
 - How do the various levels of supports help to promote the healthy development of the fetus?
- Research: Fetal Alcohol Syndrome
 - What are the differences between Fetal Alcohol Syndrome and Fetal Alcohol Effect?
 - What are the physical, mental, and emotional effects of fetal alcohol syndrome?
- Research: Down Syndrome
 - What are the causes of Down Syndrome?
 - What are the challenges that people with Down Syndrome face?
- Discussion: Generally male embryos (XY) and fetuses are at a greater risk than female in that more male embryos are more often aborted spontaneously. In addition, newborn boys have more birth defects, and older boys have more learning disabilities and other problems caused by environmental teratogens.
 - Why? What could be some factors in this situation?

Making Connections

- The role of technology:
 - Research the role of technology in medicine, particularly in prenatal development and care.
 - In what ways has technology improved the quality and kind of care provided to expectant mothers and their unborn children?
- Miscarriage: What is it? What causes it?

Resources

- *Ages and Stages*: “Looking through the eyes of the fetus: What do you see?”

Lesson 2.4.2: Teacher Information

How delicate is the developing life form?

Fifty-eight percent of all developing organisms fail to grow or implant properly and thus do not survive the germinal period. Most of these organisms were grossly abnormal. During the embryonic time all the major external and internal body structures begin to form. About 20 percent of all embryos are aborted spontaneously, most often because of chromosomal abnormalities. About 5 percent of all fetuses are aborted spontaneously before viability at 22 weeks or are stillborn after 22 weeks (Berger, 2000, p. 100).

What are the factors that contribute to low birth weight?

Poverty

- Compared with women of higher socioeconomic status, pregnant women at the bottom of the economic ladder are more likely to be ill, malnourished, teenaged, and stressed. They often receive late or inadequate prenatal care, breathe polluted air, live in overcrowded conditions, move from place to place and ingest unhealthy substances. Poor women have less access to family planning services, and they live in communities that encourage higher birth rates, partly because these communities have higher death rates. In this way, the social context may underlie many of the biological causes of low birth weight.

Malnutrition

- Women who begin pregnancy underweight, eat poorly during pregnancy, and consequently do not gain at least 1.5 kilograms per month in the second and third trimesters run a much higher risk of having low birth weight babies. Research indicates that obese women should gain seven to 11 kilograms during pregnancy; normal-weight women 11 to 16 kilograms; and underweight women even more. Beyond overall weight, certain nutrients defend against low birth weight, including zinc, iron, and folic acid. Indeed, malnutrition (not age) is the primary reason young teenagers tend to have small babies. They tend to eat sporadically and unhealthily, and because their own bodies are still developing their diet is inadequate to support the growth of two.

Preterm birth

- The fetal body weight doubles in the last months of pregnancy with a typical weight gain of almost two pounds (about 900 grams) occurring in the final three weeks. Thus if a baby is born preterm, defined as three or more weeks before

the usual 38 weeks, he or she is usually of low birth weight (Berger, 2000, pp. 116-122).

Why are some babies born prematurely?

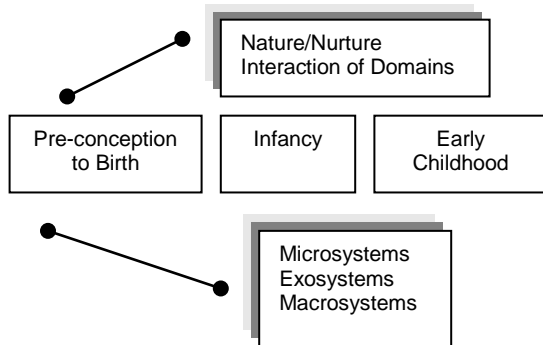
Conditions that disrupt the physiological equilibrium of the mother can cause premature birth. These conditions include:

- a high dose of psychoactive drugs
- extreme stress
- chronic exhaustion
- detached placenta
- a uterus that cannot accommodate further fetal growth
- unusually short cervix
- infection (Berger, 2000, p. 117).

What are some common genetic conditions that can be detected during prenatal development?

Common genetic conditions may include club foot, cleft palate/lip, cystic fibrosis, spina bifida, PKU, haemophilia, hydrocephalus, and muscular dystrophy.

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



2.5 Prenatal Development: Cognitive domain

This lesson examines the cognitive development of the fetus, specifically the nervous system, the sensory and perceptual abilities, and the brain.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What is the process of development of the nervous system and the brain?
- What is the process of development of the sensory and perceptual systems?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Most neurons are produced between 10 and 26 weeks after conception.
 - What are the implications for the systems of support that promote and nurture healthy development?
 - Review the research on critical periods. What might be the implications for brain and neural development if the mother is exposed to high levels of teratogens during this period?
- Discussion: Gender differences in brains
 - Based on the research findings of the differences in the brains of males and females (see Teacher Information) what implications might this have on the behaviours, talents, and abilities of males and females as they mature?
- Discussion: Physical contact
 - Why should you talk to, sing to, read to, and make physical contact with your fetus?
- Discussion: Multiple intelligences and nature/nurture
 - Review the theory of multiple intelligences. What are the implications of this theory for prenatal cognitive development in terms of the relative influence of heredity (nature) and the environment (nurture)?
- From both perspectives: Issues in prenatal development
 - Should pregnant women be paid a monthly nutritional supplement?
 - Genetic engineering: Should we correct all genetic defects in fetuses?
- Reflection: Nature/nurture
 - In what ways does the research on the development of the sensory and perceptual systems of the fetus demonstrate the relative influences of nature and nurture?

Making Connections

- Early Intervention Programs: What are the anticipated benefits of early intervention programs in light of the research that suggests that the brain, while prewired for operation, is shaped by experience?

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Fetal Brain Development

Lesson 2.5: Teacher Information

What is the process of development of the nervous system and the brain?

Brain development in the prenatal stage is amazing. Fetal brain cells are generated at about 250,000 per minute. It is most likely that infants will have all the neurons they are going to ever have in their life at the time of birth.

The next stage of neuron development is cell migration. In this stage neurons move from near the center of the brain, which is where they are produced, to their appropriate locations. The process of cell migration is completed seven months after conception.

The third stage of neuron development is concerned with cell elaboration. During this stage axons and dendrites grow and form connections with other cells. Cell elaboration continues for many years after birth .

Another process that begins prenatally and continues after birth, is myelination. This is a process in which nerve cells are covered and insulated with a layer of fat cells. Myelination increases the speed of information which travels through the nervous system.

The nervous system starts to form as a hollow tube on the embryo back. The brain forms into a large mass of neurons and loses the tubular appearance. Three major divisions in the brain form. These are:

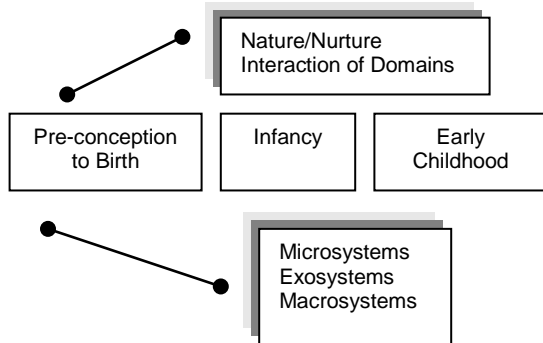
- Hindbrain - located at the lowest portion of the brain; controls motor development
- Midbrain - located between the hind and forebrain; relaying information to eyes and ears.
- Forebrain - large part of the brain; plays the most critical role in thinking and language.

Most neurons are produced between 10 and 26 weeks after conception ([Mesa Community College Department of Psychology](#)).

What is the process of development of the sensory and perceptual systems?

The fetus is no passive passenger in the womb, nor is the woman simply “carrying” the fetus (Kisilevsky and Low, 1998). Development is interactive even before birth. Beyond the physiological interdependence, fetus and adult have a much more intellectual brain-based interaction. Beginning at about nine weeks, the fetus moves its body in response to shifts in the woman’s body position with imperceptible movements of tiny heels, fists, elbows and buttocks. Indeed, many parents-to-be, fathers as well as mothers, enjoy rubbing the woman’s

rippling belly. The fetus feels and responds to such stimulation, beginning what may become a life-long pattern of communication by touch (Berger, 2000, p. 106).



2.6 Prenatal Development: Socioemotional domain

This lesson explores the socioemotional development of the fetus in terms of basic temperaments and the importance of establishing contact between the parents and the fetus.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What socioemotional development takes place before birth?
- What do temperament and personality mean?
- What are the basic temperaments of newborn babies?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Nature/nurture and fetal development
 - “Research suggests that, at least in some ways, fetuses prepare more than just their reflexes and organ systems for physiological functioning after birth, they also begin to accustom themselves to the particulars of the social world that they soon will join.” (Berger, 2000, p. 107)
 - What are the implications of this statement for the nature/nurture debate? In what ways is fetal socioemotional development influenced by genetic inheritance and by environmental factors?
- Discussion: Systems of support
 - Using the Ecological model supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials, compare and contrast how the systems of support might influence the prenatal socioemotional development of the fetus.
 - Of the three systems, is there one whose influence is more immediate or critical than the others?
- Research: Interview your mother and father
 - What does your mother remember about your prenatal development? Were you an active child? What basic temperament did you have when you were a newborn? Were there any health issues or concerns when your mother was pregnant, for example, German measles, influenza, nutrition, or stress?
 - Based on the nine basic temperaments of newborn babies as described in the Teacher Information section, what recollections does your mother have of you as a newborn?
 - What was your father’s role during your mother’s pregnancy?
 - How was the pregnancy of your mother with you different than with your siblings?

Making Connections

- Should parents be given both maternal and paternal leave?
- What effects does stress have on the fetus?
- When does a fetus become a person?
 - What does the law say in regard to this issue?
 - What are the legal, religious, ethical, and moral perspectives on this issue?

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model

Lesson 2.6: Teacher Information

What socioemotional development takes place before birth?

Refer to Lesson 2.5, Prenatal Development: Cognitive domain, for information on the development of the sensory and perceptual systems in relation to socioemotional development of the fetus.

What do temperament and personality mean?

Researchers who study adult personality have also searched for the basic temperamental dimensions that underlie personality in humans everywhere. Through a series of statistical calculations they have found what are called the “big five” dimensions of temperament:

- *extroversion*: the tendency to be outgoing, assertive, and active
- *agreeableness*: the tendency to be kind, helpful, and easygoing
- *conscientiousness*: the tendency to be organized, deliberate, and conforming
- *neuroticism*: the tendency to be anxious, moody, and self-punishing
- *openness*: the tendency to be imaginative, curious, artistic and welcoming of new experiences (Berger, 2000, p. 221).

What are the basic temperaments of newborn babies?

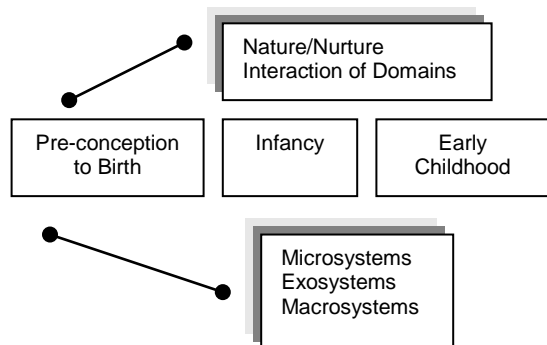
Because temperament is fundamental in determining the kind of individuals we become and how we interact with others, many researchers have set out to describe and measure the various dimensions of temperament. According to the researcher's initial findings, in the first days and months of life, babies differ in nine characteristics:

- *Activity level*: Some babies are active. They kick a lot in the uterus before they are born, they move around a great deal in their bassinets and as toddlers, they are nearly always running.
- *Rhythmicity*: Some babies have regular cycles of activity. They eat, sleep, and defecate on schedule almost from birth.
- *Approach-withdrawal*: Some babies delight in everything new; others withdraw from every new situation.
- *Adaptability*: Some babies adjust quickly to change. Others are unhappy at every disruption of their normal routine.

- *Threshold of responsiveness*: Some babies seem to sense every sight, sound and touch. For instance, they awaken at a slight noise or turn away from a distant light. Others seem blissfully unaware, even of bright lights, loud street noises, or wet diapers.
- *Quality of mood*: Some babies seem constantly happy, smiling at almost everything. Others seem chronically unhappy, they are ready to protest at any moment.
- *Distractibility*: All babies fuss when they are hungry but some will stop if someone gives them a pacifier or sings them a song. Others will keep fussing. Similarly, some babies can easily be distracted from a fascinating but dangerous object and diverted to a safer plaything. Others are more single-minded, refusing to be distracted.
- *Attention span*: Some babies play happily with one toy for a long time. Others quickly drop one activity for another.

In terms of combinations of the above characteristics, most young infants can be described as being one of three types: about 40 percent are easy, about 15 percent are slow to warm up, and about 10 percent are difficult (Berger, 2000, p. 220).

2.7 Labour and Delivery



This lesson describes the stages of labour and delivery, the strategies used in childbirth and some of the complications which might arise in giving birth.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What are the stages of birth?
- What are the strategies used in childbirth?
- What are some of the complications that can arise in labour and delivery?
- What is the father's role in the labour and delivery process?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- *Ages and Stages*: "Labour and Delivery"
 - Create a comparison chart describing alternate forms of birthing, as well as their strengths and limitations.
 - What changes have occurred in the father's role during the last few decades? Talk to your father. What was his role in the labour and delivery process? Talk to your grandfather. What was his experience? Talk to your mother. What was the labour and delivery process like when she had you? Talk to your grandmother. What was her experience? If family members are not available, talk to a trusted community member who is a mother, father, grandmother or grandfather.
- Research: Midwifery
 - Conduct an interview or invite a midwife in to the classroom to make a presentation on the roles and responsibilities of a midwife.
 - What training is required to become a midwife?
 - What are the legal implications, if any, of at-home births, should a problem arise and the fetus and/or mother develop complications?
- Research: Caesarian sections
 - What is a caesarian section? When are caesarian sections the preferred method of delivery? What are the possible issues and complications that might arise during a caesarian section?
- Media Study: "Arms Wide Open"
 - Listen to the musical selection "Arms Wide Open". What sentiments are being expressed? What are the father's fears, hopes and dreams for his new child?
- Discussion: Labour and Delivery
 - Given the possible complications that might arise during labour and delivery, why would some expectant mothers choose to stay at home and deliver their babies?

Making Connections

- What are the roles and responsibilities of midwives and home delivery?
- Research aqua births and other alternative methods.
- Define and describe neonatal care.

Resources

- *Ages and Stages*: Labour and Delivery
- Media: *Arms Wide Open*, written by Creed, from the album Human Clay (1999)

Lesson 2.7: Teacher Information

What are the stages of birth?

The birth process occurs in three stages:

- For a woman having her first child, the first stage, the longest, lasts an average of 12 to 24 hours. Uterine contractions are 15 to 20 minutes apart at the beginning and last up to a minute. These contractions cause the woman's cervix to stretch and open. As the first stage progresses, the contractions come closer together appearing every two to five minutes. Their intensity increases too. By the end of the first birth stage these contractions dilate the cervix to an opening of about 8 to 10 centimetres. This allows the baby to move from the uterus to the birth canal.
- The second stage begins when the baby's head starts to move through the cervix and the birth canal. It terminates when the baby completely emerges from the mother's body. This stage lasts approximately 1.5 hours. With each contraction the mother bears down hard to push the baby out of her body. By the time the baby's head is out of the mother's body the contractions come almost every minute and last for about a minute.
- Afterbirth is the third stage, at which time the placenta, umbilical cord, and other membranes are detached and expelled. This final stage is the shortest of the three birth stages lasting only minutes (Santrock, 1999, p. 104).

What are the strategies used in childbirth?

In the standard childbirth procedure the expectant mother is taken to a hospital where a doctor is responsible for the baby's delivery.

The Leboyer method intends to make the birth process less stressful for infants. Leboyer vehemently objects to holding newborns upside down and slapping them, putting silver nitrate in their eyes, separating them immediately from their mothers, and scaring them with bright lights and harsh noises in the delivery room. In the Leboyer method the baby is placed on the mother's stomach immediately after birth so the mother can caress the infant. Then the infant is placed in a bath of warm water to relax.

The Lamaze method has become a widely used childbirth strategy. It involves helping the expectant mother to cope actively with the pain of childbirth through relaxation and breathing techniques and to avoid or reduce medication.

A caesarian section is the surgical removal of the baby from the uterus. A caesarian section is usually performed if the baby is in a breech position, if it is lying crosswise in the uterus, if the baby's head is too large to pass through the mother's pelvis, if the baby develops complications, or if the mother is bleeding vaginally (Santrock, 1999, p. 106).

What are some of the complications that can arise in labour and delivery?

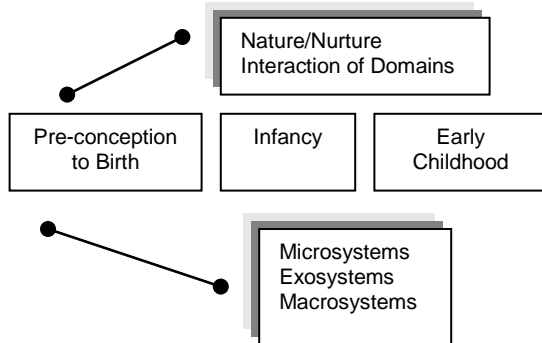
Complications can accompany the baby's delivery:

- Precipitate delivery is a form of delivery that takes place too rapidly. A precipitate delivery is one in which the baby takes less than 10 minutes to be squeezed through the birth canal. This deviation in delivery can disturb the infant's normal flow of blood and the pressure on the infant's head can cause hemorrhaging.
- Anoxia is insufficient supply of oxygen to the infant and can develop if the delivery takes too long. Anoxia can cause brain damage.
- The breech position is the baby's position in the uterus that causes the buttocks to be the first part to emerge from the vagina. Normally the crown of the baby's head comes first (Santrock, 1999, p. 105).

What is the father's role in the labour and delivery process?

- See *Ages and Stages* "Labour and Delivery" for more information on the father's role in labour and delivery.

2.8 Looking through the eyes of the support systems ...



In this overview lesson, we will use the Ecological model of Bronfenbrenner (1979) to describe the various degrees and types of influence that the systems of support have on prenatal development.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What influence does the microsystem have on prenatal development?
- What influence does the exosystem have on prenatal development?
- What influence does the macrosystem have on prenatal development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Looking through the eyes of the systems of supports.... What do you see?
 - What changes have occurred in prenatal care during the last few decades? Talk to your mother. What was her experience in preparing for childbirth? What support services were available to her? Talk to your father. What was his role in the labour and delivery process? Talk to your grandfather. What was his experience? Talk to your mother. What was the labour and delivery process like when she had you? Talk to your grandmother. What was her experience? In lieu of immediate family members, talk to trusted community members who also had these roles.
- Media Studies: “In the Ghetto”, recorded by Elvis Presley. The lyrics describe the cycle of violence and poverty of a child born into a ghetto.
 - What messages does this song have about the role and influence of the sociocultural environment in terms of human development?
- Construction: Develop a sample budget for a single parent
 - Based on a minimum wage salary, and with minimal financial support from her family, what are the issues and challenges that most single parents face?
 - What are the financial responsibilities of the father/mother? Should we legislate financial support of the child by the absentee parent?
 - Where does the responsibility of the community, and society at large, begin and end with respect to single parents?
 - Should we, as a society, financially support single parents both during pregnancy and after?
- Consensus decision making
 - Refer to the document, Dialectical Reasoning: A Process Approach. Lead the students through a consensus decision-making process on any of the following topics:
 - Private health clinics should be allowed.
 - Expecting mothers should receive 12 months fully-paid maternity leave.
 - Universal health care should be included in the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms.
 - Social Services, or some other governmental agency, should be allowed to require hospitalization and medical care for the fetus in instances of the mother being addicted to substances that will harm the baby.

Resources

- *Ages and Stages*: “Looking through the eyes of the systems of supports.... What do you see?”
- Media: “In The Ghetto”, Elvis Presley

Lesson 2.8: Teacher Information

What influence does the microsystem have on prenatal development?

In terms of the mother's role in promoting healthy development, research suggests five proactive steps:

1. Abstinence from alcohol, drugs, and tobacco even before pregnancy.
2. Abstinence after the first trimester: The teratogenic effects of drugs accumulate throughout pregnancy. Thus, early prenatal care would reduce fetal brain damage substantially. In fact, because the last trimester of pregnancy is critical for brain development, a drug-free second half of pregnancy may be enough to prevent brain damage if drug use during the first half was moderate.
3. Moderation throughout pregnancy: Since the prenatal effects of psychoactive drugs are dose related, interactive and cumulative, each dose that is reduced, each drug that is eliminated, and each day that is drug free, represents a reduction in the damage that can be caused.
4. Social support: Maternal stress, psychological problems, loneliness, and poor housing correlate with prenatal complications as well as with drug use. Befriending, encouraging, and assisting pregnant drug users may not only reduce their use of teratogens but also, even without directly affecting drug use, aid fetal development.
5. Postnatal care: Another way to protect children from suffering the consequences of their mother's prenatal drug use is to ensure sensitive nurturance after birth through parenting education, preventive medicine, home visits, early daycare and if necessary, foster care (Berger, 2000, p. 115).

What influence does the exosystem have on prenatal development?

What role does the community play in the healthy development of the fetus?

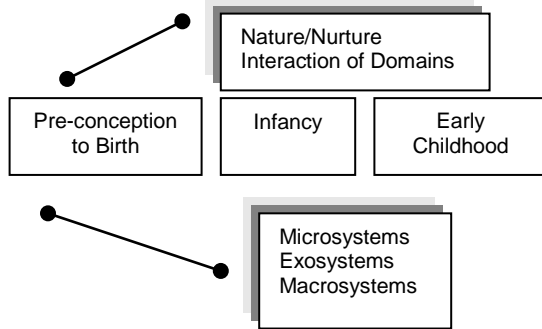
- Discuss with the students the services available through the various health agencies, the support services provided by neighbours and friends, and the impact that various communities can have on human development.
- What role does the school play in the healthy development of the fetus?

- What role should the school play in the education of adolescents as regards conception, pregnancy, and accessing health services?
- Do schools have a role to play in assuring access to education for teenage mothers? If so, what should that role be? Who should finance it?
- What role do the health agencies play in the healthy development of the fetus?
- What services are available in your community?
- Who would you contact for resources, programs, services, or resource people?
- What are the differences between urban and rural health care systems?

What influence does the macrosystem have on prenatal development?

Compared with women of higher socioeconomic status, pregnant women at the bottom of the economic ladder are more likely to be ill, malnourished, teenaged, and stressed. They often receive late or inadequate prenatal care, breathe polluted air, live in overcrowded conditions, move from place to place and ingest unhealthy substances. Poor women have less access to family planning services, and they live in communities that encourage higher birth rates, partly because these communities have higher death rates. In this way, the social context may underlie many of the biological causes of low birth weight (Berger, 2000, p. 120).

2.9 Reproductive technologies



This lesson addresses the variety of means of creating human life through the use of technology, as well as a consideration of the ethical and moral issues that arise from genetic engineering.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How do scientists genetically engineer a human being?
- What are some alternative methods of conception?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Debate: Ovum donation
 - Whose baby is it? Is it the biological parents' baby because the baby is a product of their D.N.A., or is it the surrogate mother's, because she brought the baby to term?
- Dialectical decision making
 - Nature/nurture: What has more influence on human development?
 - Thesis: Human development is primarily guided by the genetic codes that we inherit from our parents.
 - Antithesis: While we are influenced by our biology, we are a product of our environment.
 - "Designer Babies": Is it appropriate to clone human beings?
 - Thesis: The cloning of human beings should be allowed so as to eliminate all genetic defects and disorders.
 - Antithesis: It is morally and ethically wrong to manipulate the human genome. We should let nature take its course.
 - Cloning of human genetic material: Should human genetic material be cloned for use in transplants?
 - Thesis: The cloning of human genetic material such as organs should be allowed because it will increase the availability of organs for transplant.
 - Antithesis: We should not clone human genetic material. We should deal with medical issues through treatment, not transplant.
- Research: Reproductive technologies
 - Design and conduct a survey research project investigating people's attitudes towards those questions and issues in reproductive technologies listed above:
 - Ovum donation: Whose baby is it? Is it the biological parents' baby because the baby is a product of their D.N.A., or is it the surrogate mother's, because she brought the baby to term?
 - Should human genetic material be cloned for use in transplants?
 - Is it appropriate to clone human beings?

Resources

- Resources to support the dialectics:
 - *Ages and Stages*: "Cloning: A Twist on Creation"
 - *Ages and Stages*: "A Double-Edged Sword"

Lesson 2.9: Teacher Information

How do scientists genetically engineer a human being?

The questions get even more troubling when we confront the possibility of creating “designer babies.” Germ-line manipulation is the scientific term for this and it is done soon after an egg has been fertilized. It involves taking the very early embryonic cells apart to see what the genetic lottery has delivered to them (This process destroys the cells and puts new focus on the question of when life begins.) Any genetic material that is seen as defective (presumably, the parents decide what is good and what is bad) can then be snipped out and replaced. At present, this is a very difficult trick to pull off, but it will become easier and more accurate (Taylor, 2000, p. 8).

What are some alternative methods of conception?

In vitro fertilization (IVF): In this procedure, ova are surgically removed from the ovaries, fertilized by sperm in the laboratory, and allowed to divide until the 16- or 32-cell stage. The resulting cells are then inserted into the uterus, where about one cell cluster in seven successfully implants, develops and becomes a healthy baby. The success rate is just under 20 percent (Berger, 2000, p. 73).

Gamete intrafallopian transfer (GIFT). A doctor inserts eggs and sperm directly into a woman’s fallopian tube. The success rate is almost 30 percent (Santrock, 1999, p. 69).

Intrauterine (artificial) insemination. Frozen sperm, from the husband or an unknown donor, is placed directly into the uterus, bypassing the cervix and upper vagina. The success rate is 10 percent (Santrock, 1999, p. 69).

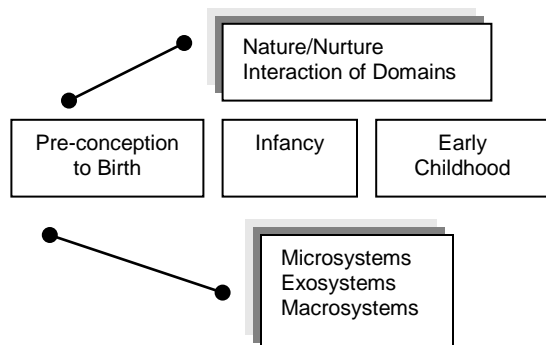
Zygote intrafallopian transfer. This involves a two-step procedure. First, eggs are fertilized in the laboratory. Then, any resulting zygotes are transferred to a fallopian tube. The success rate is approximately 25 percent (Santrock, 1999, p. 69).

Intracytoplasmic sperm injection. A doctor uses a microscopic pipette to inject a single sperm from a man’s ejaculate into an egg. The zygote is returned to the woman’s body. The success rate is approximately 25 percent (Santrock, 1999, p. 69).

Ovum donation has two possibilities: In one version, a woman volunteers to be a surrogate mother; usually she is artificially inseminated with sperm from an infertile woman’s husband and carries the baby to term. In another version, some of a donor woman’s ova are removed and artificially

inseminated with a man’s sperm; then the cluster of cells is inserted into his own wife’s uterus (Berger, 2000, p. 73).

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



2.10 What are the prenatal influences and issues for healthy development?

Teratogens are those factors that impact negatively on the healthy development of the fetus. This lesson explores the broad range of substances and conditions that can have a negative impact on prenatal development.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What are some influences that have a negative impact on healthy prenatal development?
- What are the factors that influence the degree of affect?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- *Ages and Stages*: “Prenatal Influences On Healthy Development”
 - Using the article as a basis for discussion, talk about the variety and type of teratogens that might affect the healthy development of the fetus. In what ways is modern society complicating prenatal health?
- Brainstorm: Teratogens
 - What are some possible substances, or situations, that might endanger the health of the mother or fetus?
- Jigsaw: Teratogens
 - Based on the topics and situations presented during the brainstorming situation, have the students discuss in small groups the impact, critical period, and preventative measures for the teratogen they have been assigned.
 - Refer to Teacher Information for reference materials on various teratogens.
- Research: Teratogens
 - If you, or a family member were to become pregnant, research the potential hazards and dangers that the mother and fetus might face in your classroom, school, community, and home environments.
- Discussion: Generally, male embryos (XY) and fetuses are at a greater risk than female in that male embryos are more often aborted spontaneously.
 - Why? What could be some factors in this situation?
- Based on the critical periods in prenatal development (see Topic 2.3 Physical Development for a list of critical periods for the development of many of the major organs and body systems), match the various teratogens with the critical periods in prenatal development.

Making Connections

- Thalidomide: What is it? What effects did it have on fetal development?
- Research: Fetal alcohol syndrome, Fetal alcohol effects.

Resources

- *Ages and Stages*: “Prenatal Influences On Healthy Development”
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model

Lesson 2.10: Teacher Information

What are some influences that can have a negative impact on healthy prenatal development?

Harmful substances such as drugs or radiation that invade the womb and result in birth defects are called teratogens. Teratogens are especially damaging in the embryonic stage because it is a critical period in prenatal development. Later, during the fetal stage, the environment provided by the mother affects the baby's size, behaviour, intelligence and health, rather than the formation of organs and limbs (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 333).

Environment

- Radiation, chemicals, and other hazards in the environment can endanger the fetus. Chromosomal abnormalities are higher among the offspring of fathers exposed to high levels of radiation in their occupations. Environmental pollutants and toxic wastes are also sources of danger to unborn children. Among the dangerous pollutants and wastes are carbon monoxide, mercury and lead. Another environmental concern is toxoplasmosis, a mild infection that causes cold-like symptoms or no apparent illness in adults, but can cause eye defects, brain defects, and premature birth. Cats are common carriers of toxoplasmosis, especially outdoor cats who eat raw meat. The expectant mother may pick up the virus through the cat litter box (Santrock, 1999, p. 100).

Mother's age

- Two time periods are of special interest: adolescence and the thirties and beyond. Infants born to adolescents are often premature. The mortality rate of infants born to adolescent mothers is double that of infants born to mothers in their twenties. Down Syndrome, a form of intellectual disability, is related to the mother's age. By age 40, the probability is slightly over 1 in 100. By age 50, it is almost 1 in 10. The risk is also higher before age 18. Women also have more difficulty in becoming pregnant after the age of 30 (Santrock, 1999, p. 93).

Nutrition

- Another common reason for slow fetal growth, and hence low birth weight, is maternal malnutrition, a problem that has many specific causes. Women who begin pregnancy underweight, eat poorly during pregnancy, and consequently do not gain at least 1.5 kilograms per month in the second and third trimesters run a much higher risk than others of having a low birth weight infant. Indeed, women who gain

less than seven kilograms, even if they are non-smokers who begin pregnancy overweight, still have a higher risk of preterm and smaller babies than those who gain at least seven kilograms (Berger, 2000, p. 119).

Infections and Diseases

- Maternal diseases and infections can produce defects by crossing the placental barrier. For example, the greatest damage to the fetus from the mother contracting German measles occurs during the third and fourth weeks of pregnancy. Syphilis is more damaging later in prenatal development, four months or more after conception. Rather than affecting organ development as Rubella does, syphilis damages organs after they have formed. The importance of the mother's health to the health of her offspring is nowhere better exemplified than when the mother is infected with HIV (Santrock, 1999, p. 98).

Drugs

- Drugs include tobacco, alcohol, prescription, or illegal drugs. For example, the effects of thalidomide during the fourth week of development had devastating effects. Heavy drinking by an expectant mother can also be devastating. Fetal alcohol syndrome is a cluster of abnormalities that appear in the offspring of mothers who drink alcohol heavily during pregnancy. The abnormalities include facial deformities and defective limbs, face and heart. Most of these children are below average in intelligence. In one study, however, even mothers who drank moderately during pregnancy had babies who were less attentive and alert, with the effects still present at four years of age. Cigarette smoking by pregnant women can also adversely influence prenatal development, birth and postnatal development. Fetal and neonatal deaths are higher among smoking mothers. Also prevalent are a higher incidence of preterm births and lower birth weights. Respiratory problems and sudden infant death syndrome are also more common among the offspring of mothers who smoked during pregnancy. Tranquilizers taken during the first three months may cause cleft palate or other congenital malformations. Mothers who take large amounts of barbituates may have babies who are addicted or may exhibit tremors, restlessness, and irritability (Santrock, 1999, p. 98).

Poverty

- Compared with women of higher socioeconomic status, pregnant women at the bottom of the economic ladder are more likely to be ill, malnourished, teenaged, and stressed. Physical

difficulty like malfunction of the placenta or the umbilical cord is likely when pregnancies are closely spaced and close spacing correlates with poverty. Poverty helps explain the wide national and international variations in the following statistics:

- Of the more than 25 million low birth weight infants born worldwide each year the overwhelming majority are in developing countries.
- Developing countries in the same geographic region, with similar ethnic populations, have markedly different low birth weight rates when they have different average incomes.
- Within nations, differences in low birth weight rates among ethnic groups follow socioeconomic differences among those groups.
- Within the United States low birth weight rates in the poorest states are almost twice those in some richer states (Berger, 2000, p. 120).

Emotional state

- The mother's stress can be transmitted to the fetus. When a pregnant woman experiences intense fears, anxieties, and other emotions, physiological changes occur in the fetus. These include changes in respiration and glandular secretions. For example, producing adrenaline in response to fear restricts blood flow to the uterine area and may deprive the fetus of adequate oxygen. Also, reassuring the mother of fetal well-being has positive outcomes for the infants in the study (Santrock, 1999, p. 93).

What are the factors that influence the degree of affect?

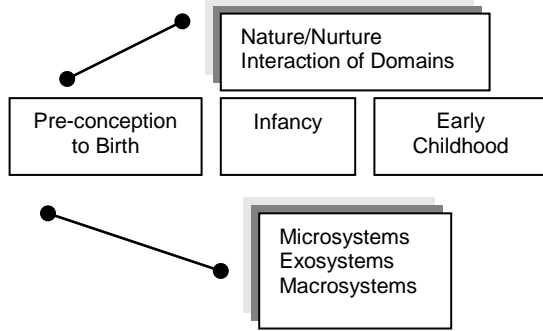
One crucial factor is the time at which the developing organism is exposed to a specific teratogen. Some teratogens cause damage only during specific days or weeks early in pregnancy, when a particular part of the body is being formed. Others can be harmful at any time, but how severe the damage is depends on when the exposure occurred. The time of greatest susceptibility is called the critical period. Each body structure has its own critical period. As a general rule, for physical defects the critical period is the entire prenatal period.

A second important factor is the dose and/or frequency of exposure to a teratogen. For most

teratogens, experts are reluctant to specify a threshold below which the substance is safe. One reason is that many teratogens have an interaction effect; that is, one poison intensifies the effects of another.

A third factor that determines whether a specific teratogen will be harmful, and to what extent, is the developing organism's genes. In some cases, genetic vulnerability is related to the sex of the developing organism. Generally, male embryos (XY) and fetuses are at a greater risk than female in that male embryos are more often aborted spontaneously. In addition, newborn boys have more birth defects, and older boys have more learning disabilities and other problems caused by behavioural teratogens (Berger, 2000, pp. 106-109).

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



2.11 Action research in prenatal development

This lesson provides for the practical application of the skills and concepts learned in this unit by engaging the students in action research.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What are some issues for research in prenatal development?

Suggested Research Methods

- Survey
- Naturalistic Observation
- Interview
- Experimental Research
- Case Study
- Topical

- Review/Discussion: The scientific method of research
 - Refer to the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials.
 - Review and discuss the steps in the scientific method of research:
 - Develop a research question
 - Describe the hypothesis
 - Select a research method
- Discussion: A comparison of research methods in the social sciences
 - Using the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials, complete the comparison chart of research methods.
 - Invite students, or groups, to defend their choice of the most appropriate research method based on their chosen topic.
 - Discuss the many formats for presentation of the data and research findings. Depending on the topic chosen and the research method selected, presentation formats may include written reports, oral presentations, portfolios, role plays and drama activities, three-panel displays, posters, brochures, bulletin board displays, PowerPoint or other computer-based presentation software, web pages, etc.
- Review/Discussion: Issues in social science research
 - Using the six templates supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials (Frequently Asked Questions about interviews, surveys, case studies, observation, experiments and topical research methods), review and discuss the issues and methods for each individual or group research project.
- Discussion: The research process
 - Ensure that each individual or group research project has completed all documentation (The Scientific Method of Research, Permission to Conduct Research) before commencing the research.

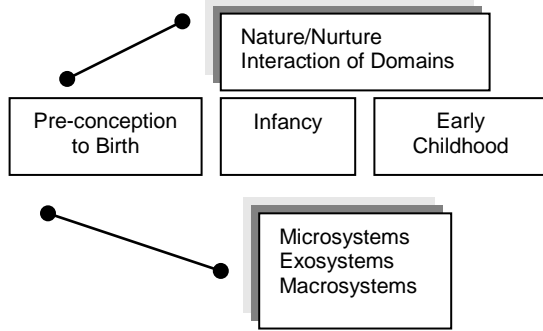
Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Scientific Method of Research
- Curriculum Support Materials: Permission to Conduct Research Form
- Curriculum Support Materials: A Comparison Chart For Research Methods
- Curriculum Support Materials: Frequently Asked Questions: Interviews, Surveys, Case Studies, Naturalistic Observation, Experiments and Topical Research

Lesson 2.11: Suggested Issues and Research Methods

Type of Research	Suggested Research Topics
<p>Survey</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conducting research using a survey involves going out and asking questions about the phenomenon of interest. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> When does a fetus become a person? Should cloning of human organs be allowed? Should mothers receive full maternity benefits from conception until one year past delivery? Should expectant mothers be paid a nutritional allowance? Should genetic information be made available to employers and insurance agencies? Should we encourage the development of genetic engineering to produce “designer babies”? Should people be allowed to sell their own organs?
<p>Naturalistic Observation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> In naturalistic research the observer does not intervene at all. For all intents and purposes, the researcher is invisible and works hard not to interrupt the natural dynamics of the situation being investigated. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Observe the type and amount of teratogens in your house. Observe the changing roles of the mother and father as the pregnancy progresses. If possible, visit a prenatal class to observe what is being taught.
<p>Interview</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The interview method of research, typically, involves a face-to-face meeting in which a researcher (interviewer) asks an individual a series of questions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ask your parents: Before you were born, were you an active baby, quiet baby? What was your basic temperament as a newborn child? Ask a doctor or nurse: What are the effects of smoking and alcohol on prenatal development? Ask your local Director of Community Services: What prenatal programs are available in your community? Visit a local health centre or hospital to inquire about processes for labour and delivery.
<p>Topical</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A topical research study involves the acquisition, synthesis, organization and presentation of information. Typically, the topical research study will involve both paper-based as well as web-based resources. Additional information may be gained through the other research methods and strategies. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What is Spina bifida? What is Cystic fibrosis? What is PKU? What is Down Syndrome? What is Fetal alcohol syndrome?
<p>Case study</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A case study is an intensive study of one individual. Typically, the case study is based on interviews with the subject regarding his or her background, present thinking or actions; it may also utilize interviews of others who know the individual. Additional case study material may be obtained through observation, experiments and standardized tests, such as personality inventories and intelligence tests. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Who is Francis Collins? Who is J. Craig Venter?

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



2.12 Perspectives on prenatal development

This summary lesson looks at prenatal development from three different perspectives: the lifespan approach, the theoretical perspectives on human development, and the key issues and questions in human development.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How is prenatal development described from the perspective of the lifespan approach?
- How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to prenatal development?
- How would each of the six theoretical perspectives on human development explain prenatal development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Think-Pair-Share: Lifespan approach
 - Using the Think-Pair-Share instructional strategy, direct the students to provide examples of how the lifespan approach helps describe the process of human prenatal development.
- Discussion/Group activity: Key issues and questions
 - Using the four key issues and questions found in the Teacher Information section, discuss the key questions as they relate to prenatal development. Discuss with the whole class or break the class into four groups.
- Jigsaw: Theoretical perspectives on human development
 - Divide the class into six groups and assign one of the six theoretical perspectives to each group.
 - Direct each group to support its perspective on human development with specific examples from the information provided in the unit. What evidence can group members find to support their theoretical perspective?
 - Each group will then present its theoretical perspective on prenatal development.
 - Synthesize the findings and examples from each group. Create a comparison chart to compare the results.

Making Connections

- Psychology Squares!
 - The students can create their own version of Psychology Squares! to play against other teams.
 - Have the students design and create a board game as a means of review for the unit. They can use any other board game format or create an entirely new format.

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: The Lifespan Perspective on Human Development
- Curriculum Support Materials: Theoretical Perspectives on Human Development

Lesson 2.12: Teacher Information

How is prenatal development described from the perspective of the lifespan approach?

The lifespan perspective on human development has seven basic characteristics. Development is:

- Life long
 - No age period dominates development.
- Multi-dimensional
 - Development consists of biological, cognitive, socioemotional and spiritual dimensions.
- Multidirectional
 - Some aspects of development increase, while others decrease.
- Plastic
 - Depending on the individual's life conditions, development may take many paths.
- Historically-embedded
 - Development is influenced by historical conditions.
- Multidisciplinary
 - Psychologists, sociologists, anthropologists, neuroscientists and medical researchers all study human development and share a concern for unlocking the mysteries of development throughout the lifespan.
- Contextual
 - The individual continually responds to and acts on contexts, which include a person's biological makeup, physical environment, and social, historical, and cultural contexts (Santrock, 1999, p. 10).

How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to prenatal development?

From the time of its establishment, several key issues and questions have dominated the field of developmental psychology. Among these issues are the nature of developmental change, the importance of critical periods, lifespan approaches versus the more focused approaches, and the nature-nurture issue.

- **Continuous change versus discontinuous change:** In continuous change, developmental change is gradual, with achievements at one level building on those of previous levels. In contrast, discontinuous change occurs in distinct stages or steps. Each stage brings about behaviour that is assumed to be qualitatively different from behaviour at earlier stages.
- A **critical period** is a specific time during development when a particular event has its greatest consequences. Critical periods occur

when the presence of certain kinds of environmental stimuli are necessary for development to proceed normally.

- **Lifespan approaches versus a focus on a particular period:** Developmentalists now believe the entire lifespan is important, for several reasons. One is the discovery that developmental growth and change continue during every part of life. Furthermore, to understand fully the social influences on people of a given age, we need to understand the people who are, in large measure, providing those influences. For instance, to understand development in infants, we need to unravel the effects of their parents' ages on the social environment.
- **Nature versus nurture:** One of the enduring questions of development involves how much of people's behaviour is due to their genetically-determined nature and how much is due to nurture, the physical and social environment in which a child is raised. In this context, **nature** refers to traits, abilities and capacities that are inherited from one's parents. Nature encompasses any factor that is produced by the predetermined unfolding of genetic information - a process known as maturation. These genetic, inherited influences are at work as we move from the one-celled organism that is created at the moment of conception to the billions of cells that make up a fully-formed human being. In contrast **nurture** refers to the environmental influences that shape behaviour. Some of these influences may be biological, such as the impact of a pregnant mother's substance abuse on the fetus, or the amount and kind of food available to children. Other environmental influences are more social, such as the ways parents discipline their children and the effects of peer pressure on adolescents (Feldman, 2000, p. 10).

How would each of the six theoretical perspectives explain prenatal development?

Lifespan development has produced a number of broad conceptual perspectives representing different approaches to development. Each broad perspective encompasses a number of theories, explanations and predictions concerning phenomena of interest. A theory provides a framework for understanding the relationships among an organized set of principles or facts. The six major theoretical perspectives include:

- **Psychodynamic Perspective: Focusing on the inner person.** Rooted in Freud's theory, the psychodynamic approach maintains that all

behaviour and mental processes reflect the constant and mostly unconscious psychological struggles that rage silently within each person. Usually, these struggles involve conflict between the impulse to satisfy instincts or wishes and the need to play by the rules in society. Anxiety, depression and other disorders are outward signs of this inner turmoil (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).

- **The Behavioural Perspective: Considering the outer person.** As founded by John Watson, the behavioural approach views behaviour and mental processes as primarily the result of learning. Psychologists who take this approach see rewards and punishment acting on the raw materials provided by genes, evolution and biology to shape each individual. So, whether considering a person's aggression or drug abuse, behaviourists would look at that person's learning history. Since people learn problem behaviours, they can also learn to change or even prevent them by unlearning old habits and developing new ones (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).
- **The Cognitive Perspective: Examining the roots of understanding.** The cognitive perspective focuses on how people take in, mentally represent and store information. Cognitive psychologists then relate perception and information processing to patterns of behaviour. They study such areas as decision-making, problem-solving, interpersonal attraction and intelligence. Aggression, for instance, might be viewed as a result of poor problem solving (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).
- **The Humanistic Perspective: Concentrating on the unique qualities of human beings.** According to the humanistic approach, our capacity to choose how to think and act determines our behaviour. Each person's unique perceptions – not instincts, cognitive processes, or rewards and punishments – dictate the choices made. Humanistic psychologists believe that people are essentially good, that they are in control of themselves, and that they seek to grow toward their highest potential (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 12).
- **The Evolutionary Perspective: Focusing on biology as the determinant of development.** Darwin's ideas on evolution and adaptation of species laid the foundation for the evolutionary approach. The evolutionary approach to psychology holds that the behaviour of animals and humans today is the result of evolution through natural selection. Psychologists who

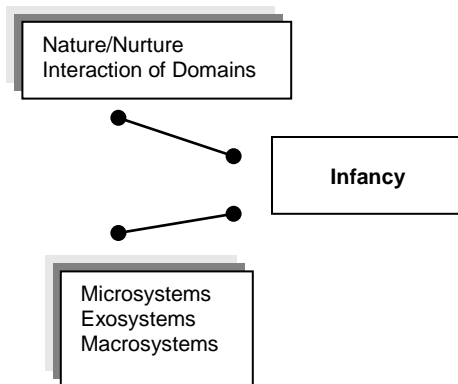
follow this approach are concerned with the adaptive value of behaviour, the anatomy and biology that make it possible and the environmental conditions that encourage or discourage it (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).

- **The Sociocultural Perspective: Emphasizing the systems of support.** Calling attention to the external influences on human behaviour such as the physical surroundings and social interactions that provide incentives, opportunities and pathways for growth, Urie Bronfenbrenner (1979) began to emphasize the ecological approach to the study of human development. In Bronfenbrenner's application of this concept, human ecosystems include both the physical environment (the climate, the space per person, that arrangement of the dwelling) and the social environment (the people, the culture, the economy) (Berger, 2000, p. 4).

Unit Three: Infancy

Concept Web

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Unit Overview

We begin our inquiry into the nature of the developmental process by considering the many issues in the developmental period from birth to age two, typically referred to as infancy. Using our conceptual organizers of the relative influences of nature and the environment, as well as the interaction of the biological, cognitive, and socioemotional domains of development, we examine the process of developmental change from the perspective of the newborn child. Then using Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Model as the conceptual organizer, we consider the developmental process from the perspective of the systems of support that promote and nurture healthy development.

Unit Objectives

Knowledge

- To understand biological changes during infancy.
- To understand cognitive changes during infancy.
- To understand socioemotional changes during infancy.
- To understand the issues, challenges and support systems from the perspectives of the micro-, exo-, and macrosystems of support (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

Skills

- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings by making connections with existing knowledge and understandings.
- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings within the discipline of psychology.
- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings with other disciplines.
- To apply those concepts and understandings in a variety of practical, pertinent, and contemporary issues.

Values

- To appreciate the complex, dynamic, reciprocal and personal aspects of human development across the lifespan.

Lessons and Lesson Objectives

- 3.1 Unit Overview: Developmental changes during infancy
 - What roles do nature and nurture play in the development of an infant?
 - How do the various domains influence development during infancy?
 - What are the sociocultural influences on human development?
- 3.2 Looking through the eyes of the infant, what do you see?
 - What is the process of physical development during infancy?
 - What is the process of cognitive development during infancy?
 - What is the process of socioemotional development during infancy?
- 3.3 What is the process of physical development during infancy?
 - What are the innate capacities of a newborn child?
 - What is the process of physical development during infancy?
 - What influence does nutrition play in the healthy development of the infant?
 - What is Sudden Infant Death Syndrome (SIDS), why does it occur and what measures can be taken to prevent it?
- 3.4 What is the process of cognitive development during infancy?
 - How do the infant's sensory and perceptual systems develop?
 - What is the process of cognitive development during infancy?
 - How do infants learn to speak and understand a language?

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- 3.5 What is the process of socioemotional development during infancy?
- What social skills and emotional expressions does the infant develop?
 - What are the best ways to help the infant develop socially and emotionally?
 - Does birth order make a difference in the socioemotional development of the infant?
 - What is the role of play in the socioemotional development of the infant?
- 3.5.1 Temperament and the beginnings of personality
- What do temperament and personality mean?
 - What are the basic temperaments of newborn babies?
 - How do different infant temperaments influence parenting?
 - What emotions do infants display?
- 3.5.2 Early socialization
- What is attachment?
 - How does attachment develop in infants?
 - What are the types of attachments that infants form with their caregivers?
 - What are the short- and long-term effects of social deprivation?
 - What are the short- and long-term effects of social privation?
- 3.6 Looking through the eyes of the systems of supports, what do you see?
- How does the sociocultural context influence the development of an unborn child?
- 3.7 Action research in infant development
- Should the federal government enforce financial support from both parents?
 - What is Sudden Infant Death Syndrome; what do specialists recommend to protect your infant?
 - Should the state intervene in cases of infant abuse and neglect?
 - Should parenting courses be mandatory for all parents?
 - Should the state provide financial support for single parents?
 - Are there gender differences in parenting styles?
 - What are the play and early socialization behaviours of infants?
 - Are there basic temperaments and personality types in infants?
- What are the father's roles, rights and responsibilities in parenting?
 - What are the various parental discipline techniques?
 - Why does an infant attach to objects such as blankets and soothers?
 - What is the process of language development in infants?
 - How do play behaviours of infants change with or without adults present?
 - Are there differences in separation anxiety and fear of strangers between the genders?
 - Does birth order make a difference in terms of temperaments in infants?
 - Interview daycare or nursery workers:
 - What are the differences between the genders?
 - How do infants develop self-identity?
 - What is the importance of early intervention on learning?
 - How do infants demonstrate attachment and separation anxiety behaviours?
 - Toy design and function:
 - Are there gender differences in toy preferences?
 - What aspects of cognitive development are promoted in toys for infants?
 - How do infant toys promote socialization?
- 3.8 Lifespan approach to development during infancy
- How is infant development described from the perspective of the lifespan approach?
 - How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to infant development?
 - How would each of the six theoretical perspectives on human development explain infant development?

Resources and Resource-Based Learning

Resource-based learning is an integral part of all units. The accompanying bibliography will assist you in incorporating a variety of resources from different media into each unit. This annotated bibliography should be available from your teacher librarian. It is available from Saskatchewan Learning through the website at www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/ or from the Learning Resources Distribution Centre at 306-787-5987.

The bibliography contains annotations of current, useful resources including print, video, Internet sites, and other media selections. Teachers are encouraged to assess their current resource collection, identify those resources that are still useful, and acquire small quantities of each new title, rather than class sets, in order to provide students with a broad range of perspectives and information.

The following list of evaluated resource titles provides a **starting point** for developing a resource collection that is current and relevant, and that addresses students' various learning styles and abilities. **Please refer to the bibliography for a complete list of resources giving the full citation, annotation, and ordering information.** Please note that many of these resources can be ordered through the **Learning Resources Distribution Centre** (<http://lrdc.sasked.gov.sk.ca/>). Videos may be available from **Media Group** (<http://www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/video>). **At the time of publication all of the resources listed here and in the bibliography were in print and available.**

Please note that LRDC will be closing effective March 31, 2003. If you need assistance acquiring Saskatchewan Learning materials after that date, please contact 787-5987.

Print Resources

A to Z of Child Development: From Birth to Five Years
Child Development
Readings in Child Development: A Canadian Perspective
Youngest Minds: Parenting and Genes in the Development of Intellect and Emotion

Non-Print Resources

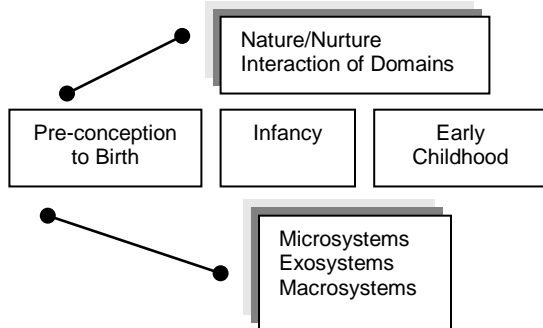
First Years Last Forever
Language Development
Shaping Youngest Minds: How to Grow a Brain
Simple Beginnings? Child Development From Birth to Age Five
Welcome to Parenting: The First Six Years

Internet Sites

The following sites provide a brief overview of what is available. These sites were checked for availability in March 2002. To access sites that have been formally evaluated and linked to the curriculum visit the Evergreen Curriculum at the Saskatchewan Learning website - <http://www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/docs/evergrn.html>.

Aboriginal Head Start - Health Canada - <http://www.hc-sc.gc.ca/hppb/childhood-youth/acy/ahs.htm>
Baby Centre - <http://www.babycenter.com/>
Childcare Resource and Research Unit - <http://www.childcarecanada.org>
I am Your Child - <http://www.iamyourchild.org/toc.html>
Saskatchewan Institute on Prevention of Handicaps - <http://www.preventioninstitute.sk.ca>
Zero to Three's - <http://www.zerotothree.org>

3.1 Unit Overview: Infancy



Using our conceptual organizers of the relative influences of nature and the environment, as well as the interaction of the biological, cognitive and socioemotional domains of development, this lesson examines the process of developmental change during infancy.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What roles do nature and nurture play in the development of an infant?
- How do the various domains influence development during infancy?
- What are the sociocultural influences on human development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Nature/nurture and infant development
 - Using the template *Nature/Nurture and Child Development* as a conceptual organizer, discuss with the students those aspects of human development that might be attributed exclusively to either purely hereditary or inherited factors (intelligence, language development, motor skill development, temperament and personality, skin colour, hair colour, length, and weight), and those aspects which are a result of environmental influence (cognitive development, social development, etc.).
- Discussion: Systems of support for infant development
 - Using the template *The Ecological Model* discuss how each of the levels influences development. Identify specific influences, programs, support services, people and places that influence child development. Discuss the relative nature of the influences in terms of the degree of influence, in other words, is the microsystem level more important than the macrosystem level? Discuss also the specific support systems that might exist in your local community, town, or region that parents could access.
- Discussion: Infant development
 - Review the three aspects of development to be studied; physical, cognitive, and socioemotional. Discuss how the three aspects interact to support development, for example, gross and fine motor skills (physical) with thinking and memory (cognitive) and temperament (socioemotional) in play situations.
- Discussion: Infant development
 - Review the larger developmental tasks for each of the three aspects:
 - Physical: sitting to walking, gross and fine motor control
 - Cognitive: language development, memory, competency, and skill development
 - Socioemotional: emotions, socialization, play, beginnings of personality, and gender identity.

Making Connections

- *Ages and Stages*: Introduction to developmental psychology
 - “Research methodologies in psychology”
 - “Issues in the Methods and Ethics of Research”

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model
- Curriculum Support Materials: Permission to Conduct Research Form

Lesson 3.1: Teacher Information

What roles do nature and nurture play in the development of an infant?

Discuss with the students those aspects of infant development that might belong exclusively to either purely hereditary or inherited factors (reflexes, skin colour, hair colour, length, weight) and those aspects which are a result of environmental influence (birth defects, birth weight, etc.).

How do the various domains influence development during infancy?

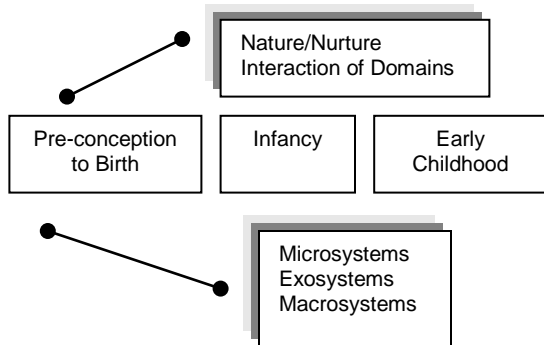
Review the larger developmental tasks for each of the three aspects:

- Physical: crawling to walking
- Cognitive: language development
- Socioemotional: emotions, socialization, attachment, and independence, beginnings of personality.

What are the sociocultural influences on human development?

Using the template The Ecological Model, discuss how each of the levels influences infant development. Identify specific influences, programs, support services, people and places that influence infant development. Discuss the relative nature of the influences in terms of the degree of influence, in other words, is the microsystem level more important than the macrosystem level? Discuss also the specific support systems that might exist in your local community, town, or region that parents could access.

3.2 Looking through the eyes of the infant



This overview lesson addresses the three major aspects of infancy: the physical development process including motor skills, the cognitive aspect including language development, and the socioemotional aspects including the beginnings of temperament and personality.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What is the process of physical development during infancy?
- What is the process of cognitive development during infancy?
- What is the process of socioemotional development during infancy?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Jigsaw: Infant development
 - Presented in a tabular format, this article provides an overview of all three aspects of the developmental process during infancy.
 - Prepare a presentation on one aspect of infant development. Presentation formats might include a three-panel display, poster or PowerPoint presentation.
- Discussion: The wild boy of Aveyron
 - Based on the article “The Wild Boy of Aveyron” in the *Ages and Stages* journal, have the students discuss what aspects of infant development were demonstrated or delayed/missing in the wild boy.
- Research: Infant development
 - This unit lends itself to many opportunities for action research, particularly observational and field study research.
 - In addition to reviewing the research process, teachers are also advised to introduce a variety of information gathering techniques including the use of audio and video recording.
 - A variety of presentation formats are also encouraged, including posters, three-panel displays, role plays and simulations, computer-based presentation software (PowerPoint), etc.

Making Connections

- Personality development
- Parenting
- Prenatal development, early childhood development

Resources

- *Ages and Stages*: “Ages and Stages, Infancy”
- *Ages and Stages*: Introduction to Developmental Psychology: “The Wild Boy of Aveyron”
- Curriculum Support Materials: PsychQuest: Infancy

Lesson 3.2: Teacher Information

What is the process of physical development during infancy?

The rapid growth that occurs in the early weeks and months after birth is quite extraordinary and mirrors embryonic development in important ways. A newborn's head is about one-fourth of its body length; a two-year-old's head is only one-fifth of its body length. This pattern of growth is called the cephalocaudal trend. Another growth pattern, the proximodistal trend, has growth moving from the centre (proximal part) of the body outward (to the more "distant" extremities). That is, the head and torso grow before the arms, legs, hands, and feet do (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 339).

What is the process of cognitive development during infancy?

The information processing, or individual differences perspective does not describe infantile cognition in a series of steps or stages, rather this perspective emphasizes the importance of cognitive processes such as attention, memory and thinking. A considerable portion of infants' knowledge of the world is built upon their developing perceptual skills. Essential to this cognitive construction of mental schemas are several key cognitive abilities:

- **Categorization:** Infants younger than six months can categorize objects on the basis of their shape, colour, angularity, location (above, below), density, relative size, and number (up to three objects). Experience becomes especially significant when we observe that as infants get older, they categorize in increasingly complex ways.
- **Object and perceptual constancy** is the realization that things remain what they are despite changes in the perspective of the viewer or the appearance of the object. Even though vision is the least developed sense at birth, by the age of three months infants are able to distinguish the boundaries of separate three-dimensional objects. This ability persists even when the objects are in motion. Further, infants quickly develop the awareness that the size and shape of an object remain the same despite changes in the object's appearance due to changes in its location.
- **Object permanence** is the ability to understand that objects and people exist independently of one's perception of them. Objects do not cease to exist simply because they are not immediately apparent. Infants' ability to understand and even anticipate events, as well as to act

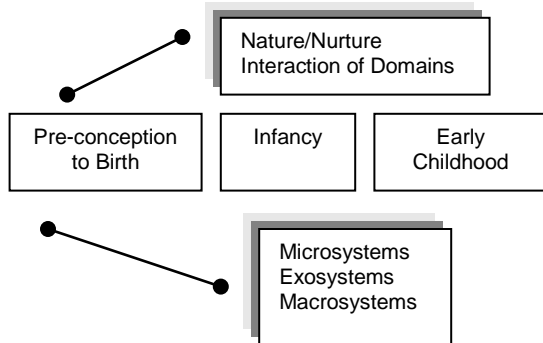
effectively in the world, hinges on the capacity to identify cause and effect. An understanding of cause and effect relationships is basic to problem-solving ability, which explains why infants first demonstrate simple deductive skills as their cause-effect awareness is blossoming.

- **Memory** is central to the development of all cognitive abilities. In their first six months, babies have great difficulty storing new memories; however, they can remember providing that (1) the situations are real to life, (2) motivation is high and (3) reminder sessions occur (an association that serves as a reminder to stimulate memory). After they are six months old infants become capable of retaining information for longer periods of time and they can do so with less training and reminding. Toward the end of the first year a new memory ability is apparent: deferred imitation or the ability to remember and imitate behaviours that have been witnessed but never personally performed. By the end of the second year toddlers can now generalize their memories, moving from the particular details to the general concept just as they did with affordances and categories several months earlier (Berger, 2000, pp. 180-188).

What is the process of socioemotional development during infancy?

The infancy stage is characterized by rapid growth and development, most particularly in the socioemotional aspect. Some theorists suggest that the early socialization skills and trends that emerge in infancy serve as the basis for all social development for the rest of the lifespan.

3.3 Infant Development: Physical domain



This lesson considers the many aspects of healthy human development from birth until the age of two years. There is some overlap here both with cognitive as well as socioemotional development that could be noted.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What are the innate capacities of the newborn child?
- How does the brain develop during infancy?
- What is the process of physical development during infancy?
- How does the infant develop gross and fine motor skills?
- What influence does nutrition play in the healthy development of the infant?
- What is Sudden Infant Death Syndrome (SIDS), why does it occur and what measures can be taken to prevent it?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Activity: Infant physical development
 - Using the article, categorize the physical development of the infant into the following aspects: cephalocaudal trend, proximodistal trend, brain, sensory, perceptual, gross motor skills, fine motor skills, cognitive, and socioemotional.
- Dialectical Reasoning: The state should intervene in cases of parental abuse or neglect. Key to building resiliency in children is the development of a secure attachment, during the first twelve to eighteen months of life, to at least one primary caregiver, and the ability of caregivers to meet the child’s developmental needs.
 - Thesis: Given the critical nature of attachment the state should intervene in cases of parental neglect.
 - Antithesis: No one has the right to remove the rights and responsibilities of parents.
- Research: The Saskatchewan Institute on Prevention of Handicaps
 - What are the programs and services offered?
 - What resources are available?
- Research: Gender differences in parenting
 - Physical perspective: Do male and female parents interact differently with infants in terms of their physical interaction?
- Discussion/Activity: Brain development, competency and coping skills
 - Refer to Dr. Bryan Kolb’s article in the *Ages and Stages* journal.
 - What are the implications of Dr. Kolb’s research in terms of the healthy development of infants?

Making Connections

- Research: Breast- versus bottle-feeding
 - What does research say about the relative merits of breast-feeding versus bottle-feeding of infants?

Resources

- *Ages and Stages*: “Ages and Stages: Infancy”
- *Ages and Stages*: “Brain Development, Competency and Coping Skills”

Lesson 3.3: Teacher Information

What are the innate capacities of the newborn child?

Newborns have dozens of reflexes. Three sets of reflexes that are critical for survival and become stronger as the baby matures are:

- Reflexes that maintain oxygen supply: The breathing reflex begins in normal newborns even before the umbilical cord, with its supply of oxygen, is cut. Additional reflexes that maintain oxygen are reflexive hiccups, sneezes, and thrashing to escape something that covers the face.
- Reflexes that maintain constant body temperature: When infants are cold, they cry, shiver, and tuck in their legs close to their bodies; when they are hot, they try to push away blankets and then stay still.
- Reflexes that manage feeding: The sucking reflex, the rooting reflex, swallowing, and spitting up are all reflex actions that assist in getting nutrition (Berger, 2000, p. 149).

Fantz and other researchers confirm that human infants prefer faces to abstract shapes, complex visual fields over simple ones, and curved patterns over faces with mixed-up features. Even in the first few months of life, babies can discriminate among facial features and prefer attractive faces to less attractive faces. Newborns look at pictures of their parents more than at pictures of strangers. Babies as young as three months can discern a caregiver's shift of attention by observing the caregiver's eyes and then shift their own attention to the same object or event. In sum, newborns enter the world with the ability to experience, respond to and learn from the environment. The sensory systems of newborns are well formed but still developing; their development is very much shaped by experience, which ultimately alters the brain connections permanently (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 341).

What is the process of physical development during infancy?

The rapid growth that occurs in the early weeks and months after birth is quite extraordinary and mirrors embryonic development in important ways. A newborn's head is about one-fourth of its body length; a two-year-old's head is only one-fifth of its body length. This pattern of growth is called the cephalocaudal trend. Another growth pattern, the proximodistal trend, has growth moving from the centre (proximal part) of the body outward (to the

more "distant" extremities). That is, the head and torso grow before the arms, legs, hands, and feet do (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 339).

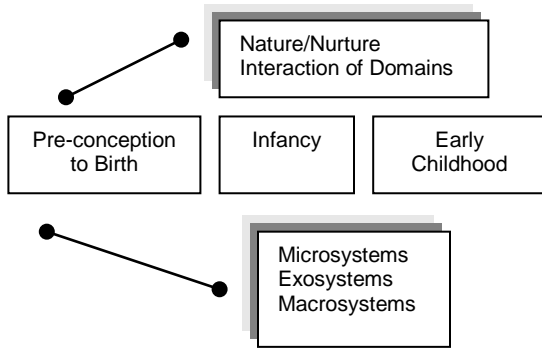
What influence does nutrition play in the developmental process?

The importance of adequate energy and nutrient intake, consumed in a loving and supportive environment, during the infant years cannot be overstated. From birth to one year of age, human infants triple their weight and increase their length by 50 percent. Nutritionists recommend that infants consume approximately 100 calories per day for each kilogram they weigh, more than twice an adult's requirement per pound (Santrock, 1999, p. 123).

What is Sudden Infant Death Syndrome (SIDS), why does it occur and what measures can be taken to prevent it?

Sudden Infant Death Syndrome typically kills infants who are at least two months old and seemingly completely healthy, already gaining weight, learning to shake a rattle, starting to roll over, and smiling at their caregivers. In the United States SIDS is the third leading cause of death. Each year more than 3 000 babies in the United States go to sleep and never wake up victims of a sudden failure to breathe. The term 'sudden infant death' is more a description after the fact than a diagnosis of cause. Despite decades of research the root cause of SIDS is still unknown. In all probability, SIDS results from a combination of factors (characteristics of the mother, characteristics of birth, situation at death, and sleeping conditions) and each factor adds slightly to the overall risk for certain infants who, for unknown genetic reasons, are vulnerable. Recently one critical factor in SIDS has been discovered: SIDS is less likely to occur when healthy infants sleep on their backs than when they sleep on their stomachs (Baron et al., 1998, p. 552).

3.4 Infant Development: Cognitive domain



This lesson addresses the cognitive aspects of the infant’s development, including sensory systems, perceptual abilities and skills, as well as the development of language capabilities.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How do the infant's sensory and perceptual systems develop?
- What is the process of cognitive development during infancy?
- How do infants learn to speak and understand a language?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Activity: Infant cognitive development
 - Using the article “Ages and Stages: Infancy”, categorize the cognitive development of the infant into the following aspects: sensory, perceptual, memory, language, thinking, cognitive abilities (categorization, constancy, permanence, cause, and effect) sensorimotor intelligence (Piaget), physical, and socioemotional.
- Discussion: Cognitive development and caregiving
 - Ideas for caregivers. What are some of the tips mentioned that would promote cognitive development? Any missing? Would you add some?
- Discussion/Activity: Brain development, competency and coping skills
 - Refer to Dr. Bryan Kolb’s article in the *Ages and Stages* journal.
 - What are the implications of Dr. Kolb’s research in terms of the cognitive development of infants?
- Dialectical Reasoning: Universal nursery and daycare programs. Good affordable daycare (mainly good support for parents, particularly mothers and their children) or early childhood education for all sectors of society is a key for a future learning society.
 - Thesis: Based on the cost benefits to society, nursery, and daycare programs should be free and available to all.
 - Antithesis: Parents should be held accountable and responsible for the raising of their children, not the state.
- Research: Cognitive development of infants
 - Design and conduct a research study investigating the Piagetian stages of cognitive developmental processes in infants.
 - Language development
- Research: Toys and cognitive development
 - What toys are most appropriate for infant cognitive development?
 - What toys do children of different ages prefer? How much do these toys cost?
 - Design your own toy.

Making Connections

- Try to teach a new language to someone. How do you begin to make yourself understood? How do you teach the meanings of abstractions, for example, like, want, need, love, and hunger?

Resources

- *Ages and Stages*: “Ages and Stages: Infancy”
- *Ages and Stages*: “Brain Development, Competency and Coping Skills”

Lesson 3.4: Teacher Information

How do the infant's sensory and perceptual systems develop?

The newborn's world is not a blooming, buzzing confusion. Newborns can see and may be able to differentiate red and white, but an adult-like colour system does not appear until two months of age. Infants only two days old looked longer at patterned stimuli, such as faces, than at single-colour discs. All three perceptual constancies such as size, shape and brightness are present in infants by three months of age. Infants as young as six months have depth perception. Infants develop expectations about future events in their world by the time they are three months of age (Santrock, 1999, p. 136).

What is the process of cognitive development during infancy?

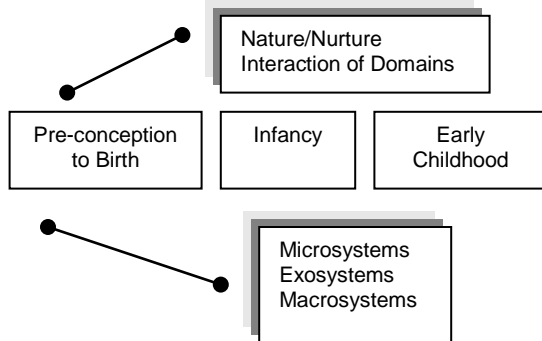
According to Piaget, sensorimotor intelligence develops through six, successive stages, each characterized by a somewhat different way of understanding the world:

- Stage One (birth to 1 month) Reflexes – sucking, grasping, staring, listening
- Stage Two (1–4 months) Acquired adaptations – assimilation and coordination of reflexes
- Stage Three (4–8 months) Awareness of things – responding to people and objects
- Stage Four (8–12 months) New adaptation and anticipation
- Stage Five (12–18 months) Active experimentation
- Stage Six (18–24 months) Mental combinations – considering before acting.

How do infants learn to speak and understand a language?

Among the milestones in infant language development are babbling (six to nine months), first words understood (six to nine months), the growth of receptive language (reaches 300 or more words by age two), and the growth of spoken vocabulary (reaches 200-275 words) by age two. An infant's first words characteristically are holophrastic (a single word can be used to imply a complete sentence); at about 18 to 24 months, infants speak in two-word utterances (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 286).

3.5 Infant Development: Socioemotional domain



The infancy stage is characterized by rapid growth and development, most particularly in the socioemotional aspect. Indeed, some theorists suggest that the early socialization skills and trends that emerge in infancy serve as the basis for all social development for the rest of the lifespan.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What social skills and emotional expressions does the infant develop?
- What are the best ways to help the infant develop socially and emotionally?
- Does birth order make a difference in the socioemotional development of the infant?
- What is the role of play in the socioemotional development of the infant?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Activity: Infant socioemotional development
 - Using the article, categorize the socioemotional development of the infant into the following aspects: social skills, emotions, self-awareness, language, attachment, trust and autonomy (Erikson), temperament and personality, physical, cognitive.
- Discussion: Gender differences in interacting with infants (males/females)
 - From the socioemotional perspective, are there gender differences in child rearing?
 - From a cross-cultural perspective, describe the variety of roles that males and females play in raising children.
- Research: Language development
 - Design and conduct a research study into language development of infants.
 - Refer to Brown's stages of language development (Topic 4.4 Early Childhood Development: Cognitive Domain) for more information regarding language development.
- Research: Play
 - If the opportunity presents itself (babysitting, nursery or daycare), students could use the basic types of play as described in the Teacher Information section, as the basis for observational research into the stages or types of play during infancy.
 - Are there gender differences in the play behaviours of infants?

Making Connections

- Terrible Two's
 - Why are two-year-olds referred to as "terrible"?
- Biographical research: William Lishman, Father Goose
 - Who is Bill Lishman, why is he known as "Father Goose", and what has Lishman's career got to do with human developmental psychology?

Resources

- *Ages and Stages*: "Ages and Stages: Infancy"
- *Ages and Stages*, "The Child care partnership: Managing and monitoring your child care"
- Key Questions and Teacher Information: Biographical Research: William Lishman, Father Goose
- Website for birth order: <http://babyparenting.about.com/cs/birthorder>

Lesson 3.5: Teacher Information

What social skills and emotional expressions does the infant develop?

The infancy stage is characterized by rapid growth and development, most particularly in the socioemotional aspect. Indeed, some theorists suggest that the early socialization skills and trends that emerge in infancy serve as the basis for all social development for the rest of the life span.

What are the best ways to help the infant develop socially and emotionally?

What are the best ways to help the infant develop socioemotional competencies? They include the following:

- *Develop a secure attachment with the infant.* Infants need the warmth and support of one or more caregivers. The caregiver(s) should be sensitive to the infant's signals and respond in a nurturing manner.
- *Be sure that both the mother and the father nurture the infant.* Infants develop best when both the mother and the father provide warm, nurturant support. Fathers need to seriously evaluate their responsibility in raising a competent infant.
- *Select competent daycare.* If the infant will be placed in daycare, spend time evaluating

different options. Be sure the infant – caregiver ratio is low. Also assess whether the adults enjoy and know how to interact with infants. Determine whether the facility is safe and provides stimulating activities (See *Ages and Stages*, “The Child Care Partnership: Managing and Monitoring Your Child Care” for additional information).

- *Understand and respect the infant's temperament.* Be sensitive to the individual characteristics of each child. It may be necessary to provide extra support for distress-prone infants, for example. Avoid negative labeling of the infant.
- *Adapt to developmental changes in the infant.* The 18-month-old toddler is very different from the six-month-old infant. Be knowledgeable about how infants develop and adapt to the changing infant. Let toddlers explore a wider, but safe, environment.
- *Be physically and mentally healthy.* Infants' socioemotional development benefits when their caregivers are mentally and physically healthy. For example, a depressed parent might not sensitively respond to the infant's signals.
- *Read a good book on infant development* (Santrock, 1999, p. 186).

Does birth order make a difference in the socioemotional development of the infant?

POSITION	FAMILY SITUATION	CHILD'S CHARACTERISTICS
ONLY	Birth is a miracle. Parents have no previous experience. Retains 200 percent attention of both parents. May become rival of one parent. Can be overprotected and spoiled.	Likes being the centre of adult attention. Often has difficulty sharing with siblings and peers. Prefers adult company and uses adult language.
OLDEST	Dethroned by next child. Has to learn to share. Parent expectations are usually very high. Often given responsibility and expected to set an example.	May become authoritarian or strict. Feels power is his right. Can become helpful if encouraged. May turn to father after birth of next child.
SECOND	She has a pacemaker. There is always someone ahead.	Is more competitive, wants to overtake older child. May become a rebel or try to outdo everyone. Competition can deteriorate into rivalry.
MIDDLE	Is “sandwiched” in. May feel squeezed out of a position of privilege and significance.	May be even-tempered, “take it or leave it” attitude. May have trouble finding a place or become a fighter of injustice.
YOUNGEST	Has many mothers and fathers. Older children try to educate her. Never dethroned.	Wants to be bigger than the others. May have huge plans that never work out. Can stay the “baby.” Frequently spoiled.
TWIN	One is usually stronger or more active. Parents may see one as the older.	Can have identity problems. Stronger one may become the leader.

"GHOST CHILD"	Child born after the death of the first child may have a "ghost" in front of him. Mother may become overprotective.	Child may exploit mother's overconcern for his/her well being, or may rebel, and protest the feeling of being compared to an idealized memory.
ADOPTED CHILD	Parents may be so thankful to have a child that they spoil him/her. They may try to compensate for the loss of his/her biological parents.	Child may become very spoiled and demanding. Eventually, he/she may resent or idealize the biological parents.
ONLY BOY AMONG GIRLS	Usually with women all the time, if father is away.	May try to prove he is the man in the family or become effeminate.
ONLY GIRL AMONG BOYS	Older brothers may act as her protectors.	Can become very feminine or a tomboy and outdo the brothers. May try to please the father.
ALL BOYS	If mother wanted a girl, can be dressed as a girl.	Child may capitalize on assigned role or protest it vigorously.
ALL GIRLS	May be dressed as a boy.	Child may capitalize on assigned role or protest it vigorously.

General Notes

1. The psychological situation of each child in the family is different.
2. The child's opinion of self and his/her situation determines his/her choice of attitude.
3. If more than three years separate children, subgroups of birth order may form.
4. A child's birth order position may be seized by another child if circumstances permit.
5. Competition may be expressed in choice of interests or development of characteristics.
6. Birth order is sometimes not a major influence on personality development. The other potentially significant influences are: parental attitudes, social and economic position, and gender roles.
7. For more comprehensive information about birth order, read: *What Life Could Mean to You*, by Alfred Adler; *The Individual Psychology of Alfred Adler*, edited by Heinz and Rowena Ansbacher; and *Lydia Sicher: An Adlerian Perspective*, edited by Adele Davidson.
8. Adler speculated that birth order differences would begin to disappear when families became less competitive and autocratic, and more cooperative and democratic.

Source: Adlerian Overview of Birth Order Characteristics (Adlerian Institute, Henry T. Stein, Ph.D., permission to reproduce granted.)

Biographical Research: William Lishman, *Father Goose*

William Lishman is a well known Canadian sculptor who has executed a multitude of commissioned public works internationally over his 40 year career. His work is an eclectic mix, dominated by life-size creations of dynamically posed wildlife.

In the 1970s, Bill was one of Canada's pioneers in ultralight aviation. He was the first Canadian to foot-launch and land a powered rigid-wing aircraft. In the mid 1980s, Bill took advantage of the slow flight capabilities of his home-made aircraft and spent three years developing a technique to lead Canada geese in the air.

His first formation flights with the geese were documented in 1988 in his first film, "C'mon Geese," which won six international awards. In 1990, he repeated the aircraft led flights with a larger flock of geese. In 1993, joined by Toronto photographer Joseph Duff and working closely with doctor William Sladen from Airlie Virginia, Bill conducted the first aircraft led bird migration study, taking 18 Canada geese 400 miles from Ontario to Virginia. The success of this study was repeated again in 1994 and 1995, when Lishman and Duff led large flocks of geese almost 800 miles to the Tom Yawkey Wildlife preserve in South Carolina.

In 1995, Bill assisted in the making of Columbia Pictures hit film "Fly Away Home," which was directed by Carroll Ballard. Much of the film was inspired by Lishman's autobiography, "Father Goose," and many of the shots were re-makes of "C'mon Geese."

On September 15, 2000, Bill was awarded Canada's prestigious Meritorious Service Medal (MSM) for his first flights with geese. The president of Operation Migration Inc (OM) since it was cofounded with Duff in 1994, Bill has actively participated in three of OM's migration studies with Sandhill cranes over the past five years.

What is the role of play in the socioemotional development of the infant?

Play is pleasurable activity that is engaged in for its own sake. Play is essential to the young child's health. Play increases affiliation with peers, releases tension, advances cognitive development, increases exploration, and provides a safe haven in which to engage in potentially dangerous behaviour.

For Freud and Erikson, play is an essential useful form of human adjustment, helping the child master anxieties and conflicts. Because tensions are relieved in play, the child can cope with life's problems.

Piaget believes that play advances children's cognitive development. Play permits children to practise their competencies and acquired skills in a relaxed, pleasurable way.

Vygotsky also believes that play is an excellent setting for cognitive development, especially the symbolic and make-believe aspects of play, as when a child substitutes a stick for a horse and rides the stick as if it were a horse.

Daniel Berlyne (1960) described play as being exciting and pleasurable in itself because it satisfies the exploratory drive in each of us. This drive involves curiosity and a desire for information about something new or unusual. Play encourages this exploratory behaviour by offering children the possibilities of novelty, complexity, uncertainty, surprise, and incongruity (Santrock, 1999, p. 240).

Mildred Parten (1932) developed the following classification of children's play:

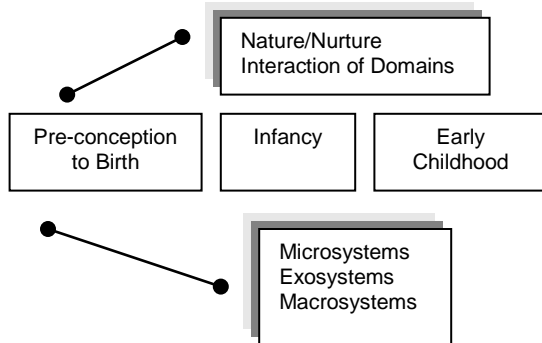
- *Unoccupied play* occurs when the child is not engaging in play as it is commonly understood. The child may stand in one spot, look around the room, or perform random movements that do not seem to have a goal.
- *Solitary play* occurs when the child plays alone and independently of others. Two- and three-year-olds engage more frequently in solitary play than older preschoolers do.
- *Onlooker play* occurs when the child watches other children play. The child's active interest in other children's play distinguishes onlooker play from unoccupied play.
- *Parallel play* occurs when the child plays separately from others, but with toys like those the others are using or in a manner that mimics their play.

- *Associative play* occurs when play involves social interaction with little or no organization. In this type of play children seem to be more interested in each other than in the tasks they are performing.
- *Cooperative play* involves social interaction in a group with a sense of group identity and organized activity. Little cooperative play is seen in the preschool years (Santrock, 1999, p. 241).

Whereas Parten's categories emphasize the role of play in the child's social world, the contemporary perspective on play emphasizes both the cognitive and social aspects of play.

- *Sensorimotor play* is behaviour engaged in by infants to derive pleasure from exercising their existing sensorimotor schemas. Infants initially engage in exploratory and playful visual and motor transactions in the second quarter of the first year of life. By nine months of age, infants begin to choose novel objects for exploration and play, especially objects that are responsive such as toys that make noise or bounce. By 12 months of age, infants enjoy making things work and exploring cause and effect. At this point in development, children like toys that perform when they act on them.
- *Pretense/Symbolic play*. Between nine and 30 months of age, children increase their use of objects in symbolic play. They learn to transform objects, substituting them for other objects and acting toward them as if they were these other objects. Dramatic play or "make-believe" often appears at about 18 months of age and reaches a peak at about four or five years of age, then gradually declines. In the second year, infants begin to understand the social meaning of objects. For example, two-year-olds may distinguish between exploratory play that is interesting but not humorous, and "playful" play which has incongruous and humorous dimensions.
- Social play is play that involves social interactions with peers. Parten's categories are oriented towards social play.
- Constructive play combines sensorimotor/practice repetitive play with symbolic representation of ideas. Constructive play occurs when children engage in self-regulated creation or construction of a product or a problem solution (Santrock, 1999, p. 241).

3.5.1 Temperament



This lesson focuses specifically on infant temperament, and the development of a unique personality, a sense of self, and gender identity.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What do temperament and personality mean?
- What are the basic temperaments of newborn babies?
- How do different infant temperaments influence parenting?
- What emotions do infants display?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Research: Temperament and birth order
 - Design and conduct a research study that investigates temperament and birth order differences in infants.
 - Are there basic temperaments of infants depending on their birth order?
- Discussion: Parenting is simple. Parenting = Sensitivity.
 - Based on Sanson and Rothbart's (1995) research into temperament and individuality, discuss with the students the basic premise that there is no recipe approach to parenting, that the key to effective parenting is sensitivity and responsiveness.
- Research: Temperament and emotions
 - If the opportunity exists (babysitting, nursery, daycare) students would be able to conduct field research into the development of temperament and personality.
 - Based on your observation, are there basic temperaments in infants? If so, what would those basic temperaments be? Compare and contrast the infant's basic temperament groups with those of extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness.
- Interview: Your basic temperament
 - Interview your parents to see if they remember your basic temperament as an infant. Were you active, fussy, alert and aware, quiet and reserved, shy and withdrawn, aggressive and inquisitive? Does your present personality have any relation to you as an infant? Can your mother remember if you were an active baby before you were born?

Making Connections

- Birth order and temperament
- Research: Basic temperaments and adolescent behaviours
 - Are there any connections between basic temperaments of infants and adolescent or adult behaviours?

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Emotions, Attitudes and Personality Traits

Lesson 3.5.1: Teacher Information

What do temperament and personality mean?

Researchers who study personality have found what are called the “big five” dimensions of temperament:

- *Extroversion*: the tendency to be outgoing, assertive, and active
- *Agreeableness*: the tendency to be kind, helpful, and easygoing
- *Conscientiousness*: the tendency to be organized, deliberate, and conforming
- *Neuroticism*: the tendency to be anxious, moody, and self-punishing
- *Openness*: the tendency to be imaginative, curious, artistic and welcoming of new experiences (Baron et al., 1998, p. 336).

What are the basic temperaments of newborn babies?

In terms of combinations of the basic temperaments of newborns, most young infants can be described as being one of three types: about 40 percent are easy, about 15 percent are slow to warm up, and about 10 percent are difficult (Berger, 2000, p. 221).

How do different infant temperaments influence parenting?

The following conclusions were recently reached by temperament experts Ann Sanson and Mary Rothbart (1995):

- *Attention to and respect for individuality*. An important implication of taking children’s individuality seriously is that it becomes difficult to generate prescriptions for “good parenting” other than possibly specifying that parents need to be sensitive and flexible. Parents need to be sensitive to the infant’s signals and needs. A goal of parenting may be accomplished in one way with one child, in another way with another child, depending on the child’s temperament characteristics. Individuality of temperament should always be considered rather than trying to fit all children into the same mold.
- *Structuring the child’s environment*. Crowded, noisy environments may pose greater problems for some children such as the “difficult” child, than for others. A fearful, withdrawing child might benefit from a slower entry into new contexts.

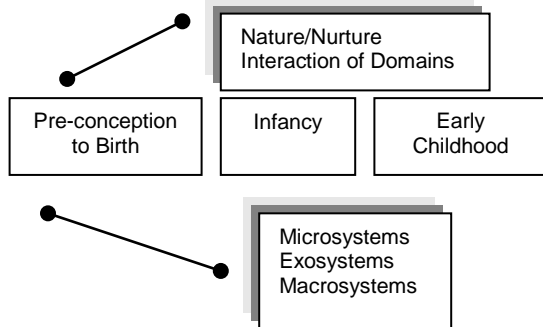
- The “difficult child” and packaged parenting programs. Acknowledgement that some children are harder to parent is often helpful and advice on how to handle particular difficult temperament characteristics can also be useful. However, weighted against these potential advantages are several disadvantages. Whether a particular characteristic is difficult depends on its fit with the environment, whereas the notion of difficult temperament suggests the problem rests solely with the child. To label a child “difficult” also has the danger of becoming a self-fulfilling prophecy. If a child is identified as “difficult”, the labeling may serve to maintain that categorization (Santrock, 1999, p. 181).

What emotions does an infant display?

Emotions are the first language that parents and infants communicate with before the infant acquires speech. Infants express some emotions earlier than others. Crying is the most important mechanism newborns have for communicating with their world. Babies do not have just one type of cry, they have three; the basic cry, the anger cry, and the pain cry. Smiling is another important communicative affective behaviour of the infant. Two types of smiling can be distinguished in infants, the reflexive smile (does not occur in response to external stimuli) and the social smile which typically emerges around four to six weeks in response to a face. Some other emotions, and their approximate time of emergence include:

- Anger, surprise, sadness – three to four months
- Fear – five to seven months
- Shame/shyness – six to eight months
- Contempt, guilt – two years (Santrock, 1999, p. 185).

3.5.2 Early Socialization



This lesson considers the critical aspect of attachment in terms of promoting healthy development as well as examining the effects that deprivation (short-term absence of the primary caregiver) and privation (permanent absence) have on socioemotional development.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What is attachment?
- How does attachment develop in infants?
- What are the types of attachments that infants form with their caregivers?
- What are the short- and long-term effects of social deprivation?
- What are the short- and long-term effects of social privation?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Research: Early socialization and gender
 - Design and conduct a research study investigating the gender differences in early socialization. Do boys socialize earlier than girls? Does the nature of the socialization differ between boys and girls? Does the nature of the interaction between the caregiver and the infant change depending on the gender of the infant?
- Discussion: The Wild Boy of Aveyron
 - Based on the *Ages and Stages* article, “The Wild Boy of Aveyron”, discuss what aspects of early socialization the ‘wild boy’ demonstrated or were developmentally delayed.
 - Is there a progression of socialization skills that infants must master so that proper socialization can develop in early childhood?
- Research: Working couples
 - Interview a couple with a young child regarding the issues, concerns, benefits, and challenges when both parents work.
- Research: Attachment and separation anxiety
 - Based on the types of attachments that infants make with their caregivers (refer to Teacher Information), students could use a nursery or daycare to see if the various types of attachments are demonstrated. If sufficient infants can be observed, do the percentages of attachment given correspond to the research sample?

Making Connections

- Research: Separation and child care facilities
 - Do daycare and nursery facilities aggravate the separation anxiety issue?
- Same sex parents: What are the implications for parenting and child rearing?
- Imprinting in animals
 - Research examples of imprinting, most notably the case study of Bill Lishman, a Canadian otherwise known as “Father Goose”, who taught Canada geese to migrate using an ultralight plane.

Resources

- Website dedicated to bird migrations using ultralight planes: <http://fathergoose.durham.net/>
- *Ages and Stages*: Introduction to Developmental Psychology, “The Wild Boy of Aveyron”

Lesson 3.5.2: Teacher Information

What is attachment?

Attachment is an intense emotional relationship that is specific to two people, that endures over time, and in which prolonged separation from the partner is accompanied by stress and sorrow. Whilst this definition applies to attachment formation at any point in the life cycle, our first attachment is crucial for healthy development since it acts as a prototype for all later relationships (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 328).

How does attachment develop in infants?

The attachment process can be divided into several phases:

- The first (preattachment phase) lasts until about three months of age. From about six weeks babies develop an attraction to other human beings in preference to inanimate environmental features. At about six weeks they engage in behaviours such as nestling, gurgling, and smiling which are directed to just about anyone (indeed, for this reason, smiling is referred to as social smiling).
- At about three months, infants begin to distinguish between people and can discriminate between familiar and unfamiliar people. Although the social smile disappears infants will allow strangers to handle and look after them without becoming noticeably distressed, providing the stranger gives adequate care. This indiscriminate attachment phase lasts until around seven months.
- From this time, infants begin to develop specific attachments and actively seek the proximity of certain people (particularly the mother). They become stressed when separated (separation anxiety). This discriminate attachment phase occurs when infants can reliably distinguish the mother from other people and have developed object permanence. At around seven or eight months infants avoid proximity with unfamiliar people and some, though not all, display a fear of strangers response which includes crying and/or trying to move away.
- From about nine months onwards infants become increasingly independent of the caregiver. This is called the multiple attachments phase and strong additional bonds are formed with other major caregivers such as the father, grandparents, siblings, and with other infants (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 329).

What are the types of attachments that infants form with their caregivers?

Infants display a strong innate tendency to become attached to one particular person (monotropy), and the attachment to the mother is qualitatively different from any subsequent attachments. However, there is little difference in how children form attachments to mothers and fathers, despite the latter's lack of bonding hormones. Although the infant's attachments vary in strength, multiple attachments seem to be the rule, and the mother is not always/necessarily the main attachment (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 330).

Ainsworth (1978) discovered that infants form one of three basic attachments to the caregiver. The crucial feature determining the quality of attachment is the caregiver's sensitivity, or the quality of response to the baby's needs. The sensitive caregiver sees things from the baby's perspective, correctly interprets its signals, responds to its needs, and is accepting, cooperative, and accessible. By contrast, the insensitive caregivers interact almost exclusively in terms of their own wishes, moods, and activities. Ainsworth's research indicated that sensitive caregivers have babies that are securely attached, whereas insensitive caregivers have insecurely attached babies. The insecurely attached babies were either anxious-avoidant or anxious-resistant.

Anxious-avoidant (15%)

Typical behaviour: Baby largely ignores caregiver. Play is little affected by whether caregiver is present or absent. No or few signs of distress when caregiver leaves and actively ignores or avoids caregiver on return. Distress is caused by being alone rather than being left by the caregiver. Can be as easily comforted by a stranger as by the caregiver. In fact, both adults are treated in a very similar way.

Securely attached (70%)

Typical behaviour: Baby plays happily while the caregiver is present, whether the stranger is present or not. Caregiver is largely 'ignored' because the baby trusts that care will be provided if needed. Clearly distressed when caregiver leaves and play is considerably reduced. Seeks immediate contact with caregiver on return, is quickly calmed down and resumes play. The distress is caused by the caregiver's absence, not being alone. Although the stranger can provide some comfort, stranger and caregiver are treated very differently.

Anxious-resistant (15%)

Typical behaviour: Baby is fussy and wary while the caregiver is present. Cries a lot more and explores much less than other two types and has difficulty in

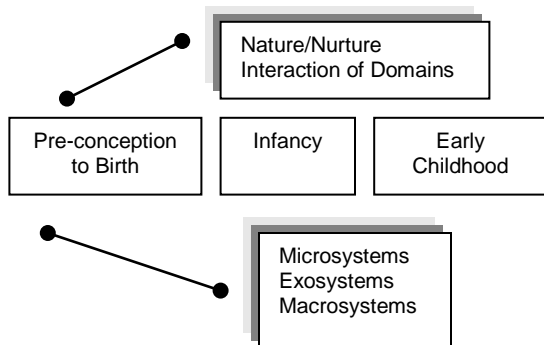
using caregiver as a safe base. Very distressed when caregiver leaves, seeks contact on return, but simultaneously shows anger and resists contact (may approach caregiver and reach out to be picked up, but then struggles to get down again). This demonstrates the baby's ambivalence towards the caregiver. Does not return readily to play. Actively resists stranger's efforts to make contact (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 330).

What are the short- and long-term effects of social deprivation?

Short-term separation is likely to be most distressing between the age of seven to eight months (when the infant has just formed an attachment) and three years, with the period between 12 and 18 months being associated with maximum distress. The child's ability to hold a mental image of the absent primary caregiver is one of the variables associated with age, as the child's limited understanding of language. Thus, because young children do not understand the meaning of phrases like 'in a few days' or 'next week', it is difficult to explain to them if the separation is only temporary. Although there are wide variations within the genders, boys are generally more distressed and vulnerable than girls. Additionally, and irrespective of gender, any behaviour problems such as aggressiveness, that existed before the separation are likely to be accentuated (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p.338).

What are the short- and long-term effects of social privation?

Privation is the failure to develop an attachment to any individual. In humans, it is usually (but not necessarily) associated with children reared in institutions, either from or shortly after birth. Victims of extreme privation show a clinical picture of deficits, including motor retardation, absent or very rudimentary vocal and symbolic language, grossly retarded perceptuomotor skills, poor emotional expression, lack of attachment behaviour, and social withdrawal. The early combination of profound language deficit and apathy/withdrawal from social contact, leads to special difficulties in developing a normal range and quality of relationships later on. However, whilst adverse early life experiences may have serious lasting effects on development in some circumstances, this is not universal or inevitable. In the absence of genetic or congenital abnormalities, victims of extreme privation have an excellent prognosis (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 338).



3.6 Looking through the eyes of the support systems ...

This lesson addresses the various roles and functions of the support systems that nurture and promote healthy development of the infant. If students come from a different culture, inviting them or their parents to share their experiences of parenting and child rearing would be most valuable.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How does the sociocultural context influence the development of an infant?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Parenting and child rearing from a cross-cultural perspective!
 - Using the information supplied by the *Ages and Stages* article, compare and contrast the cultural differences in child rearing and parenting between Nigeria and Saskatchewan.
- Research: The economics of parenting
 - What does it cost to raise an infant? What are the costs involved for clothing, diapers, food (other than breast-feeding), toys, cribs, strollers, car seats, and any other materials, services and needs associated with having a baby?
- Analysis: *Ages and Stages*, "Supporting Families and Children: Government of Canada Initiatives"
 - Based on a review of the *Ages and Stages* article, analyze the initiatives of the federal government. Are they adequate? Do they address the needs? Are there some aspects of infant child care that are not being addressed?
- *Ages and Stages*: "Factsheet: Early Childhood Development"
 - Using the factsheet provided, what are the national and political implications for working parents and the challenges for healthy infant and child development?
- Research: The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child
 - What did the UN declaration describe about the inherent rights of all children?
 - How does Canada measure up? Does The National Children's Agenda respond to the declaration?
- Dialectical Reasoning: The state should intervene in cases of parental abuse or neglect. Key to building resiliency in children is the development of a secure attachment, during the first twelve to eighteen months of life, to at least one primary caregiver, and the ability of caregivers to meet the child's developmental needs.
 - Thesis: Given the critical nature of attachment the state should intervene in cases of parental neglect.
 - Antithesis: No one has the right to remove the rights and responsibilities of parents.
- *Ages and Stages*, "The Child Care Partnership: Managing and Monitoring Your Child Care"
 - Based on the information provided in the article discuss the importance of carefully evaluating the quality of child care which is available to parents in your community.
 - From a different perspective. Design a manual or brochure that you would distribute to parents if you were operating a child care facility.

Resources

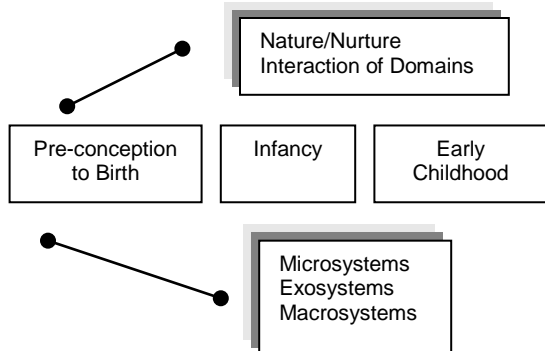
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model
- *Ages and Stages*: "Parenting and Child Rearing from a Cross-cultural Perspective!"

Lesson 3.6: Teacher Information

How does the sociocultural context influence the development of an infant?

In his Ecological Model, Urie Bronfenbrenner (1979) described three levels of influence that affect an individual through various processes. According to Bronfenbrenner each person is significantly affected by interactions among a number of overlapping ecosystems. At the center of the model is the individual. Microsystems are the systems that intimately and immediately shape human development. Interactions among the microsystems, as when parents and teachers coordinate their efforts to educate the child, take place through the mesosystem. Surrounding the microsystems is the exosystem, which includes all the external networks, such as community structures and local educational, medical, employment, and communications systems, that influence the microsystems. Influencing all other systems is the macrosystem, which includes cultural values, political philosophies, economic patterns, and social conditions. Together, these systems are termed the social context of human development (Berger, 2000, p. 5).

3.7 Issues for research in infant development



This lesson provides for the practical application of the skills and concepts learned in this unit by engaging the students in action research.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What are the issues and topics for research in infant development?

Suggested Research Methods

- Survey
- Naturalistic Observation
- Interview
- Experimental Research
- Case Study
- Topical

- **Review/Discussion: The scientific method of research**
 - Refer to the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials.
 - Review and discuss the steps in the scientific method of research:
 - Develop a research question
 - Describe the hypothesis
 - Select a research method
Observation Experiment Interview Case Study Survey Topical
 - Describe the process to be followed
 - Gather the data
 - Analyze the data
 - Report the findings, account for reliability and validity
 - State conclusions in relation to the hypothesis
- **Discussion: A comparison of research methods in the social sciences**
 - Using the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials, complete the comparison chart of research methods.
 - Invite students, or groups, to defend their choice of the most appropriate research method based on their chosen topic.
 - Discuss the many formats for presentation of the data and research findings. Depending on the topic chosen and the research method selected, presentation formats may include written reports, oral presentations, portfolios, role plays and drama activities, three-panel displays, posters, brochures, bulletin board displays, PowerPoint or other computer-based presentation software, web pages, etc.
- **Review/Discussion: Issues in social science research**
 - Using the six templates supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials (Frequently Asked Questions about interviews, surveys, case studies, observation, experiments and topical research methods), review and discuss the issues and methods for each individual or group research project.
- **Discussion: The research process**
 - Ensure that each individual or group research project has completed all documentation (The Scientific Method of Research, Permission to Conduct Research) before commencing the research.

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Scientific Method of Research
- Curriculum Support Materials: Permission to Conduct Research Form
- Curriculum Support Materials: A Comparison Chart For Research Methods
- Curriculum Support Materials: Frequently Asked Questions: Interviews, Surveys, Case Studies, Naturalistic Observation, Experiments and Topical

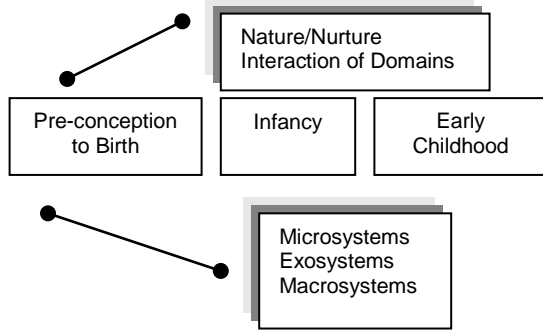
Lesson 3.7: Suggested Issues and Research Methods

Type of Research	Suggested Research Topics
<p>Survey</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conducting research using a survey involves going out and asking questions about the phenomenon of interest. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Should the federal government enforce financial support from both parents? What is SIDS; what do specialists recommend to protect your infant? Should the state intervene in cases of infant abuse and neglect? Should parenting courses be mandatory for all parents? Should the state financially support single parents?
<p>Naturalistic Observation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> In naturalistic research, the observer does not intervene at all. For all intents and purposes, the researcher is invisible and works hard not to interrupt the natural dynamics of the situation being investigated. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Are there gender differences in parenting styles? What are the play and early socialization behaviours of infants? Are there basic temperaments and personality types in infants? What are the father's roles, rights and responsibilities in parenting? What are the various parental discipline techniques? Why does an infant attach to objects such as blankets and soothers? What is the process of language development in infants? How do play behaviours of infants change with or without adults present? Are there differences in separation anxiety and fear of strangers between the genders? Does birth order make a difference in terms of temperaments in infants?
<p>Experimental Research</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Experimental researchers take care to create an environment in which they can make causal statements. They manipulate variables, randomly assign participants to various conditions, and seek to control other influences that could affect their research. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Toy design and function: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Are there gender differences in toy preferences? What aspects of cognitive development are promoted in toys for infants? How do infant toys promote socialization?
<p>Topical</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A topical research study involves the acquisition, synthesis, organization, and presentation of information. Typically, the topical research study will involve both paper-based as well as web-based resources. Additional information may be gained through the other research methods and strategies. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Saskatchewan Institute for the Prevention of Handicaps. Adoption. Aboriginal approach to parenting and child raising.
<p>Case Study</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A case study is an intensive study of one individual. Typically, the case study is based on interviews with the subject regarding his or her background, present thinking or actions; it may also utilize interviews of others who know the individual. Additional case study material may be obtained through observation, experiments, and standardized tests such as personality inventories and intelligence tests. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> William Lishman.

Interview

- The interview method of research, typically, involves a face-to-face meeting in which a researcher (interviewer) asks an individual a series of questions.
- Interview daycare or nursery workers:
 - What are the differences between the genders?
 - How do infants develop self-identity?
 - What is the importance of early intervention on learning?
 - How do infants demonstrate attachment and separation anxiety behaviours?

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



3.8 Perspectives on infant development

This summary lesson looks at prenatal development from three different perspectives: the lifespan approach, the theoretical perspectives on human development, and the key issues and questions in human development.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• How is infant development described from the perspective of the lifespan approach?• How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to infant development?• How would each of the six theoretical perspectives on human development explain infant development?
Suggested Instructional Strategies <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Direct• Independent• Interactive• Indirect• Experiential	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Think-Pair-Share: Lifespan approach<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Using the Think-Pair-Share instructional strategy, direct the students to provide examples of how the lifespan approach helps describe the process of human infant development.• Discussion/Group activity: Key issues and questions<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Using the four key issues and questions found in the Teacher Information section, discuss the key questions as they relate to infant development. Discuss with the whole class or break the class into four groups.• Jigsaw: Theoretical perspectives on infant development<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Divide the class into six groups and assign one of the six theoretical perspectives to each group.○ Direct each group to support its perspective on human development with specific examples from the information provided in the unit. What evidence can group members find to support their theoretical perspective?○ Each group will then present its theoretical perspective on infant development.○ Synthesize the findings and examples from each group. Create a comparison chart to compare the results.
Making Connections	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Metaphors for Development<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Students will use an art medium to describe the nature of development. The art medium might include drama, painting, sculpture, computer based, etc.○ In what ways does the cover page of the <i>Ages and Stages</i> journal demonstrate an interpretation of the nature of human development?
Resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Curriculum Support Materials: The Lifespan Perspective on Human Development• Curriculum Support Materials: Theoretical Perspectives on Human Development

Lesson 3.8: Teacher Information

How is infant development described from the perspective of the lifespan approach?

The lifespan perspective on human development has seven basic characteristics. Development is:

- Life long
 - No age period dominates development.
- Multi-dimensional
 - Development consists of biological, cognitive, socioemotional and spiritual dimensions.
- Multidirectional
 - Some aspects of development increase, while others decrease.
- Plastic
 - Depending on the individual's life conditions, development may take many paths.
- Historically-embedded
 - Development is influenced by historical conditions.
- Multidisciplinary
 - Psychologists, sociologists, anthropologists, neuroscientists and medical researchers all study human development and share a concern for unlocking the mysteries of development throughout the lifespan.
- Contextual
 - The individual continually responds to and acts on contexts, which include a person's biological makeup, physical environment, and social, historical, and cultural contexts (Santrock, 1999, p. 10).

How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to infant development?

From the time of its establishment, several key issues and questions have dominated the field of developmental psychology. Among these issues are the nature of developmental change, the importance of critical periods, lifespan approaches versus the more focused approaches, and the nature-nurture issue.

- **Continuous change versus discontinuous change:** In continuous change, developmental change is gradual, with achievements at one level building on those of previous levels. In contrast, discontinuous change occurs in distinct stages or steps. Each stage brings about behaviour that is assumed to be qualitatively different from behaviour at earlier stages.
- A **critical period** is a specific time during development when a particular event has its greatest consequences. Critical periods occur when the presence of certain kinds of

environmental stimuli are necessary for development to proceed normally.

- **Lifespan approaches versus a focus on a particular period:** Developmentalists now believe the entire lifespan is important, for several reasons. One is the discovery that developmental growth and change continue during every part of life. Furthermore, to understand fully the social influences on people of a given age, we need to understand the people who are in large measure providing those influences. For instance, to understand development in infants, we need to unravel the effects of their parents' ages on the social environment.
- **Nature versus nurture:** One of the enduring questions of development involves how much of people's behaviour is due to their genetically-determined nature and how much is due to nurture, the physical and social environment in which a child is raised. In this context, **nature** refers to traits, abilities and capacities that are inherited from one's parents. Nature encompasses any factor that is produced by the predetermined unfolding of genetic information - a process known as maturation. These genetic, inherited influences are at work as we move from the one-celled organism that is created at the moment of conception to the billions of cells that make up a fully-formed human being. In contrast **nurture** refers to the environmental influences that shape behaviour. Some of these influences may be biological, such as the impact of a pregnant mother's substance abuse on the fetus, or the amount and kind of food available to children. Other environmental influences are more social, such as the ways parents discipline their children and the effects of peer pressure on adolescents (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 332).

How would each of the six theoretical perspectives on human development explain infant development?

Lifespan development has produced a number of broad conceptual perspectives representing different approaches to development. Each broad perspective encompasses a number of theories, explanations and predictions concerning phenomena of interest. A theory provides a framework for understanding the relationships among an organized set of principles or facts. The six major theoretical perspectives include:

- **Psychodynamic Perspective: Focusing on the inner person.** Rooted in Freud's theory, the psychodynamic approach maintains that all

behaviour and mental processes reflect the constant and mostly unconscious psychological struggles that rage silently within each person. Usually, these struggles involve conflict between the impulse to satisfy instincts or wishes and the need to play by the rules in society. Anxiety, depression and other disorders are outward signs of this inner turmoil (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).

- **The Behavioural Perspective: Considering the outer person.** As founded by John Watson, the behavioural approach views behaviour and mental processes as primarily the result of learning. Psychologists who take this approach see rewards and punishment acting on the raw materials provided by genes, evolution and biology to shape each individual. So, whether considering a person's aggression or drug abuse, behaviourists would look at that person's learning history. Since people learn problem behaviours, they can also learn to change or even prevent them by unlearning old habits and developing new ones (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).
- **The Cognitive Perspective: Examining the roots of understanding.** The cognitive perspective focuses on how people take in, mentally represent and store information. Cognitive psychologists then relate perception and information processing to patterns of behaviour. They study such areas as decision-making, problem-solving, interpersonal attraction and intelligence. Aggression, for instance, might be viewed as a result of poor problem solving (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).
- **The Humanistic Perspective: Concentrating on the unique qualities of human beings.** According to the humanistic approach, our capacity to choose how to think and act determines our behaviour. Each person's unique perceptions – not instincts, cognitive processes, or rewards and punishments – dictate the choices made. Humanistic psychologists believe that people are essentially good, that they are in control of themselves, and that they seek to grow toward their highest potential (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 12).
- **The Evolutionary Perspective: Focusing on biology as the determinant of development.** Darwin's ideas on evolution and adaptation of species laid the foundation for the evolutionary approach. The evolutionary approach to psychology holds that the behaviour of animals and humans today is the result of evolution through natural selection. Psychologists who

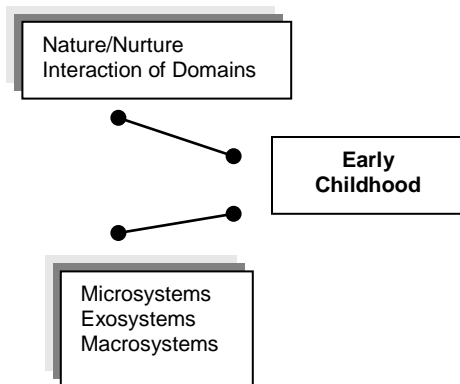
follow this approach are concerned with the adaptive value of behaviour, the anatomy and biology that make it possible and the environmental conditions that encourage or discourage it (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).

- **The Sociocultural Perspective: Emphasizing the systems of support.** Calling attention to the external influences on human behaviour such as the physical surroundings and social interactions that provide incentives, opportunities and pathways for growth, Urie Bronfenbrenner (1979) began to emphasize the ecological approach to the study of human development. In Bronfenbrenner's application of this concept, human ecosystems include both the physical environment (the climate, the space per person, that arrangement of the dwelling) and the social environment (the people, the culture, the economy) (Berger, 2000, p. 4).

Unit Four: Early Childhood

Concept Web

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Unit Overview

We have termed this stage in the developmental process of humans, the “Play Years”, because this aspect, as much as any other, seems to characterize the most important context in which development occurs. While we examine the physical development during this stage that moves from an emphasis on the Gross and McIlveen to the fine motor skills, we consider in greater detail the cognitive aspect of development as the child begins to think about its world. We examine three perspectives on the cognitive development of children including representation of experiences, learning and language development. In addition, we also consider the emotional and personality development of children particularly in play situations, in contexts ranging from the home to daycare and pre-school.

Unit Objectives

Knowledge

- To understand biological changes during early childhood.
- To understand cognitive changes during early childhood.
- To understand socioemotional changes during early childhood.

Skills

- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings by making connections with existing knowledge and understandings.
- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings within the discipline of psychology.
- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings with other disciplines.
- To apply those concepts and understandings in a variety of practical, pertinent and contemporary issues.

Values

- To appreciate the complex, dynamic, reciprocal and personal aspects of human social cognition, influence and interaction.

Lessons and Lesson Objectives

- 4.1 Unit Overview: Developmental changes during early childhood
 - What roles do nature and nurture play in the development of a young child?
 - How do the various domains influence development during early childhood?
 - What are the sociocultural influences on child development?
- 4.2 Looking through the eyes of the young child, what do you see?
 - What are the general characteristics of children during childhood?
 - What is the process of physical development during early childhood?
 - What is the process of cognitive development during early childhood?
 - What is the process of socioemotional development during early childhood?
- 4.3 What is the process of physical development during early childhood?
 - How does the brain develop during early childhood?
 - When does right or left “handedness” develop?
 - How important is nutrition to healthy and proper childhood development?
- 4.4 What is the process of cognitive development during early childhood?
 - What are the developmental changes in children’s cognitive abilities?
 - What is the process of language development in early childhood?
 - How does the sociocultural environment influence child development?

-
- How do the theories of Piaget and Vygotsky compare?
 - What influence does culture have on cognitive development during early childhood?
- 4.5 What is the process of socioemotional development during early childhood?
- Does birth order make a difference in the socioemotional development of the young child?
 - 4.5.1 The self and the beginnings of personality
 - How and when do young children develop a sense of self?
 - How do personalities develop?
 - What aspects of a child's world influence personality development?
 - 4.5.2 Socialization and play
 - Why do children play?
 - What are the different kinds of play behaviours?
 - How can parents encourage nonviolent play?
 - 4.5.3 Moral development
 - How and when do children develop moral behaviour?
 - How do children learn values?
 - 4.5.4 Gender identity
 - How does a gender identity develop?
 - What are the differences between the genders?
 - What are the sociocultural influences on gender development?
- 4.6 Looking through the eyes of the systems of supports, what do you see?
- How does the sociocultural context influence the development of a young child?
- 4.7 Action research in child development
- Should parents be legally permitted to spank their children?
 - Are you afraid that television values are replacing family values?
 - Should the government be launching a national daycare program paid for by taxpayers?
 - Should parents be held accountable for the behaviour of their children?
 - Can you find evidence of Piaget's pre-operational stage of development in young children?
- Can you find evidence to support Vygotsky's concept of scaffolding and the zone of proximal in young children's cognitive development?
 - What is the nutritional value of fast food for young children?
 - How is playground safety for young children demonstrated?
 - What is the process of language development in young children?
 - What difference does birth order make in the socioemotional development of young children?
 - How is self-awareness demonstrated by young children?
 - Are there basic temperament and personality traits in young children?
 - Are there gender differences in aggressive behaviour?
 - How is moral behaviour developed and promoted in young children?
 - Is there an awareness of gender role differences in young children?
 - Are there gender differences in terms of aggression and emotional control in young children?
 - How are genders represented on television and in young children's books?
 - Should parental discipline of young children include spanking?
 - How are basic human values developed and promoted in young children?
 - Should Canada implement a national daycare program?
 - Should parents be held accountable for the actions of their children?
- 4.8 Lifespan approach to development during early childhood
- How is early childhood development described from the perspective of the lifespan approach?
 - How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to early childhood development?
 - How would each of the six theoretical perspectives on human development explain early childhood development?
-

Resources and Resource-Based Learning

Resource-based learning is an integral part of all units. The accompanying bibliography will assist you in incorporating a variety of resources from different media into each unit. This annotated bibliography should be available from your teacher librarian. It is available from Saskatchewan Learning through the website at www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/ or from the Learning Resources Distribution Centre at 306-787-5987. The bibliography contains annotations of current, useful resources including print, video, Internet sites, and other media selections. Teachers are encouraged to assess their current resource collection, identify those resources that are still useful, and acquire small quantities of each new title, rather than class sets, in order to provide students with a broad range of perspectives and information.

The following list of evaluated resource titles provides a **starting point** for developing a resource collection that is current and relevant, and that addresses students' various learning styles and abilities. **Please refer to the bibliography for a complete list of resources giving the full citation, annotation, and ordering information.** Please note that many of these resources can be ordered through the **Learning Resources Distribution Centre** (<http://lrdc.sasked.gov.sk.ca/>). Videos may be available from **Media Group** (<http://www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/video>). **At the time of publication all of the resources listed here and in the bibliography were in print and available.**

Please note that LRDC will be closing effective March 31, 2003. If you need assistance acquiring Saskatchewan Learning materials after that date, please contact 787-5987.

Print Resources

Boys Will Be Men: Raising Our Sons for Courage, Caring & Community
Child Abuse
Child Development
Domestic Violence
Readings in Child Development: A Canadian Perspective
Troublesome Children

Non-Print Resources

First Years Last Forever
Language Development
Myths of Childhood Series

Shaping Youngest Minds: How to Grow a Brain Simple Beginnings? Child Development From Birth to Age Five
Welcome to Parenting: The First Six Years

Internet Sites

The following sites provide a brief overview of what is available. These sites were checked for availability in March 2002. To access sites that have been formally evaluated and linked to the curriculum visit the Evergreen Curriculum at the Saskatchewan Learning website - <http://www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/docs/evergrn.html>.

Aboriginal Head Start - Health Canada - <http://www.hc-sc.gc.ca/hppb/childhood-youth/acy/ahs.htm>

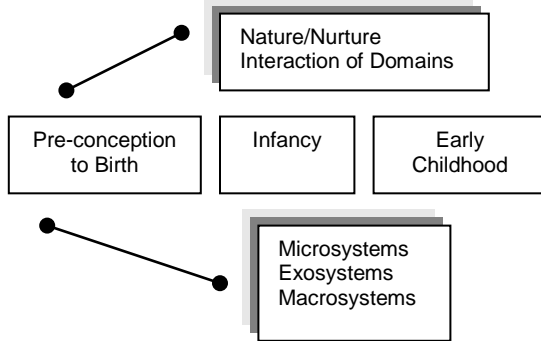
Childcare Resource and Research Unit - <http://www.childcarecanada.org>

I am Your Child -

<http://www.iamyourchild.org/toc.html>

Saskatchewan Institute on Prevention of Handicaps - <http://www.preventioninstitute.sk.ca>

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



4.1 Unit Overview: Developmental changes during early childhood

This lesson examines the biological, cognitive and socioemotional aspects of the developmental process during early childhood.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What roles do nature and nurture play in the development of a young child?
- How do the various domains influence development during early childhood?
- What are the sociocultural influences on child development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Nature/nurture and early childhood development
 - Using the template Nature/Nurture and Child Development as a conceptual organizer, discuss with the students those aspects of human development that might be attributed exclusively to either purely hereditary or inherited factors (intelligence, language development, motor skill development, temperament and personality, skin colour, hair colour, length, and weight), and those aspects which are a result of environmental influence (cognitive development, social development, etc.).
- Discussion: Systems of support for early childhood development
 - Using the template, The Ecological Model, discuss how each of the levels influences development. Identify specific influences, programs, support services, people and places that influence child development. Discuss the relative nature of the influences in terms of the degree of influence, in other words, is the microsystem level more important than the macrosystem level? Discuss also the specific support systems that might exist in your local community, town, or region that parents could access.
- Discussion: Early childhood development
 - Review the larger developmental tasks for each of the three aspects:
 - Physical: walking , sports and athletics, gross and fine motor control
 - Cognitive: language development, memory, competency, and skill development
 - Socioemotional: emotions, socialization, play, beginnings of personality, and gender identity
 - Review the three aspects of development to be studied - physical, cognitive, and socioemotional. Discuss how the three aspects interact to support development; for example, gross and fine motor skills (physical) with thinking and memory (cognitive) and temperament (socioemotional) in play situations.

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Nature/Nurture and Child Development
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model

Lesson 4.1: Teacher Information

What roles do nature and nurture play in the development of a young child?

The template Nature/Nurture and Human Development depicts the interactions between heredity, the environment and the organism. Note how heredity and experience combine to influence the organism. The next level of interaction happens between the current organism and the current situation that results in the current behaviour. This behaviour, in turn, influences the genetic dispositions and preferences of the organism and the cycle, or process, is repeated.

How do the various domains influence development during early childhood?

Physical development

- The average child grows six centimetres in height and gains two to three kilograms a year during early childhood. Growth patterns vary individually though. By age five, the brain has reached nine-tenths of its adult size. Some of its size increase is due to the number and size of nerve endings. Gross motor skills increase dramatically during early childhood. Young children are more active than at any other period in the lifespan. Fine motor skills also increase substantially during early childhood (Santrock, 1999, p. 261).

Cognitive development

- Piaget's stage of preoperational thought is the beginning of the ability to reconstruct at the level of thought what has been established in behaviour, and a transition from primitive to more sophisticated use of symbols. The child does yet think in an operational way. Preoperational thought consists of two substages: symbolic function (two to four years) and intuitive thought (four to seven years). The child's attention improves dramatically during the early childhood years, as does short-term memory. Young children develop a curiosity about the nature of the human mind. Advances in language development also occur during early childhood. Vygotsky's theory emphasizes the zone of proximal development, the merging of language and thought from three to seven years of age, and the sociocultural contexts of cognitive development. Child-centred kindergarten and developmentally appropriate education are important dimensions of early childhood development, as are quality Head Start programs. A current concern is that too many preschool and early childhood education programs place too much emphasis on academic achievement (Santrock, 1999, p. 261).

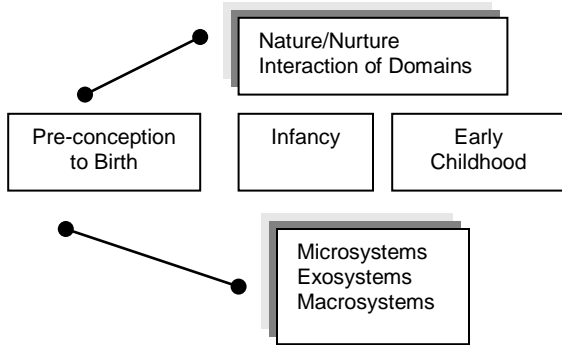
Socioemotional development

- Authoritative parenting is associated with children's social competence. Parents need to adapt their strategies as the child grows older using less physical manipulation and more reasoning. Cross-cultural and ethnic variations occur. In some cases, siblings are stronger socialization agents than parents. Children live in changing families; more children today grow up in working mother and divorced families. Depression in parents is associated with adjustment problems in children. Peers are powerful socializing agents who provide a source of information and social comparison outside the family. Play also is an important aspect of the young child's development. Parten developed a number of categories of social play. Among the most important types of children's play are sensorimotor/practice play, pretense/symbolic play, social play, constructive play, and games. Television is another socializing influence in children's development. Children watch a huge amount of television; preschool children watch an average of four hours a day. A special concern is the television violence children see. Erikson believes that early childhood is a period when the self involves resolving the conflict between initiative versus guilt. In early childhood, the physical and active self becomes a part of self-understanding. Gender identity is the sense of being male or female which most children acquire by three years of age. Identification, social learning, cognitive developmental, and gender-schema theories have been proposed to explain children's gender development. Peers are especially adept at rewarding gender-appropriate behaviour. Piaget distinguished between the heteronomous morality of younger children and the autonomous morality of older children. In addition to moral thought, moral behaviour and moral feelings are important dimensions of children's moral development (Santrock, 1999, p. 261).

What are the sociocultural influences on child development?

Vygotsky's portrait of children's development suggests that children actively construct their knowledge, and that it is inseparable from social and cultural activities. In Vygotsky's theory, knowledge is situated and distributed among people and environments which include objects, artifacts, tools, books, and the communities in which people live, and collaborate, advanced through interaction with others in cooperative activities (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 365).

4.2 Looking through the eyes of the young child



This overview lesson, which addresses the biological, cognitive and socioemotional development of the young child, addresses the “big picture” of early childhood development.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support

Lesson Objectives

- What are the general characteristics of children during childhood?
- What is the process of physical development of the child?
- What is the process of cognitive development of the child?
- What is the process of socioemotional development of the child?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Research: General characteristics of children
 - Design and conduct a research study investigating the general characteristics of children from ages two to five.
 - Use the course concept map as a conceptual organizer, and investigate the relative influences of nature and nurture, the development of the physical, cognitive and socioemotional domains, as well as the influence that the three systems of support provide on child development.
 - Presentation formats might include posters, bulletin board displays, brochures, pamphlets, magazines, videotape, audiotape, three-panel displays, PowerPoint presentations or webpages.
- Jigsaw: Early childhood development across the domains
 - Refer to the Curriculum Support Materials for the jigsaw pieces.
 - Students will put the pieces of the puzzles into the correct category as well as in chronological order. Create a table with the physical, cognitive, and socioemotional categories along one axis, and ages two to five along the other.

	Physical	Cognitive	Socioemotional
Age 3			
Age 4			
Age 5			

- Refer to the *Ages and Stages* article, “Ages and Stages: From two to five years of age” for the correct grouping and sequence of the jigsaw pieces.

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Jigsaw
- *Ages and Stages*: “Ages and Stages: From two to five years of age”

Lesson 4.2: Teacher Information

What are the general characteristics of children during childhood?

Refer to the *Ages and Stages* article, “*Ages and Stages: From two to five years of age*” for further information on the developmental abilities of children during early childhood.

What is the physical development of the child from ages two to five?

Refer to Lesson 4.1: Unit Overview: Early childhood development for information regarding children’s physical development.

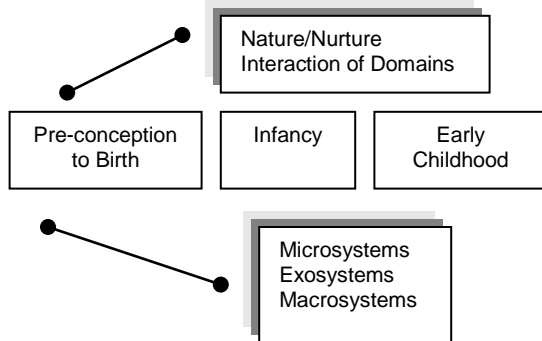
What is the cognitive development of the child from ages two to five?

Refer to Lesson 4.1: Unit Overview: Early childhood development for information regarding cognitive development during childhood.

What is the social and emotional development of the child from ages two to five?

Refer to Lesson 4.1: Unit Overview: Early childhood development for information regarding socioemotional development during childhood.

4.3 Early Childhood Development: Physical domain



This lesson addresses the physical development of the young child; gross and fine motor skills, brain development and the importance of nutrition for healthy development.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How does the brain develop during early childhood?
- When does right- or left-handedness develop?
- How important is nutrition to healthy and proper childhood development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Activity: Children's physical development
 - Using the article as your source of information, categorize the physical development of the young child into the following categories: gross motor skills, fine motor skills, sensory, self-care, personal hygiene, cognitive, and socioemotional.
- Research/Construction: Toys
 - Design and create a toy for a young child that develops gross and/or fine motor skills. A rationale should accompany the toy that describes the principles behind the design that would promote physical development in a young child.
 - If possible, videotape the child using the toy, and then share the tape with the class for general discussion.
- Research project: Nutritional value and fast food
 - Conduct a research study into the nutritional value of fast foods, particularly "Kid's Meals".
 - Restaurants are required to provide nutritional information about their products.
- Discussion: Nature/nurture and brain development in children
 - Based on the information contained in Teacher Information (How does the brain develop during early childhood?), discuss the relative influences of nature and nurture in healthy brain development.
- Charting/Graphing: Physical development
 - Develop a chart or graph to illustrate the physical development (height and weight) from ages two to five (Microsoft Excel is an example of a spreadsheet that will convert tabular data to charts and graphs)

Making Connections

- Research: Physical safety (car seats, toys, helmets, playground safety, climbing apparatus ...)
- How do we ensure that the exploratory environments of young children are safe?
- Research and Construction:
 - Based on the physical development needs of young children research the kinds of toys available. Based on that research, modify, adapt or create a toy appropriate for an age level within early childhood.

Resources

- *Ages and Stages*: "Ages and Stages: From two to five years of age"

Lesson 4.3: Teacher Information

How does the brain develop during early childhood?

One of the most important physical developments during early childhood is the continuing development of the brain and nervous system. While the brain continues to grow in early childhood, it does not grow as rapidly as in infancy. By the time children have reached three years of age, the brain is three-quarters of its adult size. By age five the brain has reached about nine-tenths of its adult size. Part of the increase in brain weight is due to continued proliferation of communication pathways (via the growth of dendrites and axons) among the brain's various specialized areas in response to the child's specific experiences. Another part of brain growth is due to ongoing myelination - the insulating process that speeds up the transmission of neural impulses. Finally, several areas of the brain undergo notable expansion, in particular those areas dedicated to control and coordination of the body, the emotions, and thinking processes (Rose, 1989, p. 198).

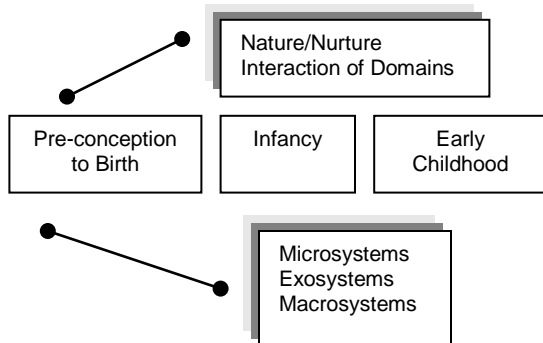
When does right- or left-handedness develop?

Adults usually notice a child's hand preference during early childhood, but researchers have found handedness tendencies in the infant years. Even newborns have some preference for one side of their body over the other (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 62).

How important is nutrition to healthy and proper childhood development?

With their growth slowed, children need fewer calories per pound of body weight during the preschool years than they did from birth through toddlerhood - especially if they are modern, sedentary children who spend most of their time indoors. As a result, their appetites become markedly smaller, a fact that causes many parents to fret, threaten, and cajole to get their children to eat more. A related problem is that many children, like most adults, eat too few fruits and vegetables and consume too much fat. No more than 30 percent of daily calories should come from fat, but six out of seven preschoolers in the United States exceed that limit. Interestingly, one North American study found that both children whose family income is below the poverty level and children whose family income is three times above it are more likely to exceed the 30 percent fat limit, compared to those whose income lies somewhere in between (Berger, 2000, p. 244).

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



4.4 Early Childhood Development: Cognitive domain

Perhaps more so than at any other stage of development, early childhood is a time of phenomenal cognitive growth and development, highlighted in particular by language development. It may take several class periods to cover all the information presented on this topic.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What are the developmental changes in children's cognitive abilities?
- What is the process of language development in early childhood?
- How does the sociocultural environment influence cognitive development?
- How do the theories of Piaget and Vygotsky compare?
- What influence does culture have on cognitive development during early childhood?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Activity: Children's cognitive development
 - Using the article as your source of information, categorize the cognitive development of the young child into the following categories: language, thinking, artistic, numeracy, memory, physical, socioemotional.
- Research and Application: Learning theory
 - Based on Vygotsky's theory of scaffolding and the zone of proximal development, design and conduct a teaching situation with a child.
 - Based on Piaget's stage of preoperational thought development, design and conduct a research experiment that illustrates the development stage.
- Research: Mental schemas in children
 - Conduct a research study investigating the mental schemas of children for concepts or topics such as love, parents, heaven, doctors, "right and wrong".
- Analysis: Children's art and cognitive development
 - Provide samples of children's art for examination and analysis
 - The Kindergarten teacher, parents in the community, or a local daycare centre might be sources of artwork for students to analyze.
- *Ages and Stages*: "Ages and Stages: Two to five years"
 - Ideas for caregivers. What are some of the tips mentioned that would promote cognitive development? Any missing? Would you add some?
- *Ages and Stages*: "The Effects of Breakfast on Children's Mood, Behaviour and Ability to Learn"
 - What are the issues, recommendations, and implications for policy makers in terms of providing nutritional programs to promote child development?

Making Connections

- Create your own children's book for a young child.

Resources

- *Ages and Stages*: "Ages and Stages: From two to five years of age"
- *Ages and Stages*: "The Effects of Breakfast on Children's Mood, Behaviour and Ability to Learn"

Lesson 4.4: Teacher Information

What are the developmental changes in children's cognitive abilities?

Piaget's stage of preoperational thought is the beginning of the ability to reconstruct at the level of thought what has been established in behaviour, and a transition from primitive to more sophisticated use of symbols. The child does not yet think in an operational way. Preoperational thought consists of two substages: symbolic function (two to four years) and intuitive thought (four to seven years). The

child's attention improves dramatically during the early childhood years, as does short-term memory. Young children develop a curiosity about the nature of the human mind. Advances in language development also occur during early childhood. Vygotsky's theory emphasizes the zone of proximal development, the merging of language and thought from three to seven years of age, and the sociocultural contexts of cognitive development (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 323).

How do the theories of Piaget and Vygotsky compare?

Piaget	Vygotsky
Active learning - The child's own search for understanding, motivated by the child's inborn curiosity	Guided participation - The adult's or other mentor's aid in guiding the next step of learning, motivated by the learner's need for social interaction.
Egocentrism - The preschooler's tendency to perceive everything from his or her own perspective and to be limited by that viewpoint.	Apprenticeship to thinking - The preschooler's tendency to look to others for insight and guidance, particularly in the cognitive realm.
Structure - The mental assumptions and modalities (schema) the child creates to help him or her organize an understanding of the world. Structures are torn down and rebuilt when disequilibrium makes new structures necessary.	Scaffold - The building blocks put in place by a "teacher" (a more knowledgeable child or adult) or a culture. Learners use scaffolds and then discard them when they are no longer needed.
Symbolic thought - The ability to think using symbols, including language. This ability emerges spontaneously at about age two and continues life-long.	Proximal development - The next step in cognition, the ideas and skills a child can grasp with assistance but not alone; influenced not only by the child's own abilities and interests, but also by the social context.

(Berger, 2000, p. 277)

What is the process of language development in early childhood?

The social learning view suggests that speech is acquired through a combination of conditioning and imitation. Presumably, children are praised or otherwise rewarded by their parents for making sounds approximating those of their native language. In addition, parents often model sounds, words, or sentences for them.

A sharply different view has been proposed by linguist Noam Chomsky (1968): the innate mechanism view. According to Chomsky, language acquisition is at least partly innate. Human beings, he contends, have a language acquisition device – a built-in neural system that provides them with an intuitive grasp of grammar.

Cognitive theory recognizes the importance of both innate mechanisms and learning. This theory suggests that children possess certain information-processing abilities or strategies that they use in acquiring language (Baron et al., 1998, p. 294).

How does the sociocultural environment influence child development?

Vygotsky's portrait of children's development suggests that children actively construct their knowledge, and that it is inseparable from social and cultural activities. In Vygotsky's theory, knowledge is *situated* and *distributed* among people and environments which include objects, artifacts, tools, books and the communities in which people live, and *collaborative*, advanced through interaction with others in cooperative activities.

Vygotsky described what he termed the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) for tasks that are too difficult for children to master alone but that can be learned with the guidance and assistance of adults or more skilled children. The lower limit of the ZPD is the level of problem-solving reached by the child working independently. The upper limit is the level of additional responsibility the child can accept with the assistance of an able instructor.

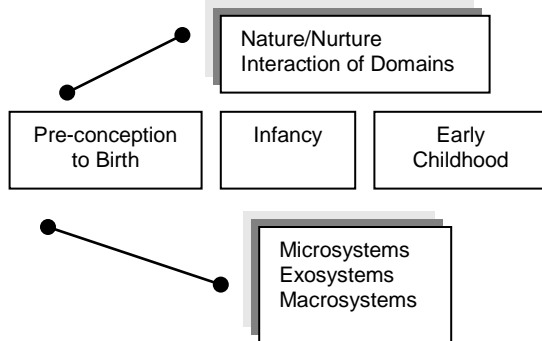
Closely linked to the concept of the zone of proximal development is the concept of scaffolding.

Scaffolding involves changing support over the course of a teaching session. More skilled individuals adjust their guidance to fit the student's current performance level (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 366).

What influence does culture have on cognitive development during early childhood?

The evidence that culture influences the development of cognitive abilities comes from a process that seems to be universal. In every culture, children become more adept at precisely those cognitive skills that are most valued by that culture, while other interests and skills atrophy. Thus, for example, children in the Micronesia islands are much better at interpreting weather and navigation signs than are, say, children growing up in a large city, who may have no awareness of the significance of various phases of the moon, types of cloud formation, or shifts in the wind. On their part, children of educated parents acquire skills that are well suited to abstract and scientific reasoning and their parents enjoy answering "why" questions that another parent might consider rude (Berger, 2000, p. 279).

4.5 Early Childhood Development: Socioemotional domain



This overview lesson presents a general picture of socioemotional development in early childhood.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What is the process of socioemotional development during early childhood?
- Does birth order make a difference in the socioemotional development of the young child?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Activity: Children’s socioemotional development
 - Using the article, categorize the socioemotional development of the young child into the following aspects: social skills, emotions, self-awareness, language, attachment, trust and autonomy (Erikson), temperament and personality, physical, cognitive.
- Discussion: Gender differences in interacting with infants
 - Do male and female parents demonstrate differences in parenting?
 - From a cross-cultural perspective, describe the variety of roles that males and females play in raising children.
- Research: Erikson’s stages of childhood development
 - Using observational research techniques, what examples can you find to support Erikson’s theory that the dominant crisis of this stage is that of trust versus autonomy.
- Discussion: Socioemotional development
 - The majority of cultures in the world have discovered, over many centuries, a “truth” that only recently emerged in the Western World. That truth: children’s socioemotional development is best promoted by love and at least some moderate parental control (Berger, 2000).
 - What are the implications of this statement for new parents?
- *Ages and Stages*: “The Effects of Breakfast on Children’s Mood, Behaviour and Ability to Learn”
 - What are the issues, recommendations, and implications for policy-makers in terms of providing nutritional programs to promote child development?
- Research: Birth order and socioemotional development
 - Design and conduct a research study investigating the effects of birth order on socioemotional development and basic temperament.

Making Connections

- Discipline: What type of discipline really works?
 - Interview your parents regarding the discipline techniques they used in parenting you and your siblings? Did their techniques change as they had more children? Why? What recommendations would they give new parents?

Resources

- *Ages and Stages*: “Ages and Stages: From two to five years of age”
- *Ages and Stages*: “The Effects of Breakfast on Children’s Mood, Behaviour and Ability to Learn”

Lesson 4.5: Teacher Information

What is the process of socioemotional development during early childhood?

Refer to Lesson 4.1: Unit Overview: Early childhood development for information regarding socioemotional development during childhood.

Does birth order make a difference in the socioemotional development of the young child?

Refer to Lesson 3.5 Infant Development: Socioemotional domain for information regarding birth order.

What method of discipline really works?

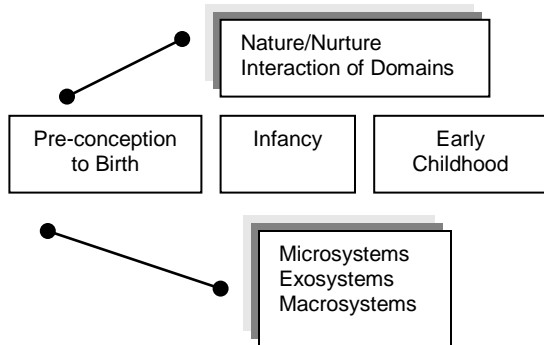
There are several forms of discipline for helping children as they grow into socially capable people:

- *Spanking.* While most parents have experienced the urge to spank children, and many have resorted to spanking their kids, there are problems with this form of discipline. Spanking may give children a clear message about the unacceptability of their behaviour and sometimes stops the behaviour in the short run. However, in the long run, it teaches children that it is all right to hit, and that it is all right to be hit. Even children are confused by the irony of the statement, "This spanking will teach you not to hit your brother."
- *Time-outs.* Giving children a short time-out can give them the chance to reflect on their behaviour, and also a clear message that a certain behaviour would not be allowed. This can be an effective method of teaching. Time-outs can also give an angry, frustrated parent a chance to calm down and respond more rationally. It is suggested that a child be given a time-out equal in minutes to her age (a four-minute time out for a four-year-old child). It is not recommended to use time-outs with children under the age of three. The problem with time-outs is that they take a child away from a valuable learning experience. A child who hits another child can begin to learn empathy from watching the other's child's response to being hurt, and if he stays around, he may also be able to participate in helping the other child feel better.
- *Talking with children.* Talking with children offers rich opportunities for learning alternatives to hitting. It is often necessary to give children some specific suggestions about what they can say when they have strong feelings. Sometimes the suggestion, "Use your words," doesn't give

children enough of an idea of what they could say.

- *Help children come up with alternative solutions.* What children usually want when they take toys from each other is a chance to play together. If you can offer them suggestions for other ways to play together, they may be able to let their conflict go. "It looks like Jeffy wants to play trucks with you. Can you find him a truck he could use?" Or, "Jeffy looks really interested in what you are doing with your truck. Could he help you make a road for the truck?"
- *Set limits and follow through.* It is important that children know that hitting is unacceptable. If your child is unable to stop himself from hitting his brothers after you have offered alternative ways for him to express his feelings and communicate his ideas, you can offer him a final choice. "Can you be safe with Jeffy or shall I help you move to the other room to play away from Jeffy until you can be safe with him?"
- *Remember that it takes time, repetition and modeling.* Children do not learn communication and problem-solving skills quickly. It takes time and repetition in many different circumstances before they really get it. If you stay focused on teaching your children these skills and gently model the ways you want them to interact, slowly they will begin to acquire the skills (Davis and Keyser, 1997, pp. 218-239).

4.5.1 The Self and Personality



This lesson addresses how young children develop from a basic temperament, to an increasing self-awareness and self-concept, to the beginnings of personality.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How, and when, do young children develop a sense of self?
- How do personalities develop?
- What aspects of a child's world influence personality development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Personality development in early childhood
 - Using the template, Personality Development in early childhood, as the graphic organizer, as well as the information contained in the Teacher Information section, describe the various influences on personality development in early childhood.
 - Overlay Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Model, and discuss how the various systems of support influence the development of personality.
- Jigsaw: Theoretical perspectives and personality
 - Divide the class into six groups. Assign one theoretical perspective to each group.
 - Using the information supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials, how would each theoretical perspective explain personality development in children? Each group should be prepared to support its perspective with examples gained from observational or case study research.
- Research: Self-understanding in young children
 - Interview children and ask them to describe themselves. In what ways do children describe themselves?
- Research: Temperament and emotions
 - If the opportunity exists (babysitting, nursery, daycare) students would be able to conduct field research into the development of temperament and personality.
- Research: Your basic temperament
 - Interview your parents to see if they remember your basic temperament as a young child. Were you active, quiet and reserved, shy and withdrawn, aggressive, inquisitive? Does your present personality have any relation to you as a young child? Can your mother remember if you were a "terrible two"?

Making Connections

- Discussion: Parenting is simple. Parenting = Sensitivity.
 - Based on Sanson and Rothbart's (1995) research into temperament and individuality, discuss with the students the basic premise that there is no recipe approach to parenting, that effective parenting is sensitivity and responsiveness.

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Personality Development in Early Childhood
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model

Lesson 4.5.1: Teacher Information

How, and when, do young children develop a sense of self?

Toward the end of the second year of life children develop a sense of self. During early childhood, some important developments in the self take place. Among these developments are facing the issue of initiative versus guilt and enhanced self-understanding (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 69).

How do personalities develop?

The *psychodynamic approach* as advanced by Sigmund Freud, proposed that personality and behaviour are determined more by psychological factors than by biological conditions or current events. He suggested that people may not know why they think, feel or act the way they do because they are partly controlled by the unconscious portion of the personality - the part of which people are normally unaware (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 408).

The *trait approach* to personality makes three main assumptions:

1. Personality traits remain relatively stable and therefore predictable over time.
2. Personality traits remain relatively stable across diverse situations, and they can explain why people act in predictable ways in many different settings.
3. People differ with regard to how much of a particular personality trait they possess; no two people are exactly alike on all traits. The result is an endless variety of unique personalities (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 413).

A *cognitive-behavioural approach* views personality as a set of behaviours that people acquire through learning and then display in particular situations. It defines personality as the sum total of the behaviours and cognitive habits that develop as people learn through experience in the social world (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 421).

The *phenomenological (humanistic) approach* maintains that the primary human motivator is an innate drive toward personal growth that prompts people to fulfil their unique and natural potential. Like the planted seed that naturally becomes a flower, people are inclined towards goodness, creativity, love and joy. Proponents of this theory emphasise that each individual perceives reality somewhat differently and that these differences, rather than traits, instincts or learning experiences, are central to creating personality differences (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 424).

What aspects of a child's world influence personality development?

Biology

- Every individual is born with a distinct, genetically-based set of psychological tendencies, or dispositions. These tendencies, which together are called temperament, affect and shape virtually every aspect of the individual's developing personality. Temperament, and therefore personality, is not merely genetic. It begins in the multitude of genetic instructions that guide the development of the brain and then is affected by the prenatal environment (Berger, 2000, p. 219).

Birth order

- Refer to birth order chart, Lesson Objectives and Teacher Information, Lesson 3.5 Infancy Development: Socioemotional domain.

Temperament

- Researchers who study personality have found what are called the "big five" dimensions of temperament:
 - *Extroversion*: the tendency to be outgoing, assertive, and active
 - *Agreeableness*: the tendency to be kind, helpful, and easygoing
 - *Conscientiousness*: the tendency to be organized, deliberate, and conforming
 - *Neuroticism*: the tendency to be anxious, moody, and self-punishing
 - *Openness*: the tendency to be imaginative, curious, artistic and welcoming of new experiences (Baron et al., 1998, p. 336).

Culture

- In every culture, preschool education not only includes but goes beyond cognitive preparation for later schooling. As an example, Japanese culture places great emphasis on social consensus and conformity. Therefore, Japan's preschools provide training in the behaviour and attitudes appropriate for group activity; children are encouraged to show concern for others and to contribute cooperatively in group activities. These social attitudes and habits prepare young children for both the formal school system and later work settings. In China, similarly, learning how to be part of the group is combined with creativity in self-expression, both drawn from the culture's Confucian ethic of disciplined study. In the United States, by contrast, preschools are often designed to foster self-confidence and self-reliance and to give children a good academic start through emphasis on language skills. Since most North American preschools are private, they vary a great deal in rules, curriculum and values (Berger, 2000, p. 296).

Parenting

- Refer to Curriculum Support Materials, Memorandum from your child.

Family

- Children's emotional health is closely related to the emotional relationship between their parents. When these relationships are warm and constructive, such that the husband and wife feel loved, admired, and encouraged to act in ways that they themselves admired, the children are happy and healthy. Couples who are emotionally close, meeting each other's needs and encouraging positive self-images in each other, become good parents. Since they meet each other's needs, they do not use their children to live out their needs; since they are happy and satisfied, they can support and meet their children's needs; and since their own identities are clarified, they see their children as distinct from themselves. All this helps the children become emotionally healthy people (Schlesinger, 1998, p. 8).

Economics

- No matter how maltreatment is defined or counted, it occurs more frequently as family income falls. This particularly true for neglect and physical abuse, which fall most heavily on children under age six who live in families with an income below the poverty line, an unemployed father, and four or more children. In such families, children obviously add to the financial pressures and are likely to become victims because of it (Berger, 2000, p. 302).

Maltreatment

- The more we learn about child maltreatment, the more we see that its causes are many and its consequences extend far beyond any immediate injury or deprivation. Compared to well-cared-for children, chronically abused and neglected children tend to be underweight, slower to talk, less able to concentrate, and delayed in academic growth. Deficits are even more apparent in social skills; maltreated children tend to regard other children and adults as hostile and exploitative, and hence they are less friendly, more aggressive, and more isolated than other children. The longer their abuse continues, and the earlier it started, the worse their relationships with peers are. As adolescents and adults, those who were severely maltreated in childhood (physically or emotionally) often use drugs or alcohol to numb their emotions, choose unsupportive relationships, sabotage their own careers, eat too much or too little, and generally engage in self-destructive behaviour (Berger, 2000, p. 258).

Self-concept

- Infants are not "given" a self by their parents or the culture. Rather, they find and construct selves. It is generally believed that awareness of "the self" develops from early experience. Indeed, one of the first stages in the development of thinking in the child is the capacity to distinguish what is "me" and what is "not me" (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 69).

Emotional regulation

- The most important emotional development during early childhood is not the emergence of new emotions such as pride or guilt, but the growing ability to inhibit, enhance, maintain and modulate emotional arousal to accomplish one's goals. This ability, called emotional regulation, is developed in response to society's expectations that preschoolers manage frustration and modulate emotional expression (Berger, 2000, p. 308).

Attachment and caregiving

- The results of past caregiving are clearly exhibited by children's reactions when another child cries in pain. Children who have been well nurtured and have formed secure attachments are able to regulate their own emotions and can express empathy, comforting the hurting child, reassuring the frightened child, or getting help if need be. Longitudinal research finds that those with insecure attachments respond abnormally to other children's distress (Berger, 2000, p. 309).

Social behaviour

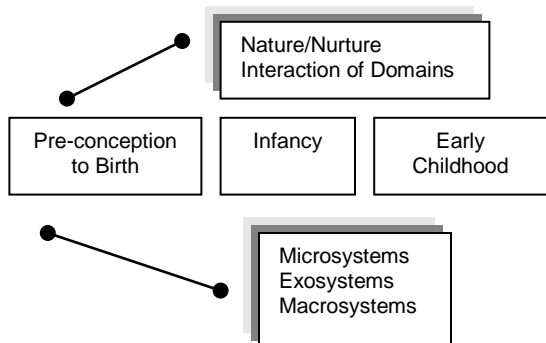
- One of the most important functions of the peer group is to provide a source of information and comparison about the world outside. Children receive feedback about their abilities from their peer group. Good peer relations may be necessary for normal socioemotional development. Social isolation, or the inability to "plug in" to a social network, is linked with many problems and disorders ranging from delinquency and problem drinking to depression.

Media

- According to Neilson Media Research, in 1996 children between the ages of two to five in the United States watched 23 hours and 21 minutes of television each week. This is more than three hours a day, and it is at least three hours more a week than the viewing time of any other age group. Among the criticisms of television are the time it takes away from active, interactive and imaginative play; the faulty nutritional messages it sends; and the sexist, racist, and ageist stereotypes it provides that are particularly harmful for inexperienced, vulnerable viewers.

Prosocial behaviour depends on emotional regulation, which is best learned through active social relationships. Television, passive observation, undercuts the very attributes, skills and values that lead to prosocial activity. However, the most compelling and convincing criticism of television concerns the antisocial behaviour it encourages, especially in children. The effect is interactive and cumulative; children who watch a lot of television are likely to be more aggressive than children who do not, and children who are already inclined to be aggressive are likely to watch a lot of violence. Television desensitizes children to violence in real life, making physical aggression seem normal. For all these reasons, children who watch substantial quantities of violent television are more likely than others to be bullies, more likely to retaliate physically for any perceived attack, more likely to be passive victims, and more likely to be passive onlookers rather than mediators when other children fight (Berger, 2000, p. 313).

4.5.2 Socialization and Play



Early childhood is often referred to as the “play years”. This stage of development establishes the foundation for all social behaviours and social interactions. It is, literally, the first step in determining, Who I Am.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support

Lesson Objectives

- Why do children play?
- What are the different kinds of play behaviours?
- How can parents encourage nonviolent play?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Research: Play behaviours in young children
 - Based on Parten’s (1932) categories of play behaviours, conduct an observational research activity to gather supporting evidence for this conceptualization of young children’s play.
 - Santrock (1999) describes another type of categorization (see Teacher Information). Do these categories describe children’s play? How does this categorization compare to those proposed by Parten?
- Discussion: Play behaviours and the mass media
 - What implications does watching television have on socialization and play?
 - What implications does using the internet have on establishing and maintaining relationships?
- Research: Play and toys
 - Design and conduct a research study investigating the types of toys children play with.
 - Are there gender differences in toy selection?
 - Are there gender differences in video game selection and usage?
- Research: Play and personality
 - Design and conduct a research study investigating the types of personalities and children’s play behaviours.
 - Are there gender differences in personality types as demonstrated through play behaviours?
- Research: Violent, aggressive behaviour and gender
 - Are play behaviours of boys more aggressive than those of girls?
 - What play types contribute to aggression and violence?

Making Connections

- Media stereotypes:
 - How are boys and girls portrayed in the media (television, print)?
- How can parents encourage nonviolent play?
 - See Teacher Information for background information and guidance based on the work of Davis and Keyser (1997).

Resources

Lesson 4.5.2: Teacher Information

Why do children play?

Play is pleasurable activity that is engaged in for its own sake. Play is essential to the young child's health. Play increases affiliation with peers, releases tension, advances cognitive development, increases exploration and provides a safe haven in which to engage in potentially dangerous behaviour.

- For Freud and Erikson, play is an essential, useful form of human adjustment, helping the child master anxieties and conflicts. Because tensions are relieved in play, the child can cope with life's problems.
- Piaget believes that play advances children's cognitive development. Play permits children to practise their competencies and acquired skills in a relaxed, pleasurable way.
- Vygotsky also believes that play is an excellent setting for cognitive development, especially the symbolic and make-believe aspects of play, as when a child substitutes a stick for a horse and rides the stick as if it were a horse.
- Play encourages exploratory behaviour by offering children the possibilities of novelty, complexity, uncertainty, surprise and incongruity (Santrock, 1999, p. 240).

What are the different kinds of play behaviours?

Mildred Parten (1932) developed the following classification of children's play:

- *Unoccupied play* occurs when the child is not engaging in play as it is commonly understood. The child may stand in one spot, look around the room, or perform random movements that do not seem to have a goal.
- *Solitary play* occurs when the child plays alone and independently of others. Two- and three-year-olds engage more frequently in solitary play than older preschoolers do.
- *Onlooker play* occurs when the child watches other children play. The child's active interest in other children's play distinguishes onlooker play from unoccupied play.
- *Parallel play* occurs when the child plays separately from others, but with toys like those the others are using or in a manner that mimics their play.

- Associative play occurs when play involves social interaction with little or no organization. In this type of play children seem to be more interested in each other than in the tasks they are performing.
- Cooperative play involves social interaction in a group with a sense of group identity and organized activity. Little cooperative play is seen in the preschool years (Santrock, 1999, p. 241).

Parten's categories represent one way of thinking about the different types of play. However, other types of play are important in children's development. Whereas Parten's categories emphasize the role of play in the child's social world, the contemporary perspective on play emphasizes both the cognitive and social aspects of play.

- *Sensorimotor play* is behaviour engaged in by infants to derive pleasure from exercising their existing sensorimotor schemas. Infants initially engage in exploratory and playful visual and motor transactions in the second quarter of the first year of life. By nine months of age, infants begin to select novel objects for exploration and play, especially objects that are responsive such as toys that make noise or bounce. By 12 months of age, infants enjoy making things work and exploring cause and effect. At this point in development, children like toys that perform when they act on them.
- *Pretense/Symbolic play*. Between nine- and 30 months of age, children increase their use of objects in symbolic play. They learn to transform objects - substituting them for other objects and acting toward them as if they were these other objects. Dramatic play or "make-believe" often appears at about 18 months of age and reaches a peak at about four- or five-years of age, then gradually declines. In the second year, infants begin to understand the social meaning of objects. For example, two-year-olds may distinguish between exploratory play that is interesting but not humorous, and "playful" play which has incongruous and humorous dimensions.
- *Social play* is play that involves social interactions with peers. Parten's categories are oriented towards social play.
- *Constructive play* combines sensorimotor/practice repetitive play with symbolic representation of ideas. Constructive play occurs when children engage in self-regulated creation or construction of a product or a problem solution.

-
- *Games* are activities engaged in for pleasure. They include rules and often competition with one or more individuals (Santrock, 1999, p. 241).

How can parents encourage nonviolent play?

Four-year-olds are busy trying to master their fears, understand mortality, and gain a sense of power in a big, often frightening world. These factors, which naturally converge in four- and five-year-olds, lead to a fascination with guns. The fact that your son is fascinated with guns right now does not mean that he will grow up to be a violent person. Rather, it means he is developmentally on target, trying to understand the power of guns, what makes people get hurt, and what makes them die, why everyone on TV is so obsessed with guns and killing, and why his parents get so upset when he points his finger at someone and pretends to shoot them.

Families have a wide range of responses to gun play. At one end of the spectrum, kids are equipped with realistic Uzi imitations, and at the other, gun play is banned altogether. Yet even in households where toy guns are not allowed, children still find ways to explore their interest in weapons; they build guns out of Legos, pick up sticks and say, “bang! bang!” or eat their peanut butter sandwiches in the shape of a gun.

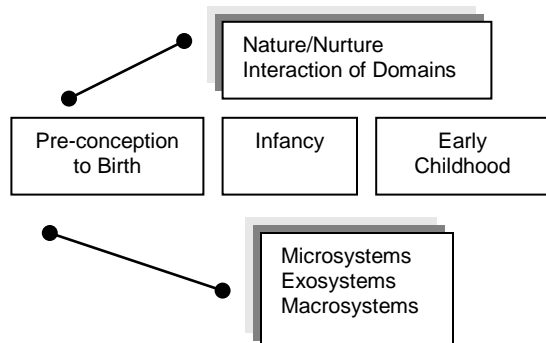
Here are some guidelines for responding to your son’s fascination with guns while encouraging nonviolence:

- Set parameters for the play. When we forbid a form of play, that play often goes underground and we lose an opportunity to help our children figure out answers to their questions. Make it clear to children that any play which intimidates, hurts or frightens another child is unacceptable. Then clarify the rules about guns at your house: “In our family, you are not allowed to point guns at any people or pets without their permission.” Or, “I want you to keep your gun play outside.”
- Provide props for play that have multiple uses. Giving children open-ended props encourages flexibility and creativity. When a child makes a gun out of plastic blocks, ten minutes later, those plastic blocks can be transformed into a container ship. However, when children play with highly realistic guns, those guns can only shoot and kill.
- Make your values clear. Children care deeply about how we see the world. Share your perspective with your son, “When I see you playing with guns, it really upsets me because people can be hurt by real guns.”
- Help children deal with their fears. Often gun play increases when children are feeling fearful. Children look for symbols of power (such as

guns and swords) to help them feel more secure. Helping children deal with their fears can take some of the intensity out of their gun play.

- Let your kids know that people are working to stop violence in the real world. Kids sometimes use gun play to cope with fears about violence in the real world. If your child seems scared of real violence, talk about people who are working to stop fighting and end war. This can help kids feel safer and therefore, less driven to engage in gun play.
- Provide kids with alternatives to gun play that help them feel powerful. Four- and five-year-olds love to be competent. Providing them with real work experiences such as carpentry, cooking and gardening can channel some of the energy being directed into gun play in a new, more creative direction (Davis and Keyser, 1997, p. 339).

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



4.5.3 Moral development during childhood

Moral development begins in early childhood. This lesson describes the theories of moral development, knowing what is “right” and “wrong”, and the processes by which children learn basic values.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How do children develop moral behaviour?
- How do children learn values?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Research: Moral development in early childhood
 - Based on the work of Kohlberg and Piaget, design and conduct a research project that examines the moral development of young children.
 - Of the two theories, which one best describes the process of moral development in young children?
- Discussion: Parental influence and values
 - Refer to the Curriculum Support Materials, When you thought I wasn't looking, and Memorandum from your child.
 - What are the implications of these two documents on the role and importance of parents in the developmental process of children?
- Discussion: Values education
 - Based on the Ecological Model, discuss with the students how the various systems of support influence moral development in young children.
 - Does any one level predominate?
 - What other major influences in developing values and moral behaviour are there?
- Discussion/Research: Moral development in children
 - Based on Kohlberg's stages of moral development, design and conduct a research study investigating the moral development of children.
- Research: Discipline and parenting styles
 - Interview your parents and discuss their methods of discipline, and the values they felt important to develop or promote in you.
 - If you were a parent, how would you discipline a child? What values would you consider most important for your young child to develop?

Making Connections

- Values, morals and cultural influences
- Values, morals and gender differences

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model
- Curriculum Support Materials: When you thought I wasn't looking
- Curriculum Support Materials: Memorandum from your child

Lesson 4.5.3: Teacher Information

How do children develop moral behaviour?

Theories of moral development:

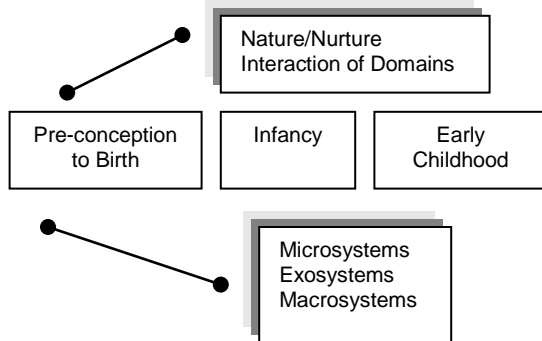
- *Social learning* theorists argue that moral behaviours are acquired through classical and operant conditioning. We resist temptation because we have been reinforced for so doing and punished for transgressions. Social learning theorists also recognize the importance of modeling or observational learning. The development of self-control is strongly influenced by models and by patterns of direct reinforcement children encounter, that is, adults' disciplinary measures.
 - *Cognitive developmental*
 - Kohlberg's theory states that the child is in the first level of moral development (preconventional morality) characterized by:
 - Stage 1: Punishment and obedience orientation, what is right or wrong is determined by what is punishable and what is not.
 - Stage 2: What is right and wrong is determined by what brings rewards and what people want.
 - Piaget's Theory
 - Heteronomous morality is the first stage of moral development in Piaget's theory, occurring from approximately four to seven years of age. Justice and rules are conceived of as unchangeable properties of the world, removed from the control of people. The heteronomous thinker judges the rightness or goodness of behaviour by considering the consequences of behaviour, not the intentions of the actor. For example, the heteronomous thinker says that breaking twelve cups accidentally is worse than breaking one cup intentionally while trying to steal a cookie (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 382).
- Children learn through our example.
 - Children learn through the values we strive towards. While it is true that children learn through what we model, it is not true that you need to have mastered a value before you teach it to your children. All of us have some values that are woven into the very fabric of who we are. At the same time, most of us have values we are newly adopting, that we haven't practiced or integrated. Even if we move toward our values in tiny increments, children will pick up on our intention and commitment, and learn that they, too, can strive toward a vision they haven't yet attained.
 - Children learn values through the way we do things as a family.
 - Children learn values and beliefs through their exposure to the larger world. Through friends, extended family, books, TV and the experiences they have in their community, children absorb values and societal norms.
 - Children learn values through our explanations of the world (Davis and Keyser, 1997, p. 6).

How do children learn values?

Every interaction with children provides an opportunity to teach values. While no parent tries to make every kiss goodnight a lesson, it is useful to think about the opportune times for teaching in families.

- Children learn about our values through daily interactions with us. When we think about teaching values to kids, we often think about taking them to church or having a talk with them

4.5.4 Gender Identity



Gender, by definition, refers to the state of “femaleness” or “maleness”. This lesson addresses how young children develop a sense of gender identity and gender roles.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How does a gender identity develop?
- What are the differences between the genders?
- What are the sociocultural influences on gender development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Sociocultural influences on gender identity
 - Based on the Ecological model, discuss with the students how each of the systems of support influences gender identity and roles.
- Jigsaw/Role Play: Theories of gender roles and identity
 - Divide the class into six groups. Assign, or have the students select, one of the six major theoretical perspectives.
 - Based on the overviews found in the Curriculum Support Materials, each group will create a role play that illustrates the development of gender roles and identity from its theoretical perspective.
- Media Study: Gender representation in the media
 - How are males and females represented in the media (television, books, comics)?
 - What stereotypes are presented?
 - Are males portrayed as more aggressive than females?
- Construction: Gender role reversal in children's books
 - Write your own children's book in which the “typical” gender roles are reversed.
 - What is the reaction of young children when they listen to the story?
 - How can you explain or account for what you discover?
- Research: Gender awareness
 - When do young boys and girls become aware of their gender identity?
 - What stereotypical attitudes do young children have of the roles of males and females?

Making Connections

- Play behaviours and gender differences
- Gender differences and aggression
- Gender differences and communication

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Theories of Gender Development

Lesson 4.5.4: Teacher Information

How does a gender identity develop?

Even at age two, gender related preferences and play patterns are apparent. Children already know whether they are boys or girls, can identify adult strangers as mommies or daddies, and apply gender labels (Mrs., Mr., lady, man) consistently. That simple cognitive awareness becomes, by age three, a rudimentary understanding that male and female distinctions are life-long. By age four, children are convinced that certain toys are appropriate for one gender but not the other. Four year-olds criticize peers who choose toys that are not appropriate for their gender and are proud of themselves when they act in gender-typical ways. When given a choice, children play with other children of their own sex, a tendency apparent at age two and clear-cut by age five. By age six, children have well formed ideas (and prejudices) about sex differences and also know which sex is better (their own) and which sex is stupid (the other). Stereotypes and taboos are also evident in fantasy play, where most of the other restrictions of daily life disappear (Berger, 2000, p. 326).

What are the differences between the genders?

Genuine behavioural differences do exist between the sexes and people's stereotypes are not entirely inaccurate. But the differences are fewer in number, smaller in size and far more complex than stereotypes suggest.

- *Social behaviour and personality:* Studies indicate that males tend to be more aggressive than females, both verbally and physically. This disparity shows up in early childhood.
- *Aggression:* One of the most consistent gender differences is that boys are more aggressive than girls. Another is that boys are more active than girls. The aggression difference is especially pronounced when children are provoked. These differences occur across cultures and appear very early in children's development. Biological factors include heredity and hormones. Environmental factors include cultural expectations, adult and peer models, and social agents who reward aggression in males and punish aggression in females
- *Emotional control:* An important skill is to be able to regulate and control your emotions and behaviour. Males usually show less self-regulation than females, and this low self-control can translate into behavioural problems. In one study, children's low self-regulation was linked with greater aggression, teasing others,

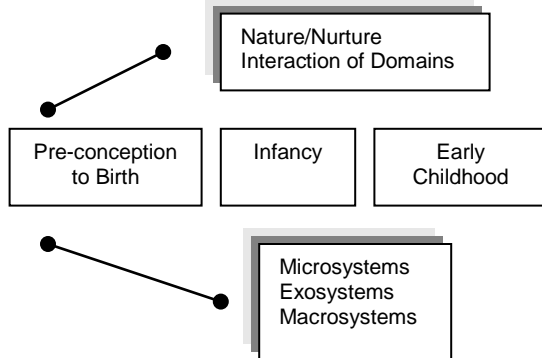
overreaction to frustration, low cooperation and inability to delay gratification (Santrock, 1999, p. 318).

What are the sociocultural influences on gender development?

Although parents do encourage "sex-appropriate" play, there is evidence that biological factors may play an initial role in children's preferences. Although fathers are less likely to give dolls to one-year-old boys than to one-year-old girls, the boys who do receive the dolls are less likely to play with them (Snow, Jacklin and Maccoby, 1983). Perhaps adult expectations and encouragement build upon children's preferences, producing an amplifying effect. Then, because boys' toys provide more opportunity for developing motor skills, visuospatial skills, and inventiveness, and girls' toys provide more opportunity for nurturance and social exchange, some important differences in sex roles may become established.

Once children begin to play with other children outside the home, peers have a significant influence on the development of their gender roles. In fact, Stern and Karraker (1989) found that the behaviour of two- to six-year-old children was even more influenced by the knowledge of a baby's gender than was the behaviour of adults. By the time children are three years old, they reinforce gender-typed play by praising, imitating or joining in the behaviour. In contrast, they criticize gender-inappropriate behaviour (Langlois and Downs, 1980). Parents indirectly encourage gender-stereotyped play by seeking out children of the same sex as playmates for their own children (Buskist et al., 1997, p. 399).

4.6 Looking through the eyes of the system of supports of the system of supports



This lesson addresses the various roles and functions of the support systems that nurture and promote healthy development of the young child. If students come from a different culture, inviting them or their parents to share their experiences of parenting and child rearing would be most valuable.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How does the sociocultural context influence the development of a young child?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Presentation: Community supports for child development
 - Contact the Director of Community Services in your Health District, and invite him or her, or a representative, to discuss some of the issues arising from the activity above.
- Discussion: Over the last thirty years, Canada has seen increased rates of separation and divorce, the declining popularity of marriage, a growing number of common-law unions, an increasing recognition of same-sex couples, and more blended families. These changes have resulted in more complex lives for many children who will grow up in a number of different family environments during their childhood and adolescence. The variety within families means that young people are growing up among peers whose family lives often differ markedly from their own.
 - What are the implications for child development, social policy and schools?
- Discussion: Parenting styles:
 - There are basically two perspectives on child rearing and parenting:
 - In order to be loved you must behave, or
 - In order to behave, you must be loved.
 - What implications do these perspectives have for parenting styles, discipline, consequences, expectations, attention-giving, attention-seeking behaviours by children?
- Discussion: Parenting styles: Prepare the child for the path, not the path for the child.
 - What implications does this statement have for parenting?
- Discussion: Where do children live in Saskatchewan?
 - Using the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials, discuss the implications for child care and healthy development based on the census data from 1996.
- Research: Television content and young children
 - Design and conduct a research study into the content appropriateness of television programs that young children might watch.
 - What stereotypes are children developing from watching television?

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Where Do Children Live in Saskatchewan?
- <http://adoption.about.com/parenting/adoption/library/writes/blprose.htm> - An excellent on-line resource for information regarding adoption

Lesson 4.6: Teacher Information

What influence does the media have on early childhood development?

According to Neilson Media Research, in 1996 children between the ages of two and five in the United States watched 23 hours and 21 minutes of television each week. This is more than three hours a day, and it is at least three hours more a week than the viewing time of any other age group. Among the criticisms of television are the time it takes away from active, interactive and imaginative play; the faulty nutritional messages it sends; and the sexist, racist, and ageist stereotypes it provides that are particularly harmful for inexperienced, vulnerable viewers. Prosocial behaviour depends on emotional regulation, which is best learned through active social relationships. Television, passive observation, undercuts the very attributes, skills and values that lead to prosocial activity. However, the most compelling and convincing criticism of television concerns the antisocial behaviour it encourages, especially in children. The effect is interactive and cumulative; children who watch a lot of television are likely to be more aggressive than children who do not, and children who are already inclined to be aggressive are likely to watch a lot of violence. Television desensitizes children to violence in real life, making physical aggression seem normal. For all these reasons, children who watch substantial quantities of violent television are more likely than others to be bullies, more likely to retaliate physically for any perceived attack, more likely to be passive victims, and more likely to be passive onlookers rather than mediators when other children fight (Berger, 2000, p. 313).

What influence does economic status and conditions have on early childhood development?

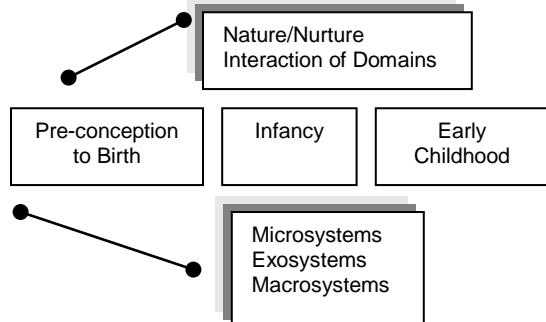
No matter how maltreatment is defined or counted, it occurs more frequently as family income falls. This is particularly true for neglect and physical abuse, which fall most heavily on children under age six who live in families with an income below the poverty line, an unemployed father, and four or more children. In such families, children obviously add to the financial pressures and are likely to become victims because of it (Berger, 2000, p. 256).

What effects does social class have on parenting and child rearing?

In most Western countries, social class differences in child rearing have been found. Working class and low-income parents often place a high value on external characteristics such as obedience and neatness. By contrast, middle-class families often place a high value on internal characteristics such

as self-control and delay of gratification. There are social class differences not only in child rearing values but also in parenting behaviours. Middle-class parents are more likely to explain something, use verbal praise, use reasoning to accompany their discipline and ask their children questions. By contrast, parents in low-income and working class households are more likely to discipline their children with physical punishment and criticize their children more (Santrock, 1999, p. 232).

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



4.7 Action research in early childhood development

This summary lesson will integrate all of the concepts covered in this unit, by actively engaging students in the design and conduct of research in developmental psychology.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What are the issues and topics for research in early childhood development?

Suggested Research Methods

- Survey
- Naturalistic Observation
- Interview
- Experimental Research
- Case Study
- Topical

- Review/Discussion: The scientific method of research
 - Refer to the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials.
 - Review and discuss the steps in the scientific method of research:
 - Develop a research question
 - Describe the hypothesis
 - Select a research method
- Observation Experiment Interview Case Study Survey Topical
 - Describe the process to be followed
 - Gather the data
 - Analyze the data
 - Report the findings, account for reliability and validity
 - State conclusions in relation to the hypothesis
- Discussion: A comparison of research methods in the social sciences
 - Using the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials, complete the comparison chart of research methods.
 - Invite students, or groups, to defend its choice of the most appropriate research method based on its chosen topic.
 - Discuss the many formats for presentation of the data and research findings. Depending on the topic chosen and the research method selected, presentation formats may include written reports, oral presentations, portfolios, role plays and drama activities, three-panel displays, posters, brochures, bulletin board displays, PowerPoint or other computer-based presentation software, web pages, etc.
- Review/Discussion: Issues in social science research
 - Using the six templates supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials (Frequently Asked Questions about interviews, surveys, case studies, observation, experiments and topical research methods), review and discuss the issues and methods for each individual or group research project.
- Discussion: The research process
 - Ensure that each individual or group research project has completed all documentation (The Scientific Method of Research, Permission to Conduct Research) before commencing the research.

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Scientific Method of Research
- Curriculum Support Materials: Permission to Conduct Research Form
- Curriculum Support Materials: A Comparison Chart For Research Methods
- Curriculum Support Materials: Frequently Asked Questions: Interviews, Surveys, Case Studies, Naturalistic Observation, Experiments and Topical

Lesson 4.7: Suggested issues and research methods

Type of Research	Suggested Research Topics
<p>Survey</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conducting research using a survey involves going out and asking questions about the phenomenon of interest. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Should parents be legally permitted to spank their children? Are you afraid that television values are replacing family values? Should the government be launching a national daycare program paid for by taxpayers? Should parents be held accountable in some way for the behaviour of their children? Should parental discipline of young children include spanking?
<p>Naturalistic Observation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> In naturalistic research, the observer does not intervene at all. For all intents and purposes, the researcher is invisible and works hard not to interrupt the natural dynamics of the situation being investigated. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can you find evidence of Piaget's pre-operational stage of development in young children? Can you find evidence to support Vygotsky's concept of scaffolding and the zone of proximal in young children's cognitive development? How is playground safety for young children demonstrated? What is the process of language development in young children? How are basic human values values developed and promoted in young children? What is the process of language development in young children? How is self-awareness demonstrated by young children?
<p>Topical</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A topical research study involves the acquisition, synthesis, organization, and presentation of information. Typically, the topical research study will involve both paper based as well as web-based resources. Additional information may be gained through the other research methods and strategies. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What is the nutritional value of fast food for young children?
<p>Interview</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The interview method of research, typically, involves a face-to-face meeting in which a researcher (interviewer) asks an individual a series of questions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Are there basic temperament and personality traits in young children? Are there gender differences in aggressive behaviour? How is moral behaviour developed and promoted in young children? Is there an awareness of gender role differences in young children? Are there gender differences in terms of aggression and emotional control in young children? How are genders represented on television and in young children's books?
<p>Case study</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A case study is an intensive study of one individual. Typically, the case study is based on interviews with the subject regarding his or her background, present thinking or actions; it may also utilize interviews of others who know the individual. Additional case study material may be obtained through observation, experiments and standardized tests, such as personality inventories and intelligence tests. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Children <ul style="list-style-type: none"> values impressions of media mental schemas play behaviours toys

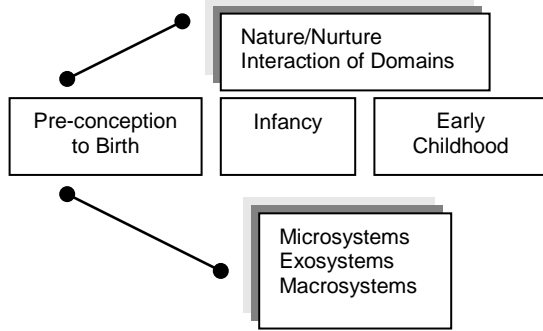
Experimental research

- Experimental researchers take care to create an environment in which they can make causal statements. They manipulate variables, randomly assign participants to various conditions, and seek to control other influences that could affect their research.

Research one of the following topics:

- Piaget's preoperational stage of development
- Vygotsky's concept of scaffolding and the zone of proximal development
- Language development

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



4.8 Perspectives on child development

In this summary lesson, we consider how the lifespan approach to human development can be used as a lens through which we can view early childhood development.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How is child development described from the perspective of the lifespan approach?
- How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to child development?
- How would each of the six theoretical perspectives on human development explain child development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Think-Pair-Share: Lifespan approach
 - Using the Think-Pair-Share instructional strategy, direct the students to provide examples of how the lifespan approach helps describe the process of human child development.
- Discussion/Group activity: Key issues and questions
 - Use the four key issues and questions found in the Teacher Information section to discuss the key questions as they relate to child development. Break the class into four groups or discuss with the whole class.
- Jigsaw: Theoretical perspectives on human development
 - Divide the class into six groups, and assign one of the six theoretical perspectives to each group.
 - Direct each group to support its perspective on human development with specific examples from the information provided in the unit. What evidence can group members find to support their theoretical perspective?
 - Each group will then present its theoretical perspective on child development.
 - Synthesize the findings and examples from each group. Create a comparison chart to compare the results.
- Reflection/Discussion: Analogies of development
 - Development is like (1) a staircase, (2) a seedling in a greenhouse, or (3) a strand of ivy in a forest (Santrock, 1999).
 - Reflect on, and discuss how each of these analogies describes the nature of development.
 - Construct your own analogy. Development is like ...

Making Connections

- Psychology Squares!
 - The students can create their own version of Psychology Squares! to play against other teams.
 - Have the students design and create a board game as a means of review for the unit. The students can use any other board game format or create an entirely new format.

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: The Lifespan Perspective on Human Development
- Curriculum Support Materials: Theoretical Perspectives on Human Development

Lesson 4.8: Teacher Information

How is child development described from the perspective of the lifespan approach?

The lifespan perspective on human development has seven basic characteristics. Development is:

- Life-long
 - No age period dominates development.
- Multi-dimensional
 - Development consists of biological, cognitive, socioemotional and spiritual dimensions.
- Multidirectional
 - Some aspects of development increase, while others decrease.
- Plastic
 - Depending on the individual's life conditions, development may take many paths.
- Historically-embedded
 - Development is influenced by historical conditions.
- Multidisciplinary
 - Psychologists, sociologists, anthropologists, neuroscientists and medical researchers all study human development and share a concern for unlocking the mysteries of development throughout the lifespan.
- Contextual
 - The individual continually responds to and acts on contexts, which include a person's biological makeup, physical environment, and social, historical, and cultural contexts (Santrock, 1999, p. 10).

How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to child development?

From the time of its establishment, several key issues and questions have dominated the field of developmental psychology. Among these issues are the nature of developmental change, the importance of critical periods, lifespan approaches versus the more focused approaches, and the nature-nurture issue.

- **Continuous change versus discontinuous change:** In continuous change, developmental change is gradual, with achievements at one level building on those of previous levels. In contrast, discontinuous change occurs in distinct stages or steps. Each stage brings about behaviour that is assumed to be qualitatively different from behaviour at earlier stages.
- A **critical period** is a specific time during development when a particular event has its greatest consequences. Critical periods occur

when the presence of certain kinds of environmental stimuli are necessary for development to proceed normally.

- **Lifespan approaches versus a focus on a particular period:** Developmentalists now believe the entire lifespan is important, for several reasons. One is the discovery that developmental growth and change continue during every part of life. Furthermore, to understand fully the social influences on people of a given age, we need to understand the people who are, in large measure, providing those influences. For instance, to understand development in infants, we need to unravel the effects of their parents' ages on the social environment.
- **Nature versus nurture:** One of the enduring questions of development involves how much of people's behaviour is due to their genetically-determined nature and how much is due to nurture, the physical and social environment in which a child is raised. In this context, **nature** refers to traits, abilities and capacities that are inherited from one's parents. Nature encompasses any factor that is produced by the predetermined unfolding of genetic information - a process known as maturation. These genetic, inherited influences are at work as we move from the one-celled organism that is created at the moment of conception to the billions of cells that make up a fully-formed human being. In contrast **nurture** refers to the environmental influences that shape behaviour. Some of these influences may be biological, such as the impact of a pregnant mother's substance abuse on the fetus, or the amount and kind of food available to children. Other environmental influences are more social, such as the ways parents discipline their children and the effects of peer pressure on adolescents (Feldman, 2000, p. 10).

How would each of the six theoretical perspectives on human development explain child development?

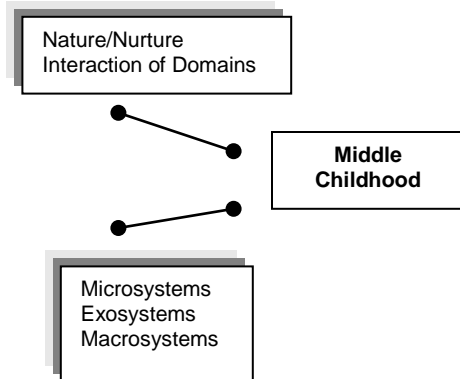
Lifespan development has produced a number of broad conceptual perspectives representing different approaches to development. Each broad perspective encompasses a number of theories, explanations and predictions concerning phenomena of interest. A theory provides a framework for understanding the relationships among an organized set of principles or facts. The six major theoretical perspectives include:

-
- **Psychodynamic Perspective: Focusing on the inner person.** Rooted in Freud's theory, the psychodynamic approach maintains that all behaviour and mental processes reflect the constant and mostly unconscious psychological struggles that rage silently within each person. Usually, these struggles involve conflict between the impulse to satisfy instincts or wishes and the need to play by the rules in society. Anxiety, depression and other disorders are outward signs of this inner turmoil (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).
 - **The Behavioural Perspective: Considering the outer person.** As founded by John Watson, the behavioural approach views behaviour and mental processes as primarily the result of learning. Psychologists who take this approach see rewards and punishment acting on the raw materials provided by genes, evolution and biology to shape each individual. So, whether considering a person's aggression or drug abuse, behaviourists would look at that person's learning history. Since people learn problem behaviours, they can also learn to change or even prevent them by unlearning old habits and developing new ones (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).
 - **The Cognitive Perspective: Examining the roots of understanding.** The cognitive perspective focuses on how people take in, mentally represent and store information. Cognitive psychologists then relate perception and information processing to patterns of behaviour. They study such areas as decision-making, problem-solving, interpersonal attraction and intelligence. Aggression, for instance, might be viewed as a result of poor problem solving (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).
 - **The Humanistic Perspective: Concentrating on the unique qualities of human beings.** According to the humanistic approach, our capacity to choose how to think and act determines our behaviour. Each person's unique perceptions – not instincts, cognitive processes, or rewards and punishments – dictate the choices made. Humanistic psychologists believe that people are essentially good, that they are in control of themselves, and that they seek to grow toward their highest potential (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 12).
 - **The Evolutionary Perspective: Focusing on biology as the determinant of development.** Darwin's ideas on evolution and adaptation of species laid the foundation for the evolutionary approach. The evolutionary approach to psychology holds that the behaviour of animals and humans today is the result of evolution through natural selection. Psychologists who follow this approach are concerned with the adaptive value of behaviour, the anatomy and biology that make it possible and the environmental conditions that encourage or discourage it (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).
 - **The Sociocultural Perspective: Emphasizing the systems of support.** Calling attention to the external influences on human behaviour such as the physical surroundings and social interactions that provide incentives, opportunities and pathways for growth, Urie Bronfenbrenner (1979) began to emphasize the ecological approach to the study of human development. In Bronfenbrenner's application of this concept, human ecosystems include both the physical environment (the climate, the space per person, that arrangement of the dwelling) and the social environment (the people, the culture, the economy) (Berger, 2000, p. 4).

Unit Five: Middle Childhood

Concept Web

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Unit Overview

In middle and late childhood, children are on a different plane, belonging to a generation and feeling all their own. It is the wisdom of the human lifespan that at no time are children more ready to learn than during the period of expansive imagination at the end of early childhood. Children develop a sense of wanting to make things, and not just to make them, but make them well and even perfectly. Their thirst is to know and to understand. They are remarkable for their intelligence and for their curiosity. Their parents continue to be important influences in their lives, but their growth is also shaped by successive cohorts of friends. They do not think much about the future or the past, but they enjoy the present moment (Santrock, 1999).

Learning Objectives

Knowledge

- To understand physical changes during childhood.
- To understand cognitive changes during childhood.
- To understand socioemotional changes during childhood.

Skills

- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings by making connections with existing knowledge and understandings.

- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings within the discipline of psychology.
- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings with other disciplines.
- To apply those concepts and understandings in a variety of practical, pertinent and contemporary issues.

Values

- To appreciate the complex, dynamic, reciprocal and personal aspects of human development.

Lessons and Lesson Objectives

- 5.1 Unit Overview: Developmental changes during childhood
 - What roles do nature and nurture play in the development of a child?
 - What are the sociocultural influences on child development?
- 5.2 Looking through the eyes of a child, what do you see?
 - What are physical changes during childhood?
 - What are cognitive changes during childhood?
 - What are socioemotional changes during childhood?
- 5.3 Childhood Development: Physical and cognitive domains
 - What are the physical developmental changes during childhood?
 - What is the process of cognitive development during childhood?
- 5.4 Childhood Development: Socioemotional domain
 - What is the process of socioemotional development in childhood?
 - How do children develop a sense of self?
 - How do children develop a sense of moral and ethical behaviour?
 - What influence do friendships have on healthy socioemotional development in childhood?
 - How does gender influence development during childhood?
- 5.4.1 Childhood issues
 - How do sports influence children?
 - What influence does exercise have on childhood development?
 - How do learning disabilities influence childhood development?

- What effect does Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) have on children?
 - What is the role and nature of aggression in children?
 - How do children become obese?
 - Who are bullies, and what effects do they have on other people?
 - What effect does divorce have on children?
- 5.5 Looking through the eyes of the systems of supports, what do you see?
- How does the sociocultural environment influence child development?
- 5.6 Action research in middle childhood development
- Who are your heroes?
 - What qualities do you admire in a friend?
 - What are your leisure activities?
 - Moral dilemmas:
 - Is it right to steal life-saving medicines that could save the life of a family member?
 - Is it right to tell the police if you know that a friend has committed a crime?
 - If you found a large sum of money in an unmarked envelope, should you keep it?
 - What jobs are men (women) most suited for?
 - What are the eating habits of school-aged children?
 - How is Erikson's stage of Industry versus Inferiority demonstrated in children?
 - What are the different types of group behaviours in children?
 - How do the play behaviours of school-age children compare to the play behaviours of young children?
 - When, and how do children develop a sense of gender roles?
 - What are the most common forms of leisure activities in children?
 - Are there gender differences in aggression in school-aged children?
 - How are school-aged children represented on television and in the movies?
 - Are there gender differences in watching television?
 - What is Attention Deficit Hyperactive Disorder (ADHD)?
 - What was your parent's childhood like?
- What are the parenting styles and strategies of your parents?
 - How does self-awareness develop in children?
 - What have been the changes in families and parenting since your grandparents were raising their children?
 - What is it like to teach?
 - Can you find evidence of Piaget's stages of cognitive development in children?
 - How is the process of morality development in children?
- 5.7 Lifespan approach to child development
- How is child development described from the perspective of the lifespan approach?
 - How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to child development?
 - How would each of the six theoretical perspectives on human development explain child development?

Resources and Resource-Based Learning

Resource-based learning is an integral part of all units. The accompanying bibliography will assist you in incorporating a variety of resources from different media into each unit. This annotated bibliography should be available from your teacher librarian. It is available from Saskatchewan Learning through the website at www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/ or from the Learning Resources Distribution Centre at 306-787-5987. The bibliography contains annotations of current, useful resources including print, video, Internet sites, and other media selections. Teachers are encouraged to assess their current resource collection, identify those resources that are still useful, and acquire small quantities of each new title, rather than class sets, in order to provide students with a broad range of perspectives and information.

The following list of evaluated resource titles provides a **starting point** for developing a resource collection that is current and relevant, and that addresses students' various learning styles and abilities. **Please refer to the bibliography for a complete list of resources giving the full citation, annotation, and ordering information.** Please note that many of these resources can be ordered through the **Learning Resources Distribution Centre** (<http://lrdc.sasked.gov.sk.ca/>). Videos may be available from **Media Group**

(<http://www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/video>). At the time of publication all of the resources listed here and in the bibliography were in print and available.

Please note that LRDC will be closing effective March 31, 2003. If you need assistance acquiring Saskatchewan Learning materials after that date, please contact 787-5987.

Print Resources

Boys Will Be Men: Raising Our Sons for Courage, Caring & Community

Canadian Families: Diversity, Conflict & Change

Readings in Child Development: A Canadian Perspective

Self-Discipline: Using Portfolios to Help Students Develop Self-Awareness, Manage Emotions & Build Relationships

Troublesome Children

Internet Sites

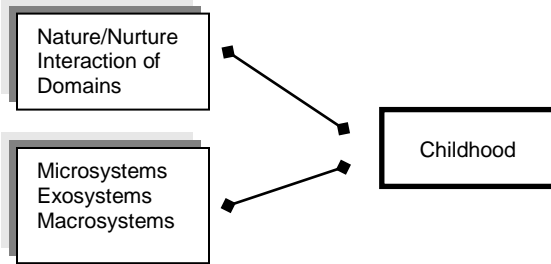
The following sites provide a brief overview of what is available. These sites were checked for availability in March 2002. To access sites that have been formally evaluated and linked to the curriculum visit the Evergreen Curriculum at the Saskatchewan Learning website -

<http://www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/docs/evergrn.html>.

Childcare Resource and Research Unit -

<http://www.childcarecanada.org>

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



5.1 Unit Overview: Developmental changes during childhood

This overview lesson examines the biological, cognitive and socioemotional aspects of the developmental process during childhood.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What roles do nature and nurture play in the development of a child?
- What are the sociocultural influences on child development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Nature/nurture and childhood development
 - Using the template Nature/Nurture and Child Development as a conceptual organizer, discuss with the students those aspects of human development that might be attributed exclusively to either purely hereditary or inherited factors (intelligence, language development, motor skill development, temperament and personality, skin colour, hair colour, length, and weight), and those aspects which are a result of environmental influence (cognitive development, social development, etc.).
- Discussion: Systems of support for childhood development
 - Using the template The Ecological Model, discuss how each of the levels influences development. Identify specific influences, programs, support services, people and places that influence child development.
 - Discuss the relative nature of the influences in terms of the degree of influence, in other words, is the microsystem level more important than the macrosystem level?
 - Discuss also the specific support systems that might exist in your local community, town, or region that parents could access.
- Discussion: Childhood development
 - Review the three aspects of development to be studied, physical, cognitive, and socioemotional. Discuss how the three aspects interact to support development, for example, gross and fine motor skills (physical) with thinking and memory (cognitive) and temperament (socioemotional) in play situations.
- Discussion: Childhood development
 - Review the larger developmental tasks for each of the three aspects:
 - Physical: sports and athletics, gross and fine motor control, hobbies
 - Cognitive: language development, memory, competency, and skill development
 - Socioemotional: emotions, socialization, play, friends, beginnings of personality, and gender identity

Making Connections

- When does a child become an adolescent?
- What are the “rites of passage” that we use as social markers to highlight the transition from childhood to adolescence?

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Nature/Nurture and Human Development
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model

Lesson 5.1: Teacher Information

What roles do nature and nurture play in the development of a child?

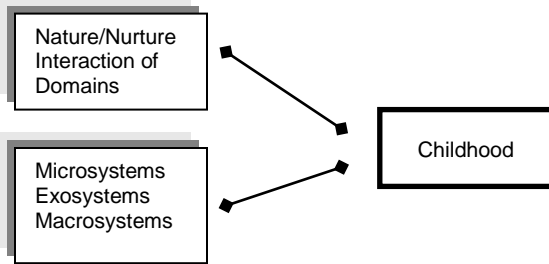
Nature refers to the changes in development as a result of the influence of the genetic code humans inherit from their parents. Nurture refers to the influences of nutrition, culture, the mass media, peers, stressors, families and parenting, in effect, the sociocultural context that surrounds the developing person.

What are the sociocultural influences on child development?

At the microsystem level, discuss with the students the relative influences of parents, peers and the classroom setting. In what ways do these aspects of the system of support influence our physical, emotional, cognitive and spiritual development? Do parents, peers or the classroom, dominate during childhood?

At the exosystem level, discuss the relative influences of the school, the mass media (refer to topic 6.5.7 for more information) and the community. What school policies are in place that promote healthy development? How has changing technology influenced child development? What community resources are available to promote healthy child development?

At the macrosystem level, discuss the influence that economic status and culture, in particular, have on child development. Are children as sensitive to the pressures of status as adolescents? How do different cultures (individualistic, collectivist and Aboriginal) view childhood?



5.2 Looking through the eyes of a child

This overview lesson addresses the physical, mental, emotional and spiritual aspects of development during childhood.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What are physical changes during childhood?
- What are cognitive changes during childhood?
- What are socioemotional changes during childhood?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: The Medicine Wheel
 - Using the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials, discuss with the students the developmental changes, issues and challenges for each of the four aspects of our being during childhood.
 - Are there any aspects to development during this stage that are similar to, or different from, early childhood? Adolescence? Adulthood?
- Discussion: The play years
 - What does it mean to be a “child”?
 - What qualities or aspects are unique to childhood?
 - “If someone asked you to pick the best years of the entire lifespan, you might choose the years from about six to 11 and defend your choice persuasively” (Berger, 2000). How do your students respond to this statement?
- Discussion: The Wild Boy of Aveyron
 - Based on the article “The Wild Boy of Aveyron” in the *Ages and Stages* journal, have the students discuss what aspects of infant development were demonstrated or delayed/missing in the “wild boy”.
- Reflection/Research: What was it like to be a child?
 - Reflect on your own childhood. What was it like to be a child when you were growing up?
 - Interview your parents or other adults. What was it like to be a child when they were growing up? What were the issues and challenges they faced as a child?

Making Connections

- Children’s literature: What books are most popular? Why?
- Childhood hobbies and activities
- Adult identification: Who do children identify with?

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: The Medicine Wheel
- *Ages and Stages*: Introduction to developmental psychology, “The Wild Boy of Aveyron”

Lesson 5.2: Teacher Information

classification, and ethnicity and gender (Santrock, 1999, p. 333).

What are physical changes during childhood?

During the elementary school years, children grow an average of five or eight centimetres a year. Muscle mass and strength gradually increase. Legs lengthen and trunks slim down. Growth is slow and consistent. Motor development becomes smoother and more coordinated. Boys are usually better at gross motor skills, girls at fine motor skills. Our nation's children are not getting enough exercise. Sociocultural factors, such as poverty, can place considerable stress on children. One of children's important buffers against stress is the long-term presence of a basic trusting relationship with at least one adult. A readily available support network is also important. A special concern involves children with disabilities, including children with a learning disability or attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (Santrock, 1999, p. 333).

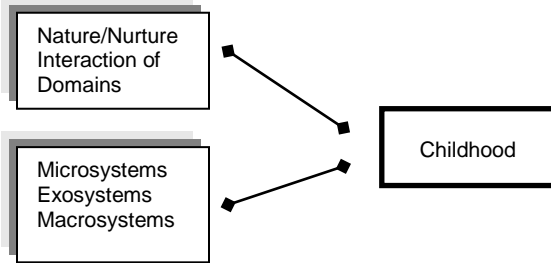
What are cognitive changes during childhood?

According to Piaget, the seven- to 11-year-old child's cognitive development is characterized by concrete operational thought, which involves operations. Concrete operations are mental actions that are reversible. Children's long-term memory, metacognitive knowledge, and cognitive monitoring improve during childhood. It is important for children to engage in critical thinking. Children's creativity should be encouraged. During middle and late childhood, children become more analytical and logical in their approach to words and grammar. Reading is a more central aspect of language in the childhood years (Santrock, 1999, p. 333).

What are socioemotional changes during childhood?

Parents spend less time with their children in childhood, but parents are still very important socializing agents in this period. New parent-child issues emerge, and discipline changes. In childhood, two major changes in many children's lives are movement into a stepfamily and becoming a latchkey child. Children spend considerably more time with peers in this period. In peer relations, children can be popular, average, rejected, neglected, or controversial. Friendships become more important. The internal self, the social self and the socially comparative self become more prominent in self-understanding during this period. Perspective-taking increases during this period. Self-concept and self-esteem are important dimensions of the child's socioemotional development during this period. Gender is an important aspect of elementary school children's development, especially gender stereotypes, similarities and differences, gender-role

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



5.3 Childhood Development: Physical and cognitive domains

The lifespan period from ages six–12 is a time of slow, consistent physical growth before the onset of puberty.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What are physical developmental changes during childhood?
- What is the process of cognitive development during childhood?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Research: Play behaviours and physical development
 - Design and conduct a research study into the play behaviours of children in terms of their physical development. What play behaviours do males demonstrate that emphasize physical development? What play behaviours do females demonstrate that emphasize physical development?
 - Discuss the similarities or differences that might exist.
- Research: Nutrition, physical development and childhood
 - Design and conduct a research study into the eating habits and nutritional value of meals of children.
 - What are the eating habits and nutritional value of the meals that males would typically eat in a week?
 - What are the eating habits and nutritional value of the meals that females would typically eat in a week?
 - Discuss the similarities or differences that might exist.
- Research: Cognitive changes in middle childhood
 - Design and conduct a research study into the cognitive changes of children in middle childhood. Using Piaget’s research into the cognitive abilities of children at the preoperational and concrete operations levels, design an experiment to test such cognitive abilities as memory, processing speed and problem solving.
- Research: Teaching at the middle childhood level
 - Interview a teacher to investigate the issues, challenges, strategies and styles of teaching a middle childhood student. Are there gender differences? What strategies do teachers use for “gifted” students? What strategies do teachers use for students with learning difficulties?
- Research: Mental schemas of children
 - Compare and contrast the differences in the mental schemas between the two age groups of students. Using the same set of concepts and topics for mental schemas that were used for younger children (refer to Lesson 4.4 Childhood Development: Cognitive domain) such as love, parents, heaven, doctors, “right and wrong”, interview middle childhood-age students and collect information about their mental schemas.

Making Connections

- Physical development and nutrition: What are the typical eating habits of children?
- How do fast food establishments cater to children, and promote, “Kid’s Meals”?
- Research eating disorders: Anorexia and bulimia

Resources

- Lesson 4.4 Childhood Development: Cognitive domain

Lesson 5.3: Teacher Information

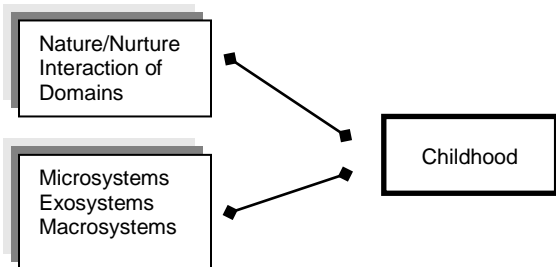
What are physical developmental changes during middle childhood?

Refer to Lesson 5.2 for information regarding physical changes during middle childhood.

What is the process of cognitive development during childhood?

A nine- or 10-year-old child is a very different kind of thinker than say, a four- or five-year-old preschooler. Not only do older children know more, they also use their minds much better when they must solve a problem or remember a piece of information. By middle childhood, most children have acquired a sense of “the game of thinking” and they begin to enjoy an intellectual challenge as much as an athletic one. They begin to realize that good thinking involves considerable evidence, planning ahead, thinking logically, formulating alternative hypotheses, and being consistent. This is the Piagetian stage of concrete operational thought. They try to incorporate these qualities into their own reasoning and use them to evaluate the thinking of others. A marked improvement in memory occurs between ages seven and 11, particularly apparent in older children’s ability to remember essential facts over a period of days or longer, with no forgetting. Selective attention, increases in processing speed and the development of thinking patterns are all factors behind the improvement (Berger, 2000, p. 365).

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



5.4 Childhood Development: Socioemotional domain

As children grow and mature, the nature of their social relationships, their concept of self, and their gender identity and awareness all increase profoundly. This lesson addresses all aspects of the socioemotional domain.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What is the process of socioemotional development in childhood?
- How do children develop a sense of self?
- How do children develop a sense of moral and ethical behaviour?
- What influence do friendships have on healthy socioemotional development in childhood?
- How does gender influence development during childhood?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Research: Children's concept of self
 - Create and conduct a research study on the change in children's self-concept from early childhood to middle and late childhood. Do you observe the changes noted in the Teacher information section? Are there gender differences in the results?
- Research: Erikson's stages
 - Using observational research techniques, what examples can you find to support Erikson's theory that the dominant crisis of this stage is that of industry versus inferiority. What clubs, hobbies, activities, teams and groups do children join, and why? Are there gender differences in these choices? Are there cultural differences in these choices?
- Research: Moral behaviour development
 - Construct a moral dilemma (such as the need to steal for life-saving medicine that a family cannot afford to buy), and conduct a research experiment to test Kohlberg's stages of moral development.
 - Are there gender differences in the results? Are there age differences in the results that can be explained by Kohlberg's model?
- Research: Gender differences
 - Design and conduct a research study investigating the differences between boys and girls on the following topics:
 - qualities of a friend
 - friendships
 - qualities of the opposite sex
 - basic values and beliefs
 - morals and ethical behaviour.

Making Connections

- Vandalism and antisocial behaviours in childhood
- Gangs and group behaviours during childhood
- Moral behaviour and influence of the media. What is right? Wrong? What influence does the mass media have on development of values, ethics and moral judgments?

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Kohlberg's Stages of Moral Development

Lesson 5.4: Teacher Information

What is the process of socioemotional development in childhood?

Erikson's fourth stage of the human lifespan, industry versus inferiority, appears during childhood. The term industry expresses a dominant theme of this period: Children become interested in how things are made and how they work. Children's social worlds beyond their families also contribute to a sense of industry. School becomes especially important in this regard (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 413).

Erikson agrees with Freud that childhood is a quiet period emotionally, a period in which "the child becomes ready to apply himself to given skills and tasks." During Erikson's crisis of industry versus inferiority, children busily try to master whatever their culture values. On the basis of their degree of success, they judge themselves as either industrious or inferior or, in other words, competent or incompetent, productive or failing, winners or losers (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 369).

How do children develop a sense of self?

In childhood, self-understanding increasingly shifts from defining oneself through external characteristics to defining oneself through internal characteristics such as preferences, personality traits and qualities. In addition to the increase of psychological characteristics in self-definition, the social aspects of the self also increase at this point in development. Children's self-understanding also includes increasing reference to social comparisons. Many developmentalists believe that perspective-taking plays an important role in self-understanding. Perspective-taking is the ability to assume another person's perspective and understand his or her thoughts and feelings (Santrock, 1999, p. 312).

How do children develop a sense of moral and ethical behaviour?

According to developmental psychologist Lawrence Kohlberg, people pass through a series of stages in the evolution of their sense of justice and in the kind of moral reasoning they use to make moral judgments. Kohlberg suggests that moral development can best be understood within the context of a three-level sequence, which is further subdivided into six stages. At the lowest level, pre-conventional morality, people follow unvarying rules based on rewards and punishments. In the next level, that of conventional morality, people approach moral problems in terms of their own position as good, responsible members of society.

Finally, individuals use post-conventional morality to invoke universal moral principles that are considered broader than the rules of the particular society in which they live. Kohlberg's theory proposes that people move through the stages in a fixed order and that they are unable to reach the highest stage until adolescence (Feldman, 2000, p. 348).

Psychologist Carol Gilligan has suggested an alternative account of the development of moral behaviour in girls. She suggests that differences in the way boys and girls are raised in our society lead to basic distinctions in how men and women view moral behaviour. According to Gilligan, boys view morality primarily in terms of broad principles such as fairness and justice, whereas girls see it in terms of the responsibility towards individuals and willingness to sacrifice themselves to help specific individuals within the context of particular relationships. Compassion for individuals, then, is a more prominent factor in moral behaviour for women than it is for men (Feldman, 2000, p. 350).

What influence do friendships have on healthy socioemotional development in childhood?

Children's friendships are vitally important. They serve six functions: companionship, stimulation, physical support, ego support, social comparison and intimacy/affection. Two of friendships most common characteristics are intimacy and similarity. Intimacy in friendships refers to self-disclosure and the sharing of private thoughts. True intimate friendships may not appear until early adolescence. Also, through childhood, friends are more similar than dissimilar in terms of age, sex, race, and many other factors. Friends also play important roles in shaping children's and adolescents' well-being and development. In terms of well-being, all people have a number of basic social needs. These include the need for tenderness (secure attachment), playful companionship, social acceptance, intimacy, and sexual relations. If the need for social acceptance is not met, we suffer a lower sense of self-worth (Santrock, 1999, p. 307).

How does gender influence development during childhood?

Gender is a pervasive aspect of an individual's identity. Three areas of socioemotional development where gender similarities and differences have been studied extensively are communication styles, social relationships, and aggression.

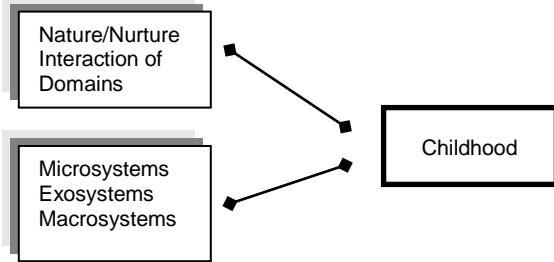
Sociolinguist Deborah Tannen (1990) distinguishes between rapport talk and report talk. Rapport talk is the language of conversation and a way of establishing connections and negotiating

relationships. Report talk is talk that gives information. Males hold centre stage through report talk with such verbal performances as storytelling, joking and lecturing with information. By contrast, females prefer private, rapport talk and conversation that is relationship-oriented. Tannen says that boys and girls grow up in different worlds of talk – parents, siblings, peers, teachers and others talk to boys and girls differently.

The play of boys and girls is also different. Boys tend to play in large groups that are hierarchically structured, and their groups usually have a leader who tells the others what to do and how to do it. Boys' games have winners and losers and often are the subject of arguments. Boys often boast of their skill and argue about who is best at what. By contrast, girls are more likely to play in small groups or pairs, and the centre of a girl's world is often a best friend. In girls' friendships and peer groups, intimacy is pervasive. Turn-taking is more characteristic of girls' games than of boys' games. And much of the time, girls simply like to sit and talk with each other, concerned more about being liked by others than jockeying for status in some obvious way.

One of the most consistent gender differences is that boys are more aggressive than girls. Another is that boys are more active than girls. The aggression difference is especially pronounced when children are provoked. These differences occur across cultures and appear very early in children's development. Both biological and environmental factors have been proposed to account for gender differences in aggression. Biological factors include hormones and heredity. Environmental factors include cultural expectations, adult and peer models, and social agents who reward aggression in boys and punish aggression in girls (Santrock, 1999, p. 317).

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



5.4.1 Issues and challenges in childhood

This lesson addresses the issues of middle childhood using a research-oriented focus. Students are directed to analyze the research findings from a theoretical perspective to explain childhood issues.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support

Lesson Objectives

- How do sports influence children?
- What influence does exercise have on childhood development?
- How do learning disabilities influence childhood?
- What effect does Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) have on children?
- What is the role and nature of aggression in children?
- How do children become obese?
- Who are bullies, and what effects do they have on other people?
- What effect does divorce have on children?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Research: Issues in middle childhood
 - Divide the class into small groups, or pairs. Brainstorm a list of issues for research in middle childhood. Based on the issues suggested by the students, or those listed above and described in the Teacher Information section, assign a research topic to each group.
 - Each group will decide on a research methodology most appropriate to the research topic or question.
 - Each group will describe its research methodology, data analysis and method of presentation to submit before conducting the research.
 - What, if any, gender differences were evident in the research findings?
- Jigsaw: Theoretical perspectives in middle childhood
 - Using the theoretical summaries found in the Curriculum Support Materials, assign a theoretical perspective to each group.
 - Based on the research findings from the studies conducted above, how would the findings be explained or interpreted by the theoretical perspective?

Making Connections

- Aggression and violence
- Personality development

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Theoretical Perspectives on Human Behaviour

Lesson 5.4.1: Teacher Information

How do sports influence children?

Participation in sports can have both positive and negative consequences for children. Children's participation in sports can provide exercise, opportunities to learn how to compete, increased self-esteem, and a setting for developing peer relations and friendships. However, sports can also have negative outcomes for children: too much pressure to achieve and win, physical injuries, a distraction from academic work, and unrealistic expectations for success as an athlete (Santrock, 1998, p. 275).

What influence does exercise have on childhood development?

Many of our patterns of health and illness are long-standing. Our experiences as children contribute to our health practices as adults. In summary, not only do children's school weeks not include adequate physical education classes, but the majority of children do not exercise vigorously even when they are in such classes. Furthermore, most children's parents are poor role models for vigorous physical exercise (Santrock, 1999, p. 266).

How do learning disabilities influence childhood?

Characteristics of children with mild, moderate and severe learning disabilities include:

- Mild learning difficulties: These children have some difficulties with normal school work, but can cope with the normal curriculum. If work is differentiated and support is available, their needs can be met.
- Moderate learning difficulties: These children make very limited progress in basic academic skills such as literacy and numeracy, despite support being given. As a result, they need additional help, achieved by a statement of their special educational needs.
- Severe learning difficulties: These children function at a low level in terms of basic skills. Communication skills and academic attainment are normally very limited (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 665).

What effect does Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) have on children?

It is estimated that from three to five percent of all school-age children in Canada – and elsewhere –

suffer from attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. Found in most cultures and in most countries (Simeon and Wiggins, 1993), ADHD is four or five times more common among boys, and it is first noticed, usually, between three and four years of age.

Regardless of gender, ADHD produces the same effects: children are unable to concentrate on any task for more than a few minutes. Moreover, they charge through each day with excessive energy. They talk during quiet periods, ignore social rules, leave their seats, and create disturbances in the classroom. Basic to all these behaviours, they are moody, and very impulsive.

ADHD children have normal intelligence, but they show deficits in their ability to focus their attention. They literally cannot seem to sit still, and are readily distracted by irrelevant information (Baron et al., 1998, p. 326).

What is the role and nature of aggression in children?

The specifics regarding when aggression is appropriate, in what forms, and to what degree depend on the particular society in which children grow up. Variation in the norms for aggression occur by age, by ethnic and socioeconomic group, by neighbourhood, by gender, and by the specific social situation. Customs vary about which kind of contact (being bumped up against, being shoved, having one's shoe stepped on) require retaliation, which types of insult (directed at one's relatives, one's physical appearance, one's intellect) should be ignored, and which children (friends, enemies, bystanders, the other sex, the physically impaired, smaller or younger ones) are fair targets and which are exempt. Generally, physical aggression declines with age – except for those children who are headed towards more serious violence and criminal activity. Relational aggression – verbal insults and social aggression – does not decline. In girls as well as boys, relational aggression becomes more hurtful, more isolating, and more important to deflect – with humour, a shrug, or a counter-attack when possible (Berger, 2000, p. 410).

How do children become obese?

Obesity usually results from the interaction of a number of factors. Here are the most important of them:

- Heredity. Body type, including height, bone structure, and the amount and distribution of fat on the body, is inherited. So are individual differences in metabolic rate and activity level. Certain combinations of body type and

metabolism result in excessive storage of fat on the body.

- **Exercise.** Inactive people burn fewer calories and are more likely to be overweight than active people, especially in infancy and childhood, when many children seem to be on the move all day. A child's activity level is influenced not only by heredity but also by a willingness to engage in strenuous play, the availability of safe play areas, the parents' example, and weight itself, which slows down precisely those children who need more exercise.
- **Television.** While watching television, children eat more and burn less calories than they would if they were actively playing. In fact, they burn fewer calories than they would if they were doing **nothing**. One study found that when children are "glued to the tube" they fall into a deeply relaxed state, akin to semiconsciousness, that lowers their metabolism below their normal at-rest rate – on average, 12 percent lower in children of normal weight and 16 percent lower in obese children. Further, 60 percent of the commercials shown during Saturday morning cartoons on U.S. television are for food products – almost all of them with high fat and sugar content.
- **Cultural attitudes towards food.** In some cultures, overeating is a sign of wealth and happiness, so parents urge their offspring to have a second helping. The implied message seems to be that a father's love is measured by how much food he can provide; a mother's love, by how well she can cook; and a child's love by how much she or he can eat.
- **Precipitating event.** For many children, the onset of obesity is associated with a crucial event or traumatic experience – a hospitalization, a parental divorce or death, or a move to a new neighbourhood. Generally such an event or experience creates a sense of loss or diminished self-esteem, along with a corresponding need for an alternative source of gratification (Berger, 2000, pp. 344-345).

Who are bullies, and what effects do they have on other people?

Researchers define bullying as repeated, systematic efforts to inflict harm through physical attack, verbal attack or social attack. Implicit in this definition is an imbalance of power. Boys who are bullies are often above average in size, whereas girls who are bullies are often above average in verbal assertiveness. Bullies' victims tend to be less assertive and physically weaker (boys) and more shy (girls).

Bullying during middle childhood seems to be pervasive. It occurs in every nation, is present in small rural schools and in large urban ones, and is as prevalent among well-to-do majority children as among poor immigrant children. Contrary to public belief, victims are no more likely to be fat or homely or to speak with an accent than non-victims are. But they usually are rejected, withdrawn children, anxious and insecure, unable or unwilling to defend themselves, without friends who will take their side.

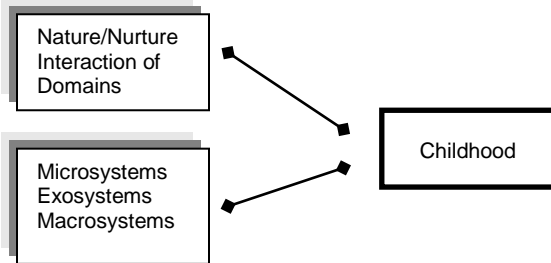
Bullied children are anxious, depressed and underachieving during the months and years of their torment. Even years later, they still have damaged self-esteem as well as painful memories.

The picture is even more ominous for bullies. Contrary to the public perception that bullies are actually insecure and lonely, at the peak of their bullying they usually have friends who abet, fear and admire them. They seem brashly unapologetic about the pain they have inflicted. Bullies become more hostile, challenging everyone who tries to stop them, getting into trouble not only with peers but also with the police. International research confirms that children who regularly victimize other children often become violent criminals later on (Berger, 2000, p. 412).

What effect does divorce have on children?

The disruption and discord of divorce almost always adversely affect the children for at least a year or two. Immediately before and after a divorce, the children show signs of emotional pain, such as depression or rebellion, and symptoms of stress, such as having lower school achievement, poorer health and fewer friends. Whether this distress is relatively mild and short-lived, or serious and long-lasting, depends primarily on the stability of the child's life and the adequacy of caregiving. Divorce may not harm the children if the family income remains stable, if the conflict between the parents decreases, and if caregiving by both parents is as good as or better than it was before the divorce (Santröck, 1998, p. 256).

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



5.5 Looking through the eyes of the systems of supports

This lesson addresses the influence that the parents, family and peers have on middle childhood development.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How does the sociocultural environment influence child development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Research: Child development
 - Interview your parents. What are the issues and challenges, rewards and benefits to parenting a preadolescent?
 - How were your parents raised as children? In what ways has our approach to parenting changed?
 - Describe the roles that both the mother and father took. Have these changed from the time when they were children?
- Research: Families
 - Interview a senior, your grandparents or an Elder. How has the family changed in Saskatchewan over the last 50 years.
 - What do they remember most about raising a family?
 - What suggestions, advice or direction would they give about raising a family?
 - How have the roles of the parents changed in the last 50 years?
- Consensus decision making: Income equality
 - The federal government should establish a baseline of income for families. No family should earn less than the poverty line. If they do, the federal government should supplement their income to ensure that the children are properly fed, clothed and educated.
- Media Study: Economics and middle childhood
 - Play the following two musical selections for the students. Discuss with the students the impact that losing an income, or poverty, might have on children at that particular stage of development. How might that impact be different than at the infancy, early childhood or adolescent stages of development?
 - “Allentown”, by Billy Joel, from the album Billy Joel’s Greatest Hits
 - “Empty Hands”, by John Mellencamp, from the album, The Lonesome Jubilee.
- Dialectical Reasoning: Television and young children
 - Thesis: Given the tremendous importance of television in influencing young children, all programming intended for young children should be screened, evaluated, and approved suitable according to strict guidelines for content and violence.
 - Antithesis: Censorship, even for young children, has no place in Canadian society. If parents want to let young children watch violent programs, then that is their right and responsibility.
- Research: Television content and young children
 - Design and conduct a research study into the content appropriateness of television programs that young children might watch.
 - What stereotypes are children developing from watching television?

Resources

- *Ages and Stages*: Unit Four, Early Childhood, Strengths in Families

Lesson 5.5: Teacher Information

Of what importance is the family in child development?

As children move into the middle and late childhood years, parents spend considerably less time with them. In one study, parents spent less than half as much time with their children aged five to 12 in caregiving, instruction, reading, talking, and playing as when their children were younger. Parent-child interactions during childhood include whether children should be made to perform chores, and if so, whether they should be paid for them; how to help children learn to entertain themselves rather than relying on parents for everything; and how to monitor children's lives outside the family in school and peer settings (Santrock, 1999, p. 333).

What roles and influence do peers have on child development?

During middle and late childhood, children spend an increasing amount of time in peer interaction. In one study, children interacted with peers 10 percent of their day at the age of two, 20 percent at age four, and more than 40 percent between the ages of seven and 11. Episodes with peers totaled 299 per typical school day. Researchers have devised five peer status categories to describe peer interactions:

- Popular children are frequently liked by their peers and are frequently nominated as a best friend. They show high rates of positive behaviours and low rates of negative behaviours.
- Average children are moderately liked by their peers and moderately often nominated as a best friend. They show moderate levels of positive behaviours and negative behaviours.
- Rejected children are actively disliked by their peers and infrequently nominated as a best friend. They show high rates of negative behaviours and low rates of positive behaviours.
- Neglected children are not disliked by their peers and are infrequently nominated as a best friend. They show low levels of positive and negative behaviours.
- Controversial children are frequently disliked by their peers but are often nominated as a best friend. They show high rates of both positive and negative behaviours (Santrock, 1999, p. 306).

Why are children's friendships important?

According to Hartup and Stevens (1997) there are some important developmental consequences to having friends. Those children and adolescents who have friends tend to be more socially competent than those who do not. Having friends provides someone to confide in, to be afraid with, to grow with. Having friends sets the stage for intimacy with adults (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 367).

How can you resist peer pressure?

Realize that you are being manipulated. Others are deliberately trying to get you to change your mind. If you are the only holdout, you are more likely to give in. Try to get just one other person on your side, and you will feel much stronger about your position.

People want their behaviour and attitudes to be in harmony. Consequently, even if they know of some negative effects of what they are doing, they probably would not own up to them, because to do so would cause cognitive dissonance. Thus, you should be aware that you are probably not getting the whole story from the group.

For all age groups, peers are more persuasive than other people. The more prestige particular peers have, the greater their influence. Use this tendency to your advantage by finding peers who have had a bad experience with whatever you are being urged to do and listen to what they have to say.

Minority opinions can have an effect on the majority. One way to increase this effect is to give consistent and repeated statements of your position. Often, this technique has a private effect on others - one that is not publicly expressed.

If all the members of a group are on one side, doesn't that mean that they are more likely to be right than a single, lone individual? Actually, a group's decision making is usually not as accurate as an individual's, particularly if the individual is well informed and highly rational.

When attempting to persuade someone, group members often try to make that person feel embarrassed for not going along. Embarrassing people is an age-old tool for making them conform. If you know that ahead of time, perhaps it will have less impact on you.

One of the best ways to resist conformity is to be exposed to all the arguments in favour of some risky behaviour and then learn to refute these arguments, one by one (McMahon and Romano, 2000, p. 616).

How do parents influence moral development?

Parental discipline does contribute to children's moral development, but there are other aspects of parenting that also play an important role as well. These include providing opportunities for perspective-taking and modeling appropriate moral behaviour and thinking. Eisenberg and Murphy (1995) summarized the research on ways that parenting can influence children's moral development. They concluded that in general, moral children tend to have parents who:

- are warm and supportive rather than punitive
- use inductive reasoning
- provide opportunities for children to learn about others' perspectives and feelings
- involve children in family decision making and in the process of thinking about moral decisions
- model moral behaviours and thinking themselves and provide opportunities for their children to model such moral behaviours and thinking (Santrock, 1999, p. 323).

How do parents influence prosocial behaviours?

What can parents and teachers do to promote children's altruism and prosocial behaviour? Honig and Wittmer (1996) provided the following recommendations that focus on promoting children's prosocial behaviours:

- Value and emphasize consideration of others' needs. This results in children engaging in more helping activities. The morality of caring is one of teaching children to feel for others, which leads to empathy and concern.
- Model prosocial behaviours. Children imitate what adults do.
- Label and identify prosocial and antisocial behaviours. Be specific in identifying prosocial behaviours.
 - Attribute positive social behaviours to each child.
 - Notice and positively encourage prosocial behaviours but do not overuse external rewards.
 - Facilitate perspective-taking and understanding others' feelings.
 - Use positive discipline strategies. Reason with children when they do something wrong. Redirect antisocial actions to more acceptable actions.

- Actively lead discussions on prosocial interactions.
- Develop school and class projects that foster altruism.
- Use technology to promote prosocial behaviours.
- Invite moral mentors to visit the class (Santrock, 1999, p. 325).

What role does the school play in the healthy development of children?

Schooling of some sort during childhood is available in every nation. But the specifics – who receives instruction, in what subjects, and how – vary enormously. In the past boys and wealthier children were much more likely to receive formal education than girls and poorer children, and some of that inequality is still evident today. In developing countries, more boys than girls attend elementary school. Indeed, girls are more likely to drop out of school before sixth grade, with the percent of boys and girls ages six - 11 in school ranging from 99 percent to 90 percent in Algeria to 42 percent to 14 percent in Afghanistan. In developed countries, less is generally demanded of girls and poor children, particularly in science and mathematics. Teaching techniques also vary widely, from the strict lecture method in which students are forbidden to talk, whisper or even move during class, to open education, in which students are encouraged to interact and make use of classroom resources – with the teacher serving as an adviser, guide, and friend more than as a subject-matter authority and disciplinarian (Berger, 2000, p. 385).

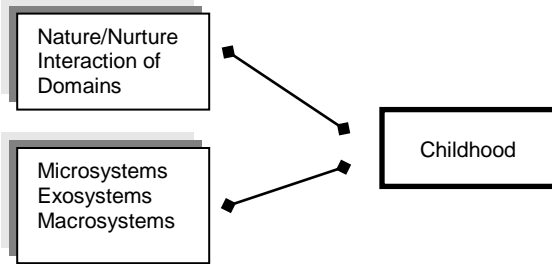
What role does economics play in the healthy development of children?

One of the major advantages of two married parents is financial. Married couples are generally better able to provide for their children, for reasons that predate the child's arrival:

- Individuals who are financially secure are more desirable marriage partners.
- Couples who have good economic prospects are more likely to decide to marry and to have children.
- Couples who are financially secure are more likely to avoid divorce.
- Most contemporary two-parent families have two wage earners, so they tend to be more financially secure than other families.

Once a child is born, two-parent households in which only one parent works save money on childcare and household services for which a single parent might have to pay, and so two-parent households – even those with only one wage earner – have more money for housing, food, health care and education. Thus the general stability of their home and work situations tends to enhance the financial security of nuclear families. Consequently the average income for two-parent families in the United States is two to three times that for one-parent homes. According to the 1996 U.S. census data, the average income for married couple families is \$51,000 (USD), \$35,000 for single-father families, and \$21,000 for single-mother families (Berger, 2000, p. 420).

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



5.6 Action research in middle childhood development

This summary lesson will integrate all of the concepts covered in this unit, by actively engaging students in the design and conduct of research in developmental psychology.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What are the issues and topics for research in childhood?

Suggested Research Methods

- Survey
- Naturalistic Observation
- Interview
- Experimental Research
- Case Study
- Topical

- Review/Discussion: The scientific method of research
 - Refer to the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials.
 - Review and discuss the steps in the scientific method of research:
 - Develop a research question
 - Describe the hypothesis
 - Select a research method
 - Observation Experiment Interview Case Study Survey Topical
 - Describe the process to be followed
 - Gather the data
 - Analyze the data
 - Report the findings, account for reliability and validity
 - State conclusions in relation to the hypothesis
- Discussion: A comparison of research methods in the social sciences
 - Using the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials, complete the comparison chart of research methods.
 - Invite students, or groups, to defend their choice of the most appropriate research method based on their chosen topic.
 - Discuss the many formats for presentation of the data and research findings. Depending on the topic chosen and the research method selected, presentation formats may include written reports, oral presentations, portfolios, role plays and drama activities, three-panel displays, posters, brochures, bulletin board displays, PowerPoint or other computer-based presentation software, web pages, etc.
- Review/Discussion: Issues in social science research
 - Using the six templates supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials (Frequently Asked Questions about interviews, surveys, case studies, observation, experiments and topical research methods), review and discuss the issues and methods for each individual or group research project.
- Discussion: The research process
 - Ensure that each individual or group research project has completed all documentation (The Scientific Method of Research, Permission to Conduct Research) before commencing the research.

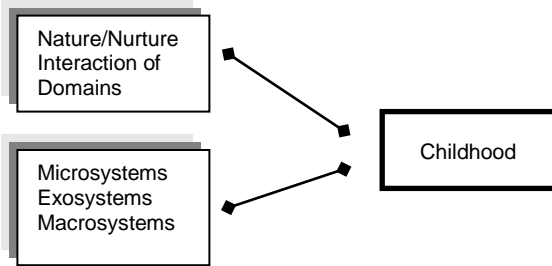
Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Scientific Method of Research
- Curriculum Support Materials: Permission to Conduct Research Form
- Curriculum Support Materials: A Comparison Chart For Research Methods
- Curriculum Support Materials: Frequently Asked Questions: Interviews, Surveys, Case Studies, Naturalistic Observation, Experiments and Topical

Lesson 5.6: Suggested Research Topics and Issues

Type of Research	Suggested Research Topics
<p>Survey</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conducting research using a survey involves going out and asking questions about the phenomenon of interest. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Who are your heroes? What qualities do you admire in a friend? What are your leisure activities? Moral dilemmas: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Is it right to steal life-saving medicines that could save the life of a family member? Is it right to tell the police if you know that a friend has committed a crime? If you found a large sum of money in an unmarked envelope, should you keep it? What jobs are men (women) most suited for?
<p>Observation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> In naturalistic research, the observer does not intervene at all. For all intents and purposes, the researcher is invisible and works hard not to interrupt the natural dynamics of the situation being investigated. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What are the eating habits of school-aged children? How is Erikson's stage of Industry versus Inferiority demonstrated in children? What are the different types of group behaviours in children? How do the play behaviours of school-age children compare to the play behaviours of young children? When, and how do children develop a sense of gender roles? What are the most common forms of leisure activities in children? Are there gender differences in aggression in school-aged children? How are school-aged children represented on television and in the movies? Are there gender differences in watching television?
<p>Topical</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A topical research study involves the acquisition, synthesis, organization, and presentation of information. Typically, the topical research study will involve both paper based as well as web-based resources. Additional information may be gained through the other research methods and strategies. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What is Attention Deficit Hyperactive Disorder (ADHD)?
<p>Interview</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The interview method of research, typically, involves a face-to-face meeting in which a researcher (interviewer) asks an individual a series of questions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What was your parent's childhood like? What are the parenting styles and strategies of your parents? How does self-awareness develop in children? What have been the changes in families and parenting since your grandparents were raising their children? What is it like to teach?
<p>Experimental research</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Experimental researchers take care to create an environment in which they can make causal statements. They manipulate variables, randomly assign participants to various conditions, and seek to control other influences that could affect their research. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can you find evidence of Piaget's stages of cognitive development in children? What is the process of morality development in children?

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



5.7 Perspectives on child development

This summary lesson considers how the lifespan approach to human development can be used as a lens through which we can view child development.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How is child development described from the perspective of the lifespan approach?
- How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to child development?
- How would each of the six theoretical perspectives on human development explain child development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Think-Pair-Share: Lifespan approach
 - Using the Think-Pair-Share instructional strategy, direct the students to provide examples of how the lifespan approach helps describe the process of human child development.
- Discussion/Group activity: Key issues and questions
 - Using the four key issues and questions found in the Teacher Information section, either as a class or in four groups, discuss the key questions as they relate to child development.
- Jigsaw: Theoretical perspectives on child development
 - Divide the class into six groups, and assign one of the six theoretical perspectives to each group.
 - Direct each group to support its perspective on human development with specific examples from the information provided in the unit. What evidence can group members find to support their theoretical perspective?
 - Each group will then present its theoretical perspective on child development.
 - Synthesize the findings and examples from each group. Create a comparison chart to compare the results.

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: The Lifespan Perspective on Human Development
- Curriculum Support Materials: Theoretical Perspectives on Human Development

Lesson 5.7: Teacher Information

How is child development described from the perspective of the lifespan approach?

The lifespan perspective on human development has seven basic characteristics. Development is:

- Life-long
 - No age period dominates development.
- Multi-dimensional
 - Development consists of biological, cognitive, socioemotional and spiritual dimensions.
- Multidirectional
 - Some aspects of development increase, while others decrease.
- Plastic
 - Depending on the individual's life conditions, development may take many paths.
- Historically-embedded
 - Development is influenced by historical conditions.
- Multidisciplinary
 - Psychologists, sociologists, anthropologists, neuroscientists and medical researchers all study human development and share a concern for unlocking the mysteries of development throughout the lifespan
- Contextual
 - The individual continually responds to and acts on contexts, which include a person's biological makeup, physical environment, and social, historical, and cultural contexts (Santrock, 1999, p. 10).

How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to child development?

From the time of its establishment, several key issues and questions have dominated the field of developmental psychology. Among these issues are the nature of developmental change, the importance of critical periods, lifespan approaches versus the more focused approaches, and the nature-nurture issue.

- **Continuous change versus discontinuous change:** In continuous change, developmental change is gradual, with achievements at one level building on those of previous levels. In contrast, discontinuous change occurs in distinct stages or steps. Each stage brings about behaviour that is assumed to be qualitatively different from behaviour at earlier stages.
- A **critical period** is a specific time during development when a particular event has its greatest consequences. Critical periods occur when the presence of certain kinds of

environmental stimuli are necessary for development to proceed normally.

- **Lifespan approaches versus a focus on a particular period:** Developmentalists now believe the entire lifespan is important, for several reasons. One is the discovery that developmental growth and change continue during every part of life. Furthermore, to understand fully the social influences on people of a given age, we need to understand the people who are in large measure providing those influences. For instance, to understand development in infants, we need to unravel the effects of their parents' ages on the social environment.
- **Nature versus nurture:** One of the enduring questions of development involves how much of people's behaviour is due to their genetically-determined nature and how much is due to nurture, the physical and social environment in which a child is raised. In this context, **nature** refers to traits, abilities and capacities that are inherited from one's parents. Nature encompasses any factor that is produced by the predetermined unfolding of genetic information - a process known as maturation. These genetic, inherited influences are at work as we move from the one-celled organism that is created at the moment of conception to the billions of cells that make up a fully-formed human being. In contrast **nurture** refers to the environmental influences that shape behaviour. Some of these influences may be biological, such as the impact of a pregnant mother's substance abuse on the fetus, or the amount and kind of food available to children. Other environmental influences are more social, such as the ways parents discipline their children and the effects of peer pressure on adolescents (Feldman, 2000, p 10).

How would each of the six theoretical perspectives on human development explain child development?

Lifespan development has produced a number of broad conceptual perspectives representing different approaches to development. Each broad perspective encompasses a number of theories, explanations and predictions concerning phenomena of interest. A theory provides a framework for understanding the relationships among an organized set of principles or facts. The six major theoretical perspectives include:

- **Psychodynamic Perspective: Focusing on the inner person.** Rooted in Freud's theory, the psychodynamic approach maintains that all

behaviour and mental processes reflect the constant and mostly unconscious psychological struggles that rage silently within each person. Usually, these struggles involve conflict between the impulse to satisfy instincts or wishes and the need to play by the rules in society. Anxiety, depression and other disorders are outward signs of this inner turmoil (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).

- **The Behavioural Perspective: Considering the outer person.** As founded by John Watson, the behavioural approach views behaviour and mental processes as primarily the result of learning. Psychologists who take this approach see rewards and punishment acting on the raw materials provided by genes, evolution and biology to shape each individual. So, whether considering a person's aggression or drug abuse, behaviourists would look at that person's learning history. Since people learn problem behaviours, they can also learn to change or even prevent them by unlearning old habits and developing new ones (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).
- **The Cognitive Perspective: Examining the roots of understanding.** The cognitive perspective focuses on how people take in, mentally represent and store information. Cognitive psychologists then relate perception and information processing to patterns of behaviour. They study such areas as decision-making, problem-solving, interpersonal attraction and intelligence. Aggression, for instance, might be viewed as a result of poor problem solving (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).
- **The Humanistic Perspective: Concentrating on the unique qualities of human beings.** According to the humanistic approach, our capacity to choose how to think and act determines our behaviour. Each person's unique perceptions – not instincts, cognitive processes, or rewards and punishments – dictate the choices made. Humanistic psychologists believe that people are essentially good, that they are in control of themselves, and that they seek to grow toward their highest potential (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 12).
- **The Evolutionary Perspective: Focusing on biology as the determinant of development.** Darwin's ideas on evolution and adaptation of species laid the foundation for the evolutionary approach. The evolutionary approach to psychology holds that the behaviour of animals and humans today is the result of evolution through natural selection. Psychologists who

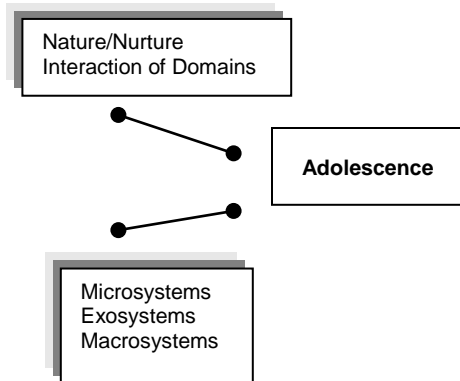
follow this approach are concerned with the adaptive value of behaviour, the anatomy and biology that make it possible and the environmental conditions that encourage or discourage it (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).

- **The Sociocultural Perspective: Emphasizing the systems of support.** Calling attention to the external influences on human behaviour such as the physical surroundings and social interactions that provide incentives, opportunities and pathways for growth, Urie Bronfenbrenner (1979) began to emphasize the ecological approach to the study of human development. In Bronfenbrenner's application of this concept, human ecosystems include both the physical environment (the climate, the space per person, that arrangement of the dwelling) and the social environment (the people, the culture, the economy) (Berger, 2000, p. 4).

Unit Six: Adolescence

Concept Web

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Unit Overview

The word “adolescence” comes from the Latin *adolescere* meaning “to grow into maturity”. As well as being a time of enormous physiological change, adolescence is also marked by changes in behaviour and expectations. Traditionally, adolescence has been regarded as a prelude to and preparation for adulthood, a transitional period of life between immaturity and maturity. As well as having to deal with the question ‘Who Am I?’, the adolescent must also deal with the question, ‘Who will I be?’ (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 410).

This unit considers the physical, emotional, cognitive and social changes during adolescence from the perspectives of the developing young person, and the micro-, exo- and macrosystems of support as described by Urie Bronfenbrenner.

Learning Objectives

Knowledge

- To understand physical changes during adolescence.
- To understand cognitive changes during adolescence.
- To understand socioemotional changes during adolescence.

Skills

- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings by making connections with existing knowledge and understandings.
- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings within the discipline of psychology.
- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings with other disciplines.
- To apply those concepts and understandings in a variety of practical, pertinent and contemporary issues.

Values

- To appreciate the complex, dynamic, reciprocal and personal aspects of human development.

Lessons and Lesson Objectives

- 6.1 Unit Overview: Developmental changes during adolescence
 - What roles do nature and nurture play in the development of an adolescent?
 - What are the sociocultural influences on adolescent development?
- 6.2 Looking through the eyes of an adolescent, what do you see?
 - What are the developmental changes during adolescence?
 - How do adolescents deal with change in their lives?
- 6.3 Physical development during adolescence
 - What are the physical changes during adolescence?
 - How important is body image to adolescents?
 - What are the general theories about eating disorders?
 - How can self-appraisal influence adolescent development?
- 6.4 Cognitive development during adolescence
 - What is the process of cognitive development during adolescence?
 - What is meant by “adolescent egocentrism”, and what role does it play in cognitive and social development?
 - What is intelligence?
 - What are the different types of intelligence?
 - 6.4.1 Social Cognition
 - How do we make sense of the behaviour of other people?
 - How do we form impressions about people?

-
- What are some biases on how we form impressions of other people?
 - How do we make judgements and decisions about other people?
- 6.4.2 Social Perception
- What is social perception?
 - How are social perceptions formed and changed?
 - How do we select information about others?
 - How do we organize the information received in social situations?
 - What processes do we use to interpret social information?
 - What are some problems and issues in forming impressions of people and situations?
 - What is the relationship between attribution, stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination?
 - Who are some prominent social rights activists, and what did they achieve?
- 6.5 Socioemotional development during adolescence
- What is the process of socioemotional development in adolescence?
 - How do we explain our social behaviour?
- 6.5.1 Self-Understanding: How do you develop a sense of yourself in the world?
- What is self-concept?
 - How do we develop a self-concept?
 - What are the cultural influences on self-concept?
 - How does gender influence self-concept?
- 6.5.2 Development of self-concept
- What is a self-concept?
 - What are the characteristics of a self-concept?
 - How does the self-concept develop?
 - What influences the development of a self-concept?
 - How important is your self-concept?
 - What do we do when our self-concept is threatened?
- 6.5.3 Culture and the Self
- What does culture mean?
 - What influence does culture have on self-concept?
- Does your cultural background influence your general health and outlook on life?
- 6.5.4 Gender and the Self
- What does gender mean?
 - How does a gender identity develop?
 - What are the differences between the genders?
 - What are the sociocultural influences on gender development?
- 6.5.5 Self-schemas and identity
- How do we represent knowledge about ourselves?
 - How does self-identity develop?
 - What influences does the family have on identity?
 - How does gender influence identity development?
- 6.5.6 Identity Management
- How does our behaviour change in social situations?
 - How, and why, do we disclose private and personal information about ourselves to others?
- 6.5.7 Mass Media
- What defines the mass media?
 - How does viewing violence on television or in movies - and now in video games - affect the way we behave?
 - What influence does the media have on developing aggression and violence, especially in adolescents?
 - What influence does the Internet have on social relations and behaviour?
 - What influence does the media have on society and our culture?
 - What is the relationship between cultural values, the media and censorship?
- 6.5.8 Adolescent issues
- What role does nutrition play in healthy adolescent development?
 - What are the two main types of eating disorders?
 - What roles do genetics and the environment play in eating disorders?
 - What are the trends and issues in substance use and abuse during adolescence?

- What are the issues and challenges involved with teen suicide?
 - What are the trends and issues with juvenile violence and crime?
- 6.6. Looking through the eyes of the systems of supports, what do you see?
- How does the sociocultural environment influence adolescent development?
- 6.7 Action research in adolescent development
- What should be the age to drive a vehicle?
 - What should be the legal age to consume alcohol?
 - What qualities do you admire most in a friend?
 - What attracts you to the opposite sex?
 - Moral dilemmas:
 - Is it right to steal life-saving medicines that could save the life of a family member?
 - Is it right to tell the police if you know that a friend has committed a crime?
 - If you found a large sum of money in an unmarked envelope, should you keep it?
 - What is the prevalence of smoking and drinking amongst adolescents in your school?
 - Do you believe in God, heaven, hell, life after death?
 - What are some commonly held stereotypes and biases about adolescents?
 - How does the media influence adolescent perceptions of body image?
 - What are the eating habits of adolescents?
 - What different types of group behaviours are demonstrated by adolescents?
 - Are there differences in gender roles demonstrated by adolescents?
 - In what ways are bias, stereotypes, prejudice, and discrimination against adolescents demonstrated?
 - How does culture influence adolescent development?
 - How does the media represent adolescents?
 - What is anorexia nervosa?
 - What is bulimia nervosa?
 - What are the issues surrounding teen suicide?
 - What are the issues and challenges faced by teen mothers?
- How do the cultural industries (beauty, fashion, music) influence adolescent development?
 - Who was Rosa Parks?
 - Who was the Reverend Martin Luther King Jr.?
 - Who was Mahatma Gandhi?
 - Who was Mother Theresa?
 - Who is Nelson Mandela?
 - What was it like to be a teenager when your parents were adolescents?
 - How have the parenting styles and strategies of your parents changed as you became an adolescent?
 - How have families changed since your parents were teenagers?
- 6.9 Lifespan approach to adolescent development
- How is adolescent development described from the perspective of the lifespan approach?
 - How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to adolescent development?
 - How would each of the six theoretical perspectives on human development explain adolescent development?

Resources and Resource-Based Learning

Resource-based learning is an integral part of all units. The accompanying bibliography will assist you in incorporating a variety of resources from different media into each unit. This annotated bibliography should be available from your teacher librarian. It is available from Saskatchewan Learning through the website at www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/ or from the Learning Resources Distribution Centre at 306-787-5987. The bibliography contains annotations of current, useful resources including print, video, Internet sites, and other media selections. Teachers are encouraged to assess their current resource collection, identify those resources that are still useful, and acquire small quantities of each new title, rather than class sets, in order to provide students with a broad range of perspectives and information.

The following list of evaluated resource titles provides a **starting point** for developing a resource collection that is current and relevant, and that addresses students' various learning styles and abilities. **Please refer to the bibliography for a complete list of resources giving the full citation, annotation, and ordering information.** Please note that many of these resources can be ordered

through the **Learning Resources Distribution Centre** (<http://lrdc.sasked.gov.sk.ca/>). Videos may be available from **Media Group** (<http://www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/video>). **At the time of publication all of the resources listed here and in the bibliography were in print and available.**

Please note that LRDC will be closing effective March 31, 2003. If you need assistance acquiring Saskatchewan Learning materials after that date, please contact 787-5987.

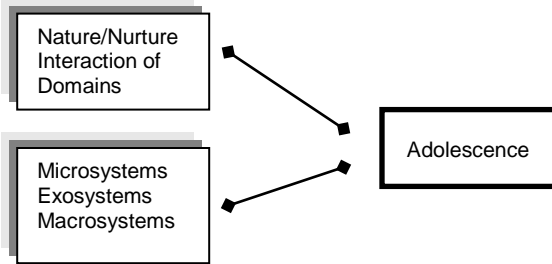
Print Resources

Adolescence, Adulthood and Old Age
Adolescent Portraits: Identity, Relationships, & Challenges
Advertising: Information or Manipulation
Antisocial & Violent Youth
Boys Will Be Men: Raising Our Sons for Courage, Caring & Community
Can You Relate?: Real-World Advice for Teens on Guys, Girls, Growing Up, and Getting Along
Canada's Teens: Today, Yesterday, and Tomorrow
Girls Are Equal Too: How to Survive for Teenage Girls
Helping Your Teen Overcome Depression: A Guide for Parents
Rebel, Rogue, Mischievous Babe: Stories About Being a Powerful Girl
Self-Discipline: Using Portfolios to Help Students Develop Self-Awareness, Manage Emotions & Build Relationships
Sex, Power & the Violent School Girl
Straight Talk About Teenage Pregnancy
Straight Talk About Today's Families
Struggle to Be Strong: True Stories by Teens About Overcoming Tough Times
Teen Eating Disorders
Teen Pregnancy
Teen Suicide
Understanding Negative Body Image
Understanding Recovery From Eating Disorders
Where's Your Head?: Psychology for Teenagers

Non-Print Resources

Binge Drinking: The Facts
Expressing Anger: Healthy vs. Unhealthy
Other Side of Blue: The Truth About Teenage Depression

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



6.1 Unit Overview: Developmental changes during adolescence

This introductory lesson examines the biological, cognitive and socioemotional aspects of adolescence.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What roles do nature and nurture play in the development of an adolescent?
- What are the sociocultural influences on adolescent development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Nature/nurture and adolescent development
 - Using the template Nature/Nurture and Human Development as a conceptual organizer, discuss with the students those aspects of human development that might be attributed exclusively to either purely hereditary or inherited factors (intelligence, language development, motor skill development, temperament and personality, skin colour, hair colour, length, and weight), and those aspects which are a result of environmental influence (cognitive development, social development etc.).
- Discussion: Systems of support for adolescent development
 - Using the template The Ecological Model discuss how each of the levels influences development. Identify specific influences, programs, support services, people and places that influence child development. Discuss the relative nature of the influences in terms of the degree of influence, in other words, is the microsystem level more important than the macrosystem level? Discuss also the specific support systems that might exist in your local community, town, or region that adolescents could access.
- Discussion: Adolescent development
 - Review the larger developmental tasks for each of the four aspects:
 - Physical: Sports and athletics, gross and fine motor control
 - Cognitive: Memory, education, competency, and skill development
 - Socioemotional: relationships, love attraction, intimacy, independence
 - Spiritual: Faith, social justice, worldview, prosocial behaviours

Making Connections

- When does an adolescent become an adult?
- What are the “rites of passage” that we use as social markers to highlight the transition from childhood to adolescence?
- Should we change the age at which adolescents can vote, drive, consume alcohol, get married?

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Nature/Nurture and Human Development
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model

Lesson 6.1: Teacher Information

What roles do nature and nurture play in the development of an adolescent?

Brainstorm with the students examples of both genetic inheritance and environmental influences on adolescent development. Some examples for nature might include height, weight, temperament and personality traits, intelligence, multiple intelligences and so on. Some examples for the nurture side of the equation might include parenting, family, peers, socioeconomic status, schooling, nutrition, self-concept and so on.

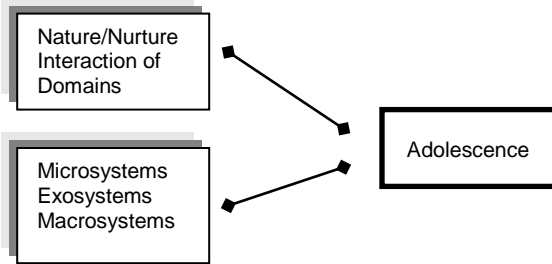
What are the sociocultural influences on adolescent development?

At the **microsystem** level, discuss with the students the relative influences of parents, peers and the classroom setting. In what ways do these aspects of the system of support influence our physical, emotional, cognitive and spiritual development? Do parents, peers or the classroom dominate during adolescence?

At the **exosystem** level, discuss the relative influences of the school, the mass media (refer to topic 6.5.7 for more information) and the community. What school policies are in place that promote healthy development? How has changing technology influenced adolescent development? What community resources are available to promote healthy adolescent development?

At the **macrosystem** level, discuss the influence that culture has on adolescent development. Is there such a thing as an “adolescent culture”? If so, how would you describe an adolescent culture? Has that culture changed? Why or why not? In terms of the influence that economics has on adolescent development, discuss topics such as the cost of clothing, transportation and entertainment. How many students have a part-time job? How many hours a week does that job involve? Why do you need to work? What skills are you learning?

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



6.2 Looking through the eyes of an adolescent

This overview lesson addresses the physical, mental, emotional and spiritual aspects of development during adolescence.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What are the developmental changes during adolescence?
- How do adolescents deal with change in their lives?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: The Medicine Wheel
 - Using the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials, discuss with the students the developmental changes, issues and challenges for each of the four aspects of our being during adolescence.
- Discussion: Transition to adolescence
 - What does it mean to be a teenager?
 - How do you know that you have become a teenager?
- Discussion: Multiple intelligences and adolescence
 - Refer to the information provided in the Teacher Information section (Cognitive abilities) regarding the multiple intelligence theories of Goleman, Sternberg and Gardner.
 - What are the implications of multiple intelligences theory for adolescent development? How should schools change on the basis of these theories?
 - Multiple intelligences and career choices: What are the implications for choosing a career path that fits your preferential intelligence(s)?
- Discussion: The change process
 - Using the information found in the Teacher Information section, discuss the change process as a problem-solving method for life issues in adolescence.
 - Draw a wheel, and label each of the six segments with one of the six stages of the change process.
 - Brainstorm examples of issues and challenges that adolescents face. How does the change process describe or explain the cycle of change for each issue?
- Discussion: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and adolescence
 - At what level do you consider yourself to be in terms of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs?
- Research: What was it like to be an adolescent?
 - Interview an adult in your home or community. What was it like to be an adolescent when he or she was growing up?
 - What were the issues and challenges he or she faced as a teenager?
 - Compare and contrast with the issues of adolescence addressed in this unit: self-concept, identity, cultural influences, smoking and substance abuse, eating disorders, etc.

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: The Medicine Wheel

Lesson 6.2: Teacher Information

What are the developmental changes during adolescence?

Adolescence is the period of transition from childhood to adulthood. It is probably the most challenging and complicated period of life to describe, to study, or to experience. The biological changes of puberty, which is considered to begin adolescence, are universal, but their expression, timing and extent show enormous variety, depending on gender, genes, and nutrition. Cognitive development varies as well; many adolescents are egocentric, while others think logically, hypothetically and theoretically. Psychosocial changes during this second decade of life show even greater diversity, as adolescents develop their own identities - choosing from a vast number of sexual, moral, political and educational paths. Most of this diversity simply reflects differences in social and cultural contexts. But for about one adolescent in four, fateful choices are made that handicap, and sometimes destroy, the future.

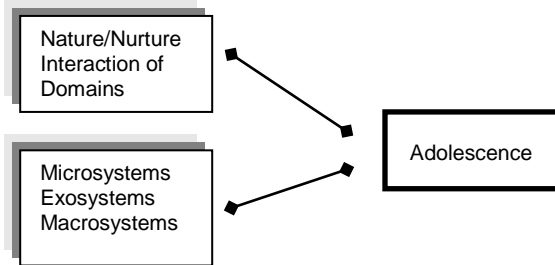
Yet there is also a commonality to the adolescent experience. All adolescents are confronted with the same developmental tasks: they must adjust to their changing body sizes and shapes, to their awakening sexuality, and to new ways of thinking. They all strive for the emotional maturity and economic independence that characterize adulthood (Berger, 2000, p. 437).

How do adolescents deal with change in their lives?

Researchers have looked at how and why people change either on their own or with help. Prochaska, Norcross and Diclemente (1992) have proposed a wheel concept that illustrates the six stages of change:

- Action: A person engages in actions in order to bring a change.
 - Maintenance: A person continues previous action and perhaps tries new skills.
 - Relapse: There is a return to old behaviour and the task is to get on the wheel again. (Prochaska et al., 1994, p. 1105).
-
- Precontemplation: At this point a person is not even thinking that there is a problem or that there is a need to make a change. A person requires information and feedback to raise their awareness that they can make changes. This is the entry point into change.
 - Contemplation: At this point the person swings between considering a change and rejecting it repeatedly.
 - Determination or preparation: The person determines that they have to do something about the problem and questions what they can do and explores options.

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



6.3 Adolescent Development: Physical domain

This lesson addresses the most profound stage of physical change since the prenatal stage.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What are the physical changes during adolescence?
- How important is body image to adolescents?
- What are the general theories about eating disorders?
- How can self-appraisal influence adolescent development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion/Research: "Body image is at the heart of adolescence."
 - What are the implications of this statement?
 - In what ways does the media influence adolescent perspectives on body image?
 - Find examples through the print media (magazines, particularly) of male and female body image types.
- Media Study: At Seventeen
 - Using the lyrics found in the Curriculum Support Materials, discuss the meaning of the song in terms of adolescent perspectives on relationships, peers, friendships, etc.
- Discussion: Why do more females than males suffer from eating disorders?
 - What might be the reasons why eating disorders are primarily a female phenomenon?
 - What is the role of the media? Society? Peers?
- Activity: Physical attractiveness
 - List the top 10 qualities for a man and a woman. Where does physical attractiveness rate? Why?
- Research: Anorexia and Bulimia
 - Conduct research into the two most common forms of eating disorders.
- Research: Nutrition and adolescents
 - Design and conduct a research study investigating the eating habits of teenagers.
 - What are the implications of the findings?
 - Are there significant gender differences?
 - What influence do parents have on eating habits and nutrition?

Making Connections

- Physical development and nutrition: What are the typical eating habits of adolescents?
- One author has described us as a generation of "dashboard diners". What does this mean?

Resources

- Reader's Digest, June 1999
- People's Weekly, "Dying To Be Thin", October 30th, 2000
- Curriculum Support Materials: At Seventeen

Lesson 6.3: Teacher Information

What are the physical changes during adolescence?

During adolescence, the body is moving upward and outward rapidly in what is called the growth spurt. When growth spurts occur, development is not orderly. Arms and hands may grow at different rates from legs, for instance, while other parts of the body develop at yet another rate. Although they may look gangly, teenagers have exceptionally good coordination.

Growth spurts occur earlier for girls than boys, but for both sexes, early adolescence is the time of maximum physical development. Between the ages of nine and 12, girls may grow as much as eight centimetres taller in one year. For boys, this growth occurs between 11 and 15, when they may gain as much as 10 centimetres in height in a year (McMahon and Romano, 2000, p. 322).

How important is body image to adolescents?

Concern about weight is a common problem for adolescents. Weight and body image are more often problems for females than for males. Society places more importance on physical appearance for women than for men (McMahon and Romano, 2000, p. 325).

What are the general theories about eating disorders?

Why would individuals torture themselves with such a destructive means of relieving emotional distress? Each theory offers an explanation:

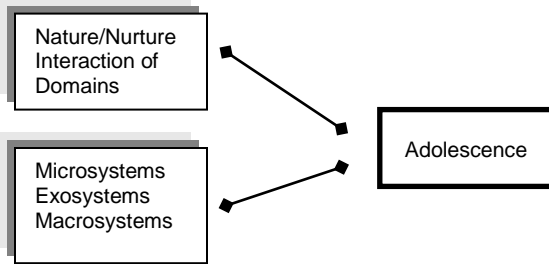
- One psychoanalytic hypothesis is that women develop eating disorders because of a conflict with their mothers who provided their first nourishment and from whom the daughters cannot psychically separate.
- Learning theory notes that both anorexia and bulimia are typically associated with psychological problems, including low self-esteem and depression. These psychological disorders precipitate extreme dieting and then perpetuate the destructive pattern, thus becoming part of a stimulus-response chain. Fasting, bingeing and purging have “powerful effects as immediate reinforcers - that is, as a means of relieving states of emotional distress and tension.”

- One cognitive explanation is that as women compete with men in business and industry, they want to project a strong, self-controlled, masculine image antithetical to the buxom, fleshy body of the ideal woman of the past.
- Sociocultural explanations include the contemporary cultural pressure to be slim and trim and model-like - a pressure that seems to be particularly felt by unmarried young women seeking autonomy from their parents. This would help explain why these eating disorders were once rare; society expected women to be dependent, first on parents and then on a husband, with no need to prove one's selfhood.
- An ethological explanation notes that girls who are overwhelmed with the stresses of puberty may discover that self-starvation makes their menstrual periods cease, their sexual hormones decrease, and their curves disappear - all of which remove the sexual pressures that normal maturation compels adolescent girls to experience (Berger, 2000, p. 458).

How can self-appraisal influence adolescent development?

Negative self-appraisal can have a major impact on self-esteem. Although self-esteem is obviously influenced by success in athletics, academics, friendship or other areas that the adolescent considers significant, a teenager's assessment of his or her appearance is the most important determinant. At one time or another, almost every American girl undereats, sometimes drastically, to be thinner. In one study, girls age 14 to 18 typically wanted to be about 12 pounds (five kilograms) lighter than they were. Boys are also vulnerable. Roughly five percent of high school seniors use steroids to build up their muscles. Boys who do not take drugs are nonetheless concerned, lifting weights, doing push-ups, and so on, in an attempt to change their physiques. The concern with physique dominates the peer culture, particularly during adolescence. Unattractive teenagers tend to have fewer friends - of either sex. And attractiveness is a sexual lure, especially during adolescence. Adolescents also receive powerful messages from the broader social environment. Media images of handsome faces and beautiful bodies are used to sell almost everything, from clothes and cosmetics to luncheon meats and auto parts. These images reinforce the cultural stereotype that men should be tall and muscular, and that women should be thin and shapely (Berger, 2000, p. 452).

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



6.4 Adolescent Development: Cognitive domain

This lesson addresses the rapid and complex growth in cognitive abilities during adolescence.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What is the process of cognitive development during adolescence?
- What is meant by “adolescent egocentrism”, and what role does it play in cognitive and social development?
- What is intelligence?
- What are the different types of intelligence?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Adolescent egocentrism
 - Discuss the three types of false conclusions that follow from adolescent egocentrism.
 - Create a table or chart and for each of the three falsehoods. Brainstorm examples of adolescent behaviours based on those falsehoods.
- Research: Cognitive development
 - Design and conduct a research study investigating the developmental changes in cognitive ability from early childhood to adolescence.
 - Select one aspect of cognitive development (memory, schemas, problem solving, etc.) and conduct a research study that investigates the development of that skill. Conduct your research using children ages five, nine, 12 and 17.
 - What did your research study conclude? Were there gender differences in the research findings?
- Research: Gender differences in cognitive abilities
 - Are females smarter than males? Design and conduct a research study investigating the cognitive abilities of males and females. The study should consider several different aspects of cognition (memory, processing speed, language, problem solving).
 - What were the findings? How do you define “smartness”?
 - Refer to Teacher Information for a contemporary definition of intelligence and the theory of multiple intelligences.
- Discussion: Multiple intelligences
 - Using either Gardner’s model, or Sternberg’s model, discuss with the students the concept of multiple intelligences, and then identify people (including themselves) that have more pronounced intelligences than others.
 - What intelligence would be required for: pilot, scientist, single parent, construction worker, professional athlete, musician, landscape artist, farmer, architect, university student, police officer, politician, lawyer?
- Discussion: Emotional intelligence
 - Goleman’s emotional intelligence theory: Is how you feel more or less important than what you think or what you do?
 - In what instances might emotional intelligence be more important, beneficial or valuable than cognitive intelligence?

Resources

Lesson 6.4: Teacher Information

What is the process of cognitive development during adolescence?

Since adolescents must deal with a staggering number of issues, it is fortunate that their thought processes and moral reasoning have reached their highest level. In Piaget's theory of cognitive development, the formal operations stage includes the ability to reason in abstract ways – to consider the possibilities instead of thinking only in terms of concrete realities. The ability to think abstractly helps the future become more real. This high level of reasoning ability helps adolescents consider how the world could be a better place and why personal principles are sometimes more important than external rules and laws (McMahon and Romano, 2000, p. 335).

What is meant by “adolescent egocentrism”, and what role does it play in cognitive and social development?

Adolescents frequently practise their new thinking skills on themselves, a process that makes them lose some of their detachment. They worry about how they are regarded by others; they try to sort out their own conflicting feelings about parents, school and close friends; they think deeply but not always realistically about their future possibilities; they reflect, at length, on each day's experiences. Analyzing their private thoughts and feelings, forecasting their future, and reflecting on their experiences underlie the greater reflection and self-awareness - and enhanced capacity for self-centeredness - that distinguishes adolescence. However, these new ventures in introspection are often distorted by adolescent egocentrism, a self-view in which adolescents regard themselves as much more socially significant than they actually are. Adolescent egocentrism can lead to false conclusions:

- One is the invincibility fable, by which young people feel that they will never fall victim, as others do, to dangerous behaviour.
- Another false conclusion resulting from adolescent egocentrism is the personal fable, through which adolescents imagine their own lives as unique, heroic, or even mythical. They perceive themselves as different from others, distinguished by unusual experiences, perspectives, and values.
- A third false conclusion stemming from egocentrism is called the imaginary audience. This arises from many adolescents' assumption

that other people are as intensely interested in them as they themselves are. This results in acute self-consciousness (Berger, 2000, p. 475).

What is intelligence?

Intelligence is the overall capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with the environment (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 265).

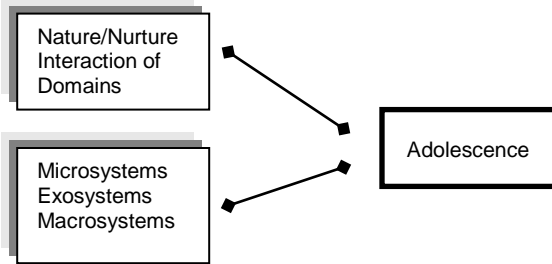
What are the different types of intelligence?

Gardner (1983), proposes the theory that humans have seven different types of intelligence:

- linguistic, vocabulary proficiency and reading comprehension
- logical-mathematical, skill at arithmetic and certain kinds of reasoning
- spatial, understanding of relationships between objects
- musical, abilities involved in rhythm, tempo, and sound identification
- body-kinesthetic, skill at dancing, athletics, and eye-hand coordination
- social, self-awareness and social skills
- emotional, ability to perceive emotions and to link them to one's thinking (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 266).

Sternberg (1997) has described a “triarchic” theory of intelligence presenting three dimensions, each of which covers a different aspect of intelligence: analytic, practical, and creative. The analytic dimension refers to the ability to use one's intelligence to solve a specific problem that has one correct answer. The practical dimension is the ability to apply one's experience to the external world to handle new and complex tasks. The creative dimension refers to the ability to determine what needs to be done, to analyze how best to do it, and to monitor performance (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 335).

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



6.4.1 Social Cognition

This overview lesson describes the general concept of social cognition, or the ways in which we make sense of the thoughts, feelings and behaviours of other people through analysis and interpretation.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How do we make sense of the behaviour of other people?
- How do we form impressions about people?
- What are some biases on how we form impressions of other people?
- How do we make judgements and decisions about other people?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion/Reflection: Schemas
 - Have the students describe their schemas for the following people and situations: themselves, their siblings, their best friend, a hero, the Prime Minister, Wayne Gretzky, Terry Fox, gangs, a school sports team, lawyers, teachers, nurses, graduation from high school.
- Media Study: Impression formation
 - Gather together pictures of people in different situations: smoking, studying, caring for the elderly or a sick person,
 - For each situation, direct the students to write down the impressions they have of the people in the pictures. Are they intelligent, caring ...?
 - Discuss how we form impressions based on a minimal amount of information.
 - Present a picture where the person is acting “out of character”, for example a biker on a “Teddy Bear ride”.
 - What happens when we are faced with forming an impression that goes against the basic schemas and traits we have established?
- Discussion: How do we form impressions of people?
 - Using the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials, discuss specific examples of the five types of schema that help to classify ourselves and others.
- Stereotypes
 - Ask students to complete the following:
Men are _____.
Women are _____.
Hockey players are _____.
- Reflection: To a great extent we are what we believe we are.
 - What impact might this statement have on your life?

Making Connections

- Discussion: Find examples of the progression from biases to stereotypes to prejudice to discrimination in your own classroom, school, community, province and country.

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: How do we form impressions of people?

Lesson 6.4.1: Teacher Information

How do we make sense of the behaviour of other people?

Social cognition is the thought process of making sense of events, people, oneself, and the world in general through analyzing and interpreting them. Social cognition focuses on social information in memory, which affects judgements, choices, evaluations, and ultimately, behaviour (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 457).

Social cognition focuses on the way in which our thoughts are affected by the immediate social context, and in turn, how our thoughts affect social behaviour. The approach can be summarized as follows:

- People have a limited capacity to process information about the social world and will take cognitive shortcuts (such as stereotyping) in order to minimize the load.
- We develop schemata that represent our knowledge about ourselves, others, and our roles within the social world. These schemata, once formed, bias our judgements about ourselves and others.
- Schemata become more complex and organized over time, and also harder to change (Cardwell, 1996, p. 218).

Often, to save time, people use mental shortcuts to make sense of the world, developing rules of thumb. Some of these rules of thumb include:

- Representativeness, (individuals or events that appear to be representative of other members of a group are quickly classified as such)
- Availability (ease of association with existing knowledge)
- False consensus effect (people tend to believe that others agree with them)
- Framing (the way in which information is organized and presented helps determine whether it is will be accepted, rejected or ignored) (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 458).

How do we form impressions of people?

The evidence indicates that we follow a weighted averaging model in combining information about people. That is, we keep a rough “running average” of our trait ratings in our heads, as we discover more

characteristics about people (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 40).

Of course, we know that every person is unique, and that no two classes, no two hockey matches are exactly alike. Yet there are similarities among certain types of people or events. Thus, we tend to organize our view of the world in terms of categories. People are generally categorized in terms of easily observable characteristics, such as gender, ethnic group, occupation or age. Similarly, we construct categories of events, activities, objects and even ideas (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 40).

Cantor and Mischel (1979) suggest that we often use prototypes - mental images of a typical example of that category - for example a dog as a prototype of the category, mammal. The extent to which a particular object resembles the prototype, and the extent to which you allow for variations, will determine how readily you identify the object with the category (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 57).

Each of us uses a particular organizing schema to make sense of the information about others. We do this by using constructs:

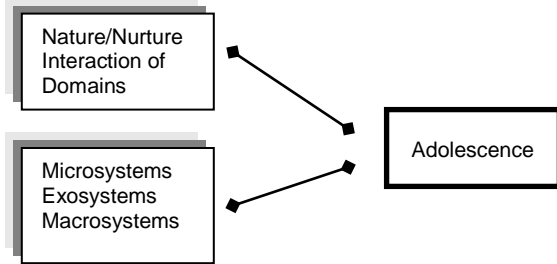
- Physical constructs classify people according to their appearance: male or female, beautiful or ugly, fat or thin, young or old, and so on.
- Role constructs use social position: student, lawyer, wife, and so on.
- Interaction constructs focus on social behaviour: Friendly, helpful, aloof, sarcastic.
- Psychological constructs: curious, nervous, insecure and so on.
- Membership constructs help us to identify others according to the group in which they belong: teacher, Liberal, Environmentalist, and so on (Adler, Towne and Rolls, 2001, p. 91).

What are some errors in forming impressions?

Researchers have noticed two interesting biases in how first impressions of people are formed. First, people tend to form impressions of others which are positive rather than negative, a positivity bias. But while we have this bias towards being positive in our impressions of others, those impressions will be influenced more by negative than by positive information. This is called the negativity effect (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 40).

How do we make judgements and decisions about other people?

In addition to schemas, people use judgmental heuristics to help us deal with the large amount of social information with which we are faced. Heuristics are rules of thumb people follow in order to make judgments quickly and efficiently. The *availability* heuristic refers to the ease with which we can think of something, which has a strong effect on how we view the world. The *representative* heuristic helps us decide how similar one thing is to another; we use it to classify people or situations on the basis of their similarity to a typical case. When using this heuristic we have a tendency to ignore base rate information - that is, the prior probability that someone or something belongs in that classification. People also rely on the *anchoring/adjustment* heuristic, wherein an initial piece of information acts as an anchor, or starting point, for subsequent thoughts on the subject (Aronson, Wilson and Akert, 1994, p. 136).



6.4.2 Social Perception

This lesson introduces the second of the three major aspects of this unit, social perception, or the ways in which we infer other people's motives and intentions from observing their behaviour and deciding whether the causes of the behaviour are internal or situational.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What is social perception?
- How are social perceptions formed and changed?
- How do we select information about others?
- What are some problems and issues in forming impressions of people and situations?
- What is the relationship between attribution, stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination?
- Who are some prominent social rights activists, and what did they achieve?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Self-esteem and social comparison
 - Who do you compare yourself to? Why? What qualities or attributes of other people do you find admirable? What do you do when you compare yourself to others and want to be like them?
 - How important is social comparison in the formation and maintenance of self-esteem? Can social comparison ever be avoided or minimized? Should it be?
- Discussion: Social perception
 - Using the poem "Six Men of Indostan", discuss how our perceptions are affected by our sensory systems, as well as our schemas and previous experiences.
 - In what ways does our biology influence our perception? How might Helen Keller's schema of the world have looked before Annie Sullivan made the connection between sensation and language?
- Activity: Social perception
 - Outline an "elevator" on the floor using masking tape. Leave a space for the door.
 - Invite one student to enter the elevator and go to the third floor. Observe the student's actions. At the third floor, invite a second student to enter the elevator and both students then proceed to the fifteenth floor.
 - Debrief the activity. Where did the students learn the mental schema (event script) for using an elevator? What happened when the second student entered? How can you explain the behaviours of the two students? What did you notice about the behaviours of the two people? What social behaviours did you observe? Raise the concept of proxemics, particularly the concepts of personal space, territoriality, crowding and privacy.

Making Connections

- Research: Sign Language
 - Research the two major types of sign language, and write a poem or song lyrics using sign language.
- School Code of Conduct
 - As a class, develop a classroom or school code of conduct, in which the basic principles of conduct are described, and guidelines established for how we want to treat and interact with each other.

Resources

- "Six Men of Indostan"

Lesson 6.4.2: Teacher Information

What is social perception?

Social perception is the process by which someone infers other people's motives and intentions from observing their behaviour and deciding whether the causes of the behaviour are internal or situational. Social perception helps people make sense of the world, organize their thoughts quickly, and maintain a sense of control over the environment. It helps people feel competent and masterful, maintain a sense of balance, because it helps them predict similar events in the future (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 460).

How are social perceptions formed and changed?

Research has shown that people form impressions of each other in two ways. Sometimes people make quick and effortless judgments based on others' physical appearance, facial expressions, or body language. Studies have shown, for example, that people who are physically attractive are perceived to be happy, warm, friendly, successful, confident, and well-adjusted. At other times, however, people form impressions based on a careful observation of a person's behaviour. According to this latter view, people act like amateur scientists, gathering and analyzing behavioural evidence before evaluating others. The explanations for behaviour that people come up with are called attributions, and the theory that describes the process is called *attribution theory* (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 172).

How do we select information about others?

Because we are exposed to more input than we could possibly manage, the first step in perception is the selection of which data we will attend to. There are several factors that cause us to notice some messages and ignore others.

- Stimuli that are intense often attract our attention.
- Repetitious stimuli also attract our attention. Just as a quiet but steadily dripping faucet can come to dominate our awareness, people to whom we are frequently exposed become noticeable.
- Attention is also frequently related to contrast or change in stimulation. Put differently, unchanging people or things become less noticeable.
- Motives determine not only what information we select from our environment but also how we

perceive people. For example, someone looking for a romantic adventure will be especially aware of attractive potential partners (Adler et al., 2001, p. 90).

What are some problems and issues in forming impressions of people and situations?

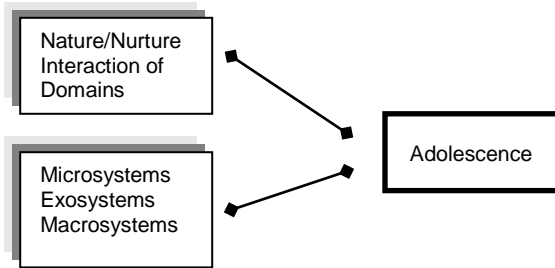
Over the years, research into attribution has shown that when we explain the behaviour of others, we tend to overestimate the role of personal factors and underestimate the influence of situations. This bias is so universal that it has been called the *fundamental attribution error*. In one demonstration of the fundamental attribution error, experimenters randomly assigned subjects to participate in a quiz show in the role of either questioner or contestant. Then in front of the contestant and an observer, the experimenters told the questioner to devise a set of difficult questions to ask the contestant. Not surprisingly, many of the questions—created from the questioner's own store of esoteric knowledge—stumped the contestant. Yet when asked to rate the general knowledge of both participants, observers consistently saw the questioners as more knowledgeable than the contestants. The observers failed to take the situational roles into account and attributed the behaviour they witnessed to each person's level of knowledge.

In forming impressions of others, people are subject to other biases as well. For example, a great deal of research shows that people are often slow to revise their first impressions of others even when those views are not supported by the evidence. Part of the problem is that once we form an impression of someone, we tend to interpret that person's later behaviour in ways that seem to fit our impression. Another problem is that our first impression of someone may shape the way we treat that person—which, in turn, may influence his or her actual behaviour. This process is known as a *self-fulfilling prophecy* (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 48).

What is the relationship between attribution, stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination?

The various components that make up an attitude may not always be in agreement. Prejudice is no exception. A crucial factor in prejudice appears to be the affective component (Esses, Haddock and Zanna, 1993). Thus, an individual may intellectually accept that native people are not inherently less capable or lazier than whites, but may nevertheless avoid them. However, attitude components are more likely to be highly correlated in extreme bigots. This type of person will not only have strong negative feelings, but will usually have an extensive set of negative stereotypes, some of which may be quite bizarre (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 364).

6.5 Adolescent Development: Socioemotional domain



This lesson addresses the multitude of social roles, gender roles, relationships and social behaviours that characterize adolescence as a unique stage of development.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What is the process of socioemotional development in adolescence?
- How do we explain our social behaviour?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Media Study: At Seventeen
 - Using the lyrics from the song written and performed by Janis Ian, discuss how the author is feeling. What commentary is she making on social roles, relationships and adolescent behaviour?
- Research/Discussion: The Kids Are All Right
 - Based on the text from the Maclean's article, discuss with the students the results of Bibby's survey on teen attitudes.
 - Construct a similar survey that compares teen attitudes in your community to those found in Bibby's survey.
- Think/Pair/Share: Human values
 - Based on the Curriculum Support Materials provided, duplicate one copy for each student and have him or her complete them individually.
 - Then in pairs, have the students share and discuss their ranking of the values.
 - After pair discussion, combine pairs to make groups of four, and ask the students to arrive at a group ranking of the values.
 - The final stage of the discussion will be a reporting, and averaging, of the values ranked by each of the groups.
 - Is there a general consensus? Can you arrive at a collective agreement regarding the ranking of those values? Are there gender differences?

Making Connections

- Vandalism and anti-social behaviours in adolescence
- Gangs and group behaviours

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Social Behaviour Model
- Curriculum Support Materials: Human Values
- Maclean's magazine: April 9th, 2001, "The Kids Are All Right"

Lesson 6.5: Teacher Information

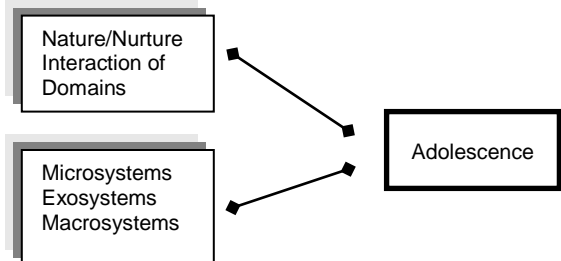
What is the process of socioemotional development in adolescence?

Adolescence is often painted as a time of great difficulty and confusion. While the trials of this period vary from one culture to another, there is little indication that it is actually that bad for most adolescents. One of the hardest issues to deal with is trying to find an identity. Until adolescence, there is no pressure to find out about yourself. Now it becomes necessary to try out different roles to see which ones fit. Other societies, especially in nonindustrialized nations, handle the transition from childhood to adulthood more simply. This transition is made through some kind of initiation, or rite of passage, meaning that a change of status is recognized by a formal ritual. We have no such ceremonies, so adolescents need to form their own subculture in order to avoid complete isolation. Forming groups and achieving a sense of identity are two crucial psychological issues during adolescence (McMahon and Romano, 2000, p. 330).

How do we explain our social behaviour?

Problem behaviour theory (Jessor, 1993) represents a comprehensive approach to understanding adolescent behaviour. In it, adolescent behaviour is viewed as being consistent with what the adolescent is like as a person (a “personality system”), how the adolescent is reacting to his or her home life and peer group (a “perceived environment system”), and what the adolescent tends to be doing (a “behaviour system”). Personality variables relevant to problem behaviour include low expectancies for success in school, high values for independence, and an absence of constraints against such behaviour, such as religious beliefs or concern about deviance. Predisposing characteristics of the social environment include opportunities to engage in problem behaviour and the influence of peer groups. Problem drinking also tends to be part of a more general pattern of behaviour, including the use of marijuana and other drug use, deviant/delinquent acts such as lying and stealing, and precocious sexual involvement, along with less participation in school and church activities (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 453).

6.5.1 Self-understanding



This lesson speaks to the central theme of, *Who Am I?* by guiding the students to a better understanding of themselves as active participants in the social world.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What is self-concept?
- How do we develop a self-concept?
- How do we change a self-concept?
- What are the cultural influences on self-concept?
- How does gender influence self-concept?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: The challenge is to be yourself in a world that is trying to make you like everybody else.
- Construction: The tree of self-understanding
 - Ask each student to add those behaviours and attitudes to the root systems of the trees of self-realization and self-defeat that would promote the growth of the trees of self-realization and self-doubt.
 - As a class, discuss those behaviours and attitudes that seem to be most common.
 - Referring to the Ecological Model, discuss how the various systems of support influence the development or growth of the tree of self-realization and the tree of self-defeat.
 - Connect the symbolism and meaning of the trees to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs.
- Discussion: Internal and external factors in self-concept
 - List and describe those internal and external factors that together have profoundly influenced our lives.
 - Which of those factors could be changed to some degree, and which are relatively stable?
 - What factors do you control?
- Reflection/Discussion: Personality traits and types
 - Ask each student to answer this question: Are you basically a happy person? Why or why not?
 - This exercise will guide students to consider their basic personality traits, which will lead into a discussion of the basic theories of personality.

Making Connections

- Research: Gender development
 - How do the six major theories of psychology explain or describe the process of gender development?
- Interview: Role of women in society
 - How has the role and definition of what it means to be "female" changed since the time of your grandmother or mother? Interview a family member or friend to get her perspective on the changing role of women in our society.

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: The Tree of Self-Understanding

Lesson 6.5.1: Teacher Information

What is self-concept?

The self-concept has four components: self-image, self-esteem (or self-regard), ideal-self and self-efficacy.

- Self-image is the sort of person we think we are. One way of assessing self-image is to ask people to answer the question 'Who Am I?' 20 times. This typically produces two main categories of answers relating to social roles and personality traits. Self-image also includes body image.
- While self-image is essentially descriptive, self-esteem is essentially evaluative. Self-esteem is the extent to which we like or approve of ourselves, and how worthwhile we think we are.
- The ideal-self is the kind of person we would like to be. In general, the greater the gap between self-image and ideal-self, the lower the self-esteem (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 402).
- According to Bandura (1977), self-efficacy, or one's expectations of success in a given situation, is an important determinant of whether one will attempt to make changes in one's environment. Each day, we make many decisions based on our perceptions of the extent to which our actions will produce reinforcement. Our actions are based on our evaluations of our competency. Moreover, self-efficacy not only determines whether we will engage in a particular behaviour, it also determines the extent to which we will maintain that behaviour in the face of adversity (Buskist et al., 1997, p. 461).

How do we develop a self-concept?

According to Carl Rogers (1980), self-concept or identity is shaped partly by self-actualizing tendencies and partly by others' evaluations. In this way, people come to like what they are "supposed" to like and to behave as they are "supposed" to behave. Although this socialization process is adaptive, allowing people to get along in society, it often requires that they stifle the self-actualizing tendency and distort experience (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 425).

How do we change a self-concept?

Four ways self-esteem can be improved are through:

- Identifying the causes of low self-esteem and the domains of competence important to the self. People have the highest self-esteem when they perform competently in domains important to the self.
- Emotional support and social approval, including both adult and peer approval.
- Achievement, which has much in common with Bandura's cognitive social learning concept of self-efficacy, which refers to individuals' beliefs that he or she can master a situation and produce positive outcomes.
- Coping with a problem rather than avoiding it. If coping rather than avoidance prevails, people often face problems realistically, honestly and nondefensively. This produces favourable self-evaluative thoughts, which lead to the self-generated approval that raises self-esteem (Santröck, 1999, p. 314).

How does gender influence self-concept?

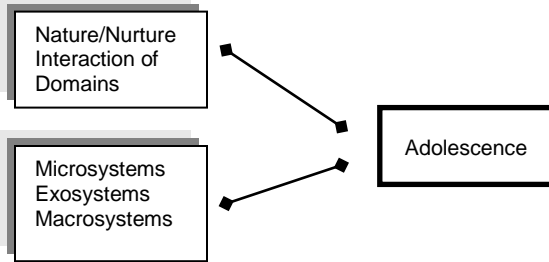
In the 1970s, as both males and females became dissatisfied with the burdens imposed by their stereotypical roles, alternatives to masculinity and femininity were proposed. Instead of describing masculinity and femininity as a continuum in which more of one means less of the other, it was proposed that individuals could have both masculine and feminine traits. This thinking led to the development of androgyny, which refers to the presence of desirable masculine and feminine characteristics in the same person. The androgynous male might be assertive (masculine) and nurturant (feminine). The androgynous female might be powerful (masculine) and sensitive to the feelings of others (feminine) (Santröck, 1999, p. 318).

What are the cultural influences on self-concept?

Individualistic cultures	Collectivist cultures
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Self is separate, unique, individual; should be independent, self-sufficient• Individuals should take care of themselves and immediate family• Many flexible group memberships; friends based on shared interests and activities• Reward for individual achievement and initiative; individual decisions encouraged; individual credit and blame assigned• High value on autonomy, change, youth, individual security, equality	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• People belong to extended families or in-groups; “we” or group orientation• Person should take care of extended family before self• Emphasis on belonging to a very few permanent in-groups which have a strong influence over the person• Reward for contribution to group goals and well-being; co-operation with in-group members; group decisions valued; credit and blame shared• High value on duty, order, tradition, age, group security, status and hierarchy

Source: Alcock et al., 1998, p. 77.

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



6.5.2 Self-concept

Central to our self-understanding is our self-concept. This lesson introduces the four aspects that together comprise our self-concept: self-image, self-esteem, self-efficacy and the ideal-self.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What is a self-concept?
- How does the self-concept develop?
- What influences the development of a self-concept?
- How important is your self-concept?
- What do we do when our self-concept is threatened?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Media Study: Feel Like A Number
 - Using the lyrics from the song included in the Curriculum Support Materials, discuss instances in which we have depersonalized people in our classroom, school and community. Have you ever felt depersonalized?
- Reflection and Review: Who I Am
 - Refer back to the Curriculum Support Materials section for the Who I Am template.
 - In what ways do the entries listed reinforce your self-concept? Are some more important than others? Do some aspects of your self-concept change in relative importance over time, or in different situations?
- Role Play: Defense mechanisms
 - Based on the 10 types of defense mechanisms described in the Teacher Information sections, have small groups of students role play various defense mechanisms.
- Discussion: Significant others
 - Who are significant others in your life? In what ways have they influenced your life? Are you a significant other for someone else? What qualities do you possess such that you could be a significant other?
- Jigsaw: Theoretical perspectives on self-concept
 - Divide the class into six groups and assign one of the theoretical perspectives to each group.
 - Each group will write and present a role play that demonstrates its interpretation of the development of self-concept from its theoretical perspective.

Making Connections

- Social Identification and Gangs:
 - How does the process of establishing a social identity describe gang membership and behaviour?
- Research: Your identity development from infancy to adolescence
 - Were there stages to your identity development? How did you develop a self-concept?
- Cultural Industries and Self-concept:
 - What role do the fashion industries of beauty, fashion and music have on the development of self-concept?

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Who I Am
- Curriculum Support Materials: Feel Like A Number

Lesson 6.5.2: Teacher Information

What is a self-concept?

The self-concept is defined as the sum of feelings, beliefs and impressions that individuals have of themselves - the self perceiving the self (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 68).

According to Carl Rogers (1980), the self is the part of experience that a person identifies with "I" or "me". Those who accurately experience the self - with all the preferences, abilities, fantasies, shortcomings and desires - are on the road to self-actualization (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 424).

How does the self-concept develop?

Identity formation is the central task of adolescents according to Erikson's theory of psychosocial development. According to Erikson (1968) issues in late adolescence - graduating from high school, going to college and forging relationships - challenge the adolescent's self-concept, precipitating an identity crisis. In this crisis, the adolescent must develop an integrated self-image as a unique person by pulling together self-knowledge acquired during childhood. If infancy and childhood brought trust, autonomy and initiative, according to Erikson, the adolescent will resolve the identity crisis positively, feeling self-confident and competent. If, however, infancy and childhood resulted in feelings of mistrust, shame, guilt and inferiority, the adolescent will be confused about his or her identity and goals (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 362).

Cooley (1902) argued that we construct our self-concepts from how we appear to others, which is then reflected back to us - what he called the looking-glass self. There are several processes by which "reflection" enables us to construct our ideas and impressions of ourselves:

- Social Identity refers to those aspects of a person's self-image that depend upon the social categories and groups to which he or she belongs. Turner (1982) describes social identification as a three-part process. First, there is social categorization: individuals perceive themselves and others in terms of membership in distinct categories or groups. Second, the typical norms, attitudes and behaviours that distinguish the groups determine behaviour to a large degree. Third, individuals conform to the stereotypes associated with the group (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 70).
- Perhaps most central to your social identity is your gender - male or female. What does

"masculinity" and "femininity" mean? What is called masculinity has been described as instrumentality or agency, a concern with achieving goals and being active in the world, while femininity is described as expressiveness or communion, being other-centered and concerned with interpersonal relationships.

- Self-perception theory suggests that people become aware of their own attitudes, feelings, values, dispositions and other internal characteristics in the same way that they form impressions of the characteristics of others - through observation of their own behaviour. The notion of self-knowledge through self-perception implies that, rather than thinking about what we really believe in, and then acting on those beliefs, we first act and then discover our beliefs and values from our own actions.
- Social comparison is based on three premises:
 - Humans have a drive to evaluate their own opinions, feelings and abilities, and want to feel confident that they are accurate.
 - In the absence of objective or nonsocial bases of assessment, individuals will evaluate themselves in comparison with others.
 - People tend to compare themselves with someone similar to themselves in opinion, background or ability. In general, people compare themselves to someone equal when the goal is self-assessment, to someone better when the goal is self-improvement, and to someone inferior when the goal is self-enhancement (Alcock et al., 1998, pp. 70-72).

What influences the development of a self-concept?

The society in which we live, or the ethnic group to which we belong, shapes many of our beliefs, values and behaviours - and these play important roles in shaping the character of the personality. Dion and Dion (1993) argue that members of collectivist and individualistic cultures think differently about love and marriage. Their thesis is that romantic conceptualizations of love flourish only in individualistic cultures. Why? Because romantic notions of love and marriage focus narrowly on the specific needs of the individual. Romantic love is "selfish" in the dictionary sense of "seeking or concentrating on one's own welfare or advantage." Each individual has an idealized notion of a relationship with another that will bring him or her great gratification. Members of individualistic societies assume they have the right to enter into such self-satisfying relationships and tend to display

only marginal concern about the possible reactions of others.

In a collectivist society, on the other hand, the individual has a deep interactive dependency with his or her family and reference group, and a more extended self-concept. In such societies, the individual must carefully consider the degree to which a prospective partner will fit into this relationship. In short, the self-concept that characterizes collectivist societies does not allow love and marriage to be considered exclusively in terms of the narrow interests of the individual (Baron et al., 1998, p. 519).

The Ashanti people of West Africa name children according to the day of the week on which they are born because they believe they have different personalities. Police records indicated that a very high proportion of juvenile delinquents were born on a Wednesday (the day of the "naturally aggressive" personality), whilst a very low proportion were born on a Monday (the day of the "quiet and calm" personality). If Ashanti boys were treated in a way consistent with their names, they may consequently become what their names indicate they are really like (a self-fulfilling prophecy) (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 405).

In Maori culture, a person is invested with a certain kind of power (mana), given by the gods in accordance with family status and birth circumstances. This enables a person to be effective, whether in battle or everyday dealings with others. However, this power is not a stable resource but can be increased or decreased by the person's day-to-day conduct. A person who forgot a ritual observance or committed some misdemeanor would have his or her power decreased. A person's social standing, successes and failures, and so on are seen as dependent on external sources rather than internal states (such as personality or motivation). Indeed, mana is only one of the external forces which inhabit a person. Instead of representing themselves as the centre and origin of their actions (which is crucial to the Western concept of the self), the individual Maori do not own experiences such as fear, anger, love and grief. Rather, these experiences are visitations governed by the unseen world of powers and forces (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 407).

How important is your self-concept?

Persons with high self-esteem

- Are likely to think well of others.
- Expect to be accepted by others.
- Evaluate their own performance more favourably than people with low self-esteem.
- Perform well when being watched: not afraid of the reaction of others.
- Work harder for people who demand high standards of performance.
- Are inclined to feel comfortable with others they view as superior in some way.
- Are able to defend themselves against negative comments of others.

Persons with low self-esteem

- Are likely to disapprove of others.
- Expect to be rejected by others.
- Evaluate their own performance less favourably than people with high self-esteem.
- Perform poorly when being watched: are sensitive to possible negative reaction.
- Work harder for undemanding, less critical people.
- Feel threatened by people they view as superior in some way.
- Have difficulty defending themselves against other people's negative comments; more easily influenced.

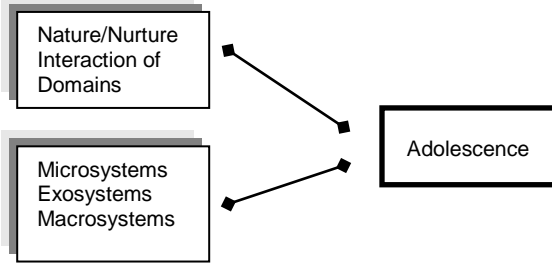
Source: Hamachek, D., (1982).

What do we do when our self-concept is threatened?

When threatened, we all do our best to keep some kind of balance. We protect our inner selves from too much attack by using defense mechanisms:

- When we use repression we do not allow ourselves to remain aware of painful material; we push it out of consciousness. Repression is usually unhealthy.
- When we engage in denial, we refuse to admit that anything bad has happened. In some ways, denial is similar to repression. With repression, though, we are at least partly aware of the problem, and then we push it out of consciousness. With denial, we do not let the problem into consciousness in the first place.
- Sometimes we have trouble directly expressing what we feel because of the threat (real or imagined) that something terrible will happen as a result. So we vent our feelings elsewhere or on someone else, engaging in displacement.

-
- In reaction formation, what we express is the opposite of what we really feel. Reaction formation is sometimes a little hard to see in operation, since we can not read people's minds.
 - When the emotions we feel are too overwhelming, we may try to eliminate them altogether. Talking coolly and rationally about a tragedy as if it were simply an event that we had observed is called intellectualization. We have taken all of the feelings out of our description.
 - Identification with the aggressor occurs when we are mistreated for a long time by someone much more powerful than we are, and begin to take on that person's characteristics. We begin to identify with him or her, or try to gain favour.
 - With regression we defend ourselves by "moving backward" and behaving like children. This defense is an extreme reaction to the frustration of having to be an adult and take responsibility. We regress to a time when we were helpless children and someone had to take care of us.
 - With rationalization we explain what we do in such a way that we avoid any responsibility for a bad outcome.
 - Projection refers to the process of mentally giving to someone else our own thoughts or feelings. A continued pattern of such behaviour is self-destructive, since it does not help us face up to how we might be causing the problem.
 - Sublimation occurs when we channel our emotional energy into a constructive or creative activity. It is the only defense mechanism that is truly healthy and adaptive (McMahon and Romano, 2000, pp. 476-480).



6.5.3 Culture and the Self

The predominant culture, or indeed sub-culture, has a profound influence on the development and maintenance of the self-concept. This lesson addresses the nature of being “Western” or “Eastern” in cultural background.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What does culture mean?
- What influence does culture have on self-concept?
- Does your cultural background influence your general health and outlook on life?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Individualistic/collectivist cultures
 - Compare and contrast the various aspects of individualistic versus collectivist cultures. Does this necessarily mean one culture is “right” or “better”?
- Reflection: My Medicine Wheel
 - In what ways has your culture influenced your development in the four aspects of your being: physical, mental, emotional and spiritual?
- Discussion: Culture and identity
 - Using the materials found in the Curriculum Support Materials, The Chinese Zodiac, direct the students to find their birth year and read the description. Does the Chinese Zodiac describe your basic personality?
- Think/Pair/Share: Culture
 - Describe your culture. Include in your description the cultural heritage that you inherited, as well as the family culture, community culture, provincial culture, and national culture.
 - Discuss how our culture is represented or described in the following:
 - education
 - roles of men, women, seniors and children
 - social supports and services
 - career choices
 - parenting and child rearing
 - role, expectations and rights of adolescents.
- Discussion: Cultural norms
 - What is considered to be “abnormal” behaviour in our culture?
 - What are the cultural norms for the following:
 - dress, clothing or fashion
 - manners
 - individual rights versus the rights of society.

Making Connections

- Discussion: Different kinds of culture
- What are the different kinds of “cultures” (school, family, community, peers, classroom, religious) that exist in your world?

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: The Chinese Zodiac
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Medicine Wheel

Lesson 6.5.3: Teacher Information

What does culture mean?

Culture has been defined as the accumulation of values, rules of behaviour, forms of expression, religious beliefs, occupational choices, and the like for a group of people who share a common language and environment. As such, culture is an organizing and stabilizing influence. It encourages or discourages particular behaviours and mental processes. It also allows people to understand others and anticipate their behaviour. It is a kind of group adaptation passed by tradition and example rather than by genes, from one generation to the next. Culture determines, for example, whether children's education is concerned with hunting or reading, how close people stand when they talk to each other, and whether or not they form lines in public places (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 17).

What influence does culture have on self-concept?

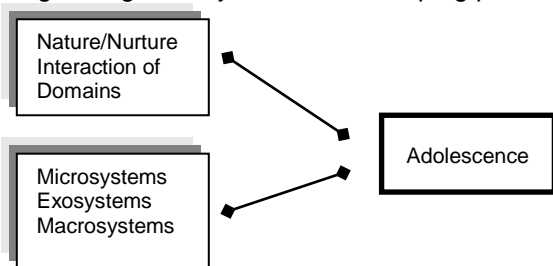
Individualistic cultures
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Self is separate, unique individual; should be independent, self-sufficient.• Individuals should take care of themselves and immediate family.• Many flexible group memberships; friends based on shared interests and activities.• Reward for individual achievement and initiative; individual decisions encouraged; individual credit and blame assigned.• High value on autonomy, change, youth, individual security, equality.
Collectivist cultures
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• People belong to extended families or in-groups; "we" or group orientation.• Person should take care of extended family before Self.• Emphasis on belonging to a very few permanent in-groups which have a strong influence over the person.• Reward for contribution to group goals and well-being; co-operation with in-group members; group decisions valued; credit and blame shared.• High value on duty, order, tradition, age, group security, status and hierarchy

Source: Adler et al., 2001, p. 61.

Does your cultural background influence your general health and outlook on life?

Cultures differ in their degree of fatalism and in their beliefs about whether it is possible to take control over their health. For example, in Germany, which has a highly structured social welfare system, people feel they have more psychological control over their health and work than Americans do. Might these cultural attitudes be related to mortality rates? The answer, remarkably, seems to be yes. In traditional Chinese astrology, certain birth years are considered unlucky, and people born in those years often fatalistically expect bad fortune. This expectation can become a self-fulfilling prophecy. In a study of many thousands of people matched by age and cause of death, Chinese-Americans who had been born in a year traditionally considered to be ill-fated died significantly earlier - one to five years earlier! - than whites who had been born in the same year and who had the same disease. The more strongly traditional the Chinese were, the more years of life they lost. These results held for nearly all causes of death studied, even when the researchers controlled for how well the patients took care of themselves and which treatments they were given (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 558).

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



6.5.4 Gender and the Self

We now turn to consider the definition, development and influence of being born male or female. What does it mean to be masculine or feminine? What influence does gender bring to bear on our self-understanding?

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What does gender mean?
- How does a gender identity develop?
- What are the differences between the genders?
- What are the sociocultural influences on gender development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: The Ecological Model
 - Based on the ecological model, discuss how the various systems influence the development of a gender role and concept.
- Discussion: Gender Differences
 - Are these descriptions or analyses accurate or not?
 - What stereotypes or biases are evident?
 - How would these descriptions account for androgyny?
 - What are the implications and strategies to enhance and promote:
 - Communication, intimacy, relationships, conflict, parenting, career choices, leadership roles, role of media, role of cultural industries, education, self-concept.
- Activity: Develop your own theory of gender development!
 - Create your own theory as to how gender roles are developed. Some possibilities for reporting might include a lecture, a demonstration, a role play, or a talk show presentation in which the new theory is described by the guest.
- Discussion: Women in politics and leadership
 - In what ways would females lead and govern differently?
 - Interview a business woman for her perspective on gender and career.
- Research: Gender
 - Design and conduct a research study investigating what it means to be “male” and “female”. What are the qualities of being male or female? What are the basic values held by each gender? In what ways are the genders alike or different?
- Jigsaw: Theoretical Perspectives on Self-concept
 - Divide the class into six groups and assign one of the theoretical perspectives to each group.
 - Each group will write and present a role play that demonstrates its interpretation of the development of self-concept from its theoretical perspective.

Making Connections

- Gangs and gender
- Stereotypes and women
- Gender equity
- Historical research: Women's suffrage

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Gender Differences
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model

Lesson 6.5.4: Teacher Information

What does gender mean?

Gender identity is our classification of ourselves (and others) as male or female, boy or girl, and so on. Gender role refers to the behaviours, attitudes, beliefs and so on which a particular society either expects from, or considers appropriate to, males and females on the basis of their biological sex. To be masculine or feminine, therefore, requires males and females to conform to their respective gender roles (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 393).

How does a gender identity develop?

- *Biological:* Supporters of a biological approach to gender development argue that males and females are biologically programmed for certain kinds of activities compatible with male and female roles.
- *Humanistic theory (Rogers):* Rogers assumes that each person responds as an organized whole to reality as he or she perceives it. Rogers emphasized self-actualization, which he described as an innate tendency towards growth that motivates all human behaviour. To Rogers, personality is the expression of each individual's self-actualizing tendency as it unfolds in that individual's unique, perceived reality. Central to Rogers' theory is the self, the part of experience that a person identifies as "I" or "Me".
- *Sociobiological theory:* Sociobiologists (evolutionary theorists) argue that gender has gradually evolved over the course of human development as part of our broader adaptation to the environment. The relatively greater physical strength and lung capacity of males make them better suited to hunting and defending territory and family. The child-bearing and milk-producing capacities of females, however, make them ideally suited to child care and other nurturant roles.
- *Psychoanalytic theory:* Freud's theory is related to his explanation of moral development. Up until the resolution of the Oedipus complex, gender identity is assumed to be flexible. Resolution of the Oedipus complex occurs through identification with the same-sex parent, and results in the acquisition of both a superego and gender identity. As well as a weaker conscience, Freud also saw the development of gender identity as being weaker in girls than boys.

- *Social learning theory:* According to social learning theory, one reason girls and boys learn to behave differently is that they are *treated differently* by their parents. Social learning theory emphasizes the roles of observational learning and reinforcement. By observing others behaving in particular ways and then imitating that behaviour, children receive reinforcement from significant others for behaviours considered to be sex-appropriate.
- *Cognitive-developmental:* The cognitive-developmental approach emphasizes the child's participation in developing both an understanding of gender and gender-appropriate behaviour. Children's discovery of the fact that they are male or female causes them to identify with members of the same sex (not the other way around as psychoanalytic and social learning theories suggest). According to cognitive-developmental psychologists, young children acquire an understanding of the concepts male and female in three stages:
 - Gender labeling or basic gender identity: This occurs somewhere around age three and refers to the child's recognition that it is male or female.
 - Gender stability: By age four or five, most children recognize that people retain their gender for a lifetime. However, there are limitations, in that children rely on superficial signs such as the hair length to determine the gender.
 - Gender constancy: At around age six or seven, children realize that gender is immutable. Gender constancy represents a kind of conservation and, significantly, appears shortly after the child has mastered conservation of quantity (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, pp. 396-400).

What are the differences between the genders?

Santrock (1999) states that genuine behavioural differences do exist between the sexes and people's stereotypes are not entirely inaccurate. But the differences are fewer in number, smaller in size and far more complex than stereotypes suggest.

- *Physical/Biological:* From conception on, females are less likely to die than males. Females also are less likely than males to develop physical or mental disorders. Estrogen strengthens the immune system, making females more resistant to infection. Males have twice the risk of coronary disease as females. On average, males grow to be about 10 percent taller than females.

- *Cognitive abilities:* In the cognitive domain, it appears that there are three genuine gender differences. First, on the average, females tend to exhibit slightly better verbal skills than males. Second, starting in high school, males show a slight advantage on tests of mathematical ability. Third, starting in the grade school years, males tend to score higher than females on various measures of visual-spatial ability.
- *Social behaviour and personality:* First, studies indicate that males tend to be more aggressive than females, both verbally and physically. This disparity shows up in early childhood. Second, there are gender differences in nonverbal communication. The evidence indicates that females are more sensitive than males to subtle nonverbal cues. Females also smile and gaze at others more than males. Third, females appear to be slightly more susceptible to persuasion and conforming to group pressure than males are. Fourth, males are more sexually active than females are, and they have more permissive attitudes about causal, premarital and extramarital sex. Finally, males score higher on assertiveness scales, whereas females score higher on measures of anxiety, trust, empathy and nurturance. Sixth, females are more relationship-oriented than males, and that this relationship-orientation should be prized as a more important skill in our culture than it is currently held to be.
- *Communication:* Sociologist Deborah Tannen (1990) distinguishes between rapport talk and report talk. Rapport talk is the language of conversation and a way of establishing connections and negotiating relationships. Report talk is talk that gives information. Males hold centre stage through report talk, while females prefer private, rapport talk and conversation that is relationship-oriented.
- *Aggression:* One of the most consistent gender differences is that boys are more aggressive than girls. Another is that boys are more active than girls. The aggression difference is especially pronounced when children are provoked. These differences occur across cultures and appear very early in children's development. Biological factors include heredity and hormones. Environmental factors include cultural expectations, adult and peer models, and social agents who reward aggression in males and punish aggression in females.
- *Emotional control:* An important skill is to be able to regulate and control your emotions and behaviour. Males usually show less self-regulation than females, and this low self-control

can translate into behavioural problems. In one study, children's low self-regulation was linked with greater aggression, teasing others, overreaction to frustration, low cooperation and inability to delay gratification (Santrock, 1999, pp. 316-318).

Males value power, competency, efficiency and achievement. They are always doing things to prove themselves and develop their power and skills. Their sense of self is defined through their ability to achieve results. Males are solution-oriented. They experience fulfillment primarily through success and accomplishment. Males are more concerned with outdoor activities, like hunting, fishing and racing cars. They are interested in the news, weather and sports and couldn't care less about romance novels and self-help books. Males are more interested in "objects" and "things" rather than people and feelings. While women fantasize about romance, men fantasize about powerful cars, faster computers, gadgets, gizmos, and new more powerful technology. Men are preoccupied with the "things" that can help them express power by creating results and achieving their goals. Achieving their goals is very important to a male because it is a way for him to prove his competence and thus feel good about himself. For males to feel good about themselves, they must achieve these goals by themselves. Males pride themselves in doing things all by themselves. Autonomy is a symbol of efficiency, power and competence.

Females value love, communication, beauty and relationships. They spend a lot of time supporting, helping and nurturing one another. Their sense of self is defined through their feelings and the quality of their relationships. They experience fulfillment through sharing and relating. Rather than building highways and tall buildings, females are more concerned with living together in harmony, community and loving cooperation. Relationships are more important than work and technology. Personal expression, especially of feelings, is very important. Communication is of primary importance. To share their personal feelings is much more important than achieving goals and success. Talking and relating to one another is a source of tremendous fulfillment.

Instead of being goal oriented, women are relationship oriented; they are more concerned with expressing their goodness, love and caring. Females are very involved in personal growth, spirituality, and everything that can nurture life, healing and growth. Females are very intuitive. They have developed this ability through centuries of anticipating the needs of others. They pride themselves on being considerate of the needs and feelings of others (Gray, 1992, pp. 16-20).

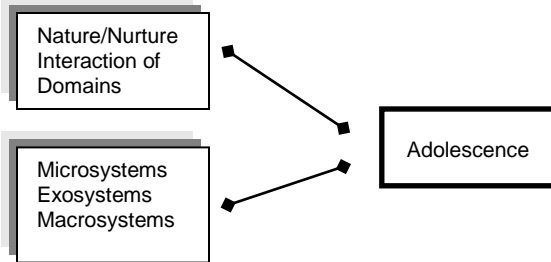
What are the sociocultural influences on gender development?

Although parents do encourage sex-appropriate play, there is evidence that biological factors may play an initial role in children's preferences. Although fathers are less likely to give dolls to one-year-old boys than to one-year-old girls, the boys who do receive the dolls are less likely to play with them (Snow et al., 1983). Perhaps adult expectations and encouragement build upon children's preferences, producing an amplifying effect. Then, because boys' toys provide more opportunity for developing motor skills, visuospatial skills, and inventiveness, and girls' toys provide more opportunity for nurturance and social exchange, some important differences in sex roles may become established.

Once children begin to play with other children outside the home, peers have a significant influence on the development of their gender roles. In fact, Stern and Karraker (1989) found that the behaviour of two- to six-year-old children was even more influenced by the knowledge of a baby's gender than was the behaviour of adults. By the time children are three years old, they reinforce gender-typed play by praising, imitating or joining in the behaviour. In contrast, they criticize gender-inappropriate behaviour (Langlois and Downs, 1980). Parents indirectly encourage gender-stereotyped play by seeking out children of the same sex as playmates for their own children (Buskist et al., 1997, p. 399).

6.5.5 Self-schemas and Identity

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



This lesson looks at self-identity in preparation for the lesson on identity management, or the ways in which we present ourselves both privately and publicly.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How do we represent knowledge about ourselves?
- How does self-identity develop?
- What influences does the family have on identity?
- How does gender influence identity development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: "When anything is possible, nothing is easy."
 - What implications does this statement have for the sociocultural influences on adolescent identity development?
- Discussion: Parenting styles and identity development
 - Refer to Teacher Information, What influence does the family have on identity?, for information on parenting styles.
 - Discuss how parenting styles can influence self-schemas.
- Reflection and Review: Who Am I?
 - Refer to the Curriculum Support Materials section for the Who I Am template.
 - In what ways do the entries listed reinforce your self-identity? Are some more important than others? Do some aspects of your self-identity change in relative importance over time, or in different situations?
- Discussion: Identity development
 - Based on Marcia's (1980) four identity status model, discuss with the students at which of the four they consider themselves to be.
- Discussion: To thine own self be true
 - What does this Shakespearean quote mean?
- Reflection: Similarities and differences
 - In what ways are you similar to others?
 - In what ways are you different?
 - What are the most unique qualities that you would use to describe your individuality?

Making Connections

- Self-identity and groups:
 - What is the nature of the relationship between self-identity and groups to which we belong?
 - How do we maintain a sense of self in group situations?
 - What are the dangers of losing a self-identity in favour of a group identity?

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Who I Am

Lesson 6.5.5: Teacher Information

How do we represent knowledge about ourselves?

We not only represent and store information about other people, but also about ourselves, although in a more complex and varied way. Most people have a complex self-concept with many self-schemata. These include an array of “possible selves”, or future-oriented schemata of what we would like to be (our ideal-self). Visions of future possible selves may influence some of the decisions we make, such as career choices (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 403).

We learn about ourselves through introspection and observations of our behaviour, and then organize this information into self-schemas. We also interpret our past using schemas and theories about how our attitudes and behaviours are likely to change. As important as these sources of self-knowledge are, though, there is still something missing. These views portray people as solitary seekers of self-knowledge, with no consultation with or comparison to other people. The two ways in which we gain self-knowledge that are entirely social, in that we rely on other people to learn about who we are, are the “looking glass self” and social comparison theory (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 228).

How does self-identity develop?

Contemporary views of identity development suggest several important considerations.

- First, identity development is a lengthy process. Identity formation begins with the appearance of attachment, the development of a sense of self, and the emergence of independence in infancy, and reaches its final phase with a life review and integration in old age.
- Second, identity development is extraordinarily complex. At the bare minimum, it involves commitment to a vocational direction, an ideological stance, and a sexual orientation. Canadian psychologist James Marcia (1980) analyzed Erikson’s theory of identity development and concluded that four identity statuses, or modes of resolution, appear in the theory: identity diffusion, identity foreclosure, identity moratorium and identity achievement.
 - Identity diffusion is Marcia’s term for the status of adolescents who have not yet experienced a crisis (that is, they have not yet explored meaningful alternatives) or made any commitments.

- Identity foreclosure is Marcia’s term for adolescents who have made a commitment but have not experienced a crisis.
- Identity moratorium is Marcia’s term for the status of adolescents who are in the midst of a crisis, but their commitments are either absent or only vaguely defined.
- Identity achievement is Marcia’s term for the status of adolescents who have undergone a crisis and have made a commitment (Santrock, 1999, p. 373).

What is the process of identity development?

As they try to sort through their possible (and multiple) selves, adolescents frequently take on a false self, acting in ways that they know are contrary to the core of their being - even if they are not sure what that core being is. According to one group of researchers (Harter, Marold, Whitesell and Cobbs, 1996), adolescents display three distinct types of false selves:

- *The acceptable false self.* This false self arises from the adolescent’s perception that the real self is rejected by parents and peers - a perception often coloured by the adolescent’s own self-hate. Adolescents who adopt a false self in order to be accepted tend to feel worthless, depressed, and hopeless; they engage in self-betrayal to hide their true nature. They also report low levels of real self-understanding.
- *The pleasing false self.* This second type of false self arises from a wish to impress or please others. It is quite common among adolescents. Those who adopt it appear to be less debilitated psychologically, and to have a greater self-understanding, than those whose false selves arise from a sense of rejection.
- *The experimental false self.* This type of false self is one that adolescents try out “just to see how it feels”. Compared with adolescents who engage in the first two types of false behaviour, these adolescents report the highest levels of self-esteem and self-knowledge, partly because although they acknowledge that their experimentation is not their usual, expected behaviour, they do not feel it is false (Berger, 2000, p. 502).

What influences does the family have on identity?

Parents are important figures in the adolescent’s development of identity. In studies that relate

identity development to parenting styles, democratic parents, who encourage adolescents to participate in family decision making, foster identity achievement. Authoritarian parents, who control the adolescent's behaviour without giving the adolescent an opportunity to express opinions, encourage identity foreclosure. Permissive parents, who provide little guidance to adolescents and allow them to make their own decisions, promote identity diffusion.

In addition to studies on parenting styles, researchers have also examined the role of individuality and connectedness in the development of identity. The presence of a family atmosphere that promotes both individuality and connectedness is important in the adolescent's identity development. Individuality consists of two dimensions: self-assertion, the ability to have and communicate a point of view; and separateness, the use of communication patterns to express how one is different from others. Connectedness also consists of two dimensions: mutuality, sensitivity to and respect for others' views; and permeability, openness to others' views (Santrock, 1999, p. 373).

What are the sociocultural influences on identity development?

The surrounding culture can aid identity formation in two major ways: by providing values that have stood the test of time and continue to serve their function, and by providing social structures and customs that ease the transition from childhood to adulthood. Whether a given culture actually provides these values and social structures depends primarily on how much the members of the culture agree regarding basic principles and on how stable life circumstances are from one generation to the next.

In a culture where virtually everyone holds the same moral, political, religious and sexual values, and where social change is slow, identity is easy to achieve. Most young people in such traditional cultures simply accept the roles and values they grew up with. In modern industrial and post-industrial societies, by contrast, cultural consensus is rare and continuity is rarer still. Everything is open to question by almost everyone. When anything is possible, nothing is easy (Berger, 2000, p. 507).

How does gender influence identity development?

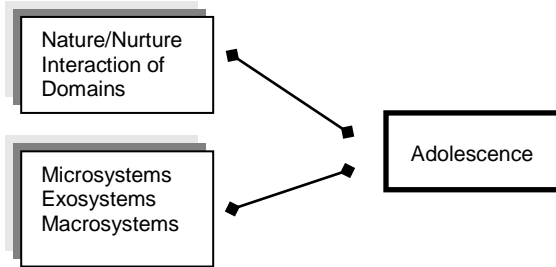
Erikson described two primary developmental crises in early and middle adulthood. The first is the establishment of intimacy, which is a criterion of having attained the psychosocial state of adulthood.

By intimacy, Erikson means the ability to form close, meaningful relationships with others without 'the fear of losing oneself in the process' (Elkind, 1970). Erikson believed that a prerequisite for intimacy was the attainment of identity, or the reconciliation of all our various roles into one enduring and stable personality. Identity is necessary because we cannot know what it means to love someone and seek to share our life with them until we know who we are and what we want to do with our lives. Thus, genuine intimacy requires us to give up some of our sense of separateness, and we must each have a firm identity to do this. Intimacy does not involve sexuality. Since intimacy refers to the essential ability to relate our deepest hopes and fears to another person, and in turn accept another's need for intimacy, it describes the relationship between friends just as much as that between sexual partners (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 413).

Some researchers believe that the order of stages proposed by Erikson are different for females and males. One view is that for males identity formation precedes the stage of intimacy, while for females intimacy precedes identity. These ideas are consistent with the belief that relationships and emotional attachments are more important concerns of females, while autonomy and achievement are more important concerns of males (Santrock, 1999, p. 375).

6.5.6 Identity Management

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



How does our behaviour change according to the situation? What techniques or process do we employ in order to maintain, or possibly change, our identity? We do, indeed, have two sides to our identities, public and private. This lesson addresses the management of our uniqueness.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How does our behaviour change in social situations?
- How, and why, do we disclose private and personal information about ourselves to others?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Identity management as theatre
 - Compare Shakespeare's quote, "All the world's a stage, and we merely the players", with Goffman's concept of identity management as "a kind of process theatre".
- Discussion: Identity management
 - Using the information supplied in the Teacher Information section, discuss with the students the various aspects of each of self-presentation, self-monitoring and impression management included in Teacher Information.
 - Are there differences in the way we manage our identities in private as opposed to in public?
 - Have students record the adjectives they would use to describe their public and private selves, and then reflect on the differences.
 - What, or who, are the most important influences on these differences?
- Discussion: Be who you are, where you are at, when you are there.
 - What does this statement mean? What are the implications for identity management? Can you always just "be yourself", or are there times and situations that demand a role?
- Role Play: Self-presentation techniques
 - Based on Jones and Pittman's theory about self-presentation techniques (see Teacher Information), have students in small groups conceive of a role play that demonstrates how these techniques are used in social situations.
- Drama/Theatre Study: Hamlet
 - In what ways did Hamlet manage his identity? How is Hamlet's behaviour consistent with Goffman's concept of identity management as process theatre? What techniques did Hamlet use to manage his identity?
 - Invite students to act out a short scene from Hamlet in which he attempts to manage his identity. Discuss the techniques and how they might apply to our social situations.

Making Connections

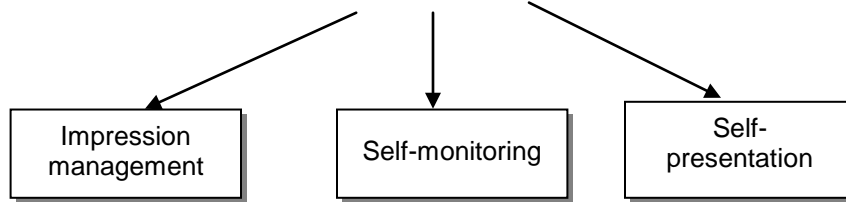
- Peer pressure and identity management
- Dysfunctional behaviour
- Multiple personality disorder

Resources

- Shakespearean Tragedy: Hamlet

Lesson 6.5.6: Teacher Information

How does our behaviour change in social situations?



Impression management can take one of three forms: manner, appearance and setting. Manner consists of a person's words and nonverbal actions. The second dimension of identity management is appearance - the personal items people use to shape an image. Along with clothing, other aspects of appearance such as jewelry, tanned or light skin, hairstyle and colour, all play a major role in identity management. A final way to manage identities is through the choice of setting - physical items we use to influence how others view us. In modern Western society the automobile is a major part of identity management (Adler et al., 2001, p. 79).

People high in self-monitoring are social chameleons - they can skillfully alter their behaviour to match the current situation. They adjust what they say and what they do to the current situation in order to make a positive impression on others. In contrast, low self-monitors, tend to show a higher degree of consistency. They act much the same across a wide range of situations on the basis of their particular beliefs and attitudes.

Self-monitoring involves more than differences in consistency, however. Persons high in self-monitoring are generally better than low self-monitors at both reading others' emotional reactions and managing their own nonverbal cues. Thus they are generally more successful at making a good first impression. As a result, high self-monitors tend to be more successful in their careers than low self-monitors. High self-monitors approach new situations by asking themselves: "How can I best please the people I have to deal with?" In contrast, low self-monitors ask themselves: "How can I best be me in this situation?" (Baron et al., 1998, p. 516).

Jones and Pittman (1982) have described several strategic self-presentational techniques that people use in everyday life:

- First is *ingratiation*, where you flatter, praise and generally make yourself likeable to another, often higher-status person.

- Second is *self-promotion* - actively "blowing your own horn" by describing your talents, exhibiting your knowledge and generally setting out to impress people.
- The flip side of self-promotion is *basking in reflected glory*. You cannot be good at everything, and so you cannot self-promote successfully in all areas - but you can become close to talented or successful people and bask in their glory and fame. In other words, you can appear impressive to others because you know or associate with impressive people.
- A final self-presentational strategy, and the one that has attracted the most research attention, is *self-handicapping*. Using this strategy, you set up reasons, before the fact, for your failure. That is, before you even engage in a task, you can make sure that you have a ready-made excuse to explain your (potentially) poor performance. There are two major ways people self-handicap:
 - In its most extreme form, people create obstacles that reduce the likelihood they will succeed on a task, so that if they do fail, they can blame it on those obstacles rather than on their lack of ability. The obstacles people have been found to use include drugs, alcohol, reduced effort on the task and failure to practise.
 - The second kind of self-handicapping is less extreme. People do not create obstacles to success, but do devise ready-made excuses in case they fail (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 237).

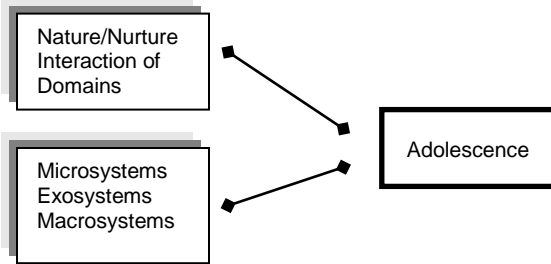
How, and why, do we disclose private and personal information about ourselves to others?

There are several characteristics of self-disclosure:

- Usually happens in dyads.
- Occurs incrementally.

-
- Occurs in relatively few relationships.
 - Is relatively scarce.
 - Usually occurs in the context of positive relationships.
 - There are reasons for self-disclosure.
 - Improves and expands interpersonal relationships.
 - Acts as catharsis, getting it “off your chest”.
 - Self-clarification of your beliefs, opinions, attitudes and feelings by “talking it out”.
 - Self-validation by seeking confirmation of important parts of your self-concept.
 - Reciprocity, or disclosing information about yourself to encourage another person to do so also.
 - Identity management or revealing personal information to make ourselves more attractive.
 - Relationship maintenance and enhancement.
 - Impression formation.
 - Social control.
 - Manipulation calculated to achieve a desired result (Adler et al., 2000, p. 358).

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



6.5.7 Mass Media

This lesson addresses the pervasive and profound influence that television, movies, newspapers, radio and magazines have on all aspects of our lives, both personal and social.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What defines the mass media?
- How does viewing violence on television or in movies - and now in video games - affect the way we behave?
- What influence does the media have on developing aggression and violence, especially in adolescents?
- What influence does the Internet have social relations and behaviour?
- What influence does the media have on society and our culture?
- What is the relationship between cultural values, the media and censorship?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Media and the systems of support
 - If media has such a profound and pervasive influence, why is it in the exosystem level and not the macrosystem level?
 - Is the mass media the single most important influence in your life?
- Construction: Create your own magazine
 - Create your own magazine on any topic of interest in social psychology. You can use the *Ages and Stages* journal as an organizing format, or create your own format, articles, advertising, etc.
- Discussion/Research: Values and the media
 - <http://www.media-awareness.ca/eng/med/home/resource/poll.htm>
 - Using the survey questions and results of adolescent views towards media and values from the website listed above, discuss the results and then construct your own research study on adolescent perceptions of the media.
- Web-based Lessons: Advertising, image and self-esteem
 - <http://www.media-awareness.ca/eng/med/class/teamedia/pursuit.htm>
 - Students answer a brief questionnaire related to self-image, self-esteem, and advertising, and then work in groups to create, and act in mock television commercials that parody advertising techniques.
- Discussion: Gender and movies
 - "Movies for guys who like movies" versus "Chick-flicks".
 - What are the stereotypes inherent in these two phrases?
 - What are the gender differences in television and movie interests?
 - Why are there such gender differences?

Making Connections

- Careers and Information Age
- Reality Television: Why is it so popular?

Resources

- <http://www.media-awareness.ca> – Website of the Media Awareness Network
- <http://www.media-awareness.ca/eng/med/class/teamedia/tujs.htm> - Lesson plans and resources on the media and media issues from the Media Awareness Network

Lesson 6.5.7: Teacher Information

What defines the mass media?

The mass media includes television, movies, radio, music, newspapers, magazines, journals, video games, and the Internet.

How does viewing violence on television or in movies - and now in video games - affect the way we behave?

In many Canadian cities, and in more remote communities as well, television is a common bond. In Igloodik, Nunavut, for example, of 139 households, 134 have television sets. Studies show that one in five Canadian teens watches more than five hours a day, two out of five watch three or four hours, and two out of five watch one or two hours. By the time they enter junior high, these teens have already seen 100 000 violent acts and 8 000 murders on television or in the movies. Many of the most popular video games involve players in gruesome acts of violence, such as decapitation ("Mortal Kombat") and hanging from a meat hook by a hole drilled in the neck by a vampire ("Night Moves").

- Aggression may be learned through observation. Moreover, when adults and children are exposed to new ways of aggressing against others - techniques they have not previously seen - they may add these new behaviours to their repertoire. Later, when angry, irritated or frustrated, they may put these behaviours to actual use in assaults against others.
- Media violence conveys the message that violence is an acceptable means of handling interpersonal difficulties. It may elicit additional aggressive ideas and thoughts - convincing viewers that violence is even more common in real life than it is. It may also lessen emotional reactions to aggression and the harm it produces, so that such outcomes seem less upsetting or objectionable. This process is known as desensitization (Baron et al., 1998, p. 215).

The fact that television portrays so much aggressive behaviour concerns parents and educators, as well as social psychologists. Half of all prime time TV characters are involved in violent activity of some kind; about one-tenth kill or are killed; the perpetrators of these crimes go unpunished in nearly three-quarters of violent scenes. Sixty-one percent of television programs contain violence - and that violence is often glamorized. Moreover, about 20 percent of males appearing on TV shows are engaged in law enforcement, whereas less than one

percent are in law enforcement in the real world. Although the overall amount of violence on television is staggering, some programs account for a disproportionate number of violent acts overall.

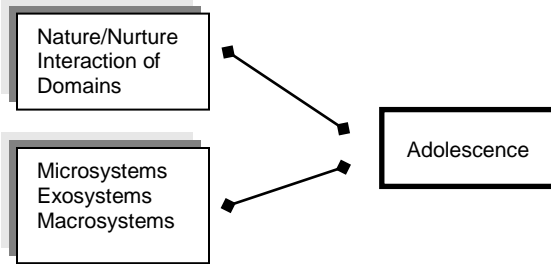
Research generally supports the contention that viewers who regularly watch violent programs on television are more likely to be aggressive than are viewers who see less television violence. Further, one study found that children exposed to large doses of TV violence are less likely to help a real-life victim of violence; another found that viewers of violence were less sympathetic to real-life victims than were nonviewers. Children who play violent video games also seem to act more aggressively at later ages. Smith and her colleagues in the 1998 National Television Violence Study described some of the key effects of viewing violence on television:

- It weakens viewers' inhibitions.
- It may suggest new ideas and techniques to the uninitiated.
- It may activate or stimulate existing aggressive ideas and behaviours.
- It reduces a person's overall emotional sensitivity to violence - it desensitizes people.
- It introduces a fear of becoming a victim of violence (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 480).

What influence does the media have on developing aggression and violence, especially in children?

There are four scenes of violence portrayed on network television to every one scene expressing affection. On average, American children see more than 100 000 violent episodes and some 20 000 murders on television before reaching adolescence (Meyers, 1996). Other surveys indicate that news coverage of violence against women and children was not used to educate the public but rather to fascinate and entertain. Television violence, in particular, has a significant effect on the frequency and type of aggressive behaviour expressed by adults and children. Aggressive children watch more media violence, identify more with violent characters, and believe more that the violence they observe reflects real life than nonaggressive children (Bartol, 1999, p. 194).

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



6.5.8 Issues and challenges in adolescence

This lesson addresses the issues of adolescence using a research-oriented focus. Students can then analyze the research findings in terms of a theoretical perspective to connect theory with practice.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What role does nutrition play in healthy adolescent development?
- What are the two main types of eating disorders?
- What roles do genetics and the environment play in eating disorders?
- What are the trends and issues in substance use and abuse during adolescence?
- What are the issues and challenges involved with teen suicide?
- What are the trends and issues with juvenile violence and crime?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion/Research: Juvenile Crime
 - Using the graphs included in the Curriculum Support Materials, discuss the implications of the results in terms of juvenile crime.
 - While the data set is American, how might the data compare to your community?
 - Contact your local police service and find out if any recent statistical data exists for the incidence and type of juvenile crime in Canada, or in your community.
 - Using the information contained in the Teacher Information section, discuss the predictors of juvenile delinquency.
- Curriculum Support Materials: Smoking and Adolescence
 - Using the table presented by Statistics Canada, discuss the implications for tobacco usage among Canadian teens today. How does the national data compare with the situation in your community?
- Curriculum Support Materials: Alcohol and Adolescence
 - Using the table presented by Statistics Canada, discuss the implications for alcohol consumption among Canadian teens today. How does the national data compare with your community?
- Research: Issues in adolescence
 - Divide the class into small groups, or pairs. Brainstorm a list of issues for research in adolescence. Based on the issues suggested by the students, or those listed above and described in the Teacher Information section, assign a research topic to each group.
 - Each group will decide on a research methodology most appropriate to the research topic or question.
 - Each group will describe its research methodology, data analysis and method of presentation before conducting the research.
 - What, if any, gender differences were evident in the research findings?

Making Connections

- How do the issues of adolescence compare and contrast with the issues for the various stages of adulthood?
- Teenage Moms: What are the issues and challenges? What social services exist to support teenage mothers?

Resources

- Statistics Canada, juveniles: <http://www.statcan.ca/english/Pgdb/State/justic.htm#cri>
- Website of the National Criminal Justice Reference Service: <http://www.ncjrs.org/>
- National Centre for Juvenile Justice: <http://www.ncjfcj.unr.edu/homepage/ncjj/ncjj2/main.htm>
- Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention: <http://www.ojjdp.ncjrs.org/>
- Curriculum Support Materials: Juvenile Crime
- Curriculum Support Materials: Percentage of Smokers in the Population
- Curriculum Support Materials: Alcohol Consumption, by Sex, Age Group, and Level of Education

Lesson 6.5.8: Teacher Information

What role does nutrition play in healthy adolescent development?

A sizable minority of adolescents have one of four serious problems that interfere with normal, healthy eating. Any of these can make a teenager become a shorter and less well-proportioned adult:

- Childhood habits of overeating and under-exercising often worsen in adolescence, especially if the overweight young person experiences increased social rejection. For this reason, many chubby children become obese adolescents.
- Drug use (including cigarettes and alcohol) often begins in adolescence, affecting eating patterns, altering appetites and digestive processes, and depriving young people of energy and growth.
- Food fads and strange diets are particularly attractive, and particularly harmful, during the rapid growth of adolescence.
- Severe undernourishment slows or even halts the all the changes of puberty, including growth and sexual maturation, and it is sometimes undertaken for precisely that reason (Berger, 2000, p. 457).

What are the two main types of eating disorders?

Although there are several types of eating disorders, two broad categories are anorexia nervosa and bulimia nervosa:

- Anorexia nervosa occurs primarily in females, and female anorexics outnumber males by a factor of 15:1. The disorder usually has its onset in adolescence, the period between 14 and 16 being the most common. For a diagnosis of anorexia to be considered, the individual must weigh less than 85 percent of normal or expected weight for height, age and sex. One important characteristic of anorexics is a distorted body image in which the individual does not recognize the body's thinness. Estimates of anorexia incidence vary. American data suggest that one in 250 females may experience the disorder. In Britain, the figure is somewhat higher, ranging from one in 100 to four in 100.
- Bulimia nervosa is characterized by periodic episodes of "compulsive" or "binge" eating, the rapid and seemingly uncontrolled consumption of food, especially food rich in carbohydrates.

The binge is terminated either by abdominal pain or, in the case of the purging type, by the expulsion of food using diuretics, laxatives or self-induced vomiting. In bulimia nervosa, the frequency of binge eating typically averages at least two or three times a week, and sometimes as often as 30 times a week. Most bulimics are women, with fewer than five percent of the cases presenting for treatment being men. Bulimics recognize that their eating behaviour is abnormal and feel frustrated by it, but they are unable to control the urge voluntarily. Like anorexics, bulimics are unduly concerned with their body weight/shape. Although able to maintain a normal body weight, they tend to fluctuate between weight gain and loss (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 613).

What roles do genetics and the environment play in eating disorders?

Anorexia may have a genetic basis. There is a tendency for the disorder to run in families, with first- and second-degree relatives of anorectic individuals being significantly more likely to develop the disorder compared with first- and second-degree relatives of a control group on nonanorexics. The behavioural interpretation sees anorexia as a phobia concerning the possibility of gaining weight. Sociocultural explanations focus on societal norms and the cultural idealization of the slender female as possible causes for fears of being fat.

Noradrenaline, serotonin, hormones and endorphins may all play mediating roles in bulimia nervosa. Anorexics and bulimics share many psychological traits, along with the goal of maintaining a suboptimal body weight. The same person may also alternate between the same disorders (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 614).

What are the trends and issues in substance use and abuse during adolescence?

In recent decades, the use of alcohol and other drugs has become part of many young people's lives in every industrialized nation in the world. One of the most notable of these studies is an annual, detailed, confidential survey of nearly 50 000 American eighth-, tenth- and twelfth-grade students from over 400 high schools throughout the United States. Since its inception in 1975, this survey has consistently shown that more than eight out of 10 seniors had drunk alcohol, two out of three had smoked at least one cigarette, and close to half had tried at least one illegal drug.

The rates just mentioned refer to lifetime prevalence. They, no doubt, include instances of one-time-only experimentation. A particularly disquieting feature of

the 1998 survey is the early onset of drug use. About 53 percent of all eighth-graders had already had at least one alcoholic drink; 46 percent had smoked at least one cigarette; and about 22 percent had tried marijuana, more than twice the number who had done so in the 1991 survey. Repeated use of these drugs by age 13 is also on the rise. Between 1991 and 1998, the percentage of eighth-graders who had smoked cigarettes within the past 30 days rose from 14 to 19 percent, and the percentage who had smoked marijuana within the past 30 days tripled from three to 10 percent.

Alcohol consumption can be especially destructive during adolescence. The primary reason is that, even in small doses, alcohol loosens inhibitions and impairs judgment - a dangerous effect in a person who may already be psychologically off-balance because of ongoing physical, sexual and emotional changes. A survey of 46 000 high school students, mostly middle-class, midwestern Americans, compared teenagers who had drunk alcohol six or more times in the previous month with teens who rarely or never drank. It found that the "drinkers" were:

- More than twice as likely to be sexually active.
- More than twice as likely to engage in antisocial behaviours such as stealing, fighting in groups, and vandalizing property.
- Almost four times as likely to be excessively absent from school.
- More likely to ride in a car with a driver who has been drinking (Berger, 2000, pp. 458-462).

What are the issues and challenges involved with teen suicide?

Adolescents under the age of 20 are much less likely to kill themselves than adults are. However, adolescents think about suicide often - one of the many signs that depression is prevalent during these years. A review of studies from many nations finds that suicidal ideation, that is, thinking about committing suicide, is so common among high school students that it might be considered normal.

Suicide is commonly thought of as a response to a specific and immediate psychological blow. However, it usually is the final result of diffuse and long-standing problems within the individual, as well as within the family and social environment. Some of these problems are:

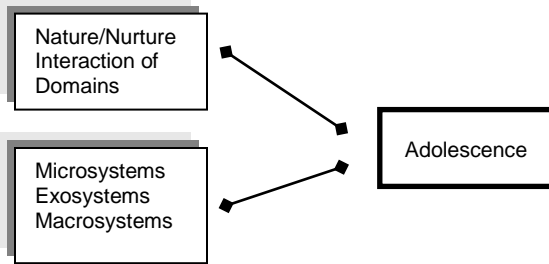
- Being temperamentally inclined toward fits of rage or bouts of depression

- Having depressed, suicidal or alcoholic parents
- Experiencing the early loss of an important caregiving parent, grandparent or older sibling through divorce, abandonment, imprisonment or death
- Growing up with few steady friends, either because of one's personal traits or because of external circumstances, such as moving frequently
- Experiencing educational pressures (Berger, 2000, p. 520).

What are the trends and issues with juvenile violence and crime?

Predictors of juvenile delinquency include:

- negative identity
- a low degree of self-control
- early initiation into violence and antisocial behaviour
- low expectations for education and little commitment towards education
- low school achievement in the early grades
- heavy peer influence and low resistance to peer pressure
- low socioeconomic status
- a lack of parental monitoring, low parental support and ineffective discipline
- living in an urban, high crime and high mobility neighbourhood (Santrock, 1999, p. 347).



6.6 Looking through the eyes of the systems of supports

This lesson addresses the influence that the parents, family and peers have on adolescent development.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How does the sociocultural environment influence adolescent development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Research: Adolescent development
 - Interview your parents. What are the issues and challenges, rewards and benefits to parenting a teenager?
 - How were your parents raised as adolescents? In what ways has our approach to parenting teenagers changed?
 - Describe the roles that both the mother and father took. Have these changed from the time when they were teenagers?
- Research: Families
 - Interview a senior, your grandparents or an Elder. How has the family changed in Saskatchewan over the last 50 years.
 - What do they remember most about raising a family?
 - What suggestions, advice or direction would they give about raising a family?
 - How have the roles of the parents changed in the last 50 years?
- Construction: Family Tree
 - Create your own family tree through research into your family's genealogy. Trace the origin of your family name.
- Construction: Teen Magazine
 - Create your own teen magazine. Include articles, advertising, movie reviews, music reviews, etc. that reflect your interests.
- Discussion: Schools, dropouts and careers
 - Using the information supplied in the Teacher Information section, discuss the importance of retaining students in school and completing grade 12.
 - What changes would you suggest to schooling in the 21st century?
 - What should the role of the school be?
- Discussion: Media and body image
 - How does the media, in their portrayal of fashions and the models used, communicate the concept of ideal body image?
- Activity: Prepare a personal living budget based on the minimum wage in Saskatchewan. Research the classified ads section of the newspaper to find out accommodation costs and furnishings, estimate utility costs, telephone, television, personal hygiene costs, clothes, entertainment, transportation costs, etc.
- Activity: Create a financial plan. Research the benefits of starting a financial plan by investment in early adulthood. Contact a local banker or financial advisor for information on investments, RSPs and other financial plans.

Making Connections

- Parenting skills, see Topic 6.5.5 Self-schemas and Identity, for more information on parenting styles.
- Cross-reference other curriculum documents that support this topic (e.g., Life Transitions).

Resources

- *Ages and Stages*: Unit Four, Early Childhood, "Strengths in Families"

Lesson 6.6: Teacher Information

Of what importance is the family in adolescent development?

In adolescence, when the winds of change blow particularly strong, parents and peers become especially powerful influences, for good or ill. Indeed, virtually every aspect of adolescent behaviour is directly affected by the family (Berger, 2000, p. 511).

What roles and influence do peers have on adolescent development?

Adolescents help each other negotiate the tasks and trials of growing up in many ways. Among the special functions performed by peer relationships and close friendships, Brown (1990) finds the following four most noteworthy:

- *Self-help.* Physical changes confront the young person with new feelings, experiences and challenges to self-esteem. Peers provide both information and the companionship of those who are going through the same changes. Peers are able to listen to concerns and provide specific advice as few adults can.
- *Social support.* Friends provide social protection against the turmoil of adolescence, such as the transition to larger, more impersonal high schools.
- *Identity formation.* The peer group aids the search for self-understanding and identity by functioning as a mirror that reflects dispositions, interests and capabilities.
- *Values clarification.* Friends are a sounding board for exploring and defining values and aspirations. By experimenting with viewpoints, philosophies and attitudes towards themselves and the world, with others who are willing to listen, argue and agree, adolescents begin to discover which values are truest to them (Berger, 2000, p. 516).

How can you resist peer pressure?

Realize that you are being manipulated. Others are deliberately trying to get you to change your mind. If you are the only holdout, you are more likely to give in. Try to get just one other person on your side, and you will feel much stronger about your position.

- People want their behaviour and attitudes to be in harmony. Consequently, even if they know of some negative effects of what they are doing, they probably would not own up to them,

because to do so would cause cognitive dissonance. Thus, you should be aware that you are probably not getting the whole story from the group.

- For all age groups, peers are more persuasive than other people are. The more prestige particular peers have, the greater their influence. Use this tendency to your advantage by finding peers who have had a bad experience with whatever you are being urged to do and listen to what they have to say.
- Minority opinions can have an effect on the majority. One way to increase this effect is to give consistent and repeated statements of your position. Often, this technique has a private effect on others - one that is not publicly expressed.
- If all the members of a group are on one side, doesn't that mean that they are more likely to be right than a single, lone individual? Actually, a group's decision making is usually not as accurate as an individual's, particularly if the individual is well informed and highly rational.
- When attempting to persuade someone, group members often try to make that person feel embarrassed for not going along. Embarrassing people is an age-old tool for making them conform. If you know that ahead of time, perhaps it will have less impact on you.
- One of the best ways to resist conformity is to be exposed to all the arguments in favour of some risky behaviour and then learn to refute these arguments, one by one (McMahon and Romano, 2000, p. 616).

What are the educational issues and challenges to be addressed in adolescence?

Instead of an appropriate person-environment fit, a volatile mismatch forms between many adolescents and their schools. Compared to elementary schools, most secondary schools have rigid behavioural demands, intensified competition, and more punitive grading practices, as well as less individualized attention and procedures. The impersonal and bureaucratic nature of many high schools is particularly destructive for proper person-environment fit. Many secondary schools attempt to educate more than a thousand students at a time, each of whom is scheduled to travel from teacher to teacher, room to room, topic to topic on a regular schedule. Some teachers do not even know the names of the hundred or more students they teach, much less their personality traits, intellectual interests and aspirations (Berger, 2000, p. 479).

For every hour that school is in session in Canada, 88 students will decide to quit school.

- The majority of Canadian school leavers are caucasian. However, proportionally the dropout rate for native peoples is significantly higher, with a dropout rate of 11 percent versus the average of seven percent.
- The financial costs of the dropping out problem are very difficult to trace accurately. But it is known that our welfare and crime costs are in the hundreds of millions of dollars each year. The employment life of a school leaver is usually not a secure one. Characteristically, dropouts have access to only the lower paying jobs and will have a greater number of career changes. They tend to be unemployed more often and for longer periods of time.
- Of all the inmates in our prisons a full two-thirds have no better than a grade nine education. The total annual costs of prisons in Canada exceed \$1 billion. It is clear that if money is effectively used in producing a more successful and educated person, society will realize a return on its money at the other end.
- Perhaps the greatest peril of the dropout problem is the continuing cycle that it fosters. The poverty and educational attitudes of the school leaver will continue to have an influence on other family members in the future, as well. The majority of at-risk students come from families with a low level of education, few support mechanisms, and negative school experiences.
- Social status is the most consistent predictor in telling whether a student is at risk. In Canada, this holds true for our native population. Native peoples have experienced social and cultural deprivation for years. Society and the educational system have placed native students in a disadvantaged position from which to attain educational achievement and personal success. This is demonstrated by our native people's significantly higher dropout rate, and an illiteracy rate two times the national average.
- Two points are clear from research. One is that academic achievement relates to attendance. Students who are at school regularly have greater academic achievement than the students who are not. The other point is at-risk students do not attend school regularly. Needless to say this poses problems for the schools. We want at-risk students to be successful at school but we first have to have

them there. Even when attending regularly, their achievement requires supportive interventions (Lenarduzzi, 1992, pp. 6-9).

What influence does culture have on interpersonal relationships?

One of the main dimensions on which cultures differ is individualism-collectivism. Individualism places greater emphasis on personal achievement and self-reliance. Collectivism, by contrast, places priority on the welfare and unity of the group. Goodwin (1995) argues that "love, at least in its passionate stomach-churning Hollywood manifestation, is largely a Western and individualistic phenomenon and that in Western cultures, marriage is seen as the culmination of a loving relationship". In cultures where arranged marriages occur, the relationship between love and marriage is the other way around, and marriage is seen as the basis on which to explore a loving relationship. The cultural background in which people have learned about love is important in shaping their concept of it (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 485).

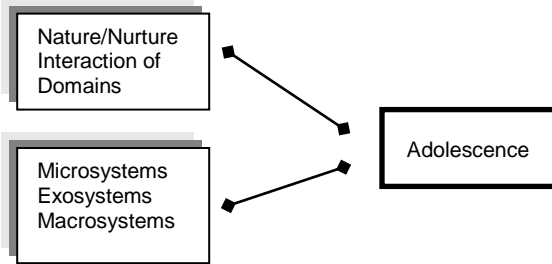
What influence does culture have on intimacy?

The greatest differences between Asian and European cultures focuses on the rules for dealing with intimacy: showing emotions, expressing affection in public, engaging in sexual activity and respecting privacy. Disclosure is especially high in North American society. In fact, people from the United States are more disclosing than members of any culture studied. They are likely to disclose more about themselves to acquaintances, and even strangers. By contrast, Germans and Japanese tend to disclose little about themselves except in personal relationships with a select few (Adler et al., 2001, p. 330).

How does culture influence group behaviours?

In contrast to the *independent* self-system common in Western cultures, the more collectivist orientation promotes an *interdependent* self-system through which people see themselves as a fraction of the social whole; each person has little or no meaningful definition without reference to the group. These cultural differences may produce differences in how people view their personal accomplishments. In Japan, positive moods and feelings such as calmness or elation were associated strongly with positive interpersonal connections. For U.S. students, the results were opposite: Positive feelings were most associated with personal achievement (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 427).

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



6.7 Action research in adolescent development

This summary lesson will integrate all of the concepts covered in this unit, by actively engaging students in the design and conduct of research in developmental psychology.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What are the issues and topics for research in adolescence?

Suggested Research Methods

- Survey
- Naturalistic Observation
- Interview
- Experimental Research
- Case Study
- Topical

- Review/Discussion: The scientific method of research
 - Refer to the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials.
 - Review and discuss the steps in the scientific method of research:
 - Develop a research question
 - Describe the hypothesis
 - Select a research method
Observation Experiment Interview Case Study Survey Topical
 - Describe the process to be followed
 - Gather the data
 - Analyze the data
 - Report the findings, account for reliability and validity
 - State conclusions in relation to the hypothesis
- Discussion: A comparison of research methods in the social sciences
 - Using the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials, complete the comparison chart of research methods.
 - Invite students, or groups, to defend its choice of the most appropriate research method based on the chosen topic.
 - Discuss the many formats for presentation of the data and research findings. Depending on the topic chosen and the research method selected, presentation formats may include written reports, oral presentations, portfolios, role plays and drama activities, three-panel displays, posters, brochures, bulletin board displays, PowerPoint or other computer-based presentation software, web pages, etc.
- Review/Discussion: Issues in social science research
 - Using the six templates supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials (Frequently Asked Questions about interviews, surveys, case studies, observation, experiments and topical research methods), review and discuss the issues and methods for each individual or group research project.
- Discussion: The research process
 - Ensure that each individual or group research project has completed all documentation (The Scientific Method of Research, Permission to Conduct Research) before commencing the research.

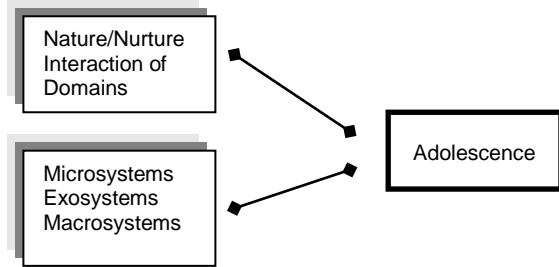
Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: The Scientific Method of Research
- Curriculum Support Materials: Permission to Conduct Research Form
- Curriculum Support Materials: A Comparison Chart For Research Methods
- Curriculum Support Materials: Frequently Asked Questions: Interviews, Surveys, Case Studies, Naturalistic Observation, Experiments and Topical

Lesson 6.7: Suggested Research Topics and Issues

Type of Research	Suggested Research Topics
<p>Survey</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conducting research using a survey involves going out and asking questions about the phenomenon of interest. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What should the age to drive a vehicle be? What should be the legal age to consume alcohol? What qualities do you admire most in a friend? What attracts you to the opposite sex? Moral dilemmas: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Is it right to steal life-saving medicines that could save the life of a family member? Is it right to tell the police if you know that a friend has committed a crime? If you found a large sum of money in an unmarked envelope, should you keep it? Adolescent lifestyles: Smoking and drinking Do you believe in God? Heaven? Hell? Life after death? Stereotypes and biases: Complete this sentence. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Professional athletes are Men are Women are Parents are
<p>Naturalistic Observation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> In naturalistic research, the observer does not intervene at all. For all intents and purposes, the researcher is invisible and works hard not to interrupt the natural dynamics of the situation being investigated. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> How does the media influence adolescent perceptions of body image? What are the eating habits of adolescents? What different types of group behaviours are demonstrated by adolescents? Are there differences in gender roles demonstrated by adolescents? In what ways are bias, stereotypes, prejudice, and discrimination against adolescents demonstrated? How does culture influence adolescent development? How does the media represent adolescents?
<p>Topical</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A topical research study involves the acquisition, synthesis, organization, and presentation of information. Typically, the topical research study will involve both paper based as well as web-based resources. Additional information may be gained through the other research methods and strategies. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What is anorexia nervosa? What is bulimia nervosa? What are the issues surrounding teen suicide? What are the issues and challenges faced by teen mothers? How do the cultural industries (beauty, fashion, music) influence adolescent development?
<p>Case Study</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A case study is an intensive study of one individual. Typically, the case study is based on interviews with the subject regarding his or her background, present thinking or actions; it may also utilize interviews of others who know the individual. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Who was Rosa Parks? Who was the Reverend Martin Luther King Jr.? Who was Mahatma Gandhi? Who was Mother Theresa? Who is Nelson Mandela?
<p>Interview</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The interview method of research, typically, involves a face-to-face meeting in which a researcher (interviewer) asks an individual a series of questions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What was it like to be a teenager when your parents were adolescents? How have the parenting styles and strategies of your parents changed as you became an adolescent? How have families changed since your parents were teenagers?

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



6.8 Perspectives on adolescent development

This summary lesson considers how the lifespan approach to human development can be used as a lens through which we can view adolescent development.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How is adolescent development described from the perspective of the lifespan approach?
- How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to adolescent development?
- How would each of the six theoretical perspectives on human development explain adolescent development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Think-Pair-Share: Lifespan approach
 - Using the Think-Pair-Share instructional strategy, direct the students to provide examples of how the lifespan approach helps describe the process of adolescent development.
- Discussion/Group activity: Key issues and questions
 - Using the four key issues and questions found in the Teacher Information section, discuss the key questions as they relate to adolescent development. Divide the class into four groups or discuss with the whole class.
- Jigsaw: Theoretical perspectives on adolescent development
 - Divide the class into six groups, and assign one of the six theoretical perspectives to each group.
 - Direct each group to support its perspective on human development with specific examples from the information provided in the unit. What evidence can group members find to support their theoretical perspective?
 - Each group will then present its theoretical perspective on adolescent development.
 - Synthesize the findings and examples from each group. Create a comparison chart to compare the results.

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: The Lifespan Perspective on Human Development
- Curriculum Support Materials: Theoretical Perspectives on Human Development

Lesson 6.8: Teacher Information

How is adolescent development described from the perspective of the lifespan approach?

The lifespan perspective on human development has seven basic characteristics. Development is:

- Life-long
 - No age period dominates development.
- Multi-dimensional
 - Development consists of biological, cognitive, socioemotional and spiritual dimensions.
- Multidirectional
 - Some aspects of development increase, while others decrease.
- Plastic
 - Depending on the individual's life conditions, development may take many paths.
- Historically-embedded
 - Development is influenced by historical conditions.
- Multidisciplinary
 - Psychologists, sociologists, anthropologists, neuroscientists and medical researchers all study human development and share a concern for unlocking the mysteries of development throughout the lifespan.
- Contextual
 - The individual continually responds to and acts on contexts, which include a person's biological makeup, physical environment, and social, historical, and cultural contexts (Santrock, 1999, p. 10).

How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to adolescent development?

From the time of its establishment, several key issues and questions have dominated the field of developmental psychology. Among the issues are the nature of developmental change, the importance of critical periods, lifespan approaches versus the more focused approaches, and the nature-nurture issue.

- **Continuous change versus discontinuous change:** In continuous change, developmental change is gradual, with achievements at one level building on those of previous levels. In contrast, discontinuous change occurs in distinct stages or steps. Each stage brings about behaviour that is assumed to be qualitatively different from behaviour at earlier stages.

- A **critical period** is a specific time during development when a particular event has its greatest consequences. Critical periods occur when the presence of certain kinds of environmental stimuli are necessary for development to proceed normally.
- **Lifespan approaches versus a focus on a particular period:** Developmentalists now believe the entire lifespan is important, for several reasons. One is the discovery that developmental growth and change continue during every part of life. Furthermore, to understand fully the social influences on people of a given age, we need to understand the people who are in large measure providing those influences. For instance, to understand development in infants, we need to unravel the effects of their parents' ages on the social environment.
- **Nature versus Nurture:** One of the enduring questions of development involves how much of people's behaviour is due to their genetically-determined nature and how much is due to nurture, the physical and social environment in which a child is raised. In this context, **nature** refers to traits, abilities and capacities that are inherited from one's parents. Nature encompasses any factor that is produced by the predetermined unfolding of genetic information - a process known as maturation. These genetic, inherited influences are at work as we move from the one-celled organism that is created at the moment of conception to the billions of cells that make up a fully-formed human being. In contrast **nurture** refers to the environmental influences that shape behaviour. Some of these influences may be biological, such as the impact of a pregnant mother's substance abuse on the fetus, or the amount and kind of food available to children. Other environmental influences are more social, such as the ways parents discipline their children and the effects of peer pressure on adolescents (Feldman, 2000, p. 10).

How would each of the six theoretical perspectives on human development explain adolescent development?

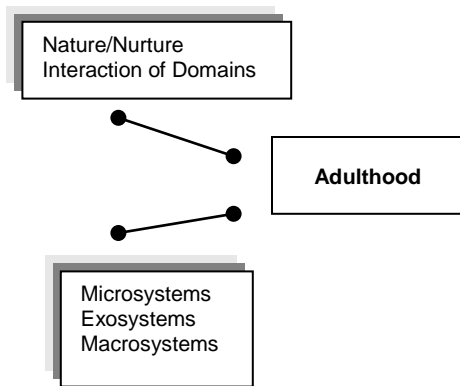
Lifespan development has produced a number of broad conceptual perspectives representing different approaches to development. Each broad perspective encompasses a number of theories, explanations and predictions concerning phenomena of interest. A theory provides a framework for understanding the relationships among an organized set of principles or facts. The six major theoretical perspectives include:

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- **Psychodynamic Perspective: Focusing on the inner person.** Rooted in Freud's theory, the psychodynamic approach maintains that all behaviour and mental processes reflect the constant and mostly unconscious psychological struggles that rage silently within each person. Usually, these struggles involve conflict between the impulse to satisfy instincts or wishes and the need to play by the rules in society. Anxiety, depression and other disorders are outward signs of this inner turmoil (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).
 - **The Behavioural Perspective: Considering the outer person.** As founded by John Watson, the behavioural approach views behaviour and mental processes as primarily the result of learning. Psychologists who take this approach see rewards and punishment acting on the raw materials provided by genes, evolution and biology to shape each individual. So, whether considering a person's aggression or drug abuse, behaviourists would look at that person's learning history. Since people learn problem behaviours, they can also learn to change or even prevent them by unlearning old habits and developing new ones (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).
 - **The Cognitive Perspective: Examining the roots of understanding.** The cognitive perspective focuses on how people take in, mentally represent and store information. Cognitive psychologists then relate perception and information processing to patterns of behaviour. They study such areas as decision-making, problem-solving, interpersonal attraction and intelligence. Aggression, for instance, might be viewed as a result of poor problem solving (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).
 - **The Humanistic Perspective: Concentrating on the unique qualities of human beings.** According to the humanistic approach, our capacity to choose how to think and act determines our behaviour. Each person's unique perceptions – not instincts, cognitive processes, or rewards and punishments – dictate the choices made. Humanistic psychologists believe that people are essentially good, that they are in control of themselves, and that they seek to grow toward their highest potential (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 12).
 - **The Evolutionary Perspective: Focusing on biology as the determinant of development.** Darwin's ideas on evolution and adaptation of species laid the foundation for the evolutionary approach. The evolutionary approach to psychology holds that the behaviour of animals and humans today is the result of evolution through natural selection. Psychologists who follow this approach are concerned with the adaptive value of behaviour, the anatomy and biology that make it possible and the environmental conditions that encourage or discourage it (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).
 - **The Sociocultural Perspective: Emphasizing the systems of support.** Calling attention to the external influences on human behaviour such as the physical surroundings and social interactions that provide incentives, opportunities and pathways for growth, Urie Bronfenbrenner (1979) began to emphasize the ecological approach to the study of human development. In Bronfenbrenner's application of this concept, human ecosystems include both the physical environment (the climate, the space per person, that arrangement of the dwelling) and the social environment (the people, the culture, the economy) (Berger, 2000, p. 4).

Unit Seven: Adulthood

Concept Web

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Unit Overview

The period of the lifespan known as adulthood encompasses more of human life than any other period in our development. As adolescents make the transition to adulthood, usually beginning around age 18, they enter a life phase that will, ultimately, define their life. This unit considers the physical, cognitive and socioemotional changes of adulthood.

Learning Objectives

Knowledge

- To understand how the thoughts, feelings and behaviours of people are influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of others.
- To understand physical changes throughout adulthood.
- To understand cognitive changes throughout adulthood.
- To understand socioemotional changes throughout adulthood.

Skills

- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings by making connections with existing knowledge and understandings.
- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings within the discipline of psychology.
- To organize and integrate new knowledge and understandings with other disciplines.

- To apply those concepts and understandings in a variety of practical, pertinent and contemporary issues.

Values

- To appreciate the complex, dynamic, reciprocal and personal aspects of human social cognition, influence and interaction.

Lessons and Lesson Objectives

- 7.1 Unit Overview: Developmental changes during adulthood
- What roles do nature and nurture play in the development of an adult?
 - What are the sociocultural influences on human development?
- 7.2 Looking through the eyes of an adult, what do you see?
- What is the process of physical development during adulthood?
 - What is the process of cognitive development during adulthood?
 - What is the process of emotional development during adulthood?
 - How do adults deal with change in their lives?
- 7.2.1 Lifestyle Choices
- What role does proper nutrition play in our overall development?
 - How important is regular exercise to our physical, mental and emotional health?
 - How do we define substance abuse and addiction?
 - What are the defining characteristics of a substance abuser?
 - Are some people more likely than others to become alcoholics?
 - Why do people become addicted?
 - What are some risks for prolonged alcohol abuse?
 - How prevalent is the problem of alcohol abuse in Canada?
 - Why do people smoke?
 - What happens, physically, when people smoke?
- 7.2.2 Stress and Resiliency
- What is stress?
 - How does stress develop?
 - What can we do to minimize the effects of stress?

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- What are some successful ways of dealing with stress?
 - What are the factors that increase the risk of illness from stress?
 - What is resiliency?
 - How do you promote resiliency?
- 7.2.3 Aging
- What is the life expectancy for North Americans?
 - When does old age start?
 - What are the causes of aging?
 - What are some policy issues around aging?
 - What is ageism, and what influence does it have on adult behaviours?
 - In general, how do adults feel about aging?
 - What are the cross-cultural attitudes towards aging?
- 7.2.4 Death and Dying
- When are we dead?
 - How do attitudes towards death change across the lifespan?
 - What are the cultural influences on our perceptions of death and dying?
 - What are the stages of death and dying?
- 7.3 Socioemotional changes
- What is the process of socioemotional development in adulthood?
 - Are adults prisoners of childhood?
 - How do the two basic theories of adult development compare?
- 7.3.1 Attraction and Intimacy
- Why are we attracted to people?
 - What is intimacy in a relationship?
 - How can we describe an intimate relationship?
 - What are the different styles of intimate interaction?
 - What is the relationship between gender and intimacy?
 - What influence does culture have on intimacy?
- 7.3.2 Love
- What does it mean, to love?
 - What are the different types of love?
 - How is liking someone different than loving someone?
 - What influence does culture have on our notions of love?
- 7.3.3 Relationships
- How do we define interpersonal relationships?
 - Why do we establish interpersonal relationships?
 - How do we establish and maintain relationships?
 - Why do people remain in unsatisfying relationships?
 - What influence does culture have on interpersonal relationships?
- 7.3.4 Marriage and Divorce
- What makes a good marriage?
 - What is the process of being married?
 - What are the trends in marriage?
 - What are the causes of divorce?
 - What are the effects of divorce on adults?
- 7.3.5 Personality Development
- What does it mean to have a personality?
 - How do personalities develop?
 - Are personalities fixed for life, or do they change?
 - Is there a biological basis for personality?
 - What is the relationship between personality, lifestyle and health?
 - What kind of personality do you have?
- 7.3.6 Senior Citizens
- Who are senior citizens?
 - How much income do seniors have?
 - What economic impact do seniors have on the Canadian economy?
 - Where do seniors live in Canada?
 - What are some issues that seniors face?
- 7.3.7 Careers/Work/Leisure
- How do the three models of career selection and development compare?
 - What are the issues and challenges for dual-earner marriages?
 - How has the role of women in the workforce changed over the past few decades?
 - How do the work pathways of men and women compare?
 - What is the role and importance of leisure activities?
- 7.3.8 Gender Issues

- What are the issues in establishing gender roles in adulthood?
 - How do the adult stages of males and females compare in adulthood?
 - What are the gender differences in terms of intimacy in marriage?
 - How does gender affect lifespan and life expectancy?
- 7.3.9 Retirement
- What are the different phases experienced during retirement?
 - Should there be a mandatory retirement age?
 - What are the issues and challenges facing seniors considering retirement?
- 7.4 Looking through the eyes of the systems of support, what do you see?
- How does the sociocultural environment influence adult development?
- 7.5 Action research in adult development
- What does it take to stay young in today's society?
 - At what age are you old?
 - Should retirement be mandatory at a certain age? If so, at what age?
 - How would you describe or define intimacy?
 - What is beauty?
 - What is love?
 - Moral dilemmas:
 - Is it right to steal life-saving medicines that could save the life of a family member?
 - Is it right to tell the police if you know that a friend has committed a crime?
 - If you found a large sum of money in an unmarked envelope, should you keep it?
 - What leisure activities do you engage in?
 - How did you develop your parenting skills and styles?
 - What are the differences between adult males and females?
 - What are adult's television programming preferences?
 - How do adults cope with stressful situations?
 - How are senior citizens defined and described?
 - How are senior citizens represented in the media?
- What does it take to stay young in today's society?
 - What are the issues for seniors regarding ageism and abuse?
 - What is it like to be an adult?
 - What are your perspectives on spirituality and religion?
 - What stereotypes do you face in society?
 - What are the issues and challenges you face as an adult?
 - What are the stressors in your life?
 - What resiliency or coping skills have your parents developed?
 - What was it like to be 18 when your grandparents were young?
 - Why did you choose your career?
 - What are the issues and challenges seniors face in retirement?
 - How do viral infections and exchanging bodily fluids threaten our health?
- 7.6 Lifespan approach to adult development
- How is adult development described from the perspective of the lifespan approach?
 - How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to adult development?
 - How would each of the six theoretical perspectives on human development explain adult development?

Resources and Resource-Based Learning

Resource-based learning is an integral part of all units. The accompanying bibliography will assist you in incorporating a variety of resources from different media into each unit. This annotated bibliography should be available from your teacher librarian. It is available from Saskatchewan Learning through the website at www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/ or from the Learning Resources Distribution Centre at 306-787-5987. The bibliography contains annotations of current, useful resources including print, video, Internet sites, and other media selections. Teachers are encouraged to assess their current resource collection, identify those resources that are still useful, and acquire small quantities of each new title, rather than class sets, in order to provide students with a broad range of perspectives and information.

The following list of evaluated resource titles provides a **starting point** for developing a resource collection that is current and relevant, and that

addresses students' various learning styles and abilities. **Please refer to the bibliography for a complete list of resources giving the full citation, annotation, and ordering information.** Please note that many of these resources can be ordered through the **Learning Resources Distribution Centre** (<http://lrdc.sasked.gov.sk.ca/>). Videos may be available from **Media Group** (<http://www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/video>). **At the time of publication all of the resources listed here and in the bibliography were in print and available.**

Please note that LRDC will be closing effective March 31, 2003. If you need assistance acquiring Saskatchewan Learning materials after that date, please contact 787-5987.

Print Resources

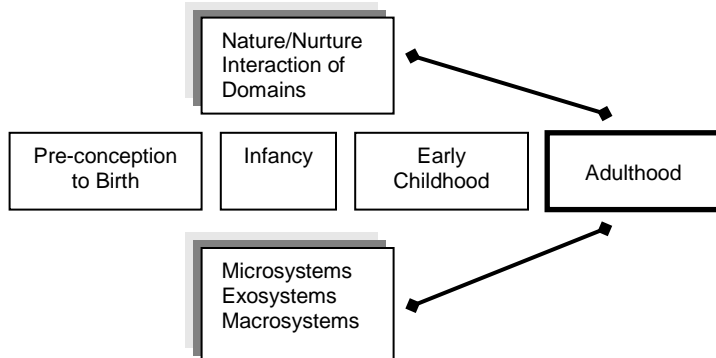
Adolescence, Adulthood and Old Age
Breaking Free from Partner Abuse: Voices of Battered Women Caught in the Cycle of Domestic Violence
Canadian Families: Diversity, Conflict & Change
Chasing Lightning: Gambling in Canada

Internet Sites

The following sites provide a brief overview of what is available. These sites were checked for availability in March 2002. To access sites that have been formally evaluated and linked to the curriculum visit the Evergreen Curriculum at the Saskatchewan Learning website - <http://www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/docs/evergrn.html>.

Adoption - <http://adoption.about.com/parenting/adoption/library/writers/blprose.htm>
Psychology and Aging - <http://www.apa.org/journals/pag.html>

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



7.1 Unit Overview: Developmental changes during adulthood

In this overview lesson, we examine the biological, cognitive and socioemotional aspects of the developmental process during adulthood.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What roles do nature and nurture play in the development of an adult?
- What are the sociocultural influences on adult development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Nature/nurture and adulthood
 - Using the template found in the Curriculum Support Materials, discuss the relative influences of our biological inheritance and the environment on adult development.
 - In what ways are we, as adults, products of our biological inheritance?
 - How does the environment influence adult development?
 - In what ways are these influences, both biological and environmental, unique to adulthood?
- Discussion: Ecological model and adulthood
 - Using the Ecological model as a conceptual organizer, discuss the influence that each of the systems has on adult development.
 - Adult development occurs against the backdrop of what many developmental psychologists consider to be the two most important aspects of life: love and work (Carlson, Buskist, Enzle and Heth, 2002, p. 409).
- Discussion: Old age
 - Using the poem “When I Am Old, I Shall Wear Purple” found in the Curriculum Support Materials, discuss the roles and rights of, as well as the stereotypical attitudes towards, seniors and Elders.

Making Connections

- When does an adolescent become an adult?
- What are the rites of passage that we use as social markers to highlight the transition from adolescence to adulthood?
- Should we change the age at which adolescents can vote, drive, consume alcohol, get married?

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Nature/Nurture and Human Development
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model
- Curriculum Support Materials: When I Am Old, I Shall Wear Purple

Lesson 7.1: Teacher Information

What roles do nature and nurture play in the development of an adult?

Adult development is much more variable because physical changes in adults are more gradual. Mental and emotional changes during adulthood are more closely related to individual experience than to age. Some people achieve success and satisfaction with their careers, while some hate their jobs. Some marry and have happy family lives, while others never adjust to the roles of spouse and parent. No single description of adulthood will fit everyone (Buskist et al., 1997, p. 406).

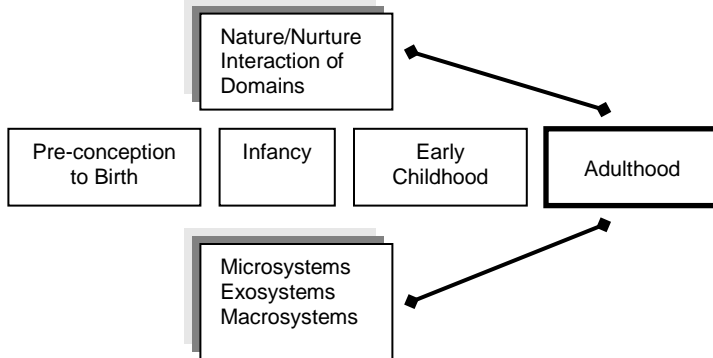
What are the sociocultural influences on adult development?

At the microsystem level, discuss with the students the relative influences of grandparents, peers and the workplace. In what ways do these aspects of the system of support influence our physical, emotional, cognitive and spiritual development? Of grandparents, peers and the workplace, does any one dominate during adulthood?

At the exosystem level, discuss the relative influences of the school, the mass media (refer to topic 6.5.7 for more information) and the community. What workplace policies promote healthy development? How has changing technology influenced adult development? What community resources are available to promote healthy adult development?

At the macrosystem level, discuss the influence that culture has on adult development. Is there such a thing as an “adult culture”? If so, how would you describe an adult culture? Has that culture changed? Why or why not? In terms of the influence that economics has on adult development, discuss topics such as the cost of housing, food, general living expenses, parenting and raising children, transportation, entertainment and so on. How has the rising cost of living affected adults and their ability to manage their lives and those of the people they support?

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



7.2 Looking through the eyes of the adult

This overview lesson addresses the physical, cognitive, mental and spiritual aspects of adulthood from late adolescence until the senior years.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What is the process of physical development during adulthood?
- What is the process of cognitive development during adulthood?
- What is the process of emotional development during adulthood?
- How do adults deal with change in their lives?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: The Medicine Wheel
 - Using the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials, discuss with the students the developmental changes, issues and challenges for each of the four aspects of our being.
- Discussion: Aging and growing old
 - What does it mean to be old?
 - How long would you like to live? Why?
 - Genetic engineering and medicine: What might be the effects of a generation that would not die?
- Discussion: Multiple intelligences and adulthood
 - Refer to the information provided in the Teacher Information section (Cognitive abilities) regarding the multiple intelligence theories of Goleman, Sternberg and Gardner.
 - Multiple intelligences and career choices: What are the implications of choosing a career path that fits your preferential intelligence(s)?
- Discussion: The change process
 - Using the template found in the Curriculum Support Materials sections, The Process of Change, discuss the change process as a problem-solving method for life issues in adulthood.
- Research: Elders, seniors and spirituality
 - What roles do seniors and Elders play in the spiritual life of your community?
 - Interview a senior or an Elder for his or her perspectives on religion and spirituality. How do his or her views compare to those of younger adults? Adolescents?
- Research: What is it like to be an adult?
 - Interview an adult in your home or community. Brainstorm interview questions that highlight the benefits, drawbacks, issues, challenges and stressors to adult life.
 - Compare and contrast with the issues of adulthood addressed in this unit: attraction, relationships, marriage, divorce, parenting, careers, etc.

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: The Medicine Wheel
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Process of Change

Lesson 7.2: Teacher Information

What is the process of physical development during adulthood?

In early adulthood physical growth continues. Shoulder width, height and chest size increase, and people continue to develop their athletic abilities. By their mid-thirties, nearly everyone shows some hearing impairment, but for most people, the years of early adulthood are the prime of life.

In middle adulthood, other physical changes slowly emerge. The most common of these involve the further loss of sensory sharpness. People become less sensitive to light, less accurate at perceiving differences in the distance, and slower and less acute at seeing details. At about age forty, increased farsightedness is common, and glasses may be necessary to correct it.

Most people are well into late adulthood before their bodily functions show noticeable impairment. However, inside the body, bone mass is dwindling, the risk of heart disease is increasing, and fertility is declining. In their late forties or early fifties, women generally experience menopause, the shutdown of reproductive capability. Estrogen and progesterone levels drop, and the menstrual cycle eventually ceases. Men shrink about two centimetres in height, and women about five centimetres, as their posture changes and cartilage disks between the spinal vertebrae become thinner. Hardening of the arteries and a buildup of fat deposits on the artery walls may lead to heart disease. The digestive system slows down and becomes less efficient. In addition, the brain shrinks and the flow of blood to the brain diminishes during late adulthood (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 366).

What is the process of cognitive development during adulthood?

Despite the aging of the brain, cognition undergoes little change for the worse until late adulthood. Before that time, alert older people can think just as quickly as alert younger people. In fact, older adults may function as well or as better than younger adults in situations that tap their memories and learning skills. Their years of accumulating and organizing information can make older adults practiced, skillful and wise.

Until age sixty at least, important cognitive abilities improve. The nature of thought may also change during adulthood. Adult thought is often more complex and adaptive than adolescent thought. Middle-aged adults are more expert than adolescents or young adults at making rational

decisions and at relating logic and abstractions to actions, emotions, social issues, and personal relationships.

It is not until late in adulthood that, after the age of sixty-five or so, that some intellectual abilities decline in some people. Older adults do just as well as younger ones at tasks they know well, however, when asked to perform an unfamiliar task or to solve a complex problem they have not seen before, older adults are generally slower and less effective than younger ones (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 366).

What is the process of emotional development during adulthood?

Adulthood is a time when changes occur in social relationships and positions. These changes do not come in neat, predictable stages but, instead, follow various paths depending on individual experiences. Changes can include being abandoned by a spouse, getting fired from a job, going back to school, remarrying or suffering the death of a spouse.

Men and women in Western cultures usually enter the adult world in their early twenties. They decide on an occupation, or at least take a job, and often become preoccupied with their careers. They also become more preoccupied with the issues of love. During young adulthood, the experience of becoming parents represents entry into a major new developmental phase accompanied by personal, social, and, often, occupational changes.

Sometime around age forty, people go through a mid-life transition. They may reappraise and modify their lives and relationships. Happiness and healthiness of people in mid-life depend on how much control they feel they have over their job, finances, marriage, children, and sex life; the level of education they have attained; and the type of work they are doing.

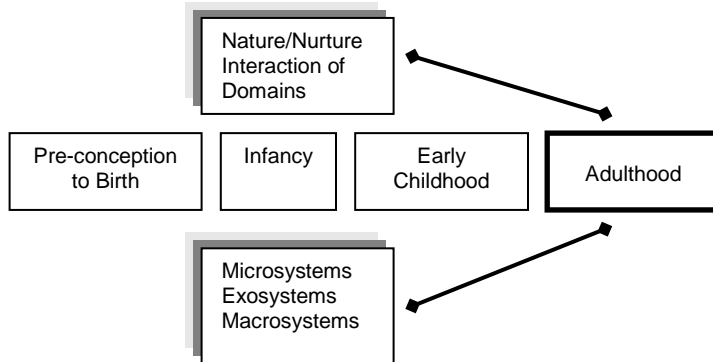
Most people between sixty-five and seventy-five years of age think of themselves as middle-aged, not old. They are active and influential politically and socially; they often are physically vigorous. Men and women who have been working usually retire from their jobs during this period. Ratings of life-satisfaction and self-esteem are, on average, as high in old age as during any other period in adulthood. During late adulthood, people generally become more inward-looking, cautious and conforming. Although they interact with others less frequently, older adults enjoy these interactions more, finding relationships more satisfying, supportive, and fulfilling than earlier in life (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 367).

How do adults deal with change in their lives?

Researchers have looked at how and why people change either on their own or with help. Prochaska, Norcross, and DiClemente (1992) have proposed a wheel concept that illustrates the six stages of change:

- *Precontemplation*: At this point a person is not even thinking that there is a problem or that there is a need to make a change. A person requires information and feedback to raise their awareness that they can make changes. This is the entry point into change.
- *Contemplation*: At this point the person swings between considering a change and rejecting it repeatedly.
- *Determination or preparation*: The person determines that they have to do something about the problem and questions what they can do and explores options.
- *Action*: A person engages in actions in order to bring a change.
- *Maintenance*: A person continues previous action and perhaps tries new skills.
- *Relapse*: There is a return to old behaviour and the task is to get on the wheel again (Prochaska et al., 1992, p. 1105).

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



7.2.1 Lifestyle choices

Lifestyle choices include decisions regarding nutrition, exercise and using substances such as tobacco and alcohol. Taken together, lifestyle choices have a profound influence on our healthy development as adults.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What role does proper nutrition play in our overall development?
- How important is regular exercise to our physical, mental and emotional health?
- How do we define substance abuse and addiction?
- What are the defining characteristics of a substance abuser?
- Are some people more likely than others to become alcoholics?
- Why do people become addicted?
- What are some risks of prolonged alcohol abuse?
- How prevalent is the problem of alcohol abuse in Canada?
- Why do people smoke?
- What happens, physically, when smokers quit?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Activity: Viral infections/exchanging body fluids
 - Refer to Topic 7.7 Action research in developmental psychology for the procedure on the experiment Viral infections/exchanging body fluids.
 - Once the students think they have an idea who the original diseased individual was, the teacher then takes the tester and tests the “C” glass. Only the one glass with sodium hydroxide will turn bright pink. The teacher and students can then discuss unprotected sexual contact, having many sexual partners in a very short time and being infected and not knowing until you have infected others.
- Research: Why do people smoke?
 - Design and conduct a research study investigating the reasons why people smoke. Refer to Teacher Information for the categories of reasons that people give. How do the results of your research compare to what social psychologists have found? Are there gender differences in the results? Are there age differences in the results?
- Discussion: Life-events framework and lifestyle choices
 - Using the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials, discuss with the students how lifestyle choices and physical health (mediating variable) influence adult development.
- Discussion: Physical fitness
 - In 1961, President John F. Kennedy offered the following message: “We are underexercised as a nation. We look instead of play. We ride instead of walk. Our existence deprives us of the minimum of physical activity essential for healthy living” (Santrock, 1999, p. 391).
 - Has the situation changed over the past 40 years for Canadians?
 - What are we doing, or can we do, to improve our level of physical fitness?

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Life-Events Framework

Lesson 7.2.1: Teacher Information

What role does proper nutrition play in our overall development?

Discuss with the students the phenomena of fast food, microwave meals, nutritional supplements and so on. How have the eating styles and habits of adults changed over the past 50 years?

How important is regular exercise to our physical, mental and emotional health?

Every adult should engage in 30 minutes or more of moderate-intensive physical activity on most, preferably all, days of the week. Researchers have found that exercise benefits not only physical health, but mental health as well. In particular, exercise improves self-concept and reduces anxiety and depression (Santrock, 1999, p. 392).

How do we define substance abuse and addiction?

Substance abuse is a pattern of use that causes serious social, legal or interpersonal problems. Thus, people can become psychologically dependent on psychoactive drugs without becoming physically addicted to them. Addiction is the physical need for a substance (physiological substance dependence). Even when use of a drug does not create physical addiction, some people may overuse, or abuse, because the drug gives them temporary self-confidence, enjoyment or relief from tension (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 467).

Why do people become addicted?

The biological model holds that addiction, whether to alcohol or any other drug, is due primarily to a person's biochemistry, metabolism and genetic predisposition. Genes could contribute to alcoholism by contributing to traits or temperaments that predispose a person to become alcoholic. Or they may affect biochemical processes in the brain that make some people more susceptible to alcohol or cause them to respond to it differently than others do. For example, genes may affect the functioning of key neurotransmitters, such as dopamine, which researchers think is somehow related to addiction and other disorders. Genes may also affect how much a person needs to drink before feeling any effect (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 600).

According to the learning model, drug addiction is not a disease but a "central activity of the individual's way of life" that depends on learning and culture. To understand why people become addicted the learning model focuses on the behaviours

surrounding the addiction. Four arguments support this view:

- Addiction patterns vary according to cultural practices and the social environment. Alcoholism is much more likely to occur in societies that forbid children to drink but condone drunkenness in adults than in societies that teach children how to drink responsibly and moderately but condemn adult drunkenness. Within a particular country, addiction rates can rise or fall rapidly in response to cultural changes such as when people move from their own culture into another that has different drinking rules.
- Policies of total abstinence tend to increase rates of addiction rather than reduce them.
- Not all addicts have withdrawal symptoms when they stop taking a drug.
- Addiction does not depend on properties of the drug alone, but also on the reason for taking it. Addicts use drugs to escape from the real world, but people living with chronic pain use some of the same drugs in order to function in the real world and they do not become addicted (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 601).

What are the defining characteristics of a substance abuser?

A substance abuser is a person who overuses and relies on drugs to deal with stress and anxiety. Most substance abusers turn to alcohol, tobacco and other readily available drugs such as cocaine and marijuana, but substance abuse is not confined to these drugs. A growing number of people are abusing legal drugs such as tranquilizers and diet pills, as well as illegal drugs such as amphetamines and heroin. A person is a substance abuser if all three of the following statements apply:

- The person has used the abusive substance for at least a month.
- The use has caused legal difficulties or social or vocational problems.
- There is recurrent use in hazardous situations such as driving a car (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 138).

Are some people more likely than others to become alcoholics?

The answer is yes, according to researchers who study the biological aspects of alcoholism.

Researchers assert that genetics, blood and brain chemistry, and specific brain structures predispose some people to alcoholism. Children of alcoholics are more likely to become alcoholics, even if they are raised by non-alcoholic adoptive parents. The correlations suggest that certain individuals' physiology predisposes them to alcoholism (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 141).

Under what conditions are people likely to become addicted?

Abuse and addiction reflect an interaction of physiology and psychology, person and culture. Problems with drugs are most likely to occur under these conditions:

- When a person has a physiological vulnerability to a drug;
- When a person believes he or she has no control over the drug;
- When laws or customs encourage or teach people to take a drug in binges, and moderate use is neither encouraged nor taught;
- When a person comes to rely on a drug as a way of coping with problems, suppressing anger or fear, or relieving pain;
- When members of a person's peer group drink heavily or use other drugs excessively (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 604).

What are some risks of prolonged alcohol abuse?

About 10 percent of Americans - in excess of 25 million people - display alcohol dependence or abuse, a pattern of continuous or on-and-off drinking that may lead to addiction and almost always causes severe social, physical, and other problems. Males exceed females in this category by a ratio of six to one, although the problem is on the rise among women and among teenagers of both genders. Prolonged overuse of alcohol can result in life-threatening liver damage, reduced cognitive abilities, vitamin deficiencies that can lead to severe and irreversible memory loss, and a host of other physical ailments. Alcohol dependence or abuse, commonly referred to as alcoholism, has been implicated in half of all the traffic fatalities, homicides and suicides that happen each year. Alcoholism also figures prominently in rape and child abuse, as well as in elevated rates of hospitalization and absenteeism from work. It is estimated that 43 percent of U.S. adults have an alcoholic in their families. Children growing up in families in which one or both parents abuse alcohol are at an

increased risk for developing a host of mental disorders, including substance abuse disorders (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 467).

How prevalent is the problem of alcohol abuse in Canada?

Alcohol consumption in Canada has been declining in the past decade. According to the Canadian Centre on Substance Abuse, about 72 percent of urban Canadian adults report having used alcohol at some time; just over nine percent of those who drink report having problems related to alcohol and just under half a million Canadians are classified as alcoholics. The highest proportions of people reporting problems with alcohol are in the 15- to 24-year-old range (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 139).

Why do people smoke?

There are genetic, psychosocial and cognitive reasons:

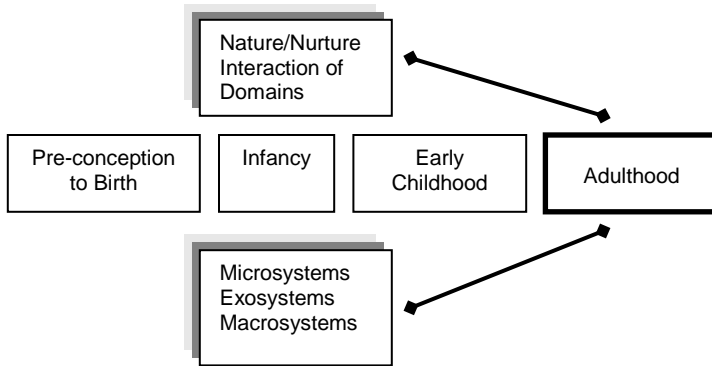
- *Genetic*: Some people may be genetically predisposed. Individual differences in the reaction to nicotine are taken as evidence that our genes play a role in determining which people will become smokers. Also, nicotine enhances the availability of certain neurotransmitter substances, such as dopamine. These neurotransmitters influence memory, attention, performance, pleasure, tension, anxiety, appetite and pain, and can be pleasurable for some people.
- *Psychosocial* factors also play a role in establishing smoking behaviour, especially among young people. Adolescents may be more likely to smoke if their parents or other role models smoke, if they experience peer pressure to do so, or if their brothers or sisters do.
- The *cognitive* factors include believing that smoking allows them to stay alert and handle stress, even though there is no clear evidence in support of those ideas. Smokers are more likely to believe self-exempting beliefs than non-smokers (Baron et al., 1998, p. 551)

What happens, physically, when smokers quit?

Within 20 minutes of smoking that last cigarette, the body begins a series of changes that continue for years. All benefits are lost by smoking just one cigarette a day, according to the cancer societies of the United States and Canada (Baron et al., 1998, p. 550).

Time elapsed	Physical response
20 minutes	Blood pressure drops to normal. Pulse rate drops to normal. Body temperature of hands and feet returns to normal.
8 hours	Carbon monoxide level in blood drops to normal. Oxygen level in blood increases.
24 hours	Chance of heart attack decreases.
48 hours	Nerve endings start regrowing. Ability to smell and taste is enhanced.
2 weeks to 3 months	Circulation improves. Walking becomes easier. Lung function increases by up to 30 percent.
1 to 9 months	Coughing, sinus congestion, fatigue, shortness of breath decrease. Cilia regrow in lungs, increasing ability to handle mucus, clean the lungs, reduce infection. Body's overall energy increases.
1 year	Excess risk of coronary heart disease is half that of a smoker.
5 years	Lung cancer death rate for average former smoker (one pack a day) decreases by almost half. Stroke risk is reduced to that of a non-smoker 5-15 years after quitting. Risk of cancer of the throat, mouth and esophagus is half that of a smoker's.
10 years	Lung cancer death rate similar to that of non-smoker's. Precancerous cells are replaced. Risk of cancer of the mouth, throat, esophagus, bladder, pancreas and kidney decreases.
15 years	Risk of coronary heart disease is that of a non-smoker.

7.2.2 Stress and Resiliency



Stress, stressors in adulthood, and developing coping mechanisms to handle stress are the topics under consideration in this lesson. In addition, students will be asked to consider how those aspects change as they grow older.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What is stress?
- How does stress develop?
- What can we do to minimize the effects of stress?
- What are some successful ways of dealing with stress?
- What are the factors that increase the risk of illness from stress?
- What is resiliency?
- How do you promote resiliency?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Stressors
 - Generate a list of stressors and do an in-class survey, out-of class survey, or interview your parents to compare stressors.
- Discussion: Building resiliency skills
 - Based on the information found in the Teacher Information section, how might you teach, or communicate, or change your school and community climate to help promote resiliency skills in youth?
 - What resiliency skills do you possess?
 - What resiliency skills has your family developed?
- Discussion: Stress, Coping strategies and the Life-events framework
 - Using the template found in the Curriculum Support Materials, discuss the roles of various life events (stressors) and how coping strategies and resiliency skills help mediate the effects and influence the adult developmental changes.
- Interview: Adults and stressors
 - In conversation with one, or several adults, discuss the sources and types of stress that adults face.
 - Are there gender differences between the sources and types of stress experienced?

Making Connections

- Self-identity and groups:
 - What is the nature of the relationship between self-identity and the groups that we belong to?
 - How do we maintain a sense of self in group situations?
 - What are the dangers of losing a self-identity in favour of a group identity?

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: The Life-events Framework

Lesson 7.2.2: Teacher Information

What is stress?

Canadian physician Hans Selye (1956) concluded that stress consists of a series of physiological reactions that occur in three phases:

- The alarm phase, in which your body mobilizes to meet the immediate threat or other stressor. Physiological responses include a boost in energy, tense muscles, reduced sensitivity to pain, the shutting down of digestion, a rise in blood pressure, and increased output of the adrenal hormones adrenaline, norepinephrine and cortisol.

How does stress develop?

Stressors	Stress mediators	Stress reactions
Life changes and strains Catastrophic events Daily hassles Chronic stressors	Cognitive appraisal Predictability Sense of control Coping resources and methods Social support Personality	Physical Emotional Cognitive Behavioural

Source: (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 380)

What can we do to minimize the effects of stress?

Stress mediators include:

- Predictability and control: Uncertainty about when and if a certain stressor might occur tends to increase the stressor's impact. Predictable stressors tend to have less impact than those that are unpredictable. Stressors over which people believe they exert some control usually have less impact. The greatest threat to health and well-being occurs when people feel unable to control their circumstances - when they feel caught in a situation they cannot escape. Feelings of control can reduce or even eliminate the relationship between stressors and health.
- Coping resources and methods: People usually suffer less from a stressor if they have adequate coping resources (money, time) and effective coping methods (problem-focused techniques involve methods to alter or eliminate stress, or emotion-focused techniques that attempt to regulate the negative emotional effects).
- Social support consists of resources provided by other people, the friends and social contacts on whom you can depend for support. Social support refers not only to your relationship with others but also to the recognition that others care and will help.
- Personality: One element of the stress-resistant personality seems to be dispositional optimism, the belief or expectation that things will work out positively. People who tend to think of stressors as temporary and who do not blame themselves for bringing about the stressors appear to be less harmed by them (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 380).

What are some successful ways of dealing with stress?

Category	Examples
Physical strategies	Relaxation Meditation Massage Exercise
Problem-oriented strategies	Reduce negative emotions Problem-focused coping
Cognitive strategies	Reappraising the problem Learning from the problem Making social comparisons Cultivating a sense of humour
Social strategies	Relying on friends and family Helping others (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 567).

What are the factors that increase the risk of illness from stress?

Factors that increase the risk of illness from stress include:

- Environmental: Uncontrollable noise, poverty, lack of access to health care, persistent discrimination
- Experiential: Bereavement or divorce, traumatic events, chronic and severe job stress, unemployment
- Biological: Viral or bacterial infections, disease, genetic vulnerability
- Psychological: Toxic hostility, possibly chronic depression, emotional inhibition, pessimism, external locus of control, fatalism, feeling powerless
- Behavioural: Smoking, high-fat diet, lack of exercise, abuse of alcohol and other drugs, lack of sleep
- Social: Lack of supportive friends and relatives, low involvement in groups (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 569).

What is resiliency?

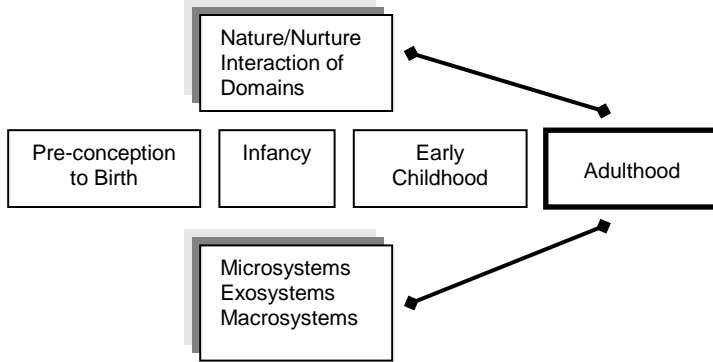
- Resiliency is unusually good adaptation to severe and/or chronic stress, or the ability to rebound to or above pre-stress levels of adaptation (Saskatchewan Health, 1998, p. C1).

How do you promote resiliency?

- To promote resiliency in people, you must decrease the risk factors and increase the protective factors:

- The major risk factors include an uptight temperament, poor parenting (especially during the first three years), family conflict/violence/mental illness, poverty and being powerless/marginalized/stigmatized.
- There are three aspects that serve to protect people:
 - Individual protectors, or protective personal characteristics such as low anxiety, good coping skills, autonomy, secure attachments, sense of control over their lives, having a mentor outside of the family, a good support network, and a positive outlook.
 - Protective family factors include parental involvement/caring/support, high but achievable expectations, participation by children welcomed, and the family endures/cope in the face of stressful events.
 - Protective communities demonstrate a cohesive and civil society, safety is not a concern, high equity and low marginalization, adequate recreation for all, resources are available, and the community is genuine and concerned, “accept you as a person, not as a stereotype”.

To promote resiliency in high school youth, interventions include peer mentoring/conflict resolution, programs to prevent dropping out, preparation for being good partners/parents, preparation for transition to work; and provisions for teens with babies (Saskatchewan Health, 1998, pp. C2-C6).



Death is one of the two certainties in life, the other being taxes. This lesson considers the aging process from adolescence until death.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What is the life expectancy for North Americans?
- When does old age start?
- What are the causes of aging?
- What are some policy issues around aging?
- What is ageism, and what influence does it have on adult behaviours?
- In general, how do adults feel about aging?
- What are the cross-cultural attitudes towards aging?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Consensus decision making: Mandatory retirement
 - Using the consensus decision-making process (as described in the Dialectical Reasoning: A Process Approach section), seek to arrive at a consensus on whether there should be mandatory retirement at age 65.
- Research: Media and adulthood
 - How are adults represented in the media?
 - How are parents represented in the media?
 - What messages does the media give about gender roles, fashion, body image, relationships?
- Research: Old age
 - Design and conduct a survey investigating people's attitudes towards old age. When are people old? How are seniors treated by society? What can society do differently to meet the needs of seniors in our community? Should seniors have to pay taxes? Should seniors be required to take mandatory driving license recertification?
- Research: Role of seniors in society
 - Design and conduct a research study investigating issues in late adulthood.
 - What is the role of seniors in our society today?
 - How do seniors feel about their role in the life of the community?
 - What issues and challenges do seniors face?
 - What can be done to improve the lives of seniors?
 - How can you make a positive difference in the lives of seniors?

Making Connections

- Nursing care facilities for the elderly
- Insurance policies
- Community services for the elderly

Resources

- Dialectical Reasoning: A process approach

Lesson 7.2.3: Teacher Information

What is the life expectancy for North Americans?

In 1900, the average life expectancy was only 47 years of age; only three percent of the population lived past 65. Today, the average life expectancy is 75; 12 percent of the U.S. population is older than 65. As a much greater percentage of the population lives to an older age, the midpoint of life and what constitutes middle age or middle adulthood are getting harder to pin down. In only one century we have added 30 years to the average life expectancy (Santrock, 1999, p. 484).

When does old age start?

It is also important to distinguish between primary and secondary aging. Primary aging is the normal, inevitable change that occurs among human beings and is irreversible, progressive, and universal. Such aging happens despite good health; a consequence of such aging is that a person is more vulnerable to society's fast paced and sometimes stressful lifestyles. Secondary aging is aging due to external factors such as disease, environmental pollution, or smoking. Lack of good nutrition is a secondary aging factor that is a principal cause of poor health and aging among lower income Canadians (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 394).

What are the causes of aging and death?

Many different views about the causes of aging have been proposed, but most fall under one of three major headings: wear-and-tear theories, genetic theories and social theories:

- *Wear and tear theories* suggest that we grow old because various organs of our bodies, or the cells of which they are composed, wear out. Indirect evidence for wear-and-tear theories of aging is provided by individuals who repeatedly expose their bodies to harmful conditions and substances - for example, alcohol, tobacco, various drugs or harsh environments. Such individuals often show premature signs of aging, presumably because they have overburdened their capacity for internal repair (Baron et al., 1998, p. 390).
- *Genetic theories* of aging attribute physical aging primarily to genetic programming. Certain cells do indeed divide only a set number of times before dying. Moreover, no environmental conditions seem capable of altering this number (Baron et al., 1998, p. 391).

- *Social theories* include external, or lifestyle, factors. There are several social theories of aging:
 - For too many years, it was believed that the best way to age was to be disengaged. Disengagement theory argues that as older adults slow down they gradually withdraw from society. Disengagement is a mutual activity in which the older adult not only disengages from society, but society disengages from the older adult.
 - According to activity theory, the more active and involved older adults are, the more likely they are to be satisfied with their lives. Activity theory suggests that individuals should continue their middle childhood roles through late adulthood.
 - A third social theory of aging is social breakdown-reconstruction theory. This theory argues that aging is promoted through negative psychological functioning brought about by negative societal views of older adults and inadequate provision of services for them. Social reconstruction can occur by changing society's view of older adults and by providing adequate support systems for them (Santrock, 1999, p. 527).

What are some policy issues around aging?

Policy issues might include:

- health (access to services, costs, private versus public access)
- retirement
- education
- political involvement
- economics and income
- costs for medication
- housing
- pensions
- insurance.

What is ageism, and what influence does it have on adult behaviours?

Stereotypes about the elderly give rise to ageism - prejudice against the elderly and the discrimination that follows from it. Ageism is prevalent in the job market, in which older people are not given the same opportunities as their younger co-workers, and in housing and health care. Ageism is exceptionally prevalent in the media - on television and in newspapers, cartoons and magazines - and in everyday language. Older people who are perceived to represent negative stereotypes are

more likely to suffer discrimination than those who appear to represent more positive stereotypes. This means that an older person who appears healthy, bright and alert is more likely to be treated with the same respect shown to younger people. By contrast, an older person who appears less capable may not be given the same respect or treatment (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 398).

In general, how do adults feel about growing older?

Perhaps the best news is that as people get older, they get happier and their well-being improves. In a study of nearly 3 000 people ages 25 to 74, the young people were far more likely than the eldest to report feeling sad, nervous, hopeless or worthless. As many people age, they learn to control negative feelings and emphasize the positive. Older couples, compared with younger couples, are less likely to express anger, belligerence, and whining when they quarrel (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 536).

What are the cross-culture attitudes towards aging?

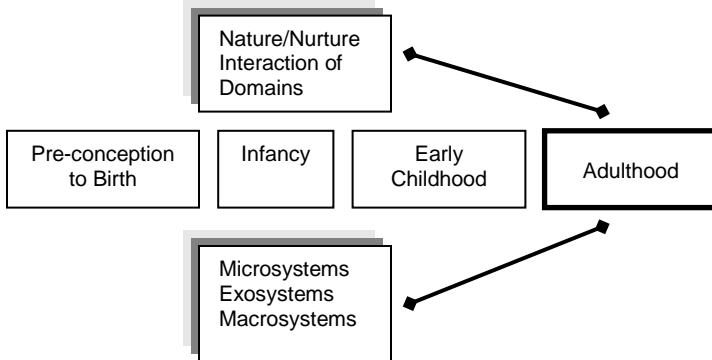
Other cultures react differently to both the aging process and their older citizens. For instance, in certain African and Central American tribes, elders are revered for their wisdom. They are also feared, though, because of the belief that they live so long by taking the lives of young people. In some African tribes, old women enjoy increased status because they have authority over their daughters and daughters-in-law and are greatly respected by their sons, who often have stronger ties to their mothers than to their fathers. In addition, being a grandmother automatically demands a high level of respect.

In some Native American nations, as older men withdraw from other roles they have had, they increase their involvement in the community's spiritual life. Younger members of many nations have been showing more interest in rites and traditions in recent years. This renewed interest has led to an increased interest in Elders and what they can tell younger members about their history and spiritual practices. In addition, it is common among North American Indians for everyone to share in the responsibility for taking care of all family members, including older ones.

Among the Chinese, in many Muslim countries, and on an Israeli Kibbutz, putting an old person in some kind of nursing home is virtually unthinkable. Old people in these societies live in a family member's home, where they are taken care of until they die (McMahon and Romano, 2000, pp. 368-369).

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...

7.2.4 Death and Dying



This lesson addresses the facts, attitudes towards and cultural perceptions of death and dying. In addition, we look at the grieving process and compare and contrast that with the process of dying.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- When are we dead?
- How do attitudes towards death change across the lifespan?
- What are the cultural influences on our perceptions of death and dying?
- What are the stages of death and dying?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Death, dying and bereavement
 - When you lose your parent, you lose your past. When you lose your spouse, you lose your present. When you lose your child, you lose your future. When you lose a friend, you lose yourself (William Worden).
 - How is death and bereavement viewed or responded to differently across the age span?
 - How do you, your parents and your grandparents view death? What are the similarities and differences in your perspectives on death and dying?
 - Is there a best time to die?
 - Evaluate Kubler-Ross's stage theory of dying. Have any students had experiences that support or contradict this stage theory? As with any stage theory, can the stages and sequence be said to be universal?
 - Compare and contrast the processes or stages of dying and grieving.
- Consensus decision making: Euthanasia
 - Should euthanasia be legalized?
- Discussion: Medical intervention
 - What advice and guidance would you give to parents of a child in a terminally ill, no-hope-of-recovery state?
 - Do people have the right to choose their own time and way of death?
- Research: Death and dying
 - Conduct a survey research study of people's attitudes towards death and dying. Brainstorm the survey questions and decide on the types of cross-tabulated analysis (for example by age, by gender).
- Media Study: Dying Young
 - What are the issues, questions and concerns that are raised in the movie?

Making Connections

- Legal wills and living wills
- Suicide: Causes, statistics, prevention and issues
- After-life experiences: Fact or fiction?

Resources

- Movie: Dying Young

Lesson 7.2.4: Teacher Information

When are we dead?

The answer to that question is most complex. To begin with, there are several kinds of death. Physiological death occurs when all physical processes that sustain life cease. Brain death is defined as a total absence of brain activity for at least ten minutes. Cerebral death means cessation of activity in the cerebral cortex. Social death refers to a process through which other people relinquish their relationships with the deceased (Baron et al., 1998, p. 391).

How do attitudes towards death change across the lifespan?

Death in infancy and childhood: As statistics indicate, the number of people who experience the death of an infant is substantial, and their reactions may be profound. One of the most common reactions is extreme depression. Another kind of death that is extremely difficult to deal with is prenatal death, or miscarriage. Parents typically form psychological bonds with their unborn child and consequently they often feel profound grief if it dies before it is born. Another form of death that produces extreme stress, in part because it is so unexpected, is Sudden Infant Death Syndrome (SIDS). For parents, the death of a child produces the most profound sense of loss and grief. In fact, there is no worse death in the eyes of most parents, including the loss of a spouse or of parents. Parents' extreme reaction is partly based on the sense that the natural order of the world, in which children should outlive their parents, has somehow collapsed. Furthermore, parents feel that it is their primary responsibility to protect their children from any harm, and they may feel that they have failed in this task when a child dies.

Death in adolescence: We might expect the significant advances in cognitive development that occur during adolescence to bring about a sophisticated, thoughtful and reasoned view of death. However, in many ways, adolescents' views of death are as unrealistic as those of younger children, although along different lines. Although adolescents clearly understand the finality and irreversibility of death, their view often tends to be highly romantic. Adolescents develop a personal fable, a set of beliefs that causes them to feel unique and special. Such thinking can lead to quite risky behaviour, as personal fables induce a sense of invulnerability. Many times, this risky behaviour causes death in adolescence. For instance, the most frequent cause of death among adolescents is accidents, most often involving motor vehicles.

Other frequent causes include homicide, suicide, cancer and AIDS.

Death in young adulthood: Young adulthood is the time when most people feel primed to begin their lives. Past the preparatory time of childhood and adolescence, they are on the threshold of making their mark on the world. Because death at this point in life seems close to unthinkable, its occurrence is particularly unimaginable. Because they are actively pursuing their goals for life, they are angry and impatient with any illness that threatens their future. In early adulthood the leading cause of death continues to be accidents, followed by suicide, homicide, AIDS and cancer. For those people facing death in early adulthood, several concerns are of particular importance. One is the desire to develop intimate relationships and express sexuality, both of which are inhibited, if not completely prevented, by a terminal illness. Another particular concern during early adulthood concerns future planning. At a time when most young people are mapping out their careers and deciding at what point to start a family, young adults who have a terminal illness face additional burdens. Like adolescents, young adults sometimes make poor patients. They are outraged at their plight and feel the world is unfair, and they may direct their anger at care providers and loved ones.

Death in middle adulthood: For people in middle adulthood, the shock of a life-threatening disease – which is the most common form of death in this period – is not so great. In fact, by this point, people are well aware of the fact that they are going to die sometime, and they may be able to consider the possibility of death in a fairly realistic manner. On the other hand, their sense of realism doesn't make the possibility of dying any easier. In fact, fears about death are often greater in middle adulthood than at any time previously – or even later in life.

Death in late adulthood: By the time they reach late adulthood, people know with some certainty that their time is coming to an end. They think about death, and they may begin to make preparations for their demise. Some begin to pull away from the world due to diminishing physical and psychological energy. Furthermore, they face an increasing number of deaths in their environment. The most likely causes of death are cancer, stroke and heart disease in late adulthood. The prevalence of death in the lives of elderly people makes them less anxious about dying than they were at earlier stages of life. They are more realistic and reflective about it. One particular salient issue for older adults suffering from a terminal illness is whether their lives still have value. More than younger individuals, elderly people who are dying harbour concerns that

they are burdens to their family or to society (Feldman, 2000, pp. 643-647).

What are the cultural influences on our perceptions of death and dying?

People's responses to death take many forms, particularly in different cultures. But even within Western societies, reactions to death and dying are quite diverse. For instance, consider which is better: for a man to die after a full life, in which he has raised a family and been successful in his job, or for a courageous and valiant young soldier to die defending his country in wartime. Has one person died a better death than the other?

The answer depends on one's values, which are largely due to cultural and subcultural teachings. For instance, some cultures view death as a punishment or a judgment about one's contributions to the world. Others see death as a redemption from an earthly life of difficulty. Still others see death as the start of an eternal life, while some believe that there is no heaven or hell and that an earthly life is all that there is.

Given that religious teachings regarding the meaning of life and death are quite diverse, it is not surprising that views of death and dying vary substantially. We cannot be sure whether such differences are due to different religious and cultural backgrounds, or whether differences in exposure to dying people influence the rate at which the understanding of death develops. However it is clear that members of the various groups have very different conceptions of death.

In addition, members of some cultures seem to learn about death at an earlier age than others. For instance, exposure to higher levels of violence and death may lead to an awareness of death earlier in some cultures than cultures in which violence is less a part of everyday life. Research shows that children in Northern Ireland and Israel understand the finality, irreversibility and inevitability of death at an earlier age than children in the United States or Britain (Feldman, 2000, p. 647).

What are the stages of death and dying?

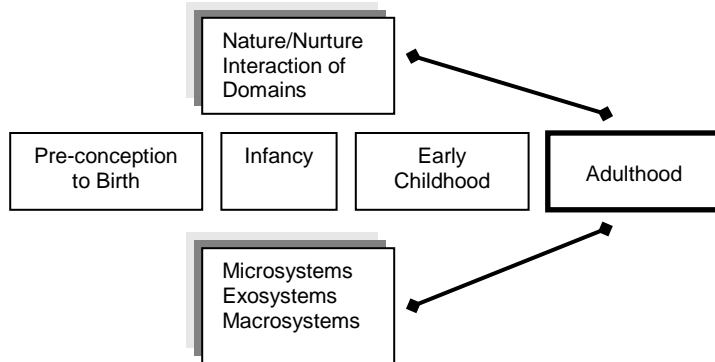
No individual has had a greater influence on our understanding of the way people confront death than Elisabeth Kubler-Ross who developed a stage theory of death and dying built on extensive interviews with people who were dying and with those who cared for them.

- Stage 1: *Denial*. Denial comes in several forms. A patient may flatly reject the diagnosis, simply refusing to believe the news. In other

forms of denial, patients fluctuate between refusing to accept the news and, at other times, confiding that they know they are going to die. Patients deal with loneliness, internal conflict, guilt and feelings of the meaninglessness of their lives.

- Stage 2: *Anger*. A dying person may be angry at everyone: people who are in good health, their spouses and other family members, those who are caring for them, their children. They may lash out at others, and wonder – out loud – why *they* are dying and not someone else.
- Stage 3: *Bargaining*. In the bargaining stage, dying people try to negotiate their way out of death. In some ways, bargaining seems to have positive consequences. Although death cannot be postponed indefinitely, having a goal of attending a particular event or living until a certain time may in fact delay death until then. However, there is a gradual realization of the real consequences of their condition.
- Stage 4: *Depression*. Realizing that the issue is settled and they cannot bargain their way out of death, people are overwhelmed with a deep sense of loss. They know that they are losing their loved ones and that their lives are coming to an end. The depression they experience may be of two types. In reactive depression, the feelings of sadness are based on events that have already occurred: the loss of dignity that may accompany medical procedures, the end of a job, or the knowledge that one will never return home. On the other hand, dying people also experience preparatory depression, feeling sadness over future losses. They know that death will bring an end to their relationships with others, and that they will never see future generations.
- Stage 5: *Acceptance*. In this last stage people are fully aware that they are dying. Increasingly self-reliant, they have made peace with themselves. For them, death holds no sting (Feldman, 2000, p. 649).

7.3 Socioemotional changes



This lesson focuses on the socioemotional changes from adolescence through young adulthood into middle adulthood and “mid-life crises” through to the issues and challenges of late adulthood.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What is the process of socioemotional development in adulthood?
- Are adults prisoners of childhood?
- How do the two basic theories of adult development compare?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Theories of adult development
 - Using the two templates supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials (Stage Theories and Life-Events Framework), describe and compare the two theories.
- Media Study: On Golden Pond
 - View the movie “On Golden Pond” and discuss the issues, challenges and topics related to late adulthood.
- Discussion: Adulthood
 - Adult development occurs against the backdrop of what many developmental psychologists consider to be the two most important aspects of life: love and work (Carlson et al., 1997, p. 409)
- Discussion: Are adults prisoners of childhood?
 - What does this quote mean?
 - In what ways are adults a product of their childhood environment?
 - What is the role and importance of parenting on adult development?
- Research: What is it like to be an adult?
 - Interview an adult in your home or community. Brainstorm interview questions that highlight the benefits, drawbacks, issues, challenges and stressors to adult life.
 - Compare and contrast with the issues of adulthood addressed in this unit: attraction, relationships, marriage, divorce, parenting, careers, etc.

Making Connections

- Attachment and parenting
- Parenting styles
- Personality development across the lifespan
- Stress/resiliency and coping Skills

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Stage Theories of Adult development
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Life-Events Framework
- Media: On Golden Pond

Lesson 7.3: Teacher Information

What is the process of socioemotional development during adulthood?

Adulthood is a time when changes occur in social relationships and positions. These changes do not come in neat, predictable stages but, instead, follow various paths depending on individual experiences - such as being abandoned by a spouse, getting fired from a job, going back to school, remarrying or suffering the death of a spouse.

Men and women in Western cultures usually enter the adult world in their early twenties. They decide on an occupation, or at least take a job, and often become preoccupied with their careers. They also become more preoccupied with the issues of love. During young adulthood, the experience of becoming parents represents entry into a major new developmental phase accompanied by personal, social, and, often, occupational changes.

Sometime around age forty, people go through a mid-life transition. They may reappraise and modify their lives and relationships. Happiness and healthiness of people in mid-life depend on how much control they feel they have over their job, finances, marriage, children, and sex life; the level of education they have attained; and the type of work they are doing.

Most people between sixty-five and seventy-five years of age think of themselves as middle-aged, not old. They are active and influential politically and socially; they often are physically vigorous. Men and women who have been working usually retire from their jobs during this period. Ratings of life-satisfaction and self-esteem are, on average, as high in old age as during any other period in adulthood. During late adulthood, people generally become more inward-looking, cautious and conforming. Although they interact with others less frequently, older adults enjoy these interactions more, finding relationships more satisfying, supportive, and fulfilling than earlier in life (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 367).

Are adults prisoners of childhood?

Studies that follow people from childhood to adulthood challenge the widespread assumption that childhood traumas always have specific and inescapable effects:

- *Recovery from war.* After World War II, many European children, made homeless by the war, were adopted by American families. About 20 percent of the children had problems at first, but

over the years they all made good progress in school; none had psychiatric problems; and all established happy, affectionate relationships with their new parents.

- *Recovery from abusive or alcoholic parents.* Compared to children of healthy parents, more children of abusive or alcoholic parents become abusive or alcoholic parents themselves, but the majority do not.
- *Recovery from sexual abuse.* Children who have been sexually abused do have more behavioural and emotional symptoms than nonabused children, especially if the abuse is severe, repeated, and part of other chronically stressful experiences in a child's life. Yet the research shows, much to people's surprise, that by adulthood, most victims are as well adjusted as people in the general population. Meta-analyses of studies of nearly 37 000 college students and of more than 12 000 adults have found no overall link between childhood sexual abuse and later emotional disorders or unusual psychological disorders.

Because of these heartening discoveries, some psychologists are looking for the origins of resilience in the children of violent, neglectful, abusive or alcoholic parents. Many of these children have easy-going temperaments or personality traits, such as self-efficacy, that affect how they respond to adversity; they manage to withstand severe hardships. Other resilient children are rescued by love and attention from their siblings, peers and caring adults other than their parents. And some have experiences outside the family - in schools, places of worship, or other organizations - that give them a sense of competence, moral support, solace, religious faith and self-esteem. Perhaps the most powerful reason for the resilience of so many children, and for the changes that adults make throughout their lives, is that we are all constantly interpreting our experiences. We can decide to repeat the mistakes that our parents made or to break free of them. We can decide to remain prisoners of childhood or to strike out in new directions at 20, 50, or 80 (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 537).

How do the two basic theories of adult development compare?

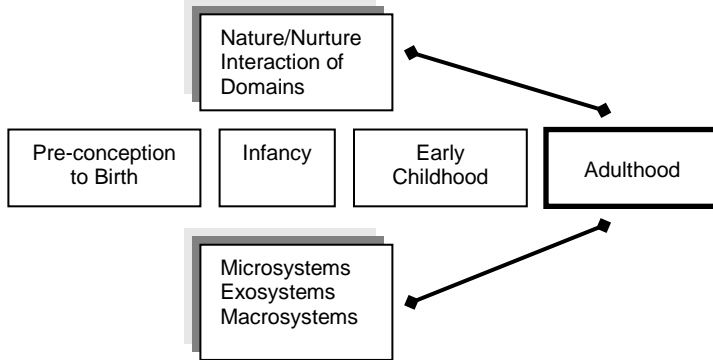
Levinson's theory of adult development divides the adult lifespan into distinct **eras**, each separated from the next by a cross-era transition - the change from one era to the next. An important feature of Levinson's theory is the concept of life structure - the idea that with adult development there is an evolving cognitive framework that reflects an individual's

views about nature and the meaning of his or her own life at a particular time (Baron et al., 1998, p. 384).

Erikson (1963) wrote that all individuals go through eight **stages** in their lives, resolving an inevitable "crisis" at each one:

- Stage 6: Intimacy versus isolation is the crisis of young adulthood. Young adults begin to select other people with whom they can form intimate, caring relationships. They learn to relate on an emotionally deep basis with members of the opposite sex and commit to a lasting relationship. Failure to resolve the dilemma of intimacy results in feelings of isolation.
- Stage 7: Generativity versus stagnation is the crisis of the middle years. Now that you know who you are and have an intimate relationship, will you sink into complacency and selfishness, or will you experience generativity, the pleasure of creativity and renewal? Parenthood is the most common means for the successful resolution of this stage, but people can be productive, creative and nurturant in other ways, in their work or their relationships with the younger generation. There are four types of generativity:
 - Biological generativity refers to the conception and birth of infants
 - Parental generativity refers to the provision of nurturance and guidance to children
 - Work generativity refers to the development of skills that are passed down to others
 - Cultural generativity refers to the creation, renovation or conservation of some aspect of the culture that survives.
- Stage 8: Ego integrity versus despair is the crisis of old age. As they age, people strive to reach the ultimate goal - wisdom, spiritual tranquility, an acceptance of their lives. Just as the healthy child will not fear life, said Erikson, the healthy adult will not fear death (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 530).

7.3.1 Attraction and Intimacy



Attraction and intimacy form two ends of a continuum of “relationship closeness”. This lesson considers all aspects of what attracts us to others, what others find attractive in us, and leads into a consideration of how that attraction deepens into intimacy.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- Why are we attracted to people?
- What is intimacy in a relationship?
- How can we describe an intimate relationship?
- What are the different styles of intimate interaction?
- What is the relationship between gender and intimacy?
- What influence does culture have on intimacy?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Attraction and relationships
 - Why do you like some people more than others?
 - What attracts you to members of the same gender?
 - What attracts you to members of the opposite gender?
 - What qualities do you most admire in an intimate relationship?
- Discussion: Intimacy... into me you see
 - What does this quote mean?
 - How is intimacy related to friendship, liking and loving?
 - How do you define or describe intimacy?
 - How does intimacy develop?
- Discussion: Attachment and intimacy
 - How is attachment in infancy related to intimacy in adulthood?
- Research/Discussion: Beauty
 - Are we, as a society, biased towards beauty? What evidence can you find to support your position?
 - What are the cultural differences in perceptions of beauty? Find examples from a variety of cultures to illustrate what various cultures consider to be beautiful. What are the features of attractive/beautiful people in various cultures?
 - Gender differences and beauty: What are the characteristics of beautiful males and females? Is there common consensus as to what it means to be beautiful? Consider a research project where you survey males and females to determine their interpretations of beauty. Are there age differences as well, in other words, do our definitions of beauty change as we get older?

Making Connections

- Refer to Topic 7.3.2, Love

Resources

Lesson 7.3.1: Teacher Information

Why are we attracted to people?

Why are we attracted to people? There are several reasons:

- *Similarity*: We like people who are similar to us in terms of interests, attitudes or experiences. Differences strengthen a relationship when they are complementary, that is, when each partner's characteristics satisfy the other's needs. Research over the past 20 years into successful and unsuccessful couples demonstrates that partners in successful marriages were similar enough to satisfy each other mentally and physically, but were different enough to meet each other's needs and keep the relationship interesting. Why is similarity so important in attraction? There are at least two possibilities. First, people who are similar provide us with important social validation for our characteristics and beliefs - that is, they provide us with the feeling that we are right. Second, it is likely that we make certain negative inferences about the character of someone who disagrees with us on important issues - not necessarily out of the need to be validated, but because we suspect the individual's opinion is indicative of the kind of person we have found in the past to be unpleasant, immoral, weak or thoughtless. The research evidence for complementarity is mixed at best, and based on only a few studies (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 386).
- *Reciprocal attraction* - We like people who like us, usually. The power of reciprocal attraction is especially strong in the early stages of a relationship. People who approve of us bolster our self-esteem.
- *Gain-loss effect* is the finding that we like people the most if we feel we have gained in their estimation of us (i.e., if they initially disliked us but now like us), and that we dislike people the most if we feel we have lost their favour (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 391).
- *Competence* - We like to be around talented people, probably because we hope that their skills and abilities will rub off on us.
- *Disclosure* - Revealing important information about yourself can help build liking. When people share private and personal information with you, it suggests they trust and respect you.
- One of the simplest determinants of interpersonal attraction is *proximity*. The people

who, by chance, are the ones you see and interact with the most often are the most likely to become your friends and lovers. Even in a choice as important as a marriage partner, proximity plays a major role. Researchers have found that most people marry someone who sits nearby in the same classroom, lives in the same neighbourhood, or works in the same office or factory. The proximity effect works because of familiarity, or the mere exposure we have to individuals who are nearby (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 373).

- *Physical attraction* - One of the most striking things about the physical attraction phenomenon is that most people assume physical attraction is highly correlated with other desirable traits. Men and women believe that attractive people are more successful, more intelligent, better adjusted, more socially skilled, more interesting, more poised, more exciting, more independent and more sexual than their less attractive counterparts. Beauty constitutes a powerful stereotype (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 377).
- The *reinforcement-affect model* predicts that people will be attracted to someone whom they associate with good feelings, even if the person was not the cause (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 213).

What is intimacy in a relationship?

Burgess and Huston (1979) suggest the following outline as a consensus of opinion on the subject of intimacy:

- The two people interact more often for a longer time and in more situations than do less intimate friends or acquaintances.
- When apart, they attempt to restore proximity.
- They "open up to each other", revealing secrets, feelings, praise and criticism.
- They develop their own ways of communicating.
- Each develops the ability to anticipate how the other will behave and feel.
- Their behaviours and goals become synchronized - not identical, but they do not get in each other's way.
- Each becomes increasingly invested in the relationship.
- Increasingly, the self-interest of each depends on the well-being of the relationship.

-
- They see the relationship as virtually irreplaceable and unique.
 - They tend to relate to others as a pair, or couple.
 - They like, love and trust each other (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 219).

How can we describe an intimate relationship?

Erikson believed that a prerequisite for intimacy was the attainment of identity (the reconciliation of all of our various roles into one enduring and stable personality). Identity is necessary because we cannot know what it means to love someone and seek to share our life with them until we know who we are and what we want to do with our lives. Thus, genuine intimacy requires us to give up some of our sense of separateness, and we must each have a firm identity to do this (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 419).

What are the different styles of intimate interaction?

Young adults show different styles of intimate attraction. Psychologist Jacob Orlofsky (1976) developed a classification of five styles of intimate relationships:

- In the *intimate* style, the individual forms and maintains one or more deep and long-lasting love relationships.
- In the *preintimate* style, the individual shows mixed emotions about commitment, an ambivalence that is reflected in the strategy of offering love without obligations or long-lasting bonds.
- In the *stereotyped* style, the individual has superficial relationships that tend to be dominated by friendship ties with same-sex rather than opposite-sex individuals.
- In the *pseudointimate* style, the individual maintains a long-lasting sexual attachment with little or no depth or closeness.
- In the *isolated* style, the individual withdraws from social encounters and has little or no social contact with same- or opposite-sex individuals (Santrock, 1999, p. 425).

What is the relationship between gender and intimacy?

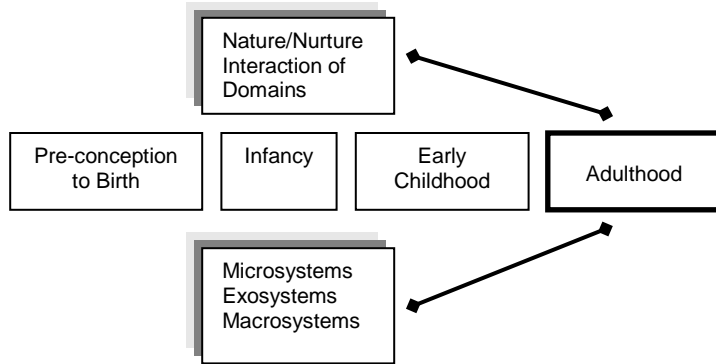
Most research does show that women (taken as a group) are more willing than men to share their

thoughts and feelings. In terms of the amount and depth of information shared, female-female relationships are at the top of the disclosure list. Male-female relationships come in second while relationships between men involve less disclosure than any other type. At every age, women disclose more than men and the information they reveal is more personal and more likely to include negative information; men are more likely to share positive feelings. Unlike women who prefer personal talk, men grow close to one another by doing things. Men regard practical help as a measure of caring (Adler et al., 2001, p. 328).

What influence does culture have on intimacy?

The greatest differences between Asian and European cultures focuses on the rules for dealing with intimacy: showing emotions, expressing affection in public, engaging in sexual activity and respecting privacy. Disclosure is especially high in North American society. In fact, people from the United States are more disclosing than members of any culture studied. They are likely to disclose more about themselves to acquaintances, and even strangers. By contrast, Germans and Japanese tend to disclose little about themselves except in personal relationships with a select few (Adler et al., 2001, p. 330).

7.3.2 Love



This lesson addresses what is likely the most important and powerful, albeit misunderstood and undefinable, of all human emotions, love.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What does it mean, to love?
- What are the different types of love?
- How is liking someone different than loving someone?
- What influence does culture have on our notions of love?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Research study: Gender differences and love.
 - How do males and females define love? Are there different types of love? How do you know if you are in love? Is there any validity to the saying, “Love at first sight?”
 - Age and love: Does the meaning and types of love differ with age? Is love universal?
- Research/Construction: How is love represented in literature, poetry, art, sculpture or music?
 - Create an anthology, or portfolio of different portrayals of love
 - Create a poster, three-panel display, or computer-based presentation on love.
- Drama: Arms Expert (on the topic of love)
 - Object: One person plays the arms of another person.
 - Rules: One person sits or stands with their arms loosely behind their back. Another person places their arms through the space created by the other person's arms. Read a script or improvise a narrative.
- Creative dance/music: Love
 - Create a dance to music that portrays the theme of love.
- Research/Discussion: Love and the mass media
 - How is love, intimacy and romance depicted or portrayed in the media?
 - What value messages are being communicated?
- Discussion: Love and marriage
 - Do you need to love someone to have a successful, long-term marriage?
- Discussion/Construction: Sternberg's model of love
 - Using Sternberg's triangular model of love (intimacy, commitment, passion), discuss how this model may account for all the varieties of love (liking, romantic, infatuation and companionate).
 - Are there any aspects to Sternberg's model that are inaccurate or incomplete?
 - Construct your own Model of Love.
- Research: Making marriages last
 - On the basis of Schlesinger's list of the ten most important criteria for a lasting marriage (see *Ages and Stages*, Strengths in Families), interview or survey married couples to compare and contrast their comments and feedback.

Resources

- *Ages and Stages*: Unit Four: Early Childhood, Strengths in Families

Lesson 7.3.2: Teacher Information

What does it mean, to be in love?

Love can assume many forms and varieties, such as the love of one's mate, brother or sister, child, parent or grandparent, friend, or country. Further, love can evolve or change over time, such as when the passionate love of the honeymoon becomes companionate love. How can we conceptualize love as a state? Sternberg (1986) has proposed a triangular model of love representing the varieties of love. All love experiences consist of three components, represented as points on a triangle. These components are:

- (1) intimacy, the closeness or bond between the two people, including communication, self-disclosure, and a desire to care for the loved one
- (2) passion, the emotional arousal and physical drives in the love relationship. While physical attraction and sexuality may be prominent, especially in the early phases of the relationship, other intense feelings such as need for self-esteem, nurturance and dominance may also contribute to the experience of passion
- (3) decision/commitment, which represents not only the decision to love someone, but also the commitment to maintain that loving relationship (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 221).

What are the different types of love?

Varieties of love experiences can be described in terms of the relative importance of the three components of intimacy, passion and decision/commitment:

- Liking involves intimacy in the absence of passion or decision/commitment; in this sense, liking does not include feelings towards casual acquaintances, but refers to friendships in which one feels closeness, bondedness and warmth toward the other.
- Infatuation consists of passion without intimacy or decision/commitment.
- Romantic love derives from a combination of intimacy and passion without commitment; or liking with the addition of physical arousal and attraction.

- Companionate love involves intimacy and decision/commitment in which the passion, at least in the physical sense, has subsided (Adler et al., 2001, p. 222).

How is liking someone different than loving them?

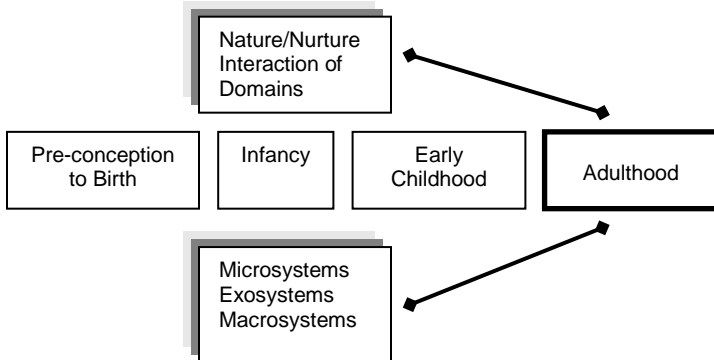
What seems clear is that loving is not simply an extreme form of liking. In reviewing the research, Berscheid (1985) suggests several ways in which liking and loving differ:

- Liking is relatively stable over time, whereas romantic love tends to be more fragile and volatile.
- Liking is strongly influenced by the actual exchange of rewards, whereas romantic love is influenced more by what we anticipate in the future.
- Liking is influenced in a logical way by rewards (we like people more who reward us more), whereas romantic love is often unrelated or even intensified by frustration or rejection (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 223).

What influence does culture have on our notions of love?

One of the main dimensions on which cultures differ is individualism-collectivism. Individualism places greater emphasis on personal achievement and self-reliance. Collectivism, by contrast, places priority on the welfare and unity of the group. Goodwin (1995) argues that love, at least in its passionate stomach churning Hollywood manifestation, is largely a Western and individualistic phenomenon and that in Western cultures, marriage is seen as the culmination of a loving relationship. In cultures where arranged marriages occur, the relationship between love and marriage is the other way around, and marriage is seen as the basis on which to explore a loving relationship. The cultural background in which people have learned about love is important in shaping their concept of it (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 485).

7.3.3 Relationships



In this lesson, we address the complexities of interpersonal relationships ranging from acquaintances to friendships and long-term committed relationships.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How do we define interpersonal relationships?
- Why do we establish interpersonal relationships?
- How do we establish and maintain relationships?
- What are the levels of relationship maturity?
- Why do people remain in unsatisfying relationships?
- What influence does culture have on interpersonal relationships?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Personal qualities
 - What do you consider to be the basic qualities of a friend?
 - What qualities in a spouse do you consider to be the most important?
 - Are there differences between your expectations for a friend and for a spouse? If so, why? If not, why?
- Jigsaw/Role Play: Models of relationship establishment
 - Assign one of the six models of relationship establishment and maintenance (process, attachment and stage) to a small group. Each group will create a role play based on the principles of each model.
- Jigsaw/Presentation/Role Play: Models of relationship dissolution
 - Assign one of the three models of relationship dissolution (D-E-N-R-T, Phase-Threshold model, Exit-Voice-Loyalty-Neglect model) to a small group. Each group will create a presentation or role play based on the principles of each model.
- Discussion: Valuing and confirming
 - In what ways do we demonstrate confirming and valuing behaviours to our friends?
 - Using the concept of the Medicine Wheel, discuss confirming and valuing behaviours and attitudes for each of our physical, mental, emotional and spiritual aspects.
- Discussion: Rules in relationships
 - What rules do you have for these different types of relationships: friendship, intimate, family, business, athletic, social, marital?

Making Connections

- Marriage
- Separation and Divorce
- Codependent relationships: What are they and what are the implications for relationships?
- Love, attraction and intimacy
- Friendships
- Group dynamics, association and membership

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: The Medicine Wheel

Lesson 7.3.3: Teacher Information

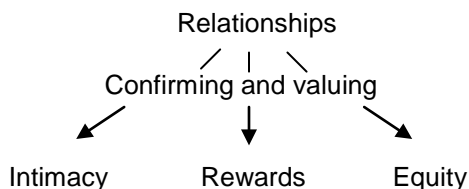
regularly for exercise workouts (Adler et al., 2001, p. 325)

How do we define interpersonal relationships?

Long-term relationships can be described in one of two ways:

- *Exchange relationships* are governed by the need for equity or an equal ratio of rewards and costs. In these types of relationships:
 - We like to be repaid immediately for our favours.
 - We feel exploited when our favours are not returned.
 - We keep track of who is contributing what to the relationship.
 - Being able to help the other person has no effect on our mood.
- *Communal relationships* are those in which the people's primary concern is being responsive to the other person's needs. In these types of relationships:
 - We do not like to be repaid immediately for our favours.
 - We do not feel exploited when our favours are not repaid.
 - We do not keep track of who is contributing what to the relationship.
 - Being able to help the person puts us in a good mood (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 404).

Why do we establish relationships?



Intimacy

Dimensions of intimacy:

- Physical intimacy begins with attachment during infancy and is demonstrated by hugs, kisses, and physical closeness.
- Intellectual intimacy involves the exchange of important ideas, values and beliefs.
- Emotional intimacy involves the exchange of important feelings.
- Shared activities can include everything from working side-by-side at a job to meeting

Rewards

Intimacy can be satisfying, but it is not the only payoff that drives us to seek out and stay in relationships. Some social scientists have argued that all relationships - both personal and impersonal - are based on a semi-economic model called social exchange theory. This approach suggests that we often seek out people who can give us rewards - either tangible or emotional - that are greater than or equal to the costs we encounter in dealing with them. Social exchange theorists define rewards as any outcomes we desire. A simple formula captures the social exchange theory for why we form and maintain relationships:

$$\text{Rewards} - \text{Costs} = \text{Outcome}$$

According to social exchange theory, we use two standards in arriving at a judgement or decision: Comparison level are standards of what behaviours are acceptable; and comparison level of alternatives refers to a comparison between the rewards received in the present situation versus other rewards that could be expected to receive in others. Foa (1971) proposes that in a social exchange model of relationships, there are six interpersonal resources that can be exchanged: love, status, information, money, goods and services (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 218).

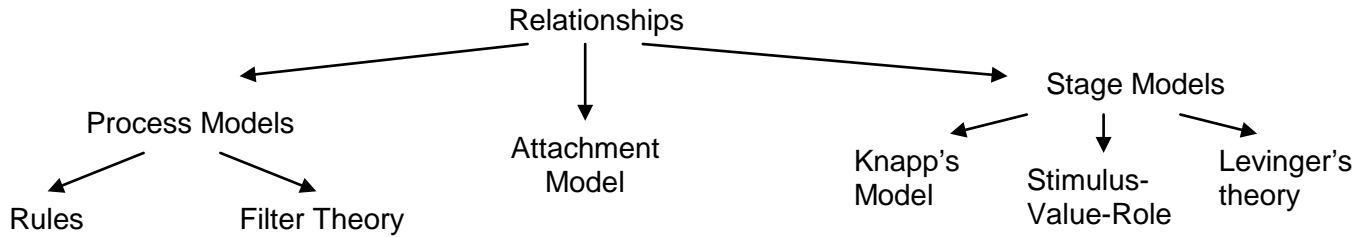
Equity theory

Some researchers have criticized social exchange theory for ignoring an essential variable in relationships: the notion of fairness, or equity. Equity theorists argue that people are not just out to get the most rewards for the least cost; they are also concerned about equity in their relationships, wherein the rewards and costs they experience and the contributions they make to the relationship are roughly equal to the rewards, costs and contributions of the other person (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 395).

Confirming and Valuing

Communication climate, or the emotional tone of a relationship, is the key to positive relationships. A climate doesn't involve specific activities as much as the way people feel about each other as they carry out those activities. The tone of a relationship is shaped by the degree to which people believe themselves to be valued by one another. Social scientists use the term confirming to describe messages that convey valuing (Adler et al., 2001, p. 389).

How do we establish and maintain relationships?



Process Models

Not all theorists agree that a stage-related view is the best way to explain interaction in relationships. Some suggest that people grapple with the same kinds of challenges whether a relationship is brand new or has lasted decades. They argue that people seek important but inherently incompatible goals throughout virtually all of their relationships. The struggle to achieve these goals creates conflicts that arise when two opposing or incompatible forces exist simultaneously. Three powerful dialectical tensions includes:

- Connection versus Autonomy - The conflicting desires for connection with another person and independence.
- Predictability versus Novelty - stability is an important need in relationships, but too much of it can lead to feelings of staleness.
- Openness versus Privacy - Along with the drive for intimacy, we have an equally important need to maintain some space between ourselves and others.

Argyle and Henderson (1984) have conducted many studies looking at the rules people use in different types of relationships. By rules, they mean shared opinions or beliefs about what should or should not be done. According to Argyle and Henderson the two major functions of rules are to regulate behaviour in order to minimize potential sources of conflict, and to check on the exchange of rewards that motivate people to stay in relationships. Their research has uncovered rules that are thought to apply to all or most types of relationships, such as “respecting other people’s privacy”, “not discussing what has been said in confidence” and “being emotionally supportive”. Additional rules apply in particular types of relationships. Argyle and Henderson's research indicates that relationships fall into clusters, with similar rules applying within a particular cluster. One such cluster includes spouse, sibling and close friends, whilst another includes doctor, teacher and boss. Deception is probably the most important rule that should not be broken.

However, what counts as deception will depend on the nature of the relationship: if we cannot trust a friend or a partner, then the relationship is almost certainly doomed (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 480).

Filter Theory

According to Kerckhoff and Davis (1962), relationships pass through a series of filters. They base this claim on a comparison between short-term couples (less than 18 months) and long term couples. Initially, similarity of sociological (or demographic) variables (such as ethnic, racial, religious and social class groups) determines the likelihood of people meeting in the first place. To some extent, our choice of friends and partners is made for us because “the field of availables” (the range of people who are realistically, as opposed to theoretically, available for us to meet) is reduced by social circumstances. The next filter involves people's psychological characteristics and, specifically, agreement on basic values. Kerckhoff and Davis found this was the best predictor of a relationship becoming more stable and permanent. Thus, those who had been together for less than 18 months tended to have stronger relationships when the partners' values coincided. With couples of longer standing, though, similarity was not the most important factor. In fact, complementarity of emotional needs was the best predictor of a longer term commitment, and this constitutes the third filter (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 486).

Attachment Models

Ainsworth (1978) discovered that infants form one of three basic attachments to the caregiver. The crucial feature determining the quality of attachment is the caregiver's sensitivity, or the quality of response to the baby's needs. The sensitive caregiver sees things from the baby's perspective, correctly interprets its signals, responds to its needs, and is accepting, cooperative and accessible. By contrast, the insensitive caregivers interacts almost exclusively in terms of their own wishes, moods and activities. Ainsworth's research indicated that sensitive caregivers have babies that are securely

attached, whereas insensitive caregivers have insecurely attached babies. The insecurely attached babies were either anxious-avoidant or anxious-resistant. (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 329)

Category	Sample (%)
Anxious-avoidant Typical behaviour: Baby largely ignores caregiver. Play is little affected by whether caregiver is present or absent. No or few signs of distress when caregiver leaves, and actively ignores or avoids caregiver on return. Distress is caused by being alone, rather than being left by the caregiver. Can be as easily comforted by a stranger as by the caregiver. In fact, both adults are treated in a very similar way.	15
Securely attached Typical behaviour: Baby plays happily while the caregiver is present, whether the stranger is present or not. Caregiver is largely 'ignored' because the baby trusts that care will be provided if needed. Clearly distressed when caregiver leaves and play is considerably reduced. Seeks immediate contact with caregiver on return, is quickly calmed down and resumes play. The distress is caused by the caregiver's absence, not being alone. Although the stranger can provide some comfort, stranger and caregiver are treated very differently.	70
Anxious-resistant Typical behaviour: Baby is fussy and wary while the caregiver is present. Cries a lot more and explores much less than other two types and has difficulty in using caregiver as a safe base. Very distressed when caregiver leaves, seeks contact on return, but simultaneously shows anger and resists contact (may approach caregiver and reach out to be picked up, but then struggles to get down again). This demonstrates the baby's ambivalence towards the caregiver. Does not return readily to play. Actively resists stranger's efforts to make contact.	15

Stage Models

One of the best known models of relational stages was developed by Mark Knapp (1998), who broke down the rise and fall of relationships into 10 stages, contained in the broad phases of "coming together" and "coming apart". The following stages are especially descriptive of intimate, romantic relationships and close friendships.

- Initiating - Expressing interest in making contact and showing that you are the kind of person worth getting to know.
- Experimenting - This stage involves uncertainty reduction, or the process of getting to know to know others by gaining more information about them.
- Intensifying - Interpersonal relationships now begin to emerge. Feelings about the other person are now openly expressed, forms of address become more familiar, commitment is now openly expressed, and the parties begin to see themselves as "we" instead of separate individuals.
- Integrating - Identification as a social unit. Social circles merge. Partners develop unique, ritualistic ways of behaving. Obligation to the other person increases. Some personal characteristics are replaced and we become different people.
- Bonding - The parties make symbolic public gestures to show society that their relationship exists (rings, tokens, marriage).
- Differentiating - The need to re-establish separate identities begins to emerge. The key to successful differentiation is maintaining a commitment to the relationship while creating the space for autonomy and individuality.
- Circumscribing - Communication between the partners decreases in quantity and quality. It involves a certain amount of shrinking of interest and commitment.
- Stagnating - No growth occurs. Partners behave toward each other in old, familiar ways without much feeling.
- Avoiding - The creation of physical, mental and emotional distance between the partners.
- Termination - In romantic relationships the best predictor of whether the parties will become friends is whether they were friends before their emotional involvement (Adler et al., 2001, p. 335).

Stimulus-Value-Role Theory

Murstein (1987) sees relationships proceeding from a stimulus stage, in which attraction is based on external attributes (such as physical appearance), to a value stage in which similarity of values and

beliefs becomes more important. There comes a role stage, which involves a commitment based on successful performance of relationship roles such as husband and wife. Although all these factors have some influence throughout a relationship, each one assumes its greatest significance during one particular stage (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 486).

Levinger's Theory

For Levinger (1980) relationships pass through five stages rather than the three proposed by Murstein. These are: acquaintance or initial attraction, building up the relationship, consolidation or continuation, deterioration and decline, and ending. At each stage, there are positive factors that promote the relationship's development and corresponding negative factors that prevent its development or cause its failure (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 486).

What are the levels of relationship maturity?

A desirable goal is to develop a mature identity and have positive, close relationships with others. Kathleen White (1987) has developed a model of relationship maturity that includes this goal as its highest level. Individuals are described as moving through three levels of relationship maturity: self-focused, role-focused, and individuated-connected.

- The self-focused level is the first level of relationship maturity, at which one's perspective on another person or a relationship is concerned only with how it affects oneself. The individual's own wishes and plans overshadow those of others, and the individual shows little concern for others.
- The role-focused level is the second or intermediate level of relationship maturity, when one begins to perceive others as individuals in their own right. However, at this level the perspective is stereotypical and emphasizes social acceptability. Individuals at this level know that acknowledging and respecting another is part of being a good friend or a romantic partner.
- The individuated-connected level is the highest level of relationship maturity, when one begins to understand oneself, as well as to have consideration for others' motivations and to anticipate their needs. Concern and caring involve emotional support and individualized expressions of interest (Santrock, 1999, p. 425).

Why do people remain in unsatisfying relationships?

Akert (1992) found that the role people played in the decision to end the relationship was the single most powerful predictor of their breakup experiences. Not surprisingly, those people who did not initiate the breakup were the most miserable, they reported high levels of loneliness, depression, unhappiness and anger, and virtually all reported experiencing physical disorders in the weeks after the breakup as well. Those who indicated responsibility for the breakup of the relationship found the end of the relationship the least upsetting, the least painful and the least stressful. Although they did report feeling guilty and unhappy, they had the fewest negative symptoms such as headaches, eating and sleeping irregularities (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 412).

What influence does culture have on interpersonal relationships?

One of the main dimensions on which cultures differ is individualism-collectivism. Individualism places greater emphasis on personal achievement and self-reliance. Collectivism, by contrast, places priority on the welfare and unity of the group. In cultures where arranged marriages occur, the relationship between love and marriage is the other way around, and marriage is seen as the basis on which to explore a loving relationship. As Bellur (1995) notes, the cultural background in which people have learned about love is important in shaping their concept of it (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 485).

How do relationships dissolve?

Lee's model of relationship dissolution

Lee (1984) has proposed that there are five stages in premarital romantic breakups. First of all, dissatisfaction is discovered. This dissatisfaction is then exposed. Some sort of negotiation about the dissatisfaction occurs, and attempts are made to resolve the problem. Finally, the relationship is terminated. In his research, Lee found that exposure and negotiation tended to be experienced as the most intense, dramatic, exhausting and negative aspects of the whole experience. Lee also found that in those cases where the passage from dissatisfaction to termination was particularly prolonged, people reported feeling more attracted to their ex-partners and experienced the greatest loneliness and fear during the breakup (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 496).

Duck's Model (Phase-Threshold Model)

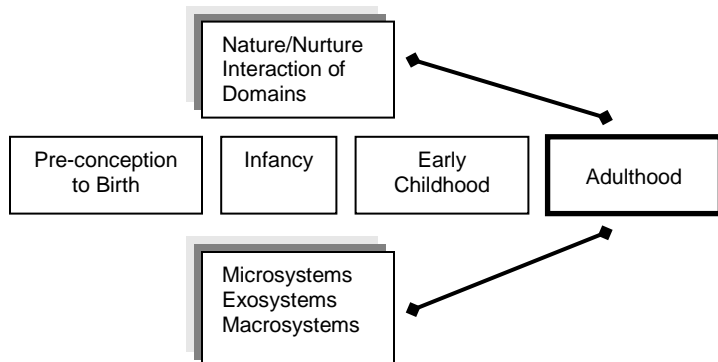
Duck's model of relationship dissolution (1992) consists of four phases, each of which is initiated

when a threshold is broken. The first, intrapsychic phase, begins when one partner sees him- or herself as being unable to stand the relationship any more. This initiates a focus on the other's behaviour, and an assessment of how adequate the partner's role performance is. Also, the individual begins to assess the negative aspects of being in the relationship, considers the costs of withdrawal, and assesses the positive aspects of being in another relationship. Duck uses the term intrapsychic because the processes are occurring only in the individual's mind and have not yet shown themselves in actual behaviour. The next threshold is when the individual considers himself or herself as being justified in withdrawing from the relationship. This leads to the dyadic phase, and involves the other partner. Here, the dissatisfied individual must decide whether to confront or avoid the partner. When this decision is made, negotiations occur about, for example, whether the relationship can be repaired and the joint costs of withdrawal or reduced intimacy. If the negotiations in this phase are unsuccessful, the next threshold is when the dissatisfied partner decides that he or she means the relationship to end. This leads to the social phase, so-called because it involves consideration of the social implications of the relationship's dissolution. This state of the relationship is made public at least within the individual's own social network, and publicly negotiable face-saving/blame-placing stories and accounts of the relationship's breakdown may be given. Intervention teams such as family or very close friends may be called in to try to bring a reconciliation. Unless the intervention teams are successful, the next threshold is when the relationship's dissolution becomes inevitable. This leads to the final grave-dressing phase. In this, the partners attempt to get over the relationship's dissolution and engage in their own post-mortem about why the relationship dissolved, a version of events which is then given to family and friends. Each partner needs to emerge from the relationship with an intact reputation for future "relationship reliability" purposes (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 496).

Rusbult's Exit-Voice-Loyalty-Neglect Model

According to Rusbult's (1987) exit-voice-neglect-loyalty model, there are four basic responses to relationship dissatisfaction. These are exit (leaving the relationship), neglect (ignoring the relationship), voice (articulating concerns) and loyalty (staying in the relationship and accepting the other's behaviour). The two active strategies in the face of dissatisfaction are exit and voice, whilst the two passive strategies are neglect and loyalty. Exit and neglect are destructive whilst voice and loyalty are constructive (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 497).

7.3.4 Marriage and Divorce



This lesson addresses the issues, trends and challenges in one of the foundational social institutions, marriage.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What makes a good marriage?
- What is the process of being married?
- What are the trends in marriage?
- What are the causes of divorce?
- What are the effects of divorce on adults?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Marriage as union?
 - Some experts on marriage and the family believe that marriage represents such a different phenomenon for women and men that we need to speak of “her” marriage and “his” marriage (Santrock, 1999).
 - What are the implications of this statement for young couples?
 - What would constitute the differences between “his” and “her” marriages?
- *Ages and Stages: Strengths in families*
 - Read the article in the *Ages and Stages* article, and discuss the values and qualities that make marriages last.
 - From the list provided in the article, prioritize the top 10.
- Discussion: Terminal values and marriage
 - What values are most important in a spouse?
 - Refer to the Curriculum Support Materials section, *The Nature of Human Values*. How do these values listed above relate to Rokeach’s Terminal Values?
- Research: Married couple
 - Why did you get married?
 - What attracted you to each other?
 - What are the issues, challenges and hurdles to be faced in marriage?
 - What are the benefits of being married?
 - What have you learned?
- Research: Beliefs/Values/Attitudes
 - Similarities and differences between husbands and wives

Making Connections

- Relationship dissolution

Resources

- *Ages and Stages: Strengths in Families*
- Curriculum Support Materials: *The Nature of Human Values*

Lesson 7.3.4: Teacher Information

What makes a good marriage?

Despite the somewhat shaky image of the institution of marriage, most people marry and expect the marriage to last. For about half of these couples, that expectation will be realized. None knows exactly what it is that makes any particular marriage work. Sometimes the most unlikely combinations are wonderful successes. However, there is one critical ingredient - mutual respect, a term that encompasses a great deal. Respect means that you view others as important people, paying attention to them and seeing their ideas, abilities, needs and wants as meaningful and worthwhile. Mutual respect means that two people both give and receive respect. It means that you treat the other person with consideration, not demeaning or insulting him or her. This quality does not guarantee success. However, without mutual respect, a marriage simply cannot work (McMahon and Romano, 2000, p. 340).

What is the process of marriage?

For 95 percent of adults under forty falling in love with someone results in marriage. Newlyweds are generally happy with their marriages and seem to become happier when children enter the picture. However, as children begin to demand more of their parents' time and emotional resources, couples report increasing unhappiness in marriage. Generally speaking, mothers assume more responsibilities than fathers for the day-to-day care of children. As a result, they spend more time doing housework and less time talking to their husbands which can place strain on marital happiness. However, if husband and wife can find time together in the evenings, and if the husband is able to share in the parenting and household chores, the stress of adapting to family life is lessened considerably. As children grow older and become more self-sufficient in caring for themselves, the day-to-day burdens of raising a family taper off and husbands and wives are able to spend more time with each other. However, adolescents pose new problems for their parents. They may question parental authority, and their burgeoning social agenda may put a wrinkle in their parents' personal and social calendars. For many parents, rearing adolescents, particularly during the time just prior to their leaving home, represents the low point of marital happiness. Generally speaking, once a family's youngest child has left home, marital happiness increases and continues to do so through the remainder of the couple's life together (Buskist et al., 1997, p. 410).

What are the trends in marriage?

Until about 1930, the goal of a stable marriage was widely accepted as a legitimate endpoint of adult development. In the last 60 years, however, we have seen the emergence of personal fulfillment both inside and outside a marriage that competes with marriage's stability as an adult developmental goal. The changing norm of male-female equality in marriage has produced marital relationships that are more fragile and intense than they were earlier in the twentieth century. More adults are remaining single longer in the 1990s, and the average duration of a marriage in the United States is currently just over nine years. In 1994, the U.S. average age for a first marriage climbed to 26.7 years for men and 24.5 years for women, higher than at any point in history. Even with adults remaining single for longer and divorce being a frequent occurrence, Americans still show a strong predilection for marriage – the proportion of women who never marry has remained at about 7 percent throughout the twentieth century (Santrock, 1999, p. 419).

What are the causes of divorce?

Couples who report being happy in their marriage agree with each other on aims, goals, and sex life; they genuinely like their spouse as a good friend; they are committed to the relationship and want it to succeed. They share many positive experiences and are proud of their spouse's achievements. Happily married people direct positive messages to their spouses: they express affection, approval, appreciation and pleasure, just as they did during courtship. In contrast people who report being unhappy in their marriage often adopt a negative pattern of communication. They direct mainly criticisms towards their spouses, blame them for everything and anything that goes wrong, and rarely express positive feelings or approval.

Couples who divorce also differ from happy ones in many other ways. First, they have basic disagreements about aims, goals, lifestyles, sex and many other matters. Second, they report high levels of boredom in their relationship. They do not enjoy doing things with their spouse. Third, the spouse no longer fills their need for affection, esteem and approval.

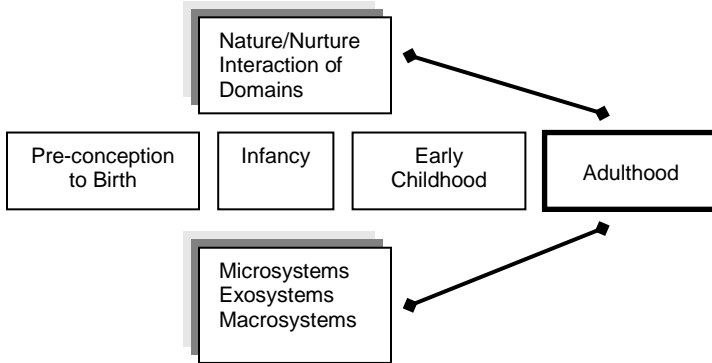
Additional factors associated with divorce include low income, brief courtship, unrealistic expectations about the relationship, and pregnancy at the time of marriage. Couples whose parents have been divorced are more likely to divorce (Baron et al., 1998, p. 386).

What are the effects of divorce on adults?

In his review of relevant studies, Duck (1992) found that people in disrupted relationships are more susceptible than others of the same gender and age group to coronary heart disease, alcoholism, drug dependency and sleep disturbances. There may be, however, important gender differences regarding the effects of divorce, depending on the point of the dissolution process being considered. Whilst much has been made of the detrimental effects of divorce on men, as opposed to women, these effects usually occur after the relationship has ended. Men discover that they miss the emotional support that marriage can provide, and that on their own they have very little opportunity to express feelings to friends around them. With women it is the stage before divorce, during marital stress, when they are far more likely than men to become depressed. That is the point when marriage is probably worse for female mental stability than divorce itself (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 495).

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...

7.3.5 Personality Development



This lesson represents the synthesis of all aspects of this unit, by looking at the biological, mental, emotional and spiritual aspects that together address the core question: Who Am I?

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• What does it mean to have a personality?• How do personalities develop?• Are personalities fixed for life, or do they change?• Is there a biological basis for personality?• What is the relationship between personality, lifestyle and health?• What kind of personality do you have?
Suggested Instructional Strategies <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Direct• Independent• Interactive• Indirect• Experiential	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Discussion: Personality development in adulthood<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Using the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials, Life-Events Framework, discuss with the students the role of personality as a mediating variable in adult development.• Reflection: Ask each student to answer this question: Are you basically a happy person? Why or why not?<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ This exercise will guide to students to consider their basic personality traits, which will lead into a discussion of the basic theories of personality.• Discussion: Using the template found in the Curriculum Support Materials, Emotions, Attitudes and Personality Traits, as the conceptual organizer, discuss the emotions and attitudes that Eysenck (1973) relates to the four basic personality traits.<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ What behaviours are associated with each of the four basic traits?○ Ask each student to reflect on where they fit in terms of the model as presented.○ In what ways are your personality characteristics similar to those of your parents or other family members?○ In what ways are your personality traits similar to those of your friends?○ Why do some people take more risks than others?• Construction: My theory of personality development<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Develop your own theory of personality development.
Making Connections	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Surprisingly little evidence shows that such traits as dominance, charisma, and self-confidence predict who will become leaders (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 612)<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ So what might be the predictors of leadership?○ What personality traits would you want in a leader?
Resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Curriculum Support Materials: Emotions, Attitudes and Personality Traits• Curriculum Support Materials: Life-Events Framework• Annenberg/CPB Exhibits: http://www.learner.org/exhibits/personality

Lesson 7.3.5: Teacher Information

What does it mean to have a personality?

Your personality represents the sum of all your psychological, behavioural and biological processes. It reflects the consistent patterns of thinking, feeling and behaving that make you different from and, in some ways, similar to others (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 406).

Researchers have found what are called the “big five” dimensions of temperament:

- Extroversion: the tendency to be outgoing, assertive and active.
- Agreeableness: the tendency to be kind, helpful and easygoing.
- Conscientiousness: the tendency to be organized, deliberate and conforming.
- Neuroticism: the tendency to be anxious, moody, and self-punishing.
- Openness: the tendency to be imaginative, curious, artistic and welcoming of new experiences (Berger, 2000, p. 221).

How do personalities develop?

Each of the general perspectives on human behaviour and development explains the process of personality development:

- The psychodynamic approach: Freud, on the basis of his work in treating “neurotic disorders”, came to believe that personality and behaviour are determined more by psychological factors than by biological conditions or current events. He proposed that people may not know why they think, feel or act the way they do because they are partly controlled by the unconscious portion of the personality - the part of which people are normally unaware.
- The trait approach to personality makes three main assumptions:
 - Personality traits remain relatively stable and therefore predictable over time.
 - Personality traits remain relatively stable across diverse situations, and they can explain why people act in predictable ways in many different settings.
 - People differ with regard to how much of a particular personality trait they possess; no two people are exactly alike on all traits.

The result is an endless variety of unique personalities.

- A cognitive-behavioural approach views personality as a set of behaviours that people acquire through learning and then display in particular situations. It defines personality as the sum total of the behaviours and cognitive habits that develop as people learn through experience in the social world.
- The phenomenological (humanistic) approach maintains that the primary human motivator is an innate drive toward personal growth that prompts people to fulfil their unique and natural potential. Like the planted seed that naturally becomes a flower, people are inclined towards goodness, creativity, love and joy. Proponents of this theory emphasise that each individual perceives reality somewhat differently and that these differences, rather than traits, instincts or learning experiences, are central to creating personality differences (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, pp. 408-426).

Are personalities fixed for life, or do they change?

Research shows that personality may be sensitive to the unique experiences of the individual, especially during the adult years. Important shifts, some related to cognitive maturity, occur in many individuals once they reach adulthood. For example, adults are more likely to be assertive and self-confident than when they were younger. However, once established, such shifts remain stable. Further, major life events - for example, a child's tragic death, a highly stressful situation, or a divorce - not surprisingly, can alter a person's overall outlook on life (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 395).

Is there a biological basis for personality?

Every individual is born with a distinct, genetically based set of psychological tendencies, or dispositions. These tendencies, which together are called temperament, affect and shape virtually every aspect of the individual's developing personality. Temperament, and therefore personality, is not merely genetic. It begins in the multitude of genetic instructions that guide the development of the brain and then is affected by the prenatal environment (Berger, 2000, p. 219).

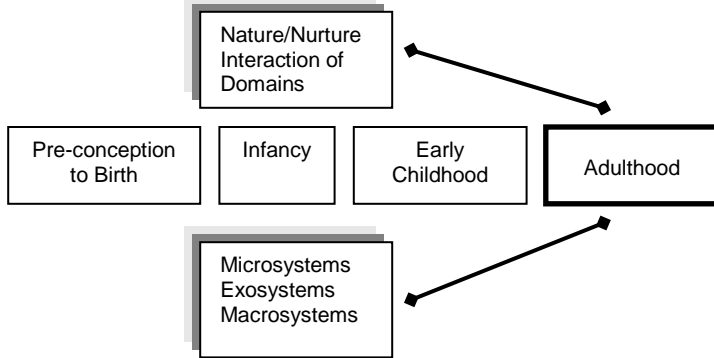
What is the relationship between personality, lifestyle and health?

Emotional stability and personality are related to health in adulthood. In the Berkeley Longitudinal Study, as individuals aged from 34 to 50, those who

were the most healthy were also the most calm, the most self-controlled, and the most responsible. Three clusters of personality characteristics that have been extensively investigated as factors in stress are Type A behaviour, Type C behaviour, and hardiness.

- Type A behaviour pattern refers to a cluster of characteristics – being excessively competitive, hard-driven, impatient and hostile – thought to be related to the incidence of heart disease. People who are hostile or consistently turn anger inward are more likely to develop heart disease.
- Type C behaviour refers to the cancer-prone personality, which consists of being inhibited, emotionally inexpressive, and otherwise constrained. This type of individual is more likely to develop cancer than are more expressive people. The concept of Type C behaviour fits with the findings of stress and health researchers, who have found that being inhibited about talking with others about problems can be an impairment to health.
- Hardiness is a personality style characterised by a sense of commitment (rather than alienation), control (rather than powerlessness), and a perception of problems as challenges (rather than threats) (Santrock, 1999, p. 442).

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



7.3.6 Senior Citizens

This lesson addresses the social, economic, political and support service impact of an increasingly important and influential group in society, senior citizens.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- Who are senior citizens?
- How much income do seniors have?
- What economic impact do seniors have on the Canadian economy?
- Where do seniors live in Canada?
- What are some issues that seniors face?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Research: Senior Citizens
 - Interview a senior citizen to discuss the issues, challenges, successes and hardships of being a senior in your community.
 - How has society changed since they were a teenager?
 - What are some of their most vivid memories from their life?
 - What advice would they give to adolescents today?
- Research: Genealogical study
 - Conduct an informal genealogical study on your family. What are your cultural roots and origins?
- Discussion: Seniors in our community
 - Share the results of the discussions and interviews that the students conducted. Are there common themes? What can be done to enhance the health, safety, well-being and involvement of seniors in your community?
- Discussion: Role of seniors
 - What role do seniors have in your community? How can their experience, expertise, talent and resources be used to enrich their lives and the lives of others in the community?
 - What will happen as society ages? Who will pay the tax bill for the educational and health care systems? How might society sustain itself when the majority of people are not working, but instead retired and collecting pensions?

Making Connections

- Calculate the return on an investment of a sum of money invested at age 20 and left until maturity at age 65, compounded annually at 5 percent interest. What are the implications of this fact for young adults?
- Life and health insurance: What is it, how much does it cost, and what are the benefits?
- Elder abuse: What is it? How prevalent is it? What are the forms and types of elder abuse?
- Mandatory retirement

Resources

Lesson 7.3.6: Teacher Information

Who are senior citizens?

Senior citizens are, by definition, persons aged 65 or older. In the coming decades, seniors will comprise a larger share of the Canadian population, growing from 3.5 million people in 1996 to an estimated 6.9 million people by 2021. Populations are aging in all western industrialized countries. In Sweden, for example, seniors comprise 18 percent of the population while in Canada they form 12 percent of the population.

Since 1920, life expectancy has increased by an average of seven years for men, and 13 years for women.

Only one of every 25 Aboriginal persons is a senior, while one of every eight non-Aboriginal persons is a senior (Health Canada, 1998).

How much income do seniors have?

In 1996, half of families headed by a senior had an income below \$33,700. Half of seniors living alone had an income below \$15,000.

In 1996, almost one-half of seniors living alone had incomes below Statistics Canada's low-income cutoff; more than one-half of women aged 65 or older who were living alone had incomes below the cutoff.

On average, families headed by a senior receive about 60 percent of their income from private pensions, investments and earnings, and 40 percent from government pensions and benefits. Women aged 65 and older who are living alone rely on government payments for 62 percent of their income, while men of the same age living alone rely on government payments for 46 percent of their income (Health Canada, 1998).

What economic impact do seniors have on the Canadian economy?

Seniors play an important role as consumers in Canadian society. In 1996, households headed by seniors spent \$69 billion dollars on goods, services and taxes, representing 13 percent of all expenditures.

Spending by seniors accounts for a significant portion of total expenditures on many items. In 1996, households headed by seniors represented 21 percent of all households, and spent 21 percent of total consumer dollars on health care, 14 percent on

personal care, 13 percent on transportation and 11 percent on recreation.

Expenditures by Seniors, 1996

Category	Expenditure (Billions of dollars)
Housing	\$ 14.0
Clothing	\$ 2.3
Recreation	\$ 3.1
Health/Personal care	\$ 3.6
Home supplies and Furnishings	\$ 5.1
Personal income taxes	\$ 12.5
Food	\$ 9.6
Transportation	\$ 8.3
Gifts and charity	\$ 6.1
Other expenses	\$ 5.3

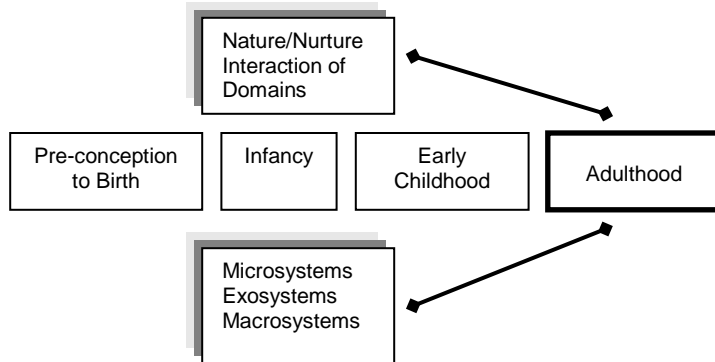
Households headed by seniors spend a larger share of their total income on gifts and charities than do younger households. Over one-fifth of all households headed by seniors spend at least one-tenth of their total after-tax income on gifts and charities, compared with seven percent of households headed by people aged 35 to 54 years.

Seniors also give generously of their time. About half a million seniors provide unpaid care to other seniors and 400 000 provide such care to children. Women aged 65 or older are slightly more likely than men to be unpaid caregivers (Health Canada, 1998).

Where do seniors live in Canada?

The vast majority of seniors live independently and do not require help with daily tasks. Only seven percent of people aged 65 or older live in institutions. The majority of seniors live in urban areas. However, there are large differences in the proportion of seniors living in Canadian cities. In Victoria, seniors account for 18 percent of the total population, but in Calgary and Edmonton, seniors account for 10 percent or less of the population. The majority of men aged 65 and older live with their spouse. Women are more likely to live alone, particularly those aged 75 and older. It is projected that by 2001, one-third of all seniors in Canada will live alone. Most seniors under age 75 live with their spouses, independently in their own homes. But most people aged 80 or older are women, more than half of whom live alone. The majority of these older women living alone are poor (Health Canada, 1998).

7.3.7 Careers/Work/Leisure



One of the most critical issues and decisions that young adults make is that of a career choice. This lesson addresses the issues, choices and pathways of men and women in their careers.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How do the three models of career selection and development compare?
- What are the issues and challenges for dual-earner marriages?
- How has the role of women in the workforce changed over the past few decades?
- How do the work pathways of men and women compare?
- What is the role and importance of leisure activities?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Models of career choices
 - Compare and contrast the three models.
 - Discuss the applicability of these models in terms of gender. Do any of these models account for work and career pathways for women?
- Activity: Career personality typing
 - Based on Holland's six career personality types, reflect on your own type and the implications that might hold for your career plans.
- Research: Leisure activities
 - Conduct a survey on leisure activities in adults.
- Research: Career choices.
 - Interview a person active in the workforce. Ask them:
 - How did you select your career?
 - What skills, training and education did you achieve?
 - What do you need to do to stay current in your career?
 - What career "type" are you? (Refer to Holland's six career personality types)
- Research: Television and leisure
 - How much time do adults spend watching television?
 - What television program types (sitcoms, news, sports, movies, etc.) are watched most often?

Making Connections

- Post-secondary education: What are the entrance requirements for the career path you are interested in?
- Changing patterns in job roles: How have the job roles and opportunities changed for women over the past five decades?

Resources

- Career Awareness: [Human Resources Development Canada](#)
- Online Resource: [Career Counselling and Careers](#)

Lesson 7.3.7: Teacher Information

How do the three models of career selection and development compare?

Three dominant theories describe the manner in which individuals make choices about careers - Ginzberg's developmental theory, Super's self-concept theory and Holland's personality-type theory.

- The developmental theory of career choice is Eli Ginzberg's view that individuals go through three career choice stages - fantasy, tentative and realistic. Ginzberg argues that up to the age of 11, children are in the fantasy stage of career choice. From the ages of 11 to 17, adolescents are in the tentative stage of career development. The period from 17 and 18 years of age through the early twenties is called the realistic stage of career choice. At this time, the individual extensively explores available careers, then focuses on a particular career, and finally selects a specific job within the career.
- The career self-concept theory is Donald Super's view that the individual's self-concept plays a central role in career choice. Super believes a number of developmental changes in vocational self-concept take place during the adolescent and young adulthood years. Super believes that career choice moves through several stages:
 - *Crystallization*: At about 14 to 18 years of age, adolescents develop ideas about work that mesh with their already existing global self-concept.
 - *Specification*: Between 18 and 22 years of age, they narrow their career choices and initiate behaviour that enables them to enter some type of career.
 - *Implementation*: Between 21 and 24 years of age, young adults complete their education or training and enter the world of work.
 - *Stabilization*: The decision on a specific, appropriate career is made between 25 and 35 years of age.
 - *Consolidation*: Finally, after the age of 35, individuals seek to advance their careers and reach higher-status positions.

Personality-type theory is vocational theorist John Holland's view that it is important to develop a match

or fit between an individual's personality type and the selection of a particular career. Holland proposes six basic career-related personality types: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising and conventional.

- *Realistic*: Individuals who have this vocational interest like the outdoors and working in manual activities. They are often less social, have difficulty in demanding situations, and prefer to work alone or with other realistic persons. Holland describes the realistic type as physically robust, practical, and often non- or anti-intellectual.
- *Investigative*: The investigative type is interested in ideas more than people, is rather indifferent to social relationships, is troubled by highly emotional situations, and may be perceived by others as being somewhat aloof and yet highly intelligent.
- *Artistic*: The artistic type has a creative orientation. These individuals enjoy working with ideas and materials to express themselves in new ways. Artistic types often have a distaste for conformity, valuing freedom and ambiguity, and sometimes have difficulty in interpersonal relationships.
- *Social*: Oriented to working through and with other people, social types tend to have a helping orientation. They enjoy nurturing and developing others, perhaps working to assist others in need, especially the less advantaged.
- *Enterprising*: Another type that is more oriented toward people than toward either things or ideas is the enterprising type. These individuals seek to dominate others, especially when they want to reach goals. Therefore, enterprising types are good at coordinating the work of others to accomplish a task.
- *Conventional*: This type usually functions best in well structured circumstances and jobs and is skilled at working with details. Conventional individuals like to work with numbers and perform clerical tasks, as opposed to working with ideas or people (Santrock, 1999, p. 401).

How has the role of women in the workforce changed over the past few decades?

The changing role of women is evident in the increasing rate of women's employment. In 1960, only one-third of women with children were employed; but in 1988, 55 percent of married women with infants and 61 percent of women with

preschool children worked outside the home. Women's occupations are also changing. Four in ten college women today intend to pursue careers in law, business, medicine, or engineering, while in 1970 only two in ten said they intended to pursue these male-dominated careers. Today, women fill nearly one-third of management positions, an improvement from the 19 percent level in 1972, but most are in jobs with little authority and low pay. Only two percent of senior executives are women, and only 1.7 percent of corporate officers of Fortune 500 companies are women (Santrock, 1999, p. 406).

What are the issues and challenges for dual-earner marriages?

With the dramatic increase in the number of women entering the workforce in the past twenty-five years, many psychologists have focused their research efforts on understanding dual-earner marriages - those in which both parents work full- or part-time. Compared to single-earner marriages, dual-earner families generally have a better standard of living in terms of material possessions and saving money for their children's education and for retirement. Another important benefit accrues, especially to the wife: She is able to achieve recognition and independence outside the home. But all is not bliss in dual-earner marriages. If both partners are working, who manages the household and takes care of the children? In most cases, the woman still does, which often means that she has two roles, one as mother and one as wage earner. Apparently, a husband's support of his wife's working does not always go as far as actually pitching in at home. However, husbands who believe strongly in equality for women are likely to help out at home (Buskist et al., 1997, p. 410).

How do the work pathways of men and women compare?

Most men begin work in early adulthood and work more or less continuously until they retire, unless they return to school or become unemployed. Unstable patterns of work are much more common among low-income workers than among middle-income workers, although a continuous pattern of work is still the norm among low-income workers.

The most common path for the middle-class woman is to work for awhile after finishing high school or even college; to marry and have children. Then, when the children are a little older, she goes back to part-time work to supplement the husband's income. As the children begin to leave home, the woman goes back to school for some updating of earlier skills or for a retraining program so she can assume a full-time paid job in her forties and fifties, when she is relatively free of responsibilities.

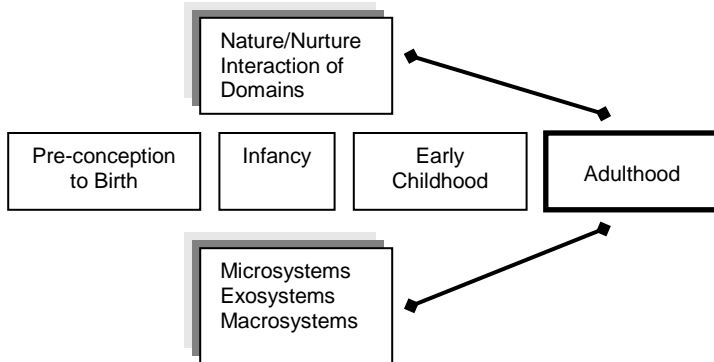
For the professional or career woman, the picture is somewhat different, since she has more invested in keeping up her professional skills. Four career patterns among professional women have been identified:

- Regular, the woman who pursued her professional training immediately after graduation, and began to work and continued to do so without interruption or with minimal interruption throughout the years.
- Interrupted career, the woman who began as in the regular pattern but interrupted her career for several years – usually for child rearing – and then went back to work full-time.
- Second career, the woman who started her professional career near or after the time the children left home or after a divorce.
- Modified second career, the woman who started her professional training while the children were still at home but old enough not to need full-time mothering, then started to work, possibly part-time, until the last child left home or became independent, at which time she shifted to a full-time career (Santrock, 1999, p. 448).

What is the role and importance of leisure activities?

As adults, not only must we learn how to work well, but we also need to learn how to relax and enjoy leisure. Leisure refers to the times after work when individuals are free to pursue activities and interests of their own choosing – hobbies, sports, or reading, for example. Ninety years ago, the average work week was 72 hours. Only in the last three to four decades has it averaged 40 hours. What do most of us do now that we have more free time than at the beginning of the century? One of the basic themes of research on leisure is the increasing reliance on television over other forms of mass media as a form of entertainment. Sports are also an integral part of the nation's leisure activities, either through direct participation or as a spectator (Santrock, 1999, p. 449).

7.3.8 Gender issues



This lesson considers issues related to gender: establishing roles and identities, career paths, parenting, relationships and lifespan.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What are the issues in establishing gender roles in adulthood?
- How do the adult stages of males and females compare in adulthood?
- What are the gender differences in terms of intimacy in marriage?
- How does gender affect lifespan and life expectancy?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: “Women are second-class citizens”.
 - From the feminist perspective women have been treated as second-class citizens. What evidence can you find to support this claim?
 - Is society male-based and dominated?
 - How would society be different if the situation was reversed?
- Media Study: Television, movies and gender
 - “Movies for guys who like movies” versus “Chick-flicks”.
 - What are the stereotypical attitudes represented in these labels?
 - What are the central themes or focus of these movies?
 - What are the gender differences in television programs and movies?
 - Why are there such gender differences?
 - How are men and women portrayed in the media, television, movies or magazines?
- Construction: Create your own magazine
 - Create your own magazine on any topic or issue of interest to you in developmental psychology.
- Consensus decision making: Paid maternity and paternity leave
 - Engage the students in a consensus decision making exercise that considers the question of paid maternity and paternity leave.
- Discussion: Gender and longevity
 - Why do women live so much longer, on average?
- Research: Gender differences in personality
 - Design and conduct a research study to compare personality traits and characteristics *between* males and females. For what criteria are the genders similar? In what ways are they different? How would you explain the similarities? How would you explain the differences?
- Discussion: Gender differences in personality
 - Read the Curriculum Support Material, Gender Differences. Do you agree or disagree with the author’s description of the basic personalities of males and females? How does the author’s description compare with the results of your research? How do you account for any discrepancies?

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Gender Differences

Lesson 7.3.8: Teacher Information

What are the issues in establishing gender roles in adulthood?

Generativity versus stagnation is the crisis of the middle years. Now that you know who you are and have an intimate relationship, will you sink into complacency and selfishness, or will you experience generativity, the pleasure of creativity and renewal? Parenthood is the most common means for the successful resolution of this stage, but people can be productive, creative and nurturant in other ways, in their work or their relationships with the younger generation. For many North American adults, however, the greatest tension occurs between two types of generativity: parenthood versus achievement. Especially for women, the demands of children and career often pull in different directions. Devotion to a job may lead to guilt about depriving children of attention; too much emphasis on home life may impair productivity at work. This stressful balancing act may lead to anxiety, frustration and conflicts at home and on the job. Most women though, are more satisfied if they work. They like the respect, the independence, the stimulation and the companionship that working often provides (Bernstein and Nash, 1997, p. 369).

How do the adult stages of males and females compare in adulthood?

Women apparently follow stages similar to those for men. As children, women are taught different values, goals, and approaches towards life, which often are reflected later in their choice of vocations, hobbies and intellectual pursuits. Historically, women have followed different career paths than men. More recently, women are increasingly entering areas previously dominated by men.

The developmental course of women, and especially of women's transitions, is similar to that of men; but some women tend to experience transitions and life events at later ages and in more irregular sequences. In addition, women experience events such as mid-life transitions differently than men. While some men approach a mid-life crisis at age 40 as a last chance to hold onto their youth, many women see it as a time to reassess, refocus and revitalize their creative energies. At 50, many women become suddenly aware of their aging due to physical changes in their body - especially declining fertility - and this creates a different type of transition.

In a major study of women's transitions, Mercer, Nichols and Doyle (1989) identified a developmental progression for women. They considered especially

the role of motherhood and how it influences the life course of women. In the launch into adulthood era (ages 16 to 25), women break away from families to go to school, marry and work. In the leveling era (ages 25 to 30), many women readjust their life course, this is often a time for marriage, separation or divorce. In the liberation era (ages 36 to 40), women focus on their aspirations, grow personally, and may initiate or change careers. Mercer and colleagues did not find major transitions for women in the years from age 40 to 60; they found greater flux and crises in earlier and later years. In the regeneration/redirection era (ages 61 to 65), women, like men, adjust to their life choices and prepare for retirement and a more leisurely lifestyle. These two latter stages (liberation and regeneration) are times of great empowerment for women, when growth, regrowth and purpose are often redefined and reinforced, resulting in a true sense of contentment. In the last stage of life, the creativity/destructiveness era (age 65 and on) women are challenged to adapt to health changes and the loss of spouses and friends; this time may also be characterized by a surge of creativity, or sometimes, depression (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 390).

Daniel Levinson and his colleagues (1978) claim to have discovered a pattern common to most men's lives. Instead of proceeding smoothly, their lives were characterized by several years of stability punctuated by crises. The crises were periods during which the men began to question their life structures: their occupations, their relations with their families, their religious beliefs and practices, their ethnic identities, and the ways they spent their leisure time. During times of transition - which caused considerable anxiety and turmoil - the men re-evaluated the choices they had made and eventually settled on new patterns that guided them through another period of stability. Periods of transition lasted around four or five years, whereas the intervening periods of stability lasted six or seven years.

For Levinson, the most important crises occur early in adulthood, when choices must be made about career and marriage, and at mid-life (during the early to mid-forties), when realities about one's life structure must be finally faced. Men whose life structures do not yet meet their prior goals and expectations realize that the future will probably not bring the success that up until then has eluded them. Men who have succeeded begin to question whether the goals they had set for themselves were meaningful and worthwhile (Buskist et al., 1997, p. 409).

Levinson et al.'s research was carried out on men, and no women were included in the sample. Similar research investigating women has found similarities

with Levinson's findings. However, men and women have been shown to differ in terms of their dreams:

- Men have fairly unified visions of their futures which tend to be focused on their careers. Women, however, have “dreams” which are more likely to be split between a career and a marriage.
- Roberts and Newton (1987) saw the family as playing a supportive role for men. Women's dreams were constructed around their relationship with their husband and family, which subordinated their personal needs. So, part of her dream is his success (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 424).

What are the gender differences in terms of intimacy in marriage?

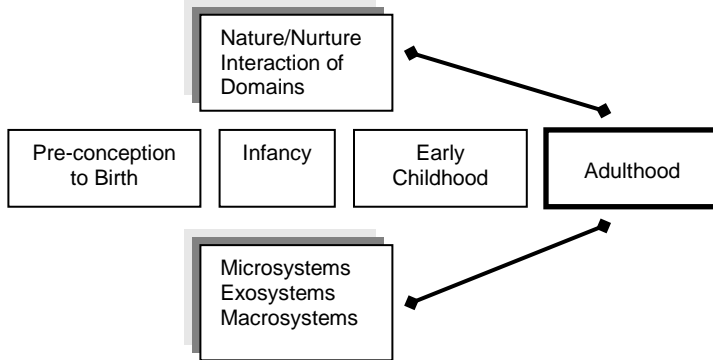
Wives consistently disclose more to their partners than husbands do. And women tend to express more tenderness, fear and sadness than their partners. A common complaint expressed by women in a marriage is that their husbands do not care about their emotional lives and do not express their own thoughts and feelings. Men frequently respond either that they are open or that they do not understand what their wives want from them. It is not unusual for men to protest that that no matter how much they talk it is not enough for their wives. Women also say that they want more warmth as well as openness from their husbands. Overall, women are more expressive and affectionate than men in marriage, and this difference bothers many women (Santrock, 1999, p. 421).

How does gender affect lifespan and life expectancy?

Although a much greater percentage of persons live to an older age, the lifespan has remained virtually unchanged since the beginning of recorded history. Lifespan is the upper boundary of life, the maximum number of years an individual can live. The maximum lifespan of human beings is approximately 120 years. Life expectancy is the number of years that will probably be lived by the average person born in a particular year. Improvements in medicine, nutrition, exercise and lifestyle have increased our life expectancy an average of 30 additional years since 1900. The life expectancy of individuals born today is 77 years (80 for women, 73 for men). The world's population of individuals 65 years or older doubled from 1950 to 1990. And the fastest-growing age segment of the population is individuals 85 years and older, who now number almost four million.

Beginning at the age of 25, females outnumber males; this gap widens during the remainder of the adult years. By the time adults are 75 years of age, more than 61 percent of the population is female; for those 85 and older, the figure is almost 70 percent female. The sex difference in longevity is influenced by biological factors. In virtually all species, females outlive males. Women have more resistance to infections and degenerative diseases (Santrock, 1999, p. 8).

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



7.3.9 Retirement

Retirement, while obviously not a concept that most adolescents consider, is nonetheless a critical issue and concern for adults in the late stages of adulthood.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What are the different phases experienced during retirement?
- Should there be a mandatory retirement age?
- What are the issues and challenges facing seniors considering retirement?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and seniors.
 - How does Abraham Maslow's hierarchy relate to adult development?
 - Do you ever stop in the process of reaching self-actualization?
- Discussion: Mandatory retirement
 - Given the levels of a variety of types of intelligence that seniors possess, should there be a mandatory retirement age? What impact might this have on young people entering the workforce?
- Research: Retirement
 - What do retired people think about retirement?
 - Are the phases of retirement universal or are there individual differences?
 - Should there be a mandatory retirement age?
 - Is the old age pension sufficient?
 - What are the challenges and issues in retirement?
- Media Study: Cocoon
 - What were the issues for the senior citizens tempted with the promise of "eternal life"?
- From both perspectives: Mandatory retirement
 - Invite the students to write down all of the reasons they can in support of, and against, mandatory retirement.

Making Connections

- Ageism
- Educational programs for seniors

Resources

- Media: Cocoon

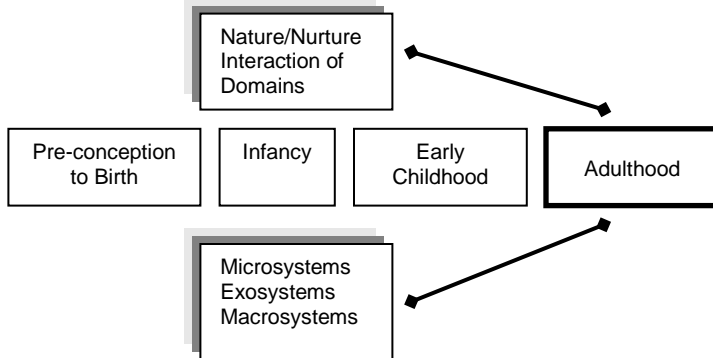
Lesson 7.3.9: Teacher Information

What are the different phases experienced during retirement?

Retirement is a process and social role which unfolds through a series of six phases, each of which requires an adjustment. The phases do not correspond with any particular chronological age, occur in no fixed order, and not all of them are necessarily experienced by everyone:

- *Preretirement* phase: In the remote subphase, retirement is seen as being in a reasonably distant future; the near subphase may be initiated by the retirement of older friends and colleagues and there may be much anxiety about lifestyle changes, especially financial ones.
- *Honeymoon* phase: This phase typically involves euphoria, partly due to new-found freedom, and is often a busy period.
- *Disenchantment* phase: This involves a slowing down after the honeymoon phase, with feelings of being let down and even depression. The degree of disenchantment is related to declining health and finances. Disenchantment may be produced by unrealistic preretirement fantasies or inadequate preparation for retirement.
- *Reorientation* phase: This is a time to develop a more realistic view of life alternatives, and may involve exploring new avenues of involvement, sometimes with the help of community groups (e.g., special voluntary or paid jobs for the retired). This helps to decrease feelings of role loss and is a means of self-actualization.
- *Stability* phase: This involves the establishment of criteria for making choices, allowing people to deal with life in a fairly comfortable and orderly way. They know what is expected of them, what their strengths and weaknesses are, allowing mastery of the retirement role.
- *Termination* phase: Illness and disability usually make housework and self-care difficult or impossible, leading to the assumption of a sick or disabled (as opposed to a retirement) role (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 428).

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



7.4 Looking through the eyes of the systems of support

This lesson considers the critical importance of the family and peers in terms of their support and influence on adults. Students are invited to engage their parents or guardians in discussion to compare and contrast their unique situation to those of families across Canada.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How do we define a family?
- What are the functions of families?
- What are the characteristics of strong and healthy families?
- What is the family life cycle?
- What are the different parenting styles?
- What is the national census data on Canadian families' and children's living arrangements?
- What are the effects of maltreatment of children?
- Are mistreated children likely to become mistreating parents?
- How vulnerable are families to crisis and mistreatment of children?
- What is the influence of culture on families?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion/Research: Strengths in families: Accentuating the positive
 - Based on the Portraits of Families in Canada: 1996 census summary, discuss the implications of the substantial rise in common-law and single-parent families, and the increasing number of stepfamilies.
 - What are the characteristics of healthy and well functioning families?
 - What are the issues, challenges, advantages and drawbacks of one-parent, step- and same-sex parent families?
- Discussion: The Family Life Cycle
 - Using the table provided in the Curriculum Support Materials, discuss the key principles and issues at each stage of the family life cycle.
- Construction: Family Tree
 - Create your own family tree through research into your family's genealogy. Trace the origin of your family name.
- Interview: Your grandparents (or great-grandparents) for their recollections about your family history.
- Discussion: Culture and parenting, raising a family
 - Based on the *Ages and Stages* article, Parenting and Child Rearing from a Cross-cultural Perspective, discuss how culture influences family arrangements, economics, roles and processes.
- Reflection: Parenting and influence
 - Refer to the Curriculum Support Materials, When you thought I wasn't looking and Memorandum from your child, and reflect on parental influence from the perspective of the child.

Resources

- *Ages and Stages*: Parenting and Child Rearing from a Cross-cultural Perspective
- *Ages and Stages*: Strengths in families: Accentuating the positive
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Family Life Cycle
- Curriculum Support Materials: When you thought I wasn't looking
- Curriculum Support Materials: Memorandum from your child

Lesson 7.4: Teacher Information

How do we define a family?

Family is defined as any combination of two or more persons who are bound together over time by ties of mutual consent, birth and/or adoption/placement and who, together, assume responsibilities for variant combinations of some of the following:

- physical maintenance and care of group members
- addition of new members through procreation or adoption
- socialization of children
- social control of children
- production, consumption and distribution of goods and services
- affective nurturance – love (Schlesinger, 1998, p. 3).

What are the functions of families?

As the Vanier Institute of the Family definition indicates, families perform vital functions for society and for their members. Society as we know it would be simply unimaginable without them. Researcher Shirley Zimmerman (1988) has listed six basic functions of families that demonstrate how important and far-reaching these functions are:

- Physical maintenance and care of family members. Within healthy families, children, adults and seniors all receive the care and support they need: food, shelter, clothing, protection and so on. Where families are not available or are unable to provide these services, family members suffer and substitutes, usually inadequate ones, must be found.
- Addition of new members through procreation or adoption and their relinquishment when mature. Society renews itself through families. For this function, there is, literally, no substitute.
- Socialization of children for adult roles. Families prepare their children for life. Most do a fairly good job of it, teaching skills, values and attitudes that equip them to learn, work, form friendships and contribute to society.
- Social control of members . . . the maintenance of order within the family and groups external to it. Within families, individuals learn positive

values and behaviour and receive criticism for negative ones.

- Maintenance of family morale and motivation to ensure task performance both within family and in other groups. In this regard, families provide the glue that holds society together and keeps it functioning. Beyond providing mere social control, families, through love and spiritual leadership, inspire their members and others to keep trying.
- Production and consumption of goods and services. Families provide for their own by producing goods and services like food, home maintenance and health care. As they strive to fulfil the needs of their members, they play a vital role in the national economy (Schlesinger, 1998, p. 3).

What are the characteristics of strong and healthy families?

Strong families:

- work for the well-being or defend the unity and continuity of their families
- support each other in their families
- respect each family member for his/her uniqueness and difference
- spend time together to build family cohesion
- delegate responsibility
- allow children to make mistakes and face the consequences
- contribute to the well-being of their neighbourhood, city, country or world
- have a spiritual orientation or a spiritual dimension (which may not be the same as religiosity) (Schlesinger, 1998, p. 10).

What is the family life cycle?

As we go through life, we are at different points on the family life cycle. The stages of the family life cycle include leaving home and becoming a single adult, the joining of families through marriage, becoming parents and a family with children, the family with adolescents, the family at mid-life, and the family in later life.

- Leaving home and becoming a single adult involves the process in which youths move into

adulthood and exit their family of origin. This is a time for the young adult to formulate personal life goals, to develop an identity, and to become more independent before joining with another person to form a new family.

- The new couple stage involves two individuals from separate families uniting to form a new family system. Marriage is usually described as the union of two individuals, but in reality it is the union of two entire family systems and the development of a new, third system. Some experts on marriage and the family believe that marriage represents such a different phenomenon for women and men that we need to speak of “her” marriage and “his” marriage.
- Becoming parents and a family with children is the third stage. Moving through this lengthy stage successfully requires a commitment of time as a parent, understanding the roles of parents, and adapting to developmental changes in children.
- The family with adolescents, the fourth stage, is a period of development in which adolescents push for autonomy and seek to develop their own identity. A flexible, adaptive approach to parenting is best at this stage.
- The family at mid-life is a time of launching children, playing an important role in linking generations, and adapting to mid-life changes in development. Because of the lower birth rate and longer life of most adults, parents now launch their children about 20 years before retirement, which frees many mid-life parents to pursue other activities.
- The family in later life is one in which retirement alters a couple’s lifestyle, requiring adaptation. Grandparenting also characterizes many families in this stage (Santrock, 1999, p. 417).

What are the different parenting styles?

Diana Baumrind (1971) emphasizes three styles of parenting that are associated with different aspects of the child’s socioemotional development:

- *Authoritarian* parenting is a restrictive, punitive style in which the parents exhort the child to follow their directions and to respect work and effort. The authoritarian parent places firm limits and controls on the child and allows little verbal exchange. Authoritarian parenting is associated with children’s social incompetence.

- *Authoritative* parenting encourages children to be independent but still places limits and controls on their actions. Extensive verbal give-and-take is allowed, and parents are warm and nurturant toward the child. Authoritative parenting is associated with children’s social competence.
- *Neglectful* parenting is a style in which the parent is uninvolved in the child’s life. It is associated with children’s social incompetence, especially a lack of self-control.
- *Indulgent* parenting is a style of parenting in which the parents are highly involved with their children but place few demands or controls on them. Indulgent parenting is associated with children’s social incompetence, especially a lack of self-control (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 347).

What is the national census data on Canadian families’ and children’s living arrangements?

There were 7.8 million families in Canada in 1996, according to the Statistics Canada definition of a census family. At the time of the 1996 census, 45 out of every 100 families were married couples with children. This represented a decline from 1991, when the number was 52 out of every hundred. Couples without children accounted for 35 percent of all families. This group, which remained a steady proportion over the last decade of the twentieth century, included both the parents of children who have grown up and left home, as well as couples who have not had children.

Looking at the different kinds of families over time in terms of each group’s proportion of all families, families with children living at home made up 65 percent of all families. This was a reduction of five percent over the last quarter of a century. The proportion of those families with children with two parents decreased from 87 percent to 78 percent. At the same time, the proportion of lone parent families increased from 14 percent of all families raising children to 22 percent. Common-law couples with children accounted for an increasing proportion of all families, rising to six percent in 1996.

Looking at Canada’s 7.8 million census families again, without reference to whether the adults were married, common-law or lone parents, 5.1 million families or 65 percent had never-married children living at home. Significantly, this percentage has not changed since 1991.

The proportion of people living in families declined somewhat over the 90s. Partly, this was because people chose to wait longer before living together or

getting married. There was also a larger proportion of separated, divorced or widowed people no longer living as part of a census family.

At the 1996, 9.7 million Canadian children and young people under the age of 25 lived in families. Of the nearly 10 million Canadians under the age of 25, 8.6 million were children who lived in a two-parent or lone-parent family. More than seven out of ten lived in families with two legally married parents, about one in ten lived with a common-law couple, and almost two out of ten lived with one parent, usually the mother.

The remaining 1.1 million young Canadians lived in other situations that are difficult to count. Approximately 491 000 of the older ones were themselves married or living common-law, and some were lone parents. Some were divorced, and had moved back in to their parental home. Another 297 000 were living with non-relatives at the time of the 1996 census. About 121 000 were young adults living on their own.

The picture of the family circumstances of children and young people is a snapshot at century end. Over the last thirty years, Canada has seen increased rates of separation and divorce, the declining popularity of marriage, a growing number of common-law unions, an increasing recognition of same-sex couples, and more blended families. These changes have resulted in more complex lives for many children who will grow up in a number of different family environments during their childhood and adolescence. The variety within families means that young people are growing up among peers whose family lives often differ markedly from their own (Schlesinger, 1998, p. 3)

What are the effects of maltreatment of children?

The more we learn about child maltreatment, the more we see that its causes are many and its consequences extend far beyond any immediate injury or deprivation. Compared to well-cared-for children, chronically abused and neglected children tend to be underweight, slower to talk, less able to concentrate, and delayed in academic growth. Deficits are even more apparent in social skills: maltreated children tend to regard other children and adults as hostile and exploitative, and hence they are less friendly, more aggressive, and more isolated than other children. The longer their abuse continues, and the earlier it started, the worse their relationships with peers are. As adolescents and adults, those who were severely maltreated in childhood (physically or emotionally) often use drugs or alcohol to numb their emotions, choose unsupportive relationships, sabotage their own careers, eat too much or too little, and generally

engage in self-destructive behaviour (Berger, 2000, p. 258).

Are mistreated children likely to become mistreating parents?

Many people erroneously believe that the intergenerational transmission of maltreatment - that is, maltreated children becoming adults who abuse or neglect their own children - is automatic and unalterable. On the basis of longitudinal research studies that begin before abused individuals become parents, experts estimate that between 30 and 40 percent of abused children actually become child abusers themselves. This rate is many times that of the general population, but it shows that more than half of all severely mistreated children do not become abusive or neglectful parents (Berger, 2000, p. 259).

How vulnerable are families to crisis and mistreatment of children?

Vulnerable-to-crisis families are generally adequate-caregiving families that are pushed over the edge by immediate stressful problems. The loss of a job, for example, or the birth of a handicapped infant can severely strain most parents' ability to cope with the normal demands and frustrations of child rearing. About one-fourth of all families are vulnerable-to-crisis. Usually, they realize they have a problem, and this makes them receptive to services such as crisis counseling and parent training. Once the parents learn to cope with their specific problem more effectively they are again able to provide adequate child rearing.

Restorable families make up about half of all families. The caregivers in restorable families have the potential to provide adequate care, and perhaps have done so in the past, but a number of problems - caused not only by their immediate situations but also by their past histories and their temperaments - impair their parenting abilities. A single mother, for example, might have untreated medical problems, inadequate housing, and poor job skills, all of which fray her quick temper and cause her to explode just as her father did when she was a disobedient child. Treatment for restorable families requires a caseworker who has the time and commitment to become a family advocate, mediating and coordinating various services. The goal is not just child protection but family support, emotional as well as material. With such intense help, restorable families eventually become successful ones.

Supportable families make up about one-fifth of all maltreating families. They probably will never function adequately and independently, but with continual support they might meet their children's

basic needs for physical, educational and emotional care. The support might be as simple as daily home visits by a nurse or housekeeper or as involved as moving the entire family to a special residence that provides ongoing medical attention, daycare, recreation, social work and group therapy.

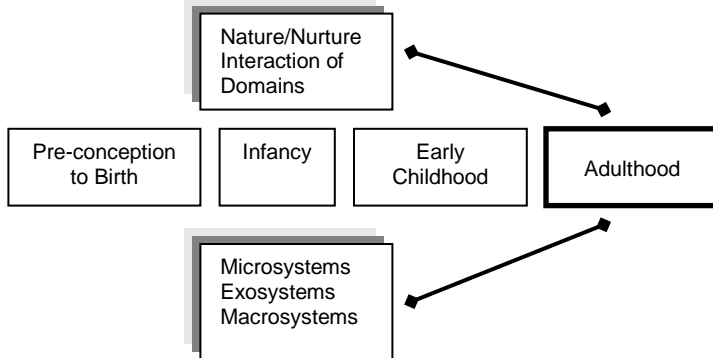
Inadequate families constitute nearly 10 percent of maltreating families. They are so impaired by deep emotional problems or serious cognitive deficiencies that the parents or other caregivers will never be able to meet the needs of their children. For children born into these families, long term adoption, beginning with foster care in infancy, is the best solution (Berger, 2000, pp. 261-262).

What influence does culture have on families?

There have been very few studies of successful families from various ethnic groups. One of the best was done by Douglas Abbott and William Meredith (1988), who compared Caucasian, African American, Mexican American, Hmong, and Native American families. The researchers asked these families to rank various family traits that were derived from earlier studies of successful families. The most agreement across ethnic groups was among the Caucasian, African American, and Mexican American families. The Hmong differed the most from all the other families; their greatest difference was with the Caucasian families. Native American families were somewhat similar to African American and Mexican American families but different from Hmong families. Nevertheless, they were surprised to find generally more agreement than disagreement across the various ethnic groups, although they also identified some important differences. The findings, in order of importance, include:

1. Communicates and listens
2. Trusting and trustworthy
3. Is affirming and supportive
4. Teaches a sense of right and wrong
5. Teaches respect for others
6. Shares leisure time
7. Is responsible for family welfare
8. Has a sense of play and humour
9. Respects privacy of family members
10. Shares religious beliefs
11. Has two parents living at home
12. Values family traditions
13. Seeks help with problems
14. Encourages individuality
15. Financial security
16. Has a base of parental rules
17. Respects elders
18. Shares similar values
19. Allows for negotiation of family rules
20. Values a college education
21. Prays together (Schlesinger, 1998, p. 14).

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



7.5 Action research in adult development

This summary lesson will integrate all of the concepts covered in this unit, by actively engaging students in the design and conduct of research in developmental psychology.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- What are the issues and topics for research in adulthood?

Suggested Research Methods

- Survey
- Naturalistic Observation
- Interview
- Experimental Research
- Case Study
- Topical

- Review/Discussion: The scientific method of research
 - Refer to the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials.
 - Review and discuss the steps in the scientific method of research:
 - Develop a research question
 - Describe the hypothesis
 - Select a research method
- Observation Experiment Interview Case Study Survey Topical
 - Describe the process to be followed
 - Gather the data
 - Analyze the data
 - Report the findings, account for reliability and validity
 - State conclusions in relation to the hypothesis
- Discussion: A comparison of research methods in the social sciences
 - Using the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials, complete the comparison chart of research methods.
 - Invite each student, or group of students, to defend their choice of the most appropriate research method based on their chosen topic.
 - Discuss the many formats for presentation of the data and research findings. Depending on the topic chosen and the research method selected, presentation formats may include written reports, oral presentations, portfolios, role plays and drama activities, three-panel displays, posters, brochures, bulletin board displays, PowerPoint or other computer-based presentation software, web pages, etc.
- Review/Discussion: Issues in social science research
 - Using the six templates supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials (Frequently Asked Questions about interviews, surveys, case studies, observation, experiments and topical research methods), review and discuss the issues and methods for each individual or group research project.
- Discussion: The research process
 - Ensure that each individual or group research project has completed all documentation (The Scientific Method of Research, Permission to Conduct Research) before commencing the research.

Resources

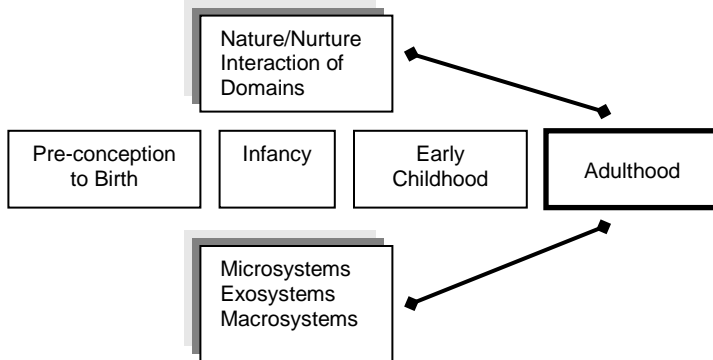
- Curriculum Support Materials: Scientific Method of Research
- Curriculum Support Materials: Permission to Conduct Research Form
- Curriculum Support Materials: A Comparison Chart For Research Methods
- Curriculum Support Materials: Frequently Asked Questions: Interviews, Surveys, Case Studies, Naturalistic Observation, Experiments and Topical

Lesson 7.5: Suggested Research Topics and Methods

Type of Research	Suggested Research Topics
<p>Survey</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conducting research using a survey involves going out and asking questions about the phenomenon of interest. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What does it take to stay young in today's society? At what age are you "old"? Should retirement be mandatory at a certain age? If so, at what age? How would you describe or define intimacy? What is beauty? What is love? What leisure activities do you engage in? What qualities do you admire in a friend? Spouse? Partner? What attracts you to the opposite sex? Moral dilemmas: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Is it right to steal life-saving medicines that could save the life of a family member? Is it right to tell the police if you know that a friend has committed a crime? If you found a large sum of money in an unmarked envelope, should you keep it? Do you support euthanasia? What qualities do you admire in a leader? Do you believe in God? Heaven? Hell? Life after death? Who are your heroes? If you could be anyone in the world, who would you be?
<p>Naturalistic Observation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> In naturalistic research, the observer does not intervene at all. For all intents and purposes, the researcher is invisible and works hard not to interrupt the natural dynamics of the situation being investigated. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> How did you develop your parenting skills and styles? What are the differences between adult males and females? What are adult's television programming preferences? How do adults cope with stressful situations? How are senior citizens defined and described? How are senior citizens represented in the media?
<p>Interview</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The interview method of research, typically, involves a face-to-face meeting in which a researcher (interviewer) asks an individual a series of questions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What is it like to be an adult? What are your perspectives on spirituality and religion? What stereotypes do you face in society? What are the issues and challenges you face as an adult? What are the stressors in your life? What resiliency/coping skills have you developed? What was it like to be 18 when you were young? Why did you choose your career? As a senior, what are the issues and challenges you face in retirement? What parenting styles and strategies do your parents use in raising teenagers? What does it take to make a marriage work? What are the rules in your (married, personal, career, business, social, family) relationships? What are your views on spirituality and religion and how they have developed? What influences you the most? What values do most respect? How did your values and beliefs develop? What were the greatest influences on your values and belief system? How has the role of women changed in society?

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are the greatest issues, challenges and benefits of being an adult? • What guiding principles do you live by?
<p>Experimental Research</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Experimental researchers take care to create an environment in which they can make causal statements. They manipulate variables, randomly assign participants to various conditions, and seek to control other influences that could affect their research. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How do viral infections and exchanging bodily fluids threaten our health?
<p>Topical</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A topical research study involves the acquisition, synthesis, organization, and presentation of information. Typically, the topical research study will involve both paper based as well as web-based resources. Additional information may be gained through the other research methods and strategies. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Research one of the following topics: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Entrance requirements for post-secondary education ○ Your family's genealogy ○ The Canadian Charter of Human Rights and Freedoms
<p>Case Study</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A case study is an intensive study of one individual. Typically, the case study is based on interviews with the subject regarding his or her background, present thinking or actions; it may also utilize interviews of others who know the individual. Additional case study material may be obtained through observation, experiments, and standardized tests such as personality inventories and intelligence tests. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Research one of the following topics: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Historical leaders and their leadership qualities and skills ○ Social activists ○ Renowned artists (art, sculpture, music, dance, theatre, film) ○ Renowned writers, poets, composers ○ Renowned political leaders ○ Renowned inventors

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



7.6 Perspectives on adult development

In this summary lesson, we consider how the lifespan approach to human development can be used as a lens through which we can view adult development.

Looking through the eyes of the systems of support ...

Lesson Objectives

- How is adult development described from the perspective of the lifespan approach?
- How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to adult development?
- How would each of the six theoretical perspectives on human development explain adult development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Think-Pair-Share: Lifespan approach
 - Using the Think-Pair-Share instructional strategy, direct the students to provide examples of how the lifespan approach helps describe the process of adult development.
- Discussion/Group activity: Key issues and questions
 - Using the four key issues and questions found in the Teacher Information section, discuss the key questions as they relate to adult development. Break the class into four groups or conduct the discussion with the whole class.
- Jigsaw: Theoretical perspectives on adult development
 - Divide the class into six groups, and assign one of the six theoretical perspectives to each group.
 - Direct each group to support its perspective on human development with specific examples from the information provided in the unit. What evidence can group members find to support their theoretical perspective?
 - Each group will then present its theoretical perspective on adult development.
 - Synthesize the findings and examples from each group. Create a comparison chart to compare the results.

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: The Lifespan Perspective on Human Development
- Curriculum Support Materials: Theoretical Perspectives on Human Development

Lesson 7.6: Teacher Information

How is adult development described from the perspective of the lifespan approach?

The lifespan perspective on human development has seven basic characteristics. Development is:

- Life-long
 - No age period dominates development.
- Multi-dimensional
 - Development consists of biological, cognitive, socioemotional and spiritual dimensions.
- Multidirectional
 - Some aspects of development increase, while others decrease.
- Plastic
 - Depending on the individual's life conditions, development may take many paths.
- Historically-embedded
 - Development is influenced by historical conditions.
- Multidisciplinary
 - Psychologists, sociologists, anthropologists, neuroscientists and medical researchers all study human development and share a concern for unlocking the mysteries of development throughout the lifespan.
- Contextual
 - The individual continually responds to and acts on contexts, which include a person's biological makeup, physical environment, and social, historical, and cultural contexts (Santrock, 1999, p. 10).

How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to adult development?

From the time of its establishment, several key issues and questions have dominated the field of developmental psychology. Among these issues are the nature of developmental change, the importance of critical periods, lifespan approaches versus the more focused approaches, and the nature-nurture issue.

- **Continuous change versus discontinuous change:** In continuous change, developmental change is gradual, with achievements at one level building on those of previous levels. In contrast, discontinuous change occurs in distinct

stages or steps. Each stage brings about behaviour that is assumed to be qualitatively different from behaviour at earlier stages.

- A **critical period** is a specific time during development when a particular event has its greatest consequences. Critical periods occur when the presence of certain kinds of environmental stimuli are necessary for development to proceed normally.
- **Lifespan approaches versus a focus on a particular period:** Developmentalists now believe the entire lifespan is important, for several reasons. One is the discovery that developmental growth and change continue during every part of life. Furthermore, to understand fully the social influences on people of a given age, we need to understand the people who are in large measure providing those influences. For instance, to understand development in infants, we need to unravel the effects of their parents' ages on the social environment.
- **Nature versus Nurture:** One of the enduring questions of development involves how much of people's behaviour is due to their genetically-determined nature and how much is due to nurture, the physical and social environment in which a child is raised. In this context, **nature** refers to traits, abilities and capacities that are inherited from one's parents. Nature encompasses any factor that is produced by the predetermined unfolding of genetic information - a process known as maturation. These genetic, inherited influences are at work as we move from the one-celled organism that is created at the moment of conception to the billions of cells that make up a fully-formed human being. In contrast **nurture** refers to the environmental influences that shape behaviour. Some of these influences may be biological, such as the impact of a pregnant mother's substance abuse on the fetus, or the amount and kind of food available to children. Other environmental influences are more social, such as the ways parents discipline their children and the effects of peer pressure on adolescents (Feldman, 2000, p. 10).

How would each of the six theoretical perspectives on human development explain adult development?

Lifespan development has produced a number of broad conceptual perspectives representing different approaches to development. Each broad perspective encompasses a number of theories, explanations and predictions concerning

phenomena of interest. A theory provides a framework for understanding the relationships among an organized set of principles or facts. The six major theoretical perspectives include:

- **Psychodynamic Perspective: Focusing on the inner person.** Rooted in Freud's theory, the psychodynamic approach maintains that all behaviour and mental processes reflect the constant and mostly unconscious psychological struggles that rage silently within each person. Usually, these struggles involve conflict between the impulse to satisfy instincts or wishes and the need to play by the rules in society. Anxiety, depression and other disorders are outward signs of this inner turmoil (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).
- **The Behavioural Perspective: Considering the outer person.** As founded by John Watson, the behavioural approach views behaviour and mental processes as primarily the result of learning. Psychologists who take this approach see rewards and punishment acting on the raw materials provided by genes, evolution and biology to shape each individual. So, whether considering a person's aggression or drug abuse, behaviourists would look at that person's learning history. Since people learn problem behaviours, they can also learn to change or even prevent them by unlearning old habits and developing new ones (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).
- **The Cognitive Perspective: Examining the roots of understanding.** The cognitive perspective focuses on how people take in, mentally represent and store information. Cognitive psychologists then relate perception and information processing to patterns of behaviour. They study such areas as decision-making, problem-solving, interpersonal attraction and intelligence. Aggression, for instance, might be viewed as a result of poor problem solving (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).
- **The Humanistic Perspective: Concentrating on the unique qualities of human beings.** According to the humanistic approach, our capacity to choose how to think and act determines our behaviour. Each person's unique perceptions – not instincts, cognitive processes, or rewards and punishments – dictate the choices made. Humanistic psychologists believe that people are essentially good, that they are in control of themselves, and that they seek to grow toward their highest potential (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 12).
- **The Evolutionary Perspective: Focusing on biology as the determinant of development.** Darwin's ideas on evolution and adaptation of species laid the foundation for the evolutionary approach. The evolutionary approach to psychology holds that the behaviour of animals and humans today is the result of evolution through natural selection. Psychologists who follow this approach are concerned with the adaptive value of behaviour, the anatomy and biology that make it possible and the environmental conditions that encourage or discourage it (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 11).
- **The Sociocultural Perspective: Emphasizing the systems of support.** Calling attention to the external influences on human behaviour such as the physical surroundings and social interactions that provide incentives, opportunities and pathways for growth, Urie Bronfenbrenner (1979) began to emphasize the ecological approach to the study of human development. In Bronfenbrenner's application of this concept, human ecosystems include both the physical environment (the climate, the space per person, that arrangement of the dwelling) and the social environment (the people, the culture, the economy) (Berger, 2000, p. 4).

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Curriculum Support Materials

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Endless Possibilities

In every child who is born, under
no matter what circumstances,
and of no matter what parents,
the potentiality of the human race
is born again.

James Agee

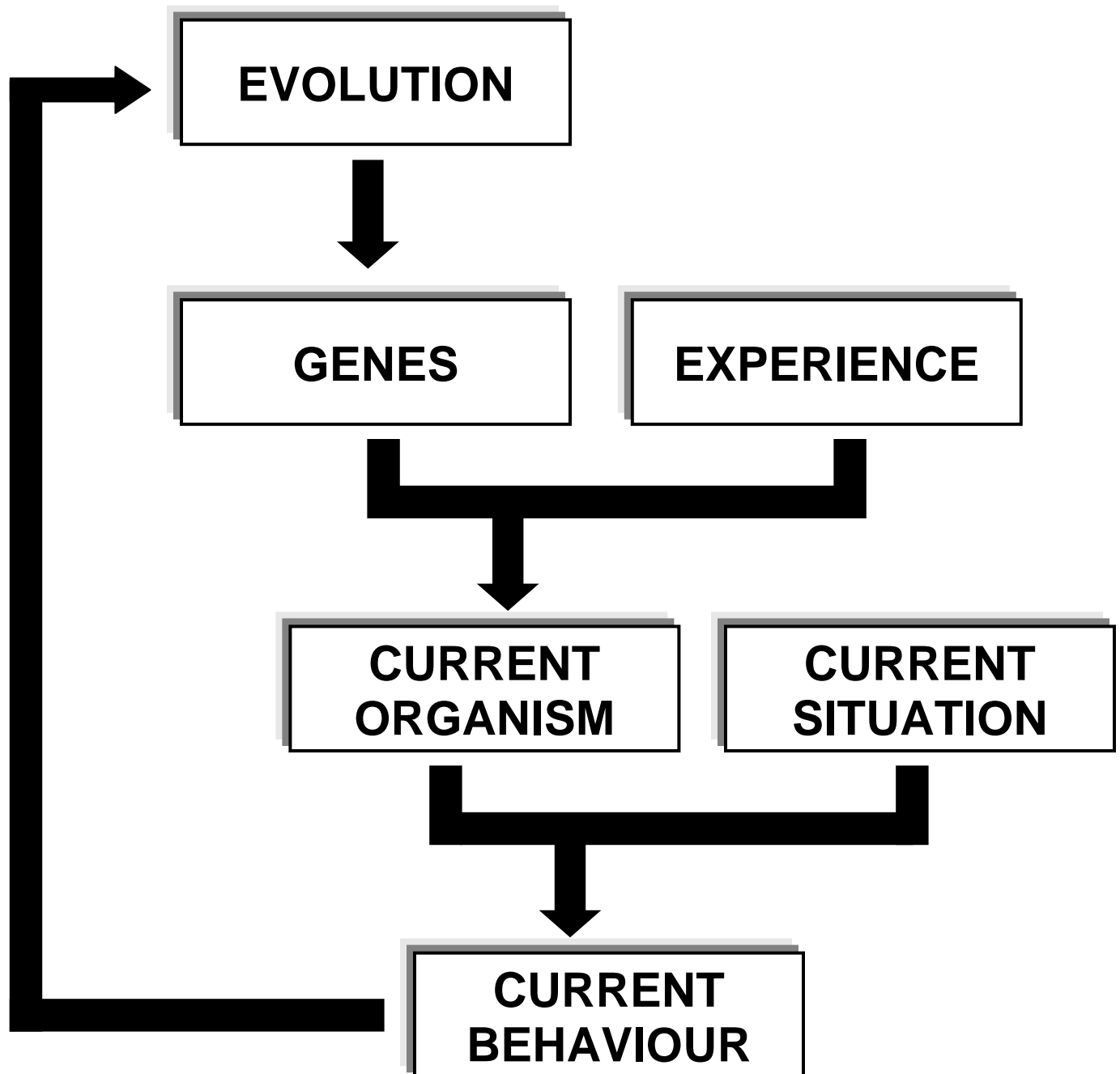
The Lifespan Perspective on Human Development

Development is:

- **Life-long**
 - No age period dominates development.
- **Multi-dimensional**
 - Development consists of biological, cognitive, socioemotional and spiritual dimensions.
- **Multidirectional**
 - Some aspects of development increase, while others decrease.
- **Plastic**
 - Depending on the individual's life conditions, development may take many paths.
- **Historically-embedded**
 - Development is influenced by historical conditions.
- **Multidisciplinary**
 - Psychologists, sociologists, anthropologists, neuroscientists and medical researchers all study human development and share a concern for unlocking the mysteries of development throughout the lifespan.
- **Contextual**
 - The individual continually responds to and acts on contexts, which include a person's biological makeup, physical environment, and social, historical, and cultural contexts.

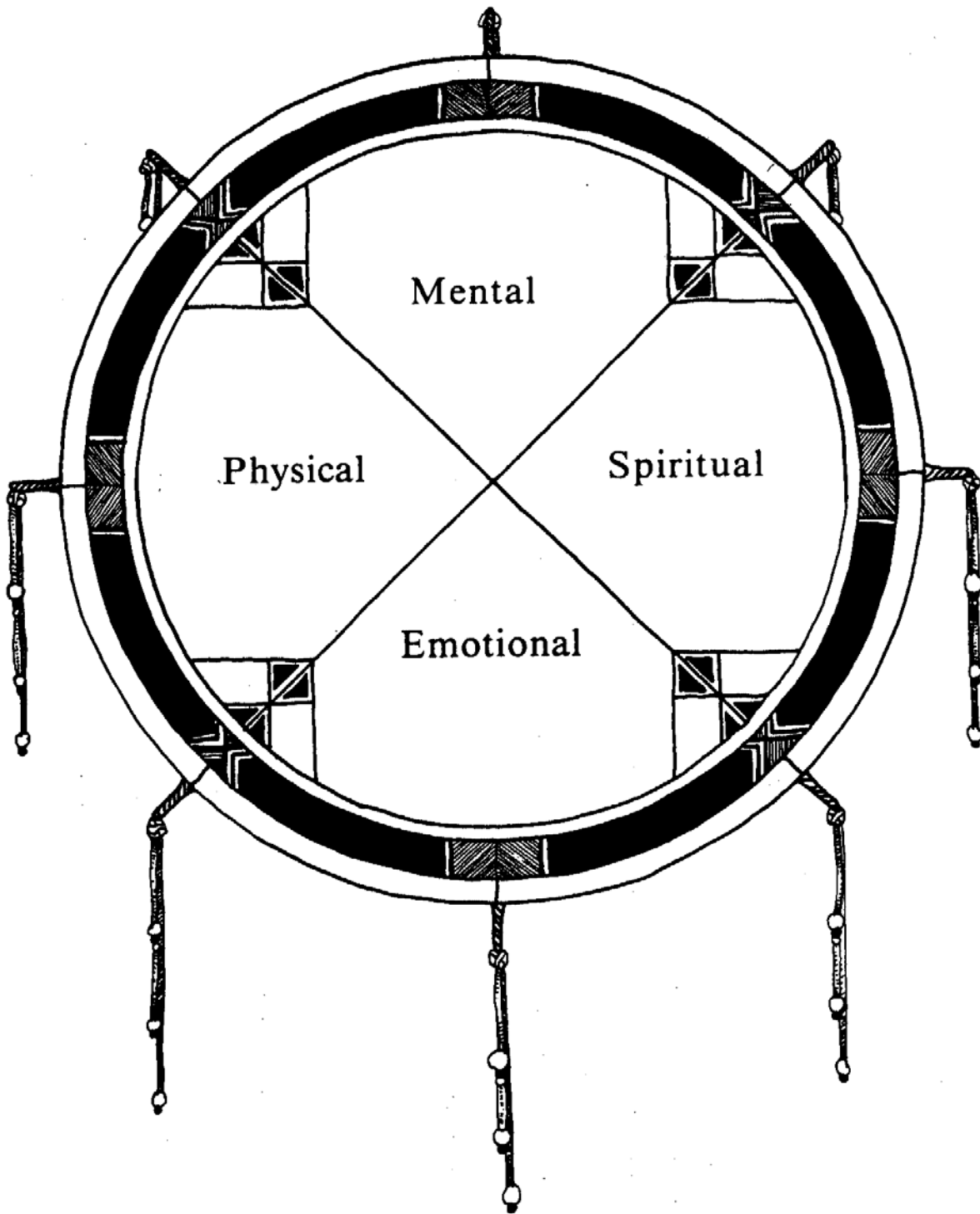
Source: Santrock, 1999.

Nature/Nurture and Human Development



Source: Pinel, P.J. (2000). *Biopsychology* (4th Edition). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

The Medicine Wheel



Source: Bopp, J., Bopp, M., Brown, L., & Lane, P. (1985). *The sacred tree*. Lethbridge AB: Four Worlds International Institute for Human and Community Development. Used by Permission.

Theoretical Perspectives on Human Development

Psychodynamic Perspective: Focusing on the inner person.

Advocates of the psychodynamic perspective believe that behaviour is motivated by inner forces, memories and conflicts that are generally beyond people's awareness and control.

- **Freud's psychoanalytic theory** suggests that unconscious forces act to determine personality and behaviour. To Freud, the unconscious is a part of the personality about which a person is unaware. It contains infantile wishes, desires, demands and needs that are hidden, because of their disturbing nature, from conscious awareness. Freud suggested that the unconscious is responsible for a good part of our everyday behaviour. According to Freud, one's personality has three aspects: the id, the ego and the superego.
- **Erikson's psychosocial theory** suggests that developmental change occurs throughout our lives in eight distinct stages. The stages emerge in a fixed pattern and are similar for all people. Erikson argues that each stage presents a crisis or conflict that the individual must resolve. Although no crisis is ever fully resolved, making life increasingly complicated, the individual must at least address the crisis of each stage sufficiently to deal with demands made during the next stage of development.

The Cognitive Perspective: Examining the roots of understanding.

The cognitive perspective focuses on the processes that allow people to know, understand and think about the world. The cognitive perspective emphasizes how people internally represent and think about the world. By using this perspective, developmental psychologists hope to understand how children and adults process information, and how their ways of thinking and understanding affect their behaviour.

- No single person has had a greater impact on the study of cognitive development than **Jean Piaget**. He proposed that all people pass in a fixed sequence through a series of universal stages of cognitive development. In each stage, he suggested that not only did the quantity of information increase, but so did the quality of knowledge and understanding. Piaget suggests that the growth in children's understanding of the world can be explained by two basic principles. **Assimilation** is the process in which people understand an experience in terms of their current state of cognitive development and way of thinking. In contrast, **accommodation** refers to changes in existing ways of thinking in response to encounters with new stimuli or events.
- Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky's **sociocultural theory** proposes that a full understanding of development is impossible without taking into account the culture in which children develop. Sociocultural theory proposes that children's understanding of the world is acquired through their problem-solving interactions with adults and other children. As children play and cooperate with others, they learn what is important in their society, and at the same time, advance cognitively in their understanding of the world.

The Behavioural Perspective: Considering the outer person.

The behavioural perspective suggests that the keys to understanding development are observable behaviour and outside stimuli in the environment. If we know the stimuli, we can predict the behaviour. Behavioural theories reject the notion that individuals universally pass through a series of stages. Instead, people are assumed to be affected by the environmental stimuli to which they happen to be exposed. Developmental patterns, then, are personal, reflecting a particular set of environmental stimuli, and development is the result of continuing exposure to specific factors in the environment.

- John B. Watson and B.F. Skinner's theories of **classical and operant conditioning** hold that all behaviour is learned as a response to external stimuli. Classical conditioning occurs when an organism learns to respond in a particular way to a neutral stimulus that normally does not evoke that type of response. For example, Russian psychologist Ivan Pavlov found that if a dog is repeatedly exposed to the pairing of two stimuli, such as the sound of a bell and the presentation of meat, it may learn to react to the sound of the bell alone in the same way it reacts to the presentation of meat. In operant conditioning, Skinner demonstrated that individuals learn to act deliberately on their environments in order to bring about desired consequences. In a sense, then, people operate on their environment in order to bring about a desired state of affairs. Reinforcement is the process by which a stimulus is provided that increases the probability that a preceding behaviour will be repeated. In addition, punishment will decrease the probability that the preceding behaviour will occur in the future.
- According to **social-cognitive learning theorist** Albert Bandura, when we see the behaviour of a model being rewarded, we are likely to imitate that behaviour. Behaviour is learned through observation and imitation, not conditioning through reinforcement or punishment.

The Humanistic Perspective: Concentrating on the unique qualities of human beings.

Rejecting the notion that development is largely determined by unconscious processes, by learning from our environment, or by rational cognitive processing, the humanistic perspective contends that people have a natural tendency to make decisions about their lives and control their behaviour. The humanistic perspective emphasizes free will, the ability of humans to make choices and come to decisions about their lives.

- **Carl Rogers** suggested that all people have a need for positive regard that results from an underlying wish to be loved and respected. Because it is other people who provide this positive regard, we become dependent on them. Consequently, our view of ourselves and our self-worth is a reflection of how we think others view us.
- **Abraham Maslow** suggests that self-actualization is a primary goal in life. Self-actualization is a state of self-fulfillment in which people achieve their highest potential in their own unique way (Feldman, 2000).

The Sociocultural Perspective: Emphasizing the systems of support.

The Ecological model, the major proponent of which is Urie Bronfenbrenner, seeks to explain individual knowledge, development, and competencies in terms of the guidance, support, and structure provided by society and to explain social change over time in terms of the cumulative effect of individual choices (Berger, 2000).

- According to **Urie Bronfenbrenner**, each person is significantly affected by interactions among a number of overlapping ecosystems. At the center of the model is the individual. Microsystems are the systems that intimately and immediately shape human development. The primary **microsystems** for children include the family, peer group, classroom, neighbourhood, and sometimes a church, temple, or mosque as well. Interactions among the microsystems, as when parents and teachers coordinate their efforts to educate the child, take place through the **mesosystem**. Surrounding the microsystems is the **exosystem**, which includes all the external networks, such as community structures and local educational, medical, employment, and communications systems, that influence the microsystems. And influencing all other systems is the **macrosystem**, which includes cultural values, political philosophies, economic patterns, and social conditions. Together, these systems are termed the social context of human development (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, quoted in Berger, 2000).

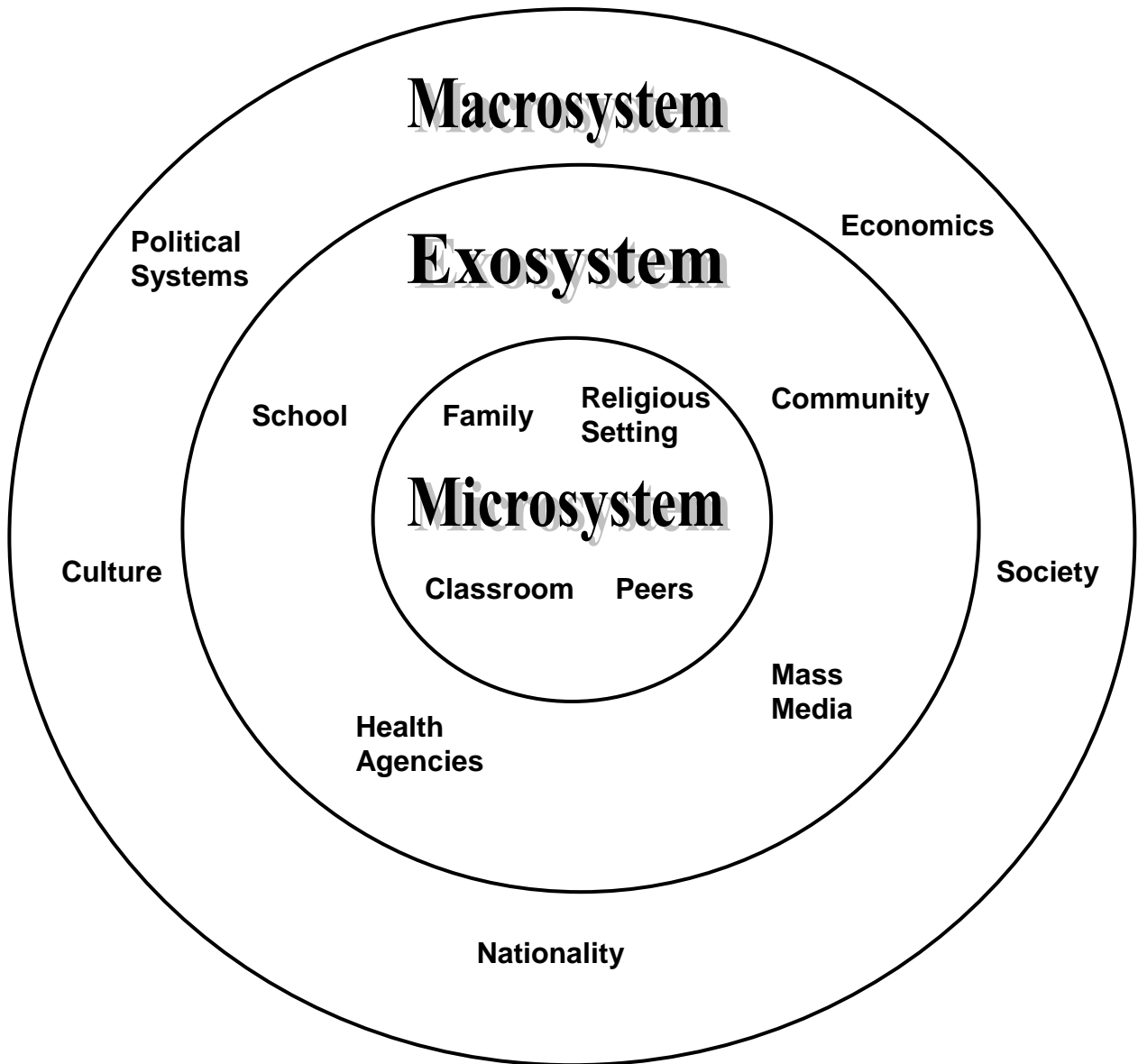
The Evolutionary Perspective: Focusing on biology as the determinant of development.

The Ethological Theory stresses that behaviour is strongly influenced by biology, is tied to evolution, and is characterized by critical or sensitive periods (Santrock, 1999). Evolutionary approaches grow out of the groundbreaking work of Charles Darwin.

- **Konrad Lorenz** discovered that newborn geese are genetically preprogrammed to become attached to the first moving object they see after birth. His work, which demonstrated the importance of biological determinants in influencing behaviour patterns, ultimately led developmentalists to consider the ways in which human behaviour might reflect inborn genetic patterns.
- The evolutionary perspective encompasses one of the fastest growing areas within the field of lifespan development, **behavioural genetics**. Behavioural genetics studies the effects of heredity and genetics on behaviour. As technology improves, and researchers continue to map the human genome, there is an increasing understanding of the role and function of the genetic codes and their influence on development.

The Ecological Model of Human Behaviour

Urie Bronfenbrenner (1979)



Research Methods: Interview

What is the interview method of research?

The interview method of research, typically, involves a face-to-face meeting in which a researcher (interviewer) asks an individual a series of questions.

What do I need to consider when doing interviews?

- Prepare your interview questions in advance, and share them with the participant(s).
- Tape record, or videotape record the interview.
- Do not be afraid to ask questions if they arise during the interview, even if you did not have them listed before the interview.
- After the interview, you will need to transcribe (copy) exactly what was said during the interview. This can be a very slow and time-consuming process, but it is critical that you copy exactly what was said.
- After you have copied out the interview, replay the interview again and compare it to your notes. Make any corrections necessary.
- Share the written copy of the interview with the participant to make sure that they agree with, and affirm, the contents of the interview.

What are the issues, or concerns in conducting interviews?

- Completeness: Did you record the interview and transcribe the interview exactly as recorded?
- Accuracy: Did you miss anything? Did you record it in written form exactly as was said by the participant?
- Bias: Did you “add” to what you observed by presuming or assuming something that was not stated directly by the participant?
- Accuracy: Would someone else who had not interviewed the participant be able to get a clear, correct picture of what was discussed by reading your notes?
- Confidentiality: Did you ask permission for the interview, and is the participant aware of the purpose and intended audience of the interview?

What materials will I need?

- Journal, note paper, writing materials
- Tape recorder, videotape recorder
- List of interview questions prepared beforehand.

Research Methods: Survey

What is the survey method of research?

Conducting research using a survey involves going out and asking questions about the phenomenon of interest.

What do I need to consider when doing surveys?

- Prepare your survey questions in advance, and share them with your teacher so that they can be checked for accuracy and correctness.
- If you are needing additional respondent information such as age, occupation or gender, be sure to include those questions on the survey.
- Who is your sample? Will you be getting the kind of information you need from the people you are questioning?
- Is your sample size large enough? What sample size is appropriate?
- Is your sample representative of the general population? Does it represent a balance between male and female? Do you need to sample a particular age group or will a general survey be alright?
- When will you be conducting your survey? How long will you be surveying? Will time lapse make a difference?
- How will the respondents answer? Will they record their responses on separate sheets of paper or will you ask them the questions and then record their responses?
- How will you present your findings? Will you convert the answers to a percentage? Will you be constructing a bar graph or a pie chart?
- If you are considering other factors such as age or gender, then you will need to go through the responses again after you have completed the survey, based on those criteria.

What are the issues, or concerns in conducting surveys?

- Do the survey questions address the research question?
- Are the survey questions clear?
- Is the sample size of respondents large enough?
- Have I surveyed a representative sample?
- Apart from factors such as age, occupation and gender, are the respondents anonymous?
- Is time a factor? How long should I survey? If I surveyed over a longer time period would that affect the results?
- Are there other sources against which I could compare the survey results? For example, [Taking The Pulse](#), or [Reader's Digest Surveys](#)?

What materials will I need?

- Survey questions, response forms
- Access to online resources.

Research Methods: Case Study

What is the case study method of research?

A case study is an intensive study of one individual. Typically, the case study may involve interviews, observation, experiments and tests.

What do I need to consider when doing case studies?

- Prepare your research questions in advance. What kinds of information do you want to know?
- Consider many different forms of information sources: online websites, paper-based sources such as encyclopedias, journals, magazines, newspapers, etc.
- If the case study is of a person who can be interviewed, review the following:
 - Prepare your interview questions in advance, and share them with the participant(s).
 - Tape record, or videotape the interview.
 - Do not be afraid to ask questions if they arise during the interview, even if you did not have them listed before the interview.
 - After the interview, you will need to transcribe (copy) exactly what was said during the interview. This can be a very slow, and timing consuming process, but it is critical that you copy exactly what was said.
 - After you have copied out the interview, replay the interview again and compare it to your notes. Make any corrections necessary.
 - Share the written copy of the interview with the participants to make sure that they agree with, and affirm the contents of the interview.
- Case studies may also include observational research, experiments and tests. Consider what other types of research are appropriate.

What are the issues, or concerns in conducting case studies?

- Completeness of information recorded is critical to gain a complete understanding of the accuracy of the case study. Have I checked every conceivable resource for information?
- Because of the variety of information sources, be sure that you have reviewed all of the issues or concerns for each of the research types.
- Guard against bias. Did I “add” to what I observed by presuming or assuming something that was not written about, spoken by or observed of the person?
- Would someone else who had not studied the participant be able to get a clear, correct picture of what was discussed by reading your report?
- Ensure confidentiality. Be sure you have asked the participants for their permission to be studied, and that they are aware of the purpose and intended audience of the case study report.

What materials will I need?

- Journal, note paper, writing materials
- Tape recorder, videotape recorder
- List of interview questions prepared beforehand
- Access to online resources.

Research Methods: Naturalistic Observation

What is the naturalistic observational method of research?

In naturalistic observational research the observer does not intervene at all. The researcher is invisible and works hard not to interrupt the natural dynamics of the situation being investigated.

What do I need to consider when doing observational research?

- Try to be “invisible”, do not get involved in the dynamics of the situation.
- Use all of your senses, not just your sense of vision. Record the sounds, smells and tastes (if applicable).
- Record your impressions and feelings. How do you feel while observing? Were you frightened, surprised, anxious, amused, excited? Relate what you were feeling to what you were observing.
- Record the context of the situation: place, time, participants, numbers of participants, gender of participants, etc.
- Record what you were thinking during the observation. Did the situation remind you of something similar? Had you experienced something similar. What do you think the participants were thinking about while you were observing?
- Record all of your information in a journal. Use shorthand or abbreviations if necessary.

What are the issues, or concerns in conducting observational research?

- Completeness of information recorded is critical to gain a complete understanding of the dynamics of the situation.
- Accuracy of the information recorded is crucial. Did you miss anything? Did you record it exactly as you observed it?
- Avoid bias. Did I “add” to what I observed by presuming or assuming something that did not exist?
- Would someone else who had not observed the same thing be able to get a clear, correct picture of what you observed by reading your notes?
- Respect confidentiality. Be sure not to name people or places in your presentation of the information. You have not asked participants for their permission to conduct research, and so therefore they have the right to remain anonymous. Refer to the general situation; for example, a school playground, an urban mall, a farm, a family gathering, etc.
- Videotaping, audiotaping or taking photographs of the situation is infringing on the participant's rights to privacy. Use only your written notes.

What materials will I need?

- Journal, note paper, writing materials

Research Methods: Experiments

What is the experimental method of research?

Experimental researchers manipulate variables, randomly assign participants to various conditions and seek to control other influences.

What do I need to consider when doing experiments?

- Experimental research in psychology involves defining a research problem, describing a hypothesis, describing the process to be followed, gathering data, analyzing the data, reporting the findings, and stating conclusions in relation to the hypothesis.
- Prepare your experiment in advance. Practise your procedure. Be sure that you have all of the materials necessary to conduct the experiment.
- Seek permission to conduct research. Does the participant(s) know that you are conducting an experiment? Do you have his/her **written** permission?
- Is the experiment safe? Will the participants suffer any physical, mental or emotional anguish? If so, do not perform the experiment.
- Discuss the experiment with your teacher. Your teacher will be able to guide and assist you to ensure that the experimental procedure is correct, complete and valid.
- Audiotape or videotape the experiment. This will help in data analysis, as well as provide some additional information that may be of value when interpreting the data.

What are the issues, or concerns in conducting experiments?

- Ethics of the experiment: Is the experiment appropriate? Is the experiment safe?
- Bias: Did I “add” to the test results by presuming or assuming something that was not written about, spoken by or observed during the experiment?
- Confidentiality: Be sure you have asked participants for their permission to be studied, and that they are aware of the purpose and intended audience of the results of the experiment.

What materials will I need?

- Journal, note paper, writing materials
- Tape recorder, videotape recorder
- List of materials needed, prepared beforehand
- Written permission forms.

Research Methods: Topical

What is the topical method of research?

A topical research project involves the acquisition, synthesis, organization and presentation of information.

What do I need to consider when doing topical research?

- Prepare your research questions in advance: What kinds of information do you want to know?
- Consider many different forms of information sources: online websites, paper-based sources such as encyclopedias, journals, magazines, newspapers, etc.
- If the topical research involves a person who can be interviewed, review the following:
 - Prepare your interview questions in advance, and share them with the participant(s).
 - Tape record or videotape record the interview.
 - Do not be afraid to ask questions if they arise during the interview, even if you did not have them listed before the interview.
 - After the interview, you will need to transcribe (copy) exactly what was said during the interview. This can be a very slow, and timing consuming process, but it is critical that you copy exactly what was said.
 - After you have copied out the interview, replay the interview again and compare it to your notes. Make any corrections necessary.
 - Share the written copy of the interview with the participant to make sure that he/she agrees with, and affirms the contents of the interview.
- Topical research studies may also include observational research, experiments and tests. Consider what other types of research are appropriate.

What are the issues, or concerns in conducting topical research studies?

- Completeness of information recorded is critical to gain a complete understanding of the topic. Have I checked every conceivable resource for information?
- Because of the variety of information sources, be sure that you have reviewed all of the issues or concerns for each of the research types.
- Avoid bias. Did I “add” to what I observed by presuming or assuming something that was not written about, spoken by or observed during the research?
- Would someone else who had not researched the topic be able to get a clear, correct picture of what the topic was all about by reading your report?
- Ensure confidentiality. If you have interviewed or studied individuals connected with the topic, be sure you have asked for their permission to be studied. Ensure that they are aware of the purpose and intended audience of your study.

What materials will I need?

- Journal, note paper, writing materials
- Tape recorder, videotape recorder
- List of interview questions prepared beforehand
- Access to online resources.

Psychology Squares! Game #1

Points	Embryonic Development	Critical Periods	Reproductive Technologies	Teratogens	Heredity/ Genetics
100	The period of prenatal development that occurs from two to eight weeks after conception.	The last trimester of pregnancy is critical for brain development	In vitro fertilization is the procedure by which ova are surgically removed from the ovaries, fertilized by sperm in the laboratory, and allowed to divide until the 16 or 32 cell stage.	Teratogens are the broad range of substances (such as drugs and pollutants) and conditions (such as severe malnutrition and extreme stress) that increase the risk of prenatal abnormalities.	The construction of a human requires an estimated 30,000 genes.
200	The embryo's endoderm , the inner layer of cells, primarily produces internal body parts such as the respiratory and digestive systems.	In terms of the mother's age, two time periods are of special interest: adolescence and the thirties and beyond .	Gamete intrafallopian transfer (GIFT) . A doctor inserts eggs and sperm directly into a woman's fallopian tube.	Generally, male embryos (XY) and fetuses are at a greater risk in that more are more often aborted spontaneously.	If the DNA in a single human cell could be unraveled it would form a single thread about 1.5 metres and about 127 trillionths of a centimetre thick.
300	The middle layer of cells, called the mesoderm , will become the circulatory system, bones, muscle, excretory system, and reproductive system.	The greatest damage to the fetus from the mother contracting German measles (rubella) occurs during the third and fourth weeks of pregnancy.	Artificial insemination . Frozen sperm, that of the husband or an unknown donor, is placed directly into the uterus bypassing the cervix and upper vagina.	Fetal alcohol syndrome is a cluster of abnormalities that appear in the offspring of mothers who drink alcohol heavily during pregnancy.	Humans have 23 pairs of chromosomes.
400	The outer layer of cells, the ectoderm will become the nervous system, the sensory receptors (eyes, nose, and ears) and skin.	Tranquilizers taken during the first three months may cause cleft palate or other congenital malformations.	Zygote intrafallopian transfer . This involves a two-step procedure. First, eggs are fertilized in the laboratory. Then, any resulting zygotes are transferred to a fallopian tube.	Fetal and neonatal deaths are higher among smoking mothers .	Twenty-two of the pairs of chromosomes are the same in both men and women. These are called autosomes .
500	The heartbeat commences in the third week following conception.	Maternal smoking early in pregnancy increases the risk of abnormalities, including malformations of the limbs and the urinary tract.	The success rate for in vitro fertilization is just under 20 percent.	Three or more drinks daily, or binge drinking of five or more drinks on one occasion early in pregnancy causes fetal alcohol syndrome .	The father determines the gender of the child.

Psychology Squares! Game #2

Points	Prenatal Development	Sociocultural Influences	Germinal Period	Genetic Testing and Disorders	Interesting Facts
100	There are three developmental stages in prenatal development.	The three systems of support based on the ecological model include the microsystem , the exosystem and the macrosystem levels.	The germinal period lasts for two weeks .	Amniocentesis is a prenatal medical procedure performed between the 12 th and 16 th weeks of pregnancy in which a sample of amniotic fluid is withdrawn by syringe.	Every individual is born with a distinct, genetically-based set of psychological tendencies or dispositions. These tendencies are called temperament .
200	In sequence the prenatal developmental stages are the germinal , embryonic , and fetal .	At the microsystem level, the influences include the mother, father, family, peers, and the religious setting.	Approximately one week after conception the zygote is composed of 100 to 150 cells.	Ultrasound sonography is a prenatal medical procedure in which high frequency sound waves are directed into the pregnant woman's abdomen to produce an image of the fetus.	About 10 percent of young infants can be described as being difficult .
300	The germinal period of development is the first two weeks of development.	At the exosystem level, the influences include the community, health agencies, school, and the mass media.	The blastocyst is the inner layer of cells that later develop into the embryo.	The chorionic villus test is a prenatal medical procedure in which a small sample of the placenta is removed at some point between the 8 th and the 11 th week of pregnancy.	A caesarian section is the surgical removal of the baby from the uterus.
400	The embryonic period is the period of prenatal development that occurs from two to eight weeks after conception.	At the macrosystem level, the influences include the culture, nationality, economic status, political climate, and the society.	The trophoblast is the outer layers of cells that later provides nutrition and support for the embryo.	The maternal blood test is a prenatal diagnostic technique that is used to assess neural tube defects.	Generally, the European nations have the lowest incidence of low birth weight.
500	The fetal period is the period of development that begins two months after conception and lasts for seven months, on the average.	Maternal stress, psychological problems, loneliness, and poor housing correlate with prenatal complications.	Implantation of the zygote into the uterine wall takes place about 10 days after conception.	Genetic engineering is the alteration of an organism's genetic instructions through the insertion of additional genes.	The construction of a human requires an estimated 30,000 genes.

Psychology Squares! Game #3

Points	Heredity/Genetics	Cognitive Development	Fetal Development	Interesting Facts	Labour/Delivery
100	Heredity is the process of transmitting biological traits from parent to offspring through genes , the basic units of heredity.	The blood circulation system and the nervous system are the first to function in embryonic life.	Fetal development begins at the eighth week of pregnancy.	The Role Exchange Test, The Universal Consequences Test and The New Cases Test are methods of moral testing .	There are three stages during labour and delivery.
200	Characteristics that we inherit through heredity include hair colour, skin colour, height, weight, and temperament .	By the second month an avoidance reaction occurs if an unpleasant stimulus is applied to the embryonic upper lip.	Three months after conception the fetus is 10 centimetres long and weighs approximately 60 grams.	In humans, genetic engineering involves adding normal genes, either directly via a blood transfusion or bone marrow transplant or directly into a cluster of cells.	For a woman having her first child, the first stage, the longest, lasts an average of 12 to 24 hours .
300	A gene is a section of a DNA molecule that carries information for the construction of a protein or part of a protein.	Before birth it appears that genes predominantly direct how the brain establishes basic wiring patterns.	At four months a growth spurt occurs in the fetus' lower parts.	Fifty-eight percent of all developing organisms fail to grow or implant properly and thus do not survive the germinal period.	The second stage begins when the baby's head starts to move through the cervix and the birth canal .
400	The scientists who mapped the human genome were Francis Collins and J. Craig Venter .	The most remarkable fetal learning involves hearing .	By the end of the sixth month the eyes and eyelids have completely formed, a grasping reflex is present and irregular breathing occurs.	The human brain holds about 100 billion nerve cells or neurons.	Afterbirth is the third stage. At this time the placenta, umbilical cord, and other membranes are detached and expelled.
500	Genes are blueprints for the assembly and regulation of proteins that are the body's building blocks.	The human brain holds about 100 billion nerve cells or neurons.	During the 28th week, if born, the baby could survive. At this point the baby is adding fat, looks old, wrinkled and has primitive breathing movements.	In terms of brain size, men have the largest brains.	The Lamaze method , a widely used childbirth strategy, involves helping the expectant mother to cope actively with the pain of childbirth through relaxation and breathing techniques.

What if ...? Scenario

In the year 2020 people are not permitted to reproduce and raise children without a license from the proper authority. The federal government of Canada introduced the Parenting Control Act to help end the social epidemic of child abuse and neglect that plagued the late 20th century Canadian society. Environmental conditions also brought certain pressures to bear on public health in general, and the well-being and healthy development of children in particular.

Prospective parents must now apply to the National Procreation Council (NPC) for a license to have children and raise them. The law is enforced through controlling the reproductive systems of all male citizens. A combined surgical and biochemical procedure renders all males sterile at the age of puberty. Upon successful application to the NPC, the procedure is reversed and fertility is restored for a prescribed period of time.

The number of children parents may have is also limited by the Council. There is no official discrimination based on colour, religion, culture, language, socioeconomic status, sexual orientation or ability of parents and families. Society views children as the most precious and important of people. It governs itself accordingly.

The National Procreation Council Role Play Debriefing

1. During the role play activity, applicants generally appealed to the Council for permission to have a child using four sets of criteria:
 - situational factors;
 - reasons for wanting a child;
 - personal qualities; and,
 - child care knowledge and skills.
2. Brainstorm specific details for each of the categories. Of these categories, is there one that predominates? Why or why not?
3. Priorize the categories in terms of importance to the healthy nurturance of children. Explain your rationale.
4. Describe some of the most interesting/important/worthwhile qualities and reasons for wanting children stated by prospective parents. Explain why you think the way you do.
5. What were the most interesting/important/challenging questions asked by the NPC? Why?
6. Would a Procreation Council or some other authority be a good idea? Explain. Who should decide who is worthy of having children? Why?
7. Do we have the inalienable right to have children? Why or why not? Should reproduction be managed and controlled? Why or why not?
8. Are there intangibles, things that cannot really be measured, in making judgements about who should be parents? Are there intuitive ways of discerning and judging who will be good parents?
9. What influence, or impact, did the various types of family units have on their application to the NPC? Is one type of family unit best suited to raise and nurture children? Why or why not?
10. What have you learned about the issues, skills, challenges and needs to be addressed before you have a child?

The Scientific Method of Research

Science is fundamentally a rational process. In its simplest form, the rational model consists of four steps: (1) formulating a theoretical problem, which is then translated into testable hypotheses; (2) selecting the appropriate research method, and designing and carrying out the study; (3) analyzing and interpreting the results; and (4) using the results to confirm, deny or modify the theory (Alcock et al., 1998).

Step 1: Develop a research question

Step 2: Describe the hypothesis

Step 3: Select a research method (Circle choice)

Observation Experiment Interview Case Study Survey Topical

Step 4: Describe the process to be followed

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-
-
-
-
-

Step 5: Gather the data

Step 6: Analyze the data

Step 7: Report the findings, account for reliability and validity

Step 8: State conclusions in relation to the hypothesis

A Comparison Chart of Research Methodologies in Developmental Psychology

Research Methodology	Description of method	Strengths	Weaknesses
Experiments			
Topical			
Interview			
Observation			
Case Study			
Survey			

Permission to Conduct Research

Teacher Contact/Supervisor:

Research Study Location:

Contact Person/Supervisor:

Dates/Times:

Overview of Research Project:

Type of Research Study: Observation Experimental Research Interview Topical
(Circle one) Survey/Questionnaire Case Study

Methods and Ethics: Confidentiality Informed Consent Debriefing
(Circle those aspects
of the research study
that have been discussed)

Data Collection Method:
(How will the data be collected,
e.g. videotape, audio cassette,
jot notes, photographs?)

.....

I, _____, in my position as _____ do hereby
 Please print your name Position or Title

consent to allow _____ to conduct research on behalf of the course
 Student Name

requirements for Psychology 30, a course offered at _____ School in
_____ Saskatchewan.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Jigsaw - Infancy

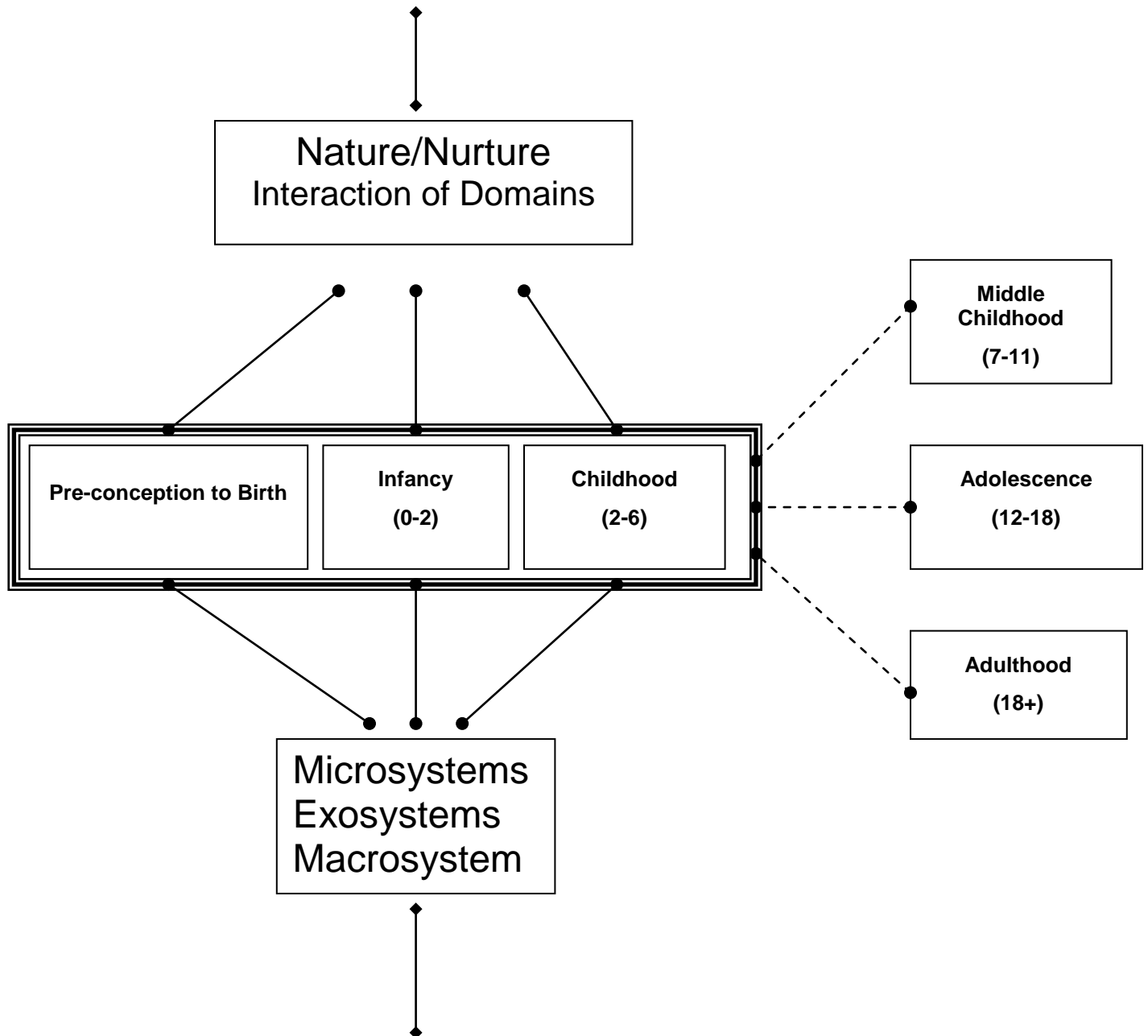
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • weight: 25-44 pounds • height: 34-43 inches • develops a taller, thinner, adult-like appearance • develops a full set of baby teeth • needs approximately 1,300 calories daily 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • able to dress self with little assistance • learns to skip • throws ball overhead • catches bounced balls • rides a tricycle skillfully; may show interest in riding a bicycle with training wheels 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • capable of learning complex body coordination skills like swimming, ice or roller skating, and riding bicycles • may be able to tie shoelaces • may be able to copy simple designs and shapes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • talks so that 75 to 80 percent of his speech is understandable • talks in complete sentences of three to five words. "Mommy is drinking juice. There's a big dog." • stumbles over words sometimes, usually not a sign of stuttering 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • weight: 27-50 pounds • height: 37-46 inches • uses a spoon, fork, and dinner knife skillfully • needs 10-12 hours sleep each night 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • uses the toilet with some help (many boys may not be ready for toilet learning until sometime during their third year) • puts on shoes (but cannot tie laces) • dresses self with some help (buttons, snaps, zippers)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • sleeps 10-12 hours at night • sleeps through most nights without wetting the bed (occasional accidents are still quite common) • interested in handling food and cooking procedures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • weight: 31-57 pounds • height: 39-48 inches • requires approximately 1,700 calories daily • sleeps 10-11 hours at night • may begin to loose baby teeth 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • balances on either foot for 5-10 seconds • uses a fork and knife well • cuts on a line with scissors • left or right hand dominance is established • walks down stairs, alternating feet without using a handrail
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can run, gallop, and tumble • can skip and run on tiptoe • can jump rope • interested in performing tricks like standing on head and performing dance steps 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • answers whether he is a boy or she is a girl • expresses interest in ethnic identities of self and others, if exposed to a multicultural setting 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • pedals a tricycle • walks on a line • can stand, balance, and hop on one foot • jumps over a 6" barrier
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • dresses self without much assistance (unzip, unsnap, unbutton clothes; lace but not tie shoes) • can feed self, brush teeth, comb hair, wash, dress, hang up clothes with little assistance • walks a straight line 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • climbs up and down a small slide by self • can feed self with spoon and small fork; often butters bread with knife • can use toilet independently • can brush teeth, wash hands, get a drink 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • feeds self (with some spilling) • tries to catch a large ball • throws a ball overhead • kicks a ball forward • hops on one foot • walks short distance on tiptoes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • seeks attention and approval of adults • sometimes shows preference for one parent (often the parent of the opposite sex) • accepts suggestions and follows simple directions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • forms shapes and objects out of clay or playdough, sometimes human and animal figures • threads small beads on a string • catches, bounces, and throws a ball easily • likes to gallop, turn somersaults, climb ladders and trees, hop on one foot 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • hops on one foot • pedals and steers a tricycle skillfully • jumps over objects five to six inches high • runs, jumps, hops, and skips around obstacles with ease • stacks 10 or more blocks

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can solve problems if they are simple, concrete, real, and immediate, and if wants to • interested in similarities and differences • can distinguish, match, and name colours 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can place objects in a line from largest to smallest • can recognize some letters, if taught, and may be able to print own name • recognizes familiar words in simple books or signs (STOP sign) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • learns name, address, and phone number, if taught • asks and answers who, what, when, why, and where questions • continues one activity for 10-15 minutes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • enjoys singing simple songs, rhymes, and nonsense words • adapts language to listener's level of understanding. To baby sister: "Daddy go bye-bye." To Mother: "Daddy went to the store to buy food." 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • enjoys repeating words and sounds • listens attentively to short stories and books • likes familiar stories told without any changes in words • enjoys listening to stories and repeating simple rhymes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can take turns and share but does not always want to • expresses anger and jealousy physically • likes to test muscular strength and motor skills, but is not emotionally ready for competition
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • enjoys playing with other children briefly, but still does not cooperate or share well • enjoys hearing stories about self • enjoys playing "house"; enjoys imitating other children and adults 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • enjoys playing with other children • takes turns and shares (most of the time); may still be rather bossy • seeks out adult approval • understands and obeys simple rules (most of the time) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • fearful of the dark and monsters • begins to understand danger, at times can become quite fearful • has difficulty separating make-believe from reality
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • understands about 13,000 words • uses five to eight words in a sentence • likes to argue and reason; use words like "because" • knows basic colours • able to memorize address and phone number 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • sometimes can be very bossy • likes to try new things and take risks • likes to make own decisions • notices when another child is angry or sad, more sensitive to feelings of others 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • able to tell simple stories from pictures or books • enjoys singing and can carry a simple tune • understands "now, soon, and later" • asks who, what, where, and why questions
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • enjoys playing with clay or playdough (pounds, rolls, and squeezes it) • can put together a six-piece puzzle • draws a circle and square • recognizes common everyday sounds 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • speaks in fairly complex sentences. "The baby ate the cookie before I could put it on the table." • asks a lot of questions including ones on birth and death 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • interested in features of animals that make them unique • has good self-knowledge; can understand difference between self and younger children, but not between self and older children • can say his age
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • understands the concepts of "tallest, biggest, same, more, on, in, under, and above" • counts one to seven objects out loud, but not always in the right order • understands the order of daily routines 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • invents games with simple rules • organizes other children and toys for pretend play • still confuses fantasy with reality sometimes • often fears loud noises, the dark, animals, and some people 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • matches an object to a picture of that object • identifies common colours such as red, blue, yellow, green • can count two to three objects
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • understands that stories have a beginning, middle, and end • able to remember stories and repeat them • enjoys creating and telling stories 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • names six to eight colours and three shapes • follows two unrelated directions (put your milk on the table and get your coat on) • has basic understanding of concepts related to number, size, weight, colours, textures, distance, position, and time 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • carries on conversations with other children and adults • often excludes other children in play, best friends only • uses swear words or "bathroom words" to get attention

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • prefers company of one or two children at a time; may become bossy or sulky when others join in • likes to feel grown up; boasts about self to younger, less capable children 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can make simple choices between two things • enjoys making others laugh and being silly • enjoys playing alone but near other children • spends a great deal of time watching and observing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • changes the rules of a games as she goes along • likes to talk and carries on elaborate conversations • capable of feeling jealous • persistently asks why • boastful, enjoys showing off bragging about possessions
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • begins to have a very basic understanding of right and wrong • plays contentedly and independently without constant supervision • takes turns and shares (sometimes) • understands and respects rules, often asks permission 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • understands that books are read from left to right, top to bottom • enjoys riddles and jokes • draws pictures that represent animals, people, and objects • enjoys tracing or copying letters 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can understand relationships among people and similarities and differences in other families • seeks adult approval • sometimes critical of other children and embarrassed by own mistakes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • understands immediate passage of time as in what happened yesterday, but does not understand calendar time • has long attention span and finishes activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • less fearful of the world than toddlers because understands the world better • has a good sense of humor and enjoys sharing jokes and laughter with adults 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • understands and enjoys both giving and receiving • enjoys collecting things • sometimes needs to get away and be alone
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can place objects in order from shortest to tallest • can understand and use comparative terms like big, bigger, or biggest • sorts objects by size • identifies some letters of the alphabet and a few numbers (if taught) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • understands "more," "less," and "same" • counts up to 10 objects • recognizes categories ("These are all animals; these are all toys.") • understands before and after, above, and below 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • expresses anger verbally rather than physically (most of the time) • still throws tantrums over minor frustrations • imitates parent of the same sex, particularly in play • enjoys pretending, often imaginary
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • pretending goes far beyond "playing house" to more elaborate settings like fire station, school, shoe store, ice cream shop • loves to tell jokes that may not make any sense at all to adults 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • block and dramatic play is much more elaborate and complex • has good attention span and can concentrate well • is project minded - plans buildings, play scenarios, and drawings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • interested in cause and effect • can understand time concepts like yesterday, today, and tomorrow
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • lies sometimes to protect self and friends, but does not truly understand the concept of lying; imagination often gets in the way • may name call, tattle freely • likes to shock others by using "forbidden" words 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can feel intense anger and frustration • has vivid imagination and sometimes imaginary playmates • enjoys dramatic play and role playing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • understands and remembers own accomplishments • may ad "ed" to words. "I go-ed to the door and put-ed the cat outdoors. He hurt-ed me."

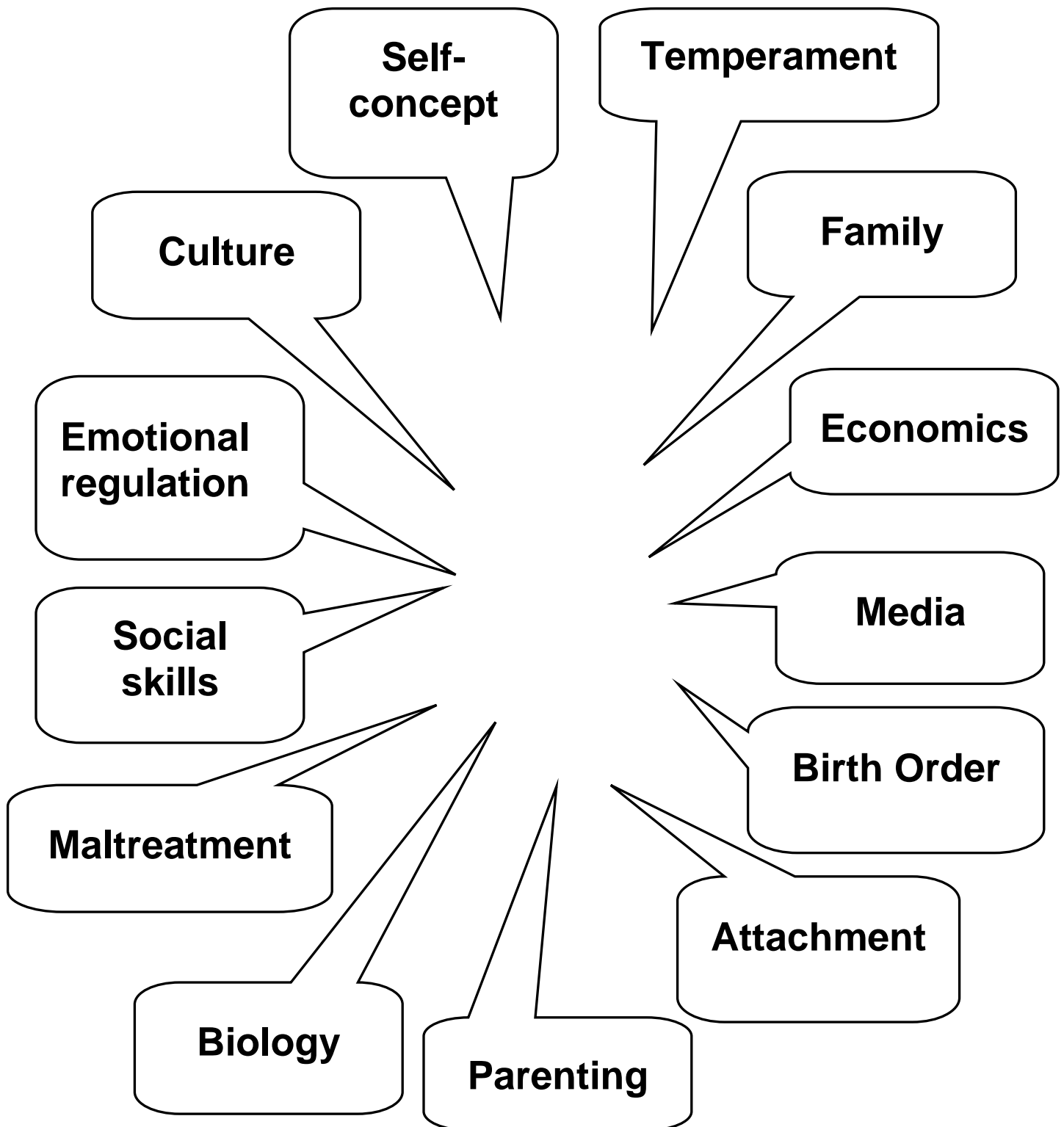
Psychology 30: Understanding Developmental Psychology

Looking through the eyes of the developing person ...



Looking through the eyes of the systems of support

Personality Development



The Tree of Self-Understanding

The tree of self-defeat

The tree of self-realization



Fear

Anger

Creativity

Optimism

Resentment

Kindness

Who I Am

My personal biography...

My greatest success...

If I could change the world, I would ...

My skills and abilities ...

My most memorable moment ...

My top ten favourite _____ ...

The most influential person in my life ...

My goals and aspirations ...

My heroes ...

The Chinese Zodiac

According to traditional Chinese legend, ages ago Buddha summoned all of the animals and honoured those who came by naming a year for them; each animal in turn gave its characteristics to people born in its year:

Pig 1971, 1983, 1995, 2007

Gallant and chivalrous, you have great inner strength and make few but lasting friendships. Choose the hare, ram or horse, and avoid the serpent

Dog 1970, 1982, 1994, 2006

Loyal and honest, you are generous and work well with others, though you are sometimes critical. You are well-suited to the horse, the tiger and the hare, and ill-suited to the dragon and the ram.

Rooster 1969, 1981, 1993, 2005

You are directed to work and seek knowledge, a pioneer who tends to be selfish and lonely. Choose the ox, serpent or dragon, never the hare.

Monkey 1968, 1980, 1992, 2004

Clever and skilful to the point of genius, practical and given to detail, you generally have a low opinion of others. Your best relationships are with the dragon, rat and ram and worst are with the tiger.

Ram 1967, 1979, 1991, 2003

Elegant and artistically creative, yet timid or puzzled, you seek the guidance of others. Seek the hare, pig or horse, and avoid the ox and the dog.

Horse 1966, 1978, 1990, 2002

Extremely popular as you are attractive, cheerful, friendly and flattering to others whose company you seek. Seek the tiger, dog and ram, but beware the rat.

Serpent 1965, 1977, 1989, 2001

Very wise and very strong-willed, physically beautiful yet vain and high-tempered. The ox, rooster and dragon are fine, but the tiger and pig will bring trouble.

Dragon 1964, 1976, 1988, 2000

Passionate and soft-hearted, but somewhat stubborn, very healthy and energetic. You are well-suited to the rat, serpent and monkey, but ill-suited to the dog.

Hare 1963, 1975, 1987, 1999

Talented and affectionate, yet shy, you work well with people and do well in business. Most compatible with the ram, pig and dog, and least compatible with the rat and rooster.

Tiger 1962, 1974, 1986, 1998

Aggressive, courageous, sensitive and considerate, yet short-tempered, often entering into conflict with others. For happiness seek the horse, dragon or dog, and leave both the serpent and monkey be.

Ox 1961, 1973, 1985, 1997

Bright and patient, you are a good listener, but disdainful of failure. You are attracted to the serpent, rooster and rat, and should avoid the ram.

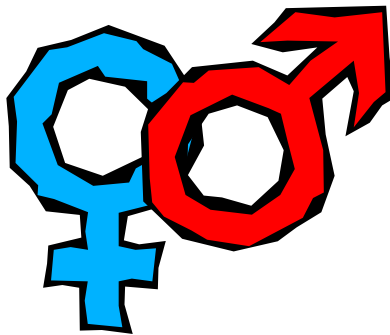
Rat 1960, 1972, 1984, 1996

Ambitious, honest, sincere, generous and able to maintain self-control, but often find it difficult to maintain lasting friendships. Your best will be with the dragon, monkey, and worst with the horse.

Gender Differences

Males value power, competency, efficiency and achievement. They are always doing things to prove themselves and develop their power and skills. Their sense of self is defined through their ability to achieve results. Males are solution-oriented. They experience fulfillment primarily through success and accomplishment. Males are more concerned with outdoor activities, like hunting, fishing and racing cars. They are interested in the news, weather and sports and couldn't care less about romance novels and self-help books. Males are more interested in "objects" and "things" rather than people and feelings. While women fantasize about romance, men fantasize about powerful cars, faster computers, gadgets, gizmos, and new more powerful technology. Men are preoccupied with the "things" that can help them express power by creating results and achieving their goals.

Achieving their goals is very important to a male because it is a way for him to prove his competence and thus feel good about himself. For males to feel good about themselves, they must achieve these goals by themselves. Males pride themselves in doing things all by themselves. Autonomy is a symbol of efficiency, power and competence.



Females value love, communication, beauty and relationships. They spend a lot of time supporting, helping and nurturing one another. Their sense of self is defined through their feelings and the quality of their relationships. They experience fulfillment through sharing and relating. Rather than building highways and tall buildings, females are more concerned with living together in harmony, community and loving cooperation. Relationships are more important than work and technology. Personal expression, especially of feelings, is very important. Communication is of primary importance. To share their personal feelings is much more important than achieving goals and success. Talking and relating to one another is a source of tremendous fulfillment.

Instead of being goal oriented, women are relationship oriented; they are more concerned with expressing their goodness, love and caring. Females are very involved in personal growth, spirituality, and everything that can nurture life, healing and growth. Females are very intuitive. They have developed this ability through centuries of anticipating the needs of others. They pride themselves in being considerate of the needs and feelings of others (Gray, 1992).

Human Values

Instructions: Read this list of values carefully. Then rank them from 1 to 24 in order of importance to you, as guiding principles in your life.

- | | | | |
|-------|---------------------------|-------|---------------------------|
| _____ | a comfortable life | _____ | inner peace |
| _____ | an exciting life | _____ | love |
| _____ | achievements | _____ | adventure |
| _____ | a world of peace | _____ | pleasure |
| _____ | power | _____ | influence |
| _____ | a world of beauty | _____ | faith |
| _____ | status | _____ | service to others |
| _____ | equality | _____ | self-respect |
| _____ | self-actualization | _____ | social recognition |
| _____ | freedom | _____ | friendship |
| _____ | happiness | _____ | wisdom |
| _____ | intimacy | _____ | harmony |

WHEN YOU THOUGHT I WASN'T LOOKING, BY A CHILD...

By **Mary Rita Korzan**

A message every parent should read, because your children are watching you and doing as you do, not as you say...

When you thought I wasn't looking, I saw you hang my first painting on the refrigerator, and I immediately wanted to paint another one.

When you thought I wasn't looking, I saw you feed a stray cat, and I learned that it was good to be kind to animals.

When you thought I wasn't looking, I heard you say a prayer, and I knew there is a God I could always talk to and I learned to trust in God.

When you thought I wasn't looking, I saw you make a meal and take it to a friend who was sick, and I learned that we all have to take care of each other.

When you thought I wasn't looking, I saw you give of your time and money to help people who had nothing left and I learned that those who have something should give to those who do not.

When you thought I wasn't looking, I felt you kiss me good night and I felt loved and safe.

When you thought I wasn't looking, I saw you take care of our house and everyone in it and I learned we have to take care of what we are given.

When you thought I wasn't looking, I saw how you handled your responsibilities, even when you did not feel good and I learned that I would have to be responsible when I grow up.

When you thought I wasn't looking, I saw tears come from your eyes and I learned that sometimes things hurt, but it is all right to cry.

When you thought I wasn't looking, I saw that you cared and I wanted to be everything that I could be.

When you thought I wasn't looking, I learned most of life's lessons that I need to know to be a good and productive person when I grow up.

When you thought I wasn't looking, I looked at you and wanted to say "Thanks for all the things I saw when you thought I wasn't looking".

Each of us, parent, grandparent, aunt, uncle, friend, influences the life of a child.

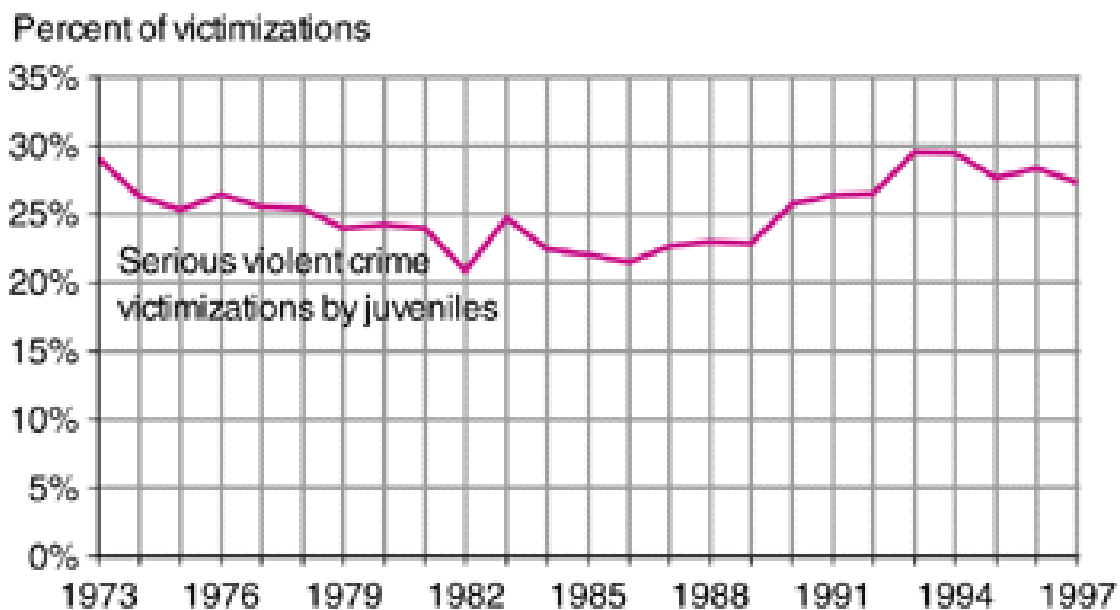
A MEMORANDUM FROM YOUR CHILD RE: ME

- Do not spoil me. I know quite well that I ought not to have all I ask for. I'm only testing you.
- Do not be afraid to be firm with me. I prefer it. It lets me know where I stand.
- Do not use force with me. It teaches me that power is all that counts. I will respond more readily to being led.
- Do not be inconsistent with me. That confuses me and makes me try to get away with everything I can.
- Do not make promises; you may not be able to keep them. That will discourage my trust in you.
- Do not fall for my provocations when I say and do things just to upset you. Then I'll try for other such "victories."
- Do not be too upset when I say "I hate you." I do not mean it, but I want you to feel sorry for what you have done to me.
- Do not make me feel smaller than I am. I will make up for it by behaving like a "big shot".
- Do not do things for me that I can do for myself. It makes me feel like a baby, and I may continue to put you in my service.
- Do not let my "bad habits" get me a lot of attention. It only encourages me to continue them.
- Do not correct me in front of people. I'll take much more notice if you talk quietly with me in private.
- Do not try to discuss my behaviour in the heat of a conflict. For some reason my hearing is not very good at this time and my cooperation is even worse. It is all right to take the action required, but let's not talk about it until later.
- Do not try to preach to me. You would be surprised how well I know what's right and wrong.
- Do not make me feel that my mistakes are sins. I have to learn to make mistakes without feeling that I am no good.
- Do not nag. If you do, I shall have to protect myself by appearing deaf.
- Do not demand explanations for my wrong behaviour. I really do not know why I did that.
- Do not tax my honesty too much. I am easily frightened into telling lies.
- Do not forget that I love and use experimenting. I learn from it so please put up with it.
- Do not protect me from consequences. I need to learn from experience.
- Do not take too much notice of my small ailments. I may learn to enjoy poor health if it gets me much attention.
- Do not put me off when I ask HONEST questions. If you do, you will find that I stop asking and seek my information elsewhere.
- Do not answer "silly" or meaningless questions. I just want to keep you busy with me.
- Do not ever think that it is beneath your dignity to apologize to me. An honest apology makes me feel surprisingly warm towards you.
- Do not ever suggest that you are perfect or infallible. It gives me too much to live up to.
- Do not worry about the little amount of time we spend together. It is how we spend it that counts.
- Do not let my fears arouse your anxiety. Then I will become more afraid. Show me courage.
- Do not forget that I can not strive without lots of understanding and encouragement; but I do not need to tell you that...do I?

Author Unknown

Juvenile Crime – Percent of victimizations

On average, juveniles were involved in one-quarter of serious violent victimizations annually over the last 25 years.



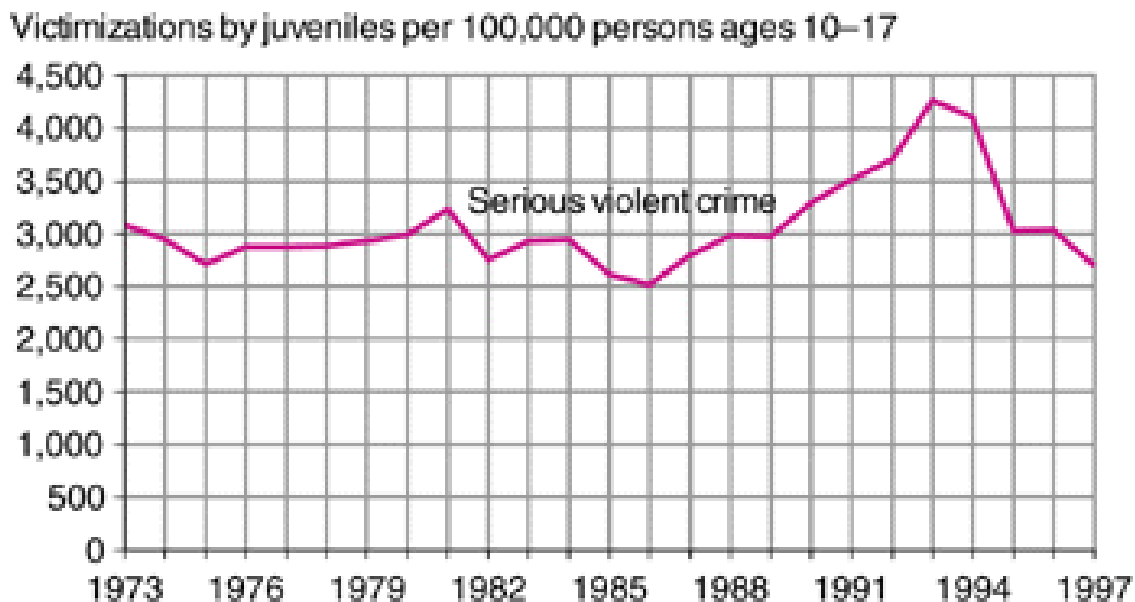
Note: Serious violent crime includes incidents involving rape and other sexual assaults, robbery, and aggravated assault. Data are collected through personal interviews with persons ages 12 and older; thus, murder is not included for obvious reasons. Data collected prior to 1992 were adjusted to be consistent with newer data collection procedures.

The Bureau of Justice Statistics' National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) asks a nationally representative sample of persons ages 12 and older about violent crimes in which they were the victim. Since 1973, the NCVS has been a national barometer of crime trends.

According to the NCVS, in 1997 juveniles under age 18 were involved in 27 percent of all serious violent victimizations, including 14 percent of sexual assaults, 30 percent of robberies, and 27 percent of aggravated assaults.

Juvenile Crime – Rate of incidence

The rate at which juveniles committed serious violent crimes changed little between 1973 and 1989, peaked in 1993, then declined to the lowest level since 1986.



Note: Serious violent crime includes incidents involving rape and other sexual assaults, robbery, and aggravated assault. Data are collected through personal interviews with persons ages 12 and older; thus, murder is not included for obvious reasons. Data collected prior to 1992 were adjusted to be consistent with newer data collection procedures.

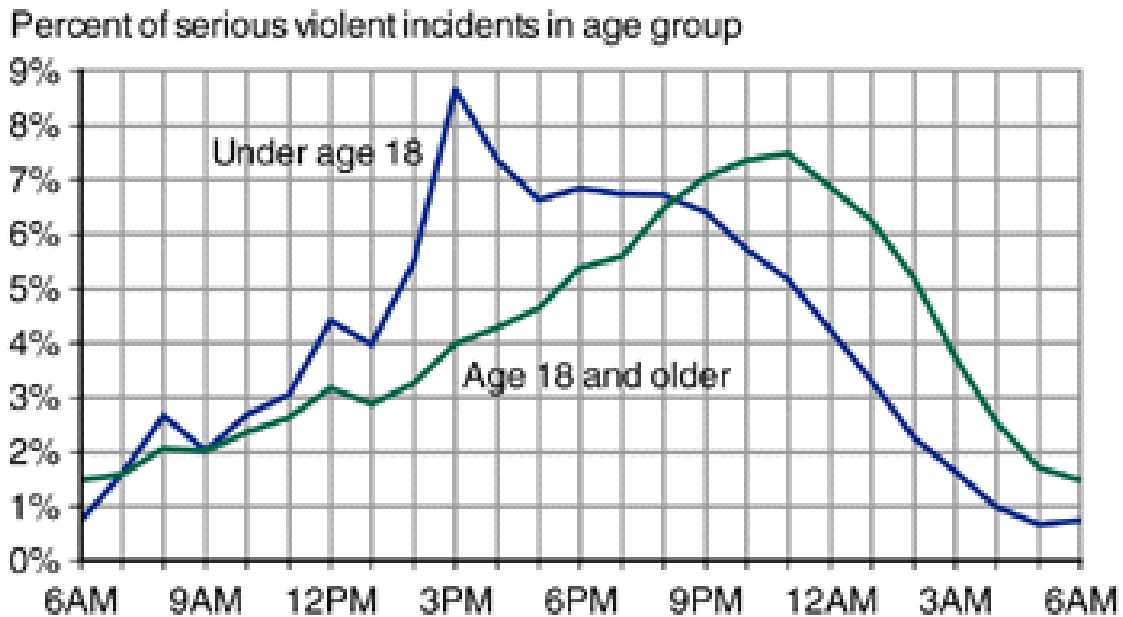
The Bureau of Justice Statistics' National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) asks a nationally representative sample of persons ages 12 and older about violent crimes in which they were the victim. Since 1973, the NCVS has been a national barometer of crime trends.

Serious violent victimizations in the U.S. peaked in 1993 at 4.2 million, the highest level since the NCVS began in 1973. Between 1993 and 1997, the number of these victimizations dropped by 27 percent — to three million, the lowest level since the NCVS began.

The rate at which juveniles committed aggravated assaults declined 33 percent between 1994 and 1995 and remained relatively stable thereafter. The rate of robberies by juveniles rose in 1981 and 1993, but by 1997, had dropped below the rates seen in the 1970s.

Juvenile Crime – Time of day

Analyses of the FBI National Incident-Based Reporting System (NIBRS) data for recent years indicate that juveniles commit crimes at different times than adults do.



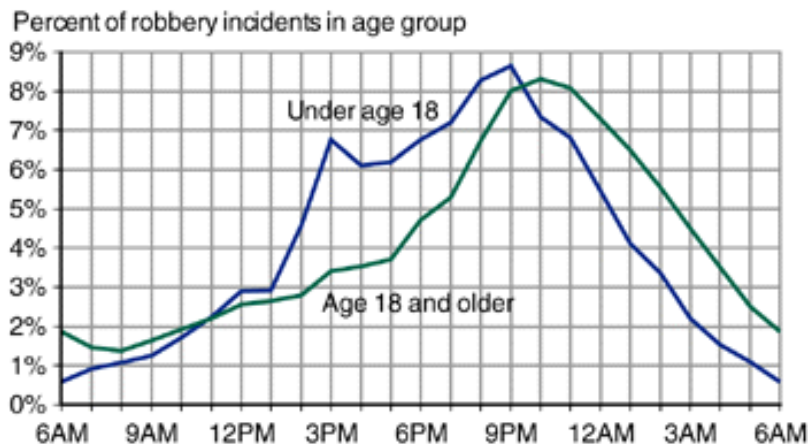
Note: Serious violent crimes include murder, violent sexual assault, robbery, and aggravated assault. Data are from 12 states (Alabama, Colorado, Idaho, Illinois, Iowa, Massachusetts, Michigan, North Dakota, South Carolina, Utah, Vermont, and Virginia).

In general, the number of violent crimes committed by adults increases hourly from 6 a.m. through the afternoon and evening hours, peaks at 11 p.m., and then drops to a low point at 6 a.m. In contrast, violent crimes by juveniles peak in the afternoon between 3 p.m. and 4 p.m., the hour at the end of the school day.

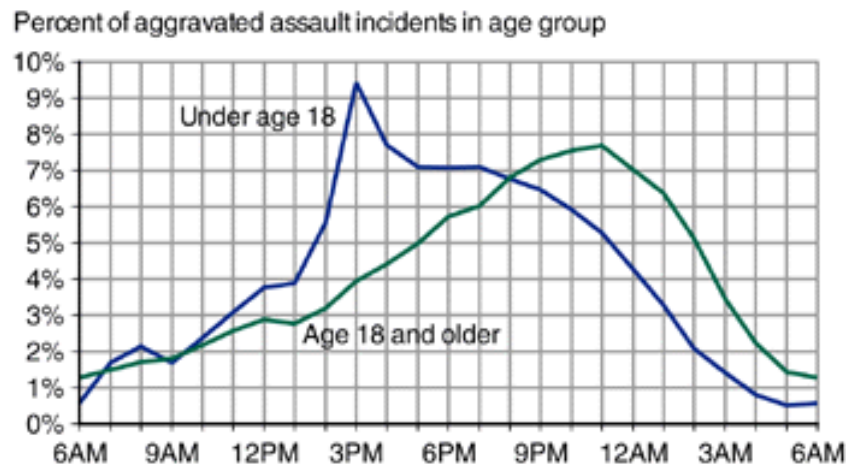
Juvenile Crime – Juveniles/Adults

While adult robberies and aggravated assaults present similar time patterns, the juvenile patterns differ.

Robbery:



Aggravated Assault:

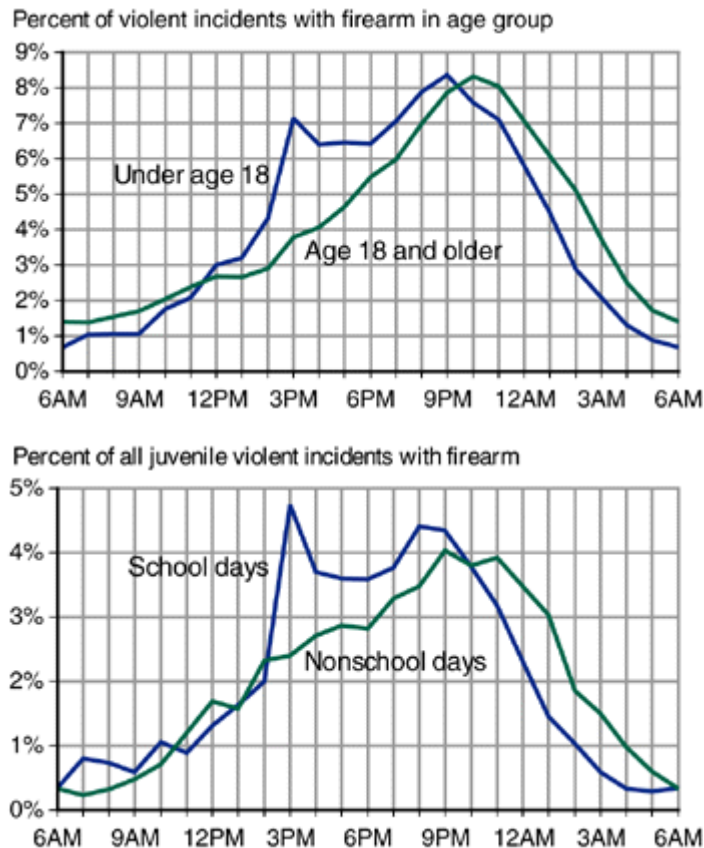


Analyses of the FBI National Incident-Based Reporting System (NIBRS) data for recent years indicate that both robbery and aggravated assault incidents peak in the late evening hours for adults. Aggravated assaults by juveniles are most common around 3 p.m., while the number of juvenile robberies peaks around 9 p.m. About two-thirds of all serious violent crimes are aggravated assaults, so they control the overall time pattern of serious violent crimes.

Juvenile Crime - Firearms

In general, adults and juveniles follow similar patterns for the percent of violent crime committed with a firearm during the day. One exception is the high proportion of juvenile firearm-involved crimes that occur immediately after school on school days.

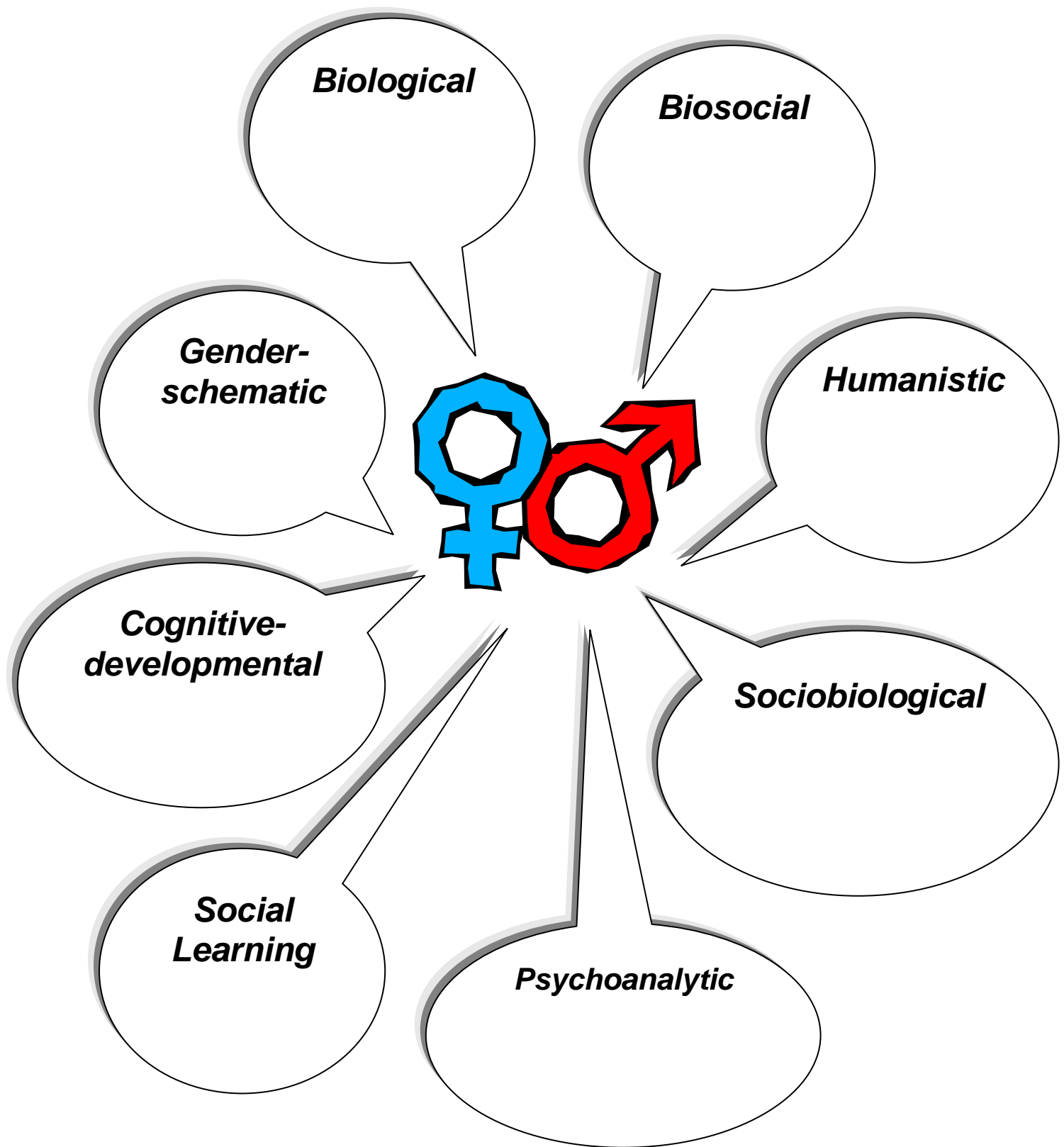
Victimizations committed with a firearm:



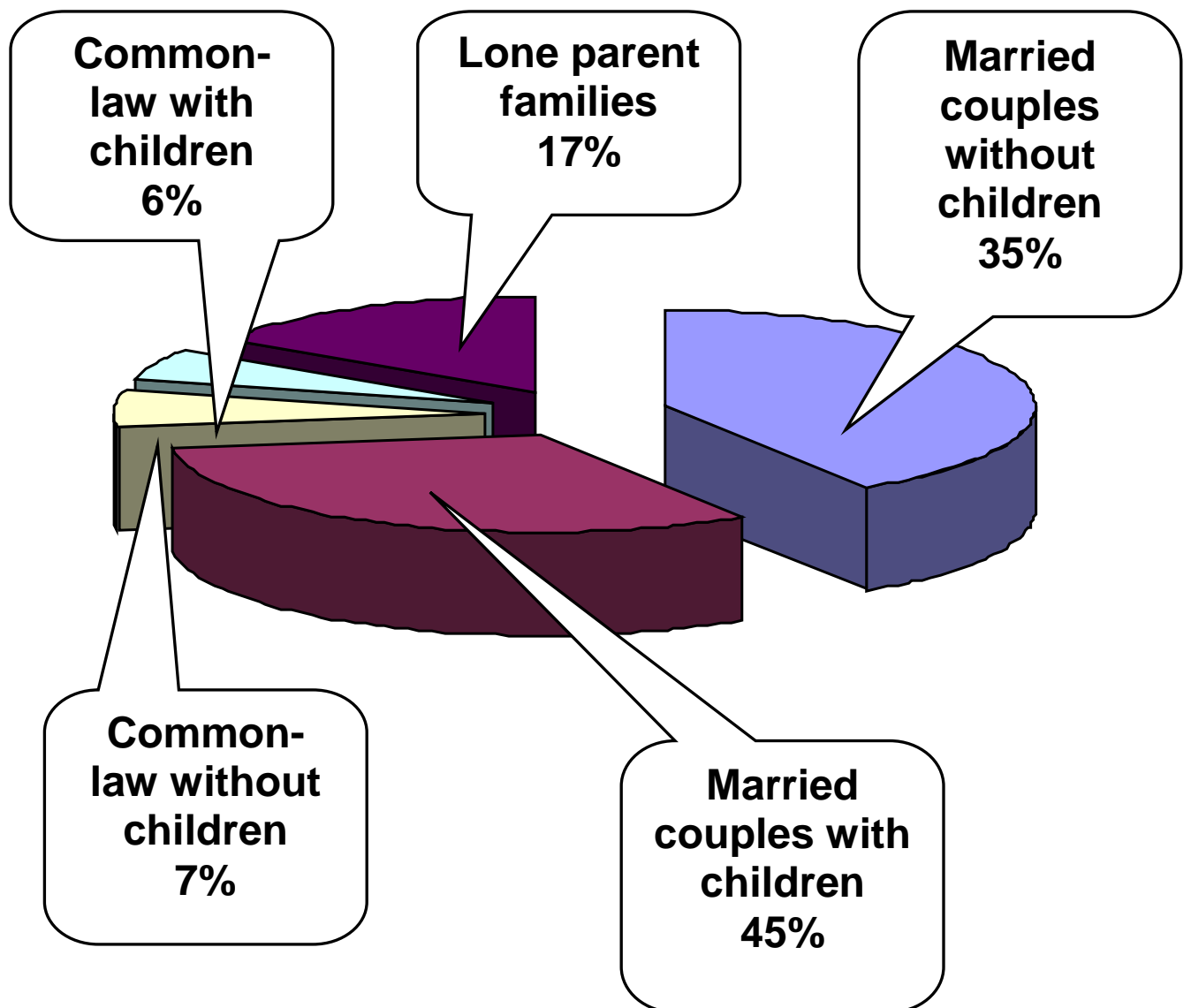
Violent crime involving a firearm peaks in the evening for both adults (10 p.m.) and juveniles (9 p.m.). For juveniles, violent crime involving a firearm also peaks in the afternoon (3 p.m.).

Incidents of juvenile violent crime involving a firearm peak twice during the day on school days—once at 3 p.m. and again between 8 p.m. and 9 p.m.—but peak only once—between 9 p.m. and 11 p.m.—on nonschool days.

Theories of Gender Development



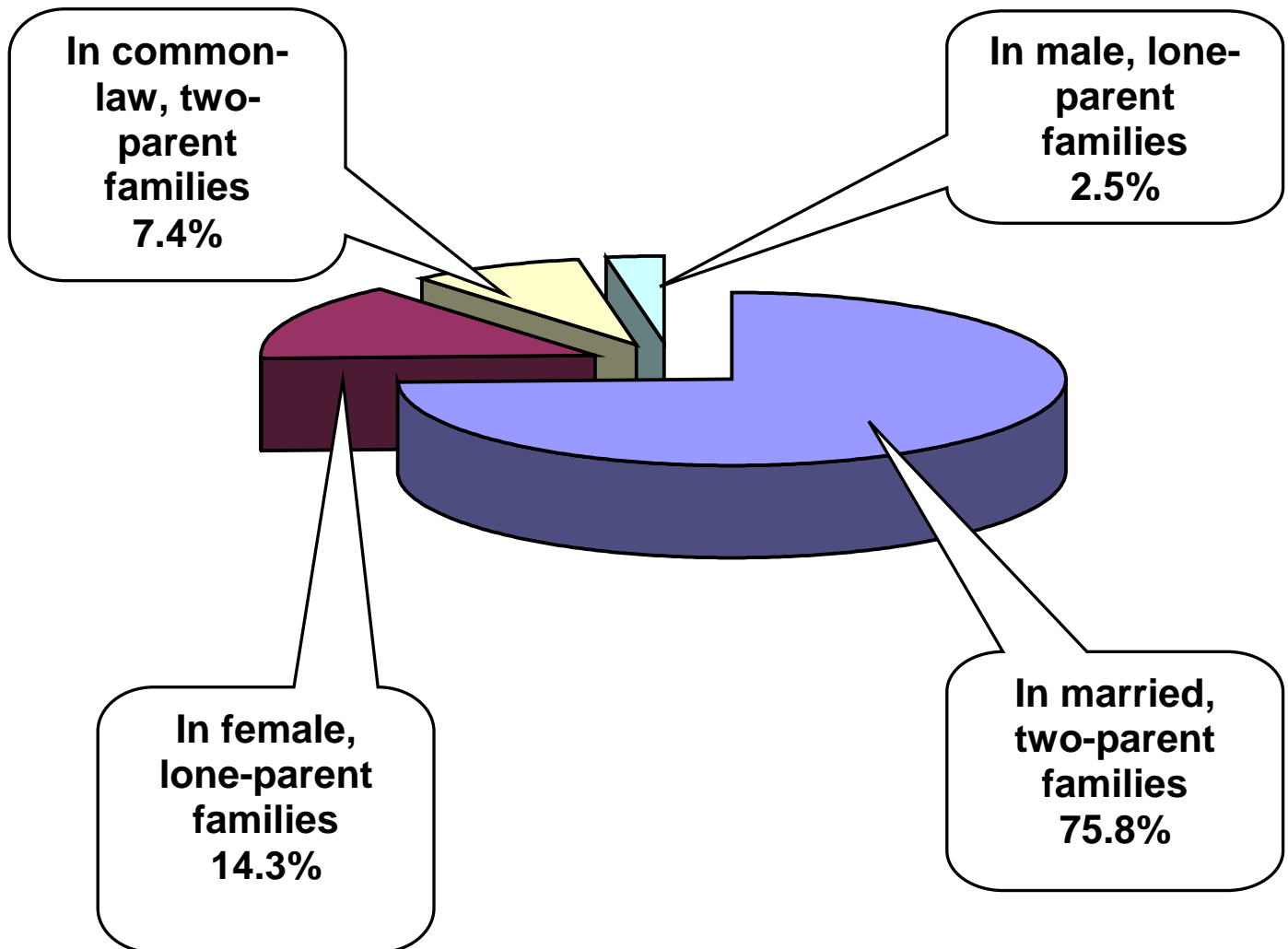
Family Types In Canada (1996)



Over the last thirty years, Canada has seen increased rates of separation and divorce, the declining popularity of marriage, a growing number of common-law unions, an increasing recognition of same-sex couples, and more blended families. These changes have resulted in more complex lives for many children, who will grow up in a number of different family environments during their childhood and adolescence. The variety within families means that young people are growing up among peers whose family lives often differ markedly from their own.

Where do children live in Saskatchewan?

Statistics Canada, 1996 Census



Canadian Data (Percentage of Canadian Children)

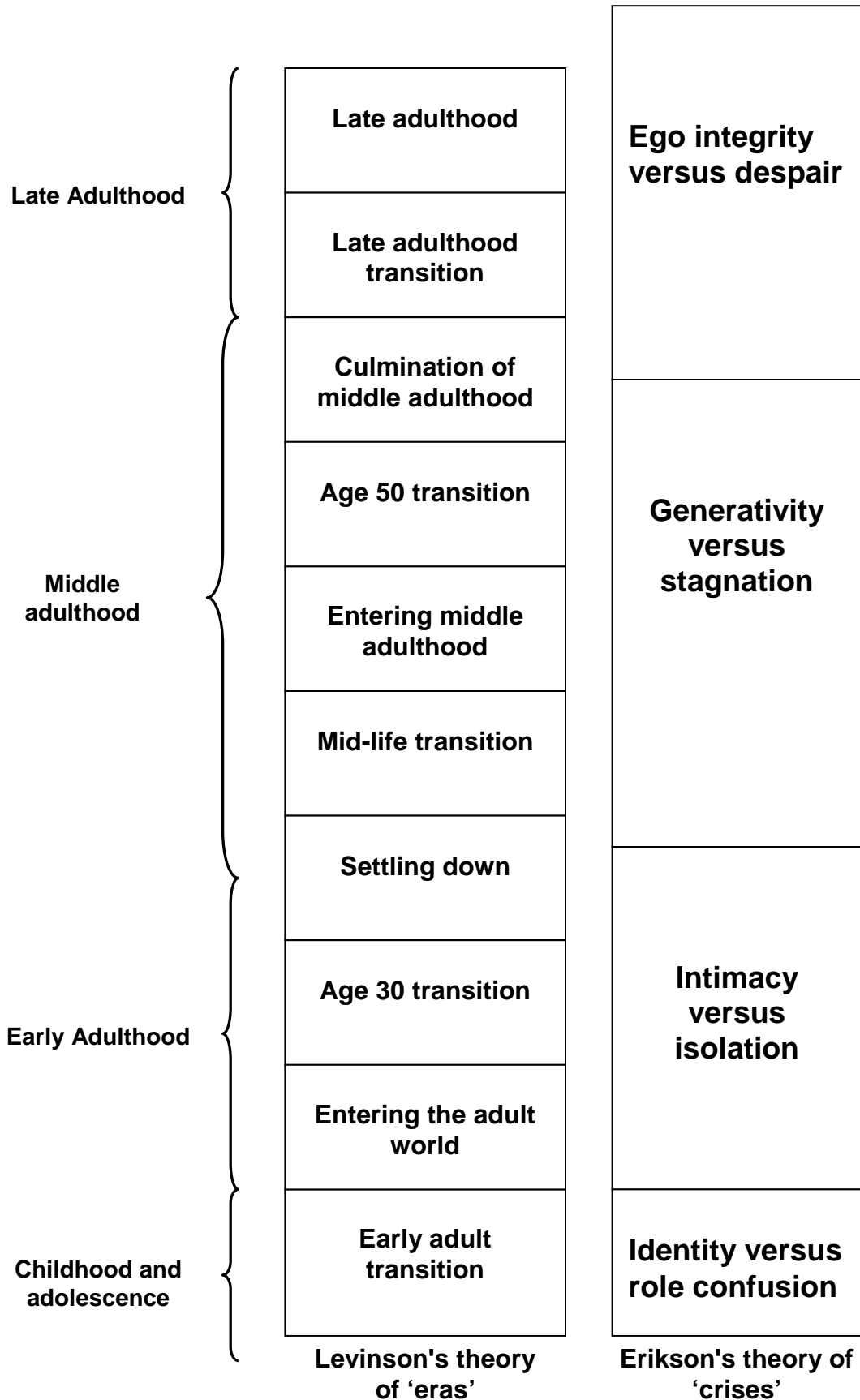
In married, two-parent families	74.3%
In common-law, two-parent families	8.4%
In male, lone-parent families	2.7%
In female, lone-parent families	14.5%

The Family Life Cycle

FAMILY LIFE CYCLE STAGE	EMOTIONAL PROCESS OF TRANSITION: KEY PRINCIPLES	CHANGES IN FAMILY STATUS REQUIRED TO PROCEED DEVELOPMENTALLY
Leaving home: Single young adult	Accepting financial and emotional responsibility for self	Differentiation of self in relation to family of origin Development of intimate peer relationships Establishment of self in relation to work and financial independence
The joining of families through marriage: the new couple	Commitment to the new system	Formation of marital system Realignment of relationships with extended families and friends to include spouse
Becoming parents and families with children	Accepting new members into the system	Adjusting marital system to make space for child(ren) Joining in child rearing, financial and household tasks Realignment of relationships with extended family to include parenting and grandparenting roles
The family with adolescents	Increasing flexibility of family boundaries to include children's independence and grandparents' frailties Accepting a multitude of exits from and entries into the system	Shifting of parent-child relationships to permit adolescents to move in and out of system Refocus on mid-life marital and career issues Beginning shift toward joint caring for older generation Renegotiation of marital system as a dyad Development of adult to adult relationships between grown children and their parents Realignment of relationships to include in-laws and grandchildren Dealing with disabilities and death of grandparents
	Accepting the shifting of generational roles	Maintaining own and/or couple functioning and interests in the face of physiological decline; exploration of new familial and social role options Support for a more central role of middle generation Making room in the system for the wisdom and experience of the elderly, supporting the older generation without over-functioning for them Dealing with the loss of spouse, siblings, and peers and preparation for own death Life review and integration

Source: Santrock, 1999, p. 418.

Stage Models of Adult Development



Source: Santrock, 1999, p. 418.

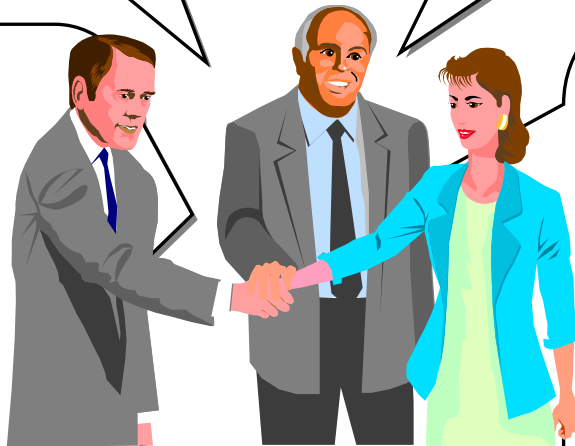
How do we form impressions of people?

Role

Physical

Psychological

Interaction



Membership