

Unit I: What Is Developmental Psychology?

P30.1 - Examine historical shifts in psychology including major theoretical perspectives and research methods related to lifespan development using various cultural perspectives.

- Examine and compare various historical and current cognitive development theories, such as, First Nations and Métis Elders and Knowledge Keepers traditional ways of knowing and western development theorists.
- Explore and compare historical shifts within Western European theoretical perspectives of psychology (e.g., psychodynamic, behavioural, cognitive, humanistic, evolutionary, socio-cultural) using various cultural worldviews.
- Investigate developmental psychology as an evolving science.
- Examine the roles of the four dimensions of human development (i.e., biological, cognitive, socioemotional, spiritual) in developmental psychology.
- Analyze and discuss validity, reliability and ethical issues in various quantitative and qualitative research methods (e.g., experimental, interview, observation, case study) used in psychology.
- Analyze the impacts of imposing concepts of Western social sciences on marginalized groups.
- Explore how the practice of psychology has been used to maintain power imbalances in institutions across Canada.

P30.2 - Investigate theories of nature and nurture and the impact of biological, cognitive, emotional and spiritual factors on lifespan development.

- Investigate how biological (e.g., gross and fine motor skills), cognitive (e.g., thinking and memory), socioemotional (e.g., temperament) and spiritual (e.g., personal beliefs, value systems) aspects of development interact to support development of a child.
- Analyze aspects of human development that might be attributed exclusively to heredity or inherited factors.
- Investigate how gender identities can influence biological, cognitive, socioemotional and spiritual development during childhood.
- Examine how biology, culture and spirituality might influence one's gender identity.
- Examine roles and influences (e.g., morals, prosocial and antisocial behaviour, motivation, discipline philosophies) of families, peers and significant others on lifespan development.
- Investigate ways individuals' support systems (e.g., parents, foster parents, extended family caregivers, social, religious and cultural organizations, worldviews) influence thoughts, feelings and behaviour.
- Conduct an inquiry into how different cultures and perspectives view lifespan development (e.g., First Nations, Métis and Inuit, Black, Asian).
- Analyze and compare roles of nature (e.g., hereditary traits, individual abilities and capacities) and nurture (e.g., environmental influences) that shape behaviour with lifespan development.
- Investigate how trauma, from historical and current events (e.g., genocide, Residential Schools, Sixties Scoop, effects of poverty, racism), impacts biological, cognitive, socioemotional and spiritual development (e.g., epigenetic, intergenerational) of a child.

**Psychology =
the science of human thought and behavior**

**Developmental Psychology
(a.k.a. Human/Lifespan Development) =
the study of age-related changes
throughout the human life span**



Figure 1: Robert Feldman

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). Developmental psychology identifies the biological, psychological, and social aspects that interact to influence the growing human life-span process.

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 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?

A large part 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, University of Regina).

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.
- **Critical period:** A critical period is a specific time during development when an 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 specific 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 in 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).

What is Developmental Psychology? (3:54) Video Questions

1. How does the video define the term "developmental psychology"?
2. What is the "lifespan approach" to developmental psychology?
3. Because the subject is so broad, in what two ways can researchers narrow their focus when studying developmental psychology?
4. What other sciences contribute to developmental psychology?
5. What are the three contexts which shape who we are?

Pig Personality Profile Test

(Copyright © 2004 National School Improvement Project, Inc. and Gary Phillips, Ph.D.)

Each participant draws a pig on a blank piece of paper. Tell them not to look at their neighbor's pig and give no further instructions other than to say the pig is of the animal variety.

Do not influence how the pigs are drawn.

After they have completed the assignment, give a good lead in about personality typing, Myers-Briggs, 16 Personalities, etc. and tell them this is a similar test. Their drawing will serve to interpret their personalities.



The results are as follows: (Don't shoot the messenger; I didn't draw your pig!)

1. **Drawn Towards Top of Page** - you are a positive and optimistic person
2. **Drawn Towards Middle of Page** - you are a realist
3. **Drawn Towards Bottom of Page** - you are a pessimist and have a tendency to behave negatively
4. **Facing Left** - you believe in tradition, are friendly, and often remember dates and birthdays
5. **Facing Forwards/Towards You** - you are direct, enjoy playing the devil's advocate, and neither fear or avoid discussion
6. **Facing Right** - you are innovative and active, but often do not have a sense of family or remember dates well
7. **Many Details** - you are analytical, cautious, and distrustful
8. **Few Details** - you are emotional, naïve, care little for detail and take risks
9. **Four Legs Showing** - you are secure, stubborn, and stick to your ideals
10. **Less than Four Legs Showing** - you are insecure or are living through a period of major change
11. **Size of Ears** - the larger the pig's ears are drawn, the better listener you are
12. **Tail Length** - the longer the pig's tail you have drawn, the more satisfied you are with the quality of your social/sex life

Miss Foley

Psych 30: 1.1 Overview

Psych Defined

Name: _____ Date: _____

Psych 30: 1.1 Overview

Ages & Stages

Welcome to Ages & Stages

Read p.4-6 in Ages & Stages – Unit 1: What is Developmental Psychology before answering the following questions.

1. Psychology 30 will be looking at the changes people experience across their lifespans from two perspectives. What are these two perspectives?

2. Define the following terms:
 - a. Biological dimension –

 - b. Cognitive dimension –

 - c. Socio-emotional dimension –

 - d. Heredity –

 - e. Nature vs Nurture –

3. Explain why the Ministry of Education chose the title Ages & Stages for this publication?

Read p.7-11 and p. 25-27 in Ages & Stages – Unit 1: What is Developmental Psychology before answering the following questions.

4. Based on the reading, define the term “psychology” and explain how different cultures will define and interpret the term differently. Use references from the reading to support your answer.

Name: _____ Date: _____

Psych 30: 1.1 Overview

Ages & Stages

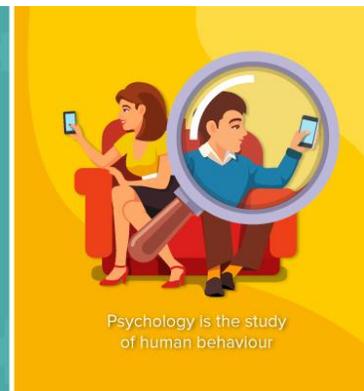
Psychologists = receive training in graduate schools that offer masters or doctoral programs

* Can NOT prescribe medications

Psychiatrists = physicians with a medical degree that specialize in the treatment of mental disorders

Psychiatry is a branch of medicine while psychology is the study of human behaviour.

Psychiatry is a “branch of medicine that deals with the diagnosis, management and prevention of mental, emotional or behavioural disorders”. Psychiatrists are doctors who look at the biology and neurochemistry of human beings to determine how they influence our behaviour and emotions.



On the other hand, psychology is a multifaceted discipline that studies how human beings think, behave and interact with one another. Depending on your level of study, you may be exposed to scientific research and conduct experiments, case studies, observations and brain imaging to investigate why we behave the way we do.

Psychiatrists have a Medical Degree while psychologists have a postgraduate Psychology Degree.

Since psychiatrists are qualified doctors, a career in psychiatry begins with a Medical Degree, which typically takes 5 years to complete.

Once you are a registered doctor, you will then need to study for a Masters in Psychiatry.



To qualify as a psychologist, you will first need to complete a Degree in Psychology, which takes 3 years to complete, before taking your masters or PhD in a specialised field, such as clinical psychology, neuropsychology or forensic psychology. This may take approximately 2 to 3 years.

Psychiatrists can prescribe medication but psychologists can't.

Both psychiatrists and psychologists are trained to solve mental health problems but their approach to finding a solution may be different.

A psychiatrist is a qualified medical doctor who specialises in treating mental illnesses.



They diagnose a variety of mental health disorders, from anxiety and depression to schizophrenia, and use their knowledge of human behaviour and genetics to develop a treatment plan for their patients.

As they are registered medical practitioners, psychiatrists can prescribe medication to their patients in combination with psychotherapy as part of their treatment.

Mental disorders, such as anxiety, bipolar disorder and attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) can be treated effectively with the help of medication.

A psychologist, on the other hand, is an expert in human behaviour. They conduct laboratory and psychological tests, conduct interviews to assess the behaviour of individuals and help their patients cope with life problems and mental health disorders.

Unlike psychiatrists, psychologists cannot prescribe medication. Instead, they use various methods, such as counselling and psychotherapy, to treat their patients.

Psychiatrists primarily work in the medical field while psychologists can work in a wider range of fields.

While psychiatrists can work in various settings, such as hospitals, universities, private practice or nursing homes, their careers primarily revolve around the medical field due to their background as medical practitioners.

In contrast, psychologists can specialise in a variety of fields, giving them a wider range of career opportunities. Aside from clinical psychology that focuses on mental health disorders, other specialisations include sports psychology (helping athletes enhance their performance), industrial and organisational psychology (improving efficiency and employee well-being in the workplace) and cognitive psychology (exploring how people process information).

A psychologist can also become a certified counsellor by obtaining a license from the Malaysian Board of Counsellors and registering with the Malaysian Association of Counsellors. A counsellor utilises his or her counseling skills and techniques to provide help to people with mental health problems and others who need emotional and psychological support.



There are many specialties. Each specialty has a particular focus. Psychologists study many different forms of behaviours and perform their work in many different settings. Below are some common sub-fields of psychology.

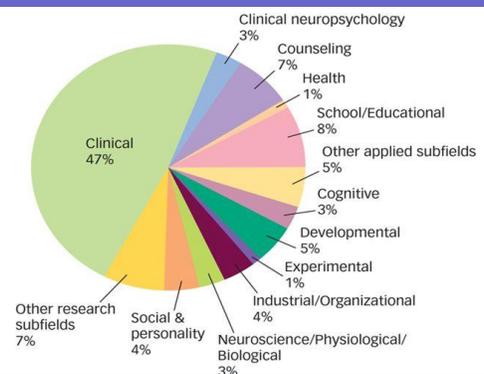
Specialization	Focus
Clinical Psychology	diagnosis, causes, and treatment of mental disorders
Cognitive Psychology	all aspects of cognition-memory, thinking, reasoning, language, decision making, etc.
Counselling Psychology	individual's personal problems that do not involve psychological disorders
Developmental Psychology	how people change physically, cognitively, and socially over their entire life span
Educational Psychology	all aspects of the education process
Experimental Psychology	all basic psychological processes, including perception, learning, and motivation
Industrial/Organizational Psychology	all aspects of behavior in the work setting
Psychobiology	the biological bases of behavior
Social Psychology	all aspects of social behavior and social thought – how we think about and interact with others
Sports Psychology	all aspects of behavior in the sports setting

Nearly half of all psychologists are clinical or counselling psychologists who conduct therapy and help people with problems. Many **social psychologists** are employed by universities, colleges, hospitals, and mental health institutions to teach and to conduct either **basic research** (designed to increase understanding) or **applied research** (focuses on finding solutions to practical problems).

Social psychology has always been concerned with the real-life problems of people and the societies which they live. In the **business sector**, psychologists may advise companies on issues dealing with the following:

- Hiring and firing practices
- Introducing and dealing with change
- Stress management
- Effective management and leadership styles
- Creating a collaborative work environment
- Resolving workplace conflict
- Addiction counselling
- Marketing and advertising strategies
- Customer service
- Motivating employees

The Major Subfields in Psychology



Name: _____ Date: _____

Psych 30: 1.1 Overview

Psychologist Profile

Psychologist Profile

Select one of the following psychologists for your research paper. Your research should include the following:

- Some personal background on the psychologist
 - Birth/Death
 - Family
 - Up-bringing
 - Education
- The particular field in which his/her main research was/is being done. Describe how the new ideas were or how they challenged previous thinking. Was it controversial?
- What are some theories attributed to this person?
- What are some examples of the work done by this person? For example, some famous experiments, famous books, etc.
- What contributions has this made to society today?

The paper should be 500-700 words long, typed single spaced, Times New Roman size 12 font. You should have an opening and closing paragraph. A bibliography with endnotes/footnotes should be provided. Your research should come from at least TWO SOURCES and you MUST HAVE a MINIMUM of 2 DIRECT QUOTES.

Your paper is out of 100 marks with the following breakdown:

Research	60%
Grammar & Spelling	20%
Bibliography &	20%
Endnotes/Footnotes	

Select from the following Psychologists:

Jean Piaget

Lev Vygotsky

Bruno Bettelheim

Erik Erikson

John Bowlby

Albert Bandura

Harry Harlow

Francoise Dolto

Mary Ainsworth

Kenneth Clark

Eleanor Maccoby

Sigmund Freud

Lawrence Kohlberg

Walter Mischel

Carl Jung

William James

Abraham Maslow

Carl Rogers

Jacques Lacan

John B. Watson

B.F. Skinner

Melanie Klein

Anna Freud

Erich Fromm

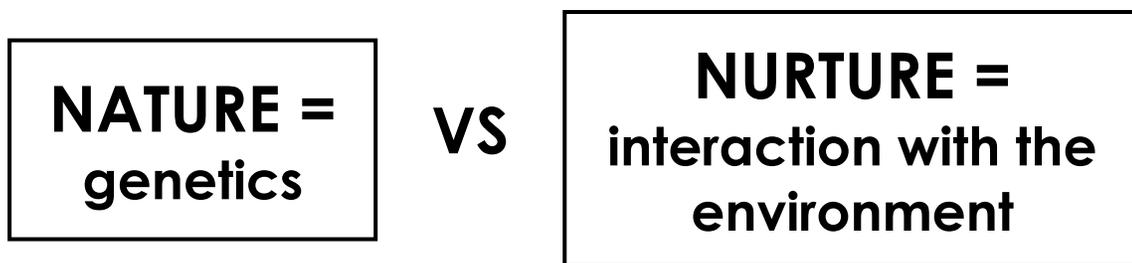
Jerome Bruner

Alfred Adler

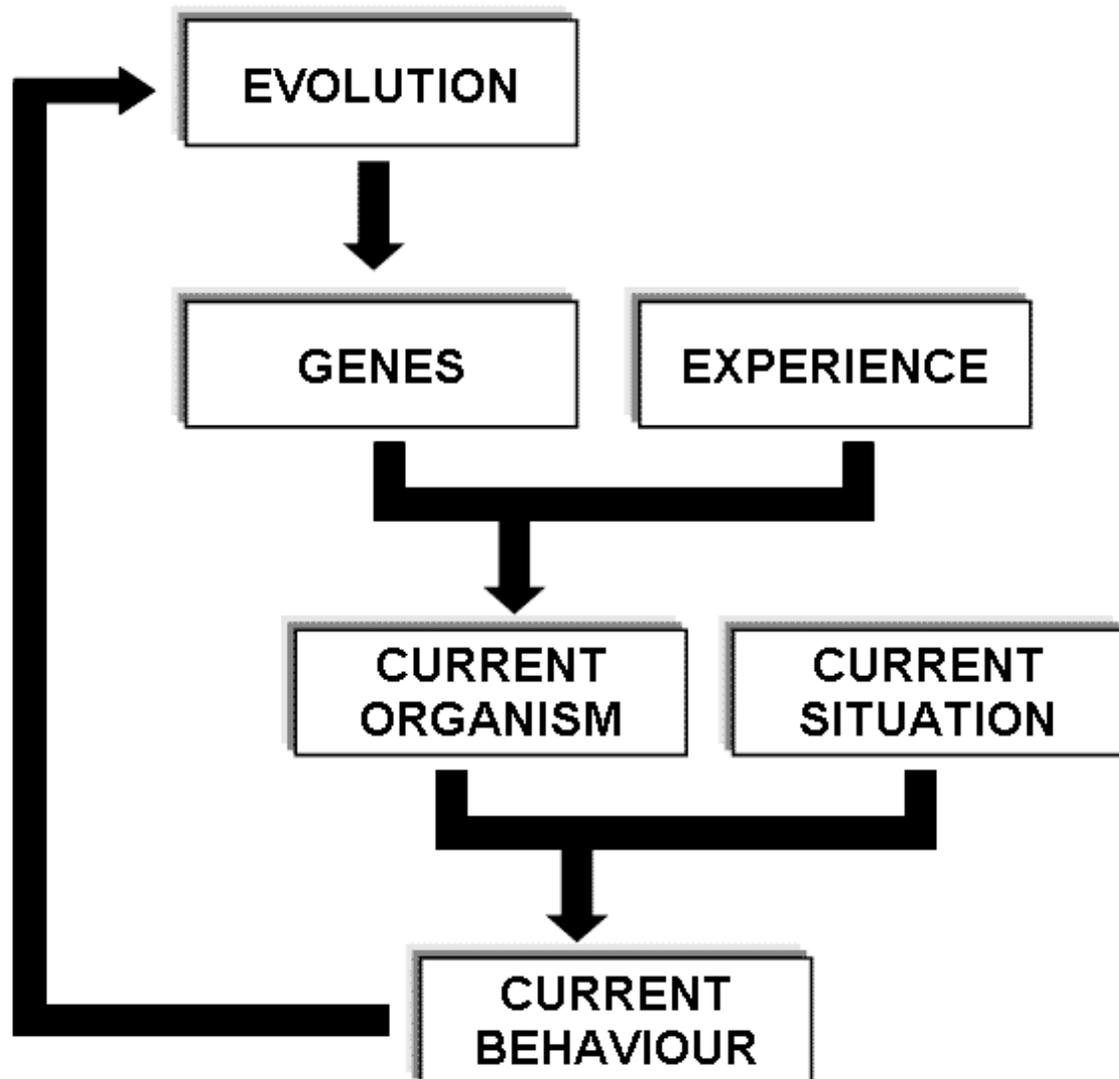
Ivan Pavlov

Eleanor Gibson

Others



Nature/Nurture and Human Development

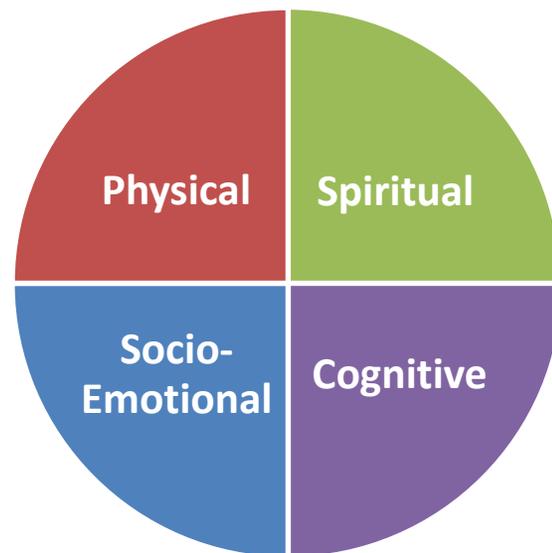


Dimensions of Development

Biological: 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: 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).

Socio-emotional: Socio-emotional 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 socio-emotional processes in development (Santrock, 1999, p. 17).



Spiritual: 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).

Class Demonstration: Holding Hands

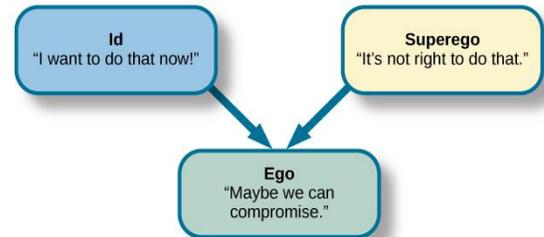
1. Ask a female and a male student to stand up and hold hands. Note the relative position of the male student's hands. Invariably, the male student's hand will be on top, and the female student's hand will be on the bottom. Repeat several times to establish a pattern.
2. Discuss possible reasons or explanations as to why this occurs.
 - A biological interpretation (nature) will explain it in terms of the mechanics of holding hands, in other words, the taller person (usually the male) will find it more comfortable to place his hand on top.
 - A psychological (social environment or nurture) explanation might include the relative "dominance" of males versus the "submissiveness" of females, as illustrated in the unconscious act of placing the female hand on the bottom.

Perspectives of Social Psychology

What are the major theoretical perspectives that try to explain human development?

Psychodynamic Perspective:

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**.



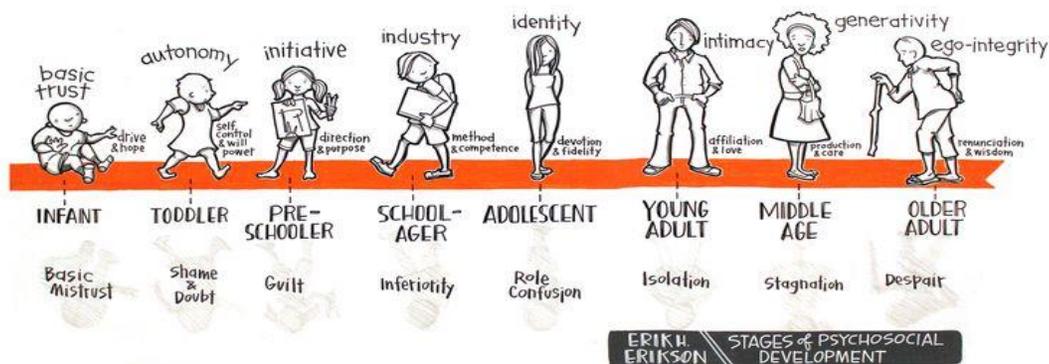
Sigmund Freud's psychoanalytic theory suggests that **unconscious forces act to determine personality and behaviour**. To Freud, the unconscious is a part of the personality about which a person is unaware. It contains infantile wishes, desires, demands and needs that are hidden, because of their disturbing 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.

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.

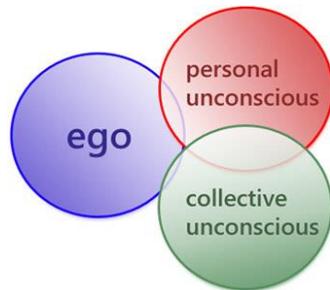
The **ego** is the part of the personality that is rational and reasonable. While providing a reality check for the demands of the id, the ego acts as a buffer between the outside world and the primitive id. The ego operates on the "reality principle", in which instincts are restrained in order to maintain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

Finally, Freud proposed that 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 (Feldman, 2000, p. 15).

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 (Feldman, 2000, p. 17).



Carl Jung was originally one of Freud's closest friends, but by 1914 he had left Freud's inner circle. In addition to the individual's own unconscious, said Jung (1969), there is a **collective unconscious shared by all human beings**, containing **universal memories, symbols and images** that



are the legacy of human history. In his studies of myths, art and folklore in cultures all over the world, Jung identified a number of these common themes, which he called archetypes. Psychologists have found that some basic archetypes such as the Hero, the Nurturing Mother, the Powerful Father, the Wicked Witch and the Earth Mother do appear in the stories and images of virtually every society. Two of the most important archetypes, in Jung's view, are those of Men and Women themselves. Jung recognized that "masculine" and "feminine" qualities exist in both sexes. Problems can arise, however, if a person

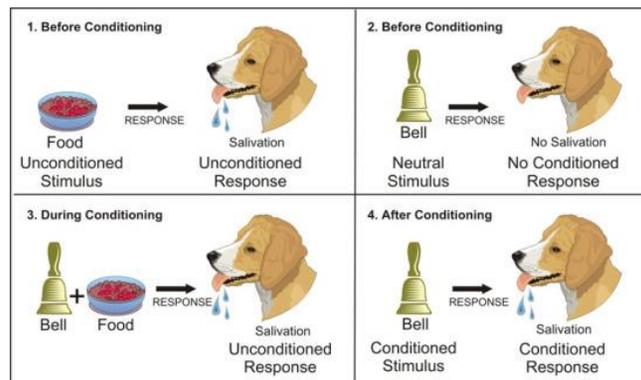
tries to repress his or her internal, opposite archetype – that is, if a man totally denies his softer "feminine" side or if a woman denies her "masculine" aspects. People also create problems in relationships when they expect the partner to behave like the ideal archetypal man or woman, instead of a real human being who has both sides (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 481).

The Behavioural Perspective:

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 (Feldman, 2000, p. 18).

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



Classical Conditioning

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 (Feldman, 2000, p. 18).

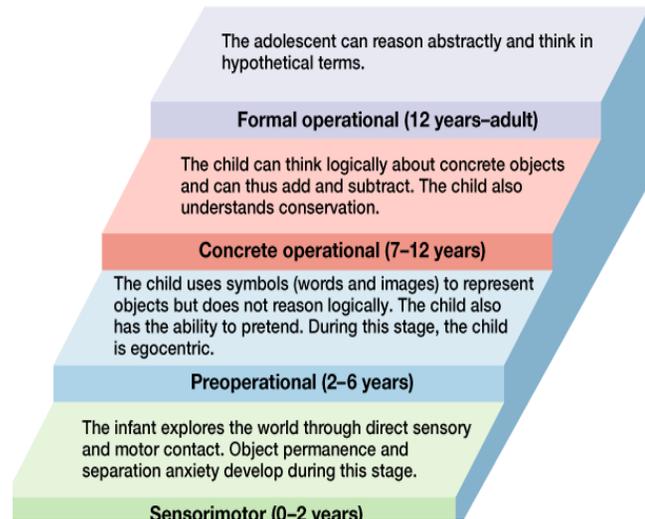
According to social-cognitive learning theorist **Albert Bandura**, when **we see the behaviour of a model being rewarded, we are likely to imitate that behaviour**. **Behaviour is learned through observation and imitation**, not conditioning through reinforcement or punishment (Feldman, 2000, p. 18).

The Cognitive Perspective:

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 (Feldman, 2000, p. 20).

No single person has had a greater impact on the study of cognitive development than **Jean**

Piaget who **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 (Feldman, 2000, p. 20).



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 (Feldman, 2000, p. 21).

The Humanistic Perspective:

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 (Feldman, 2000, p. 22).

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 (Feldman, 2000, p. 22).



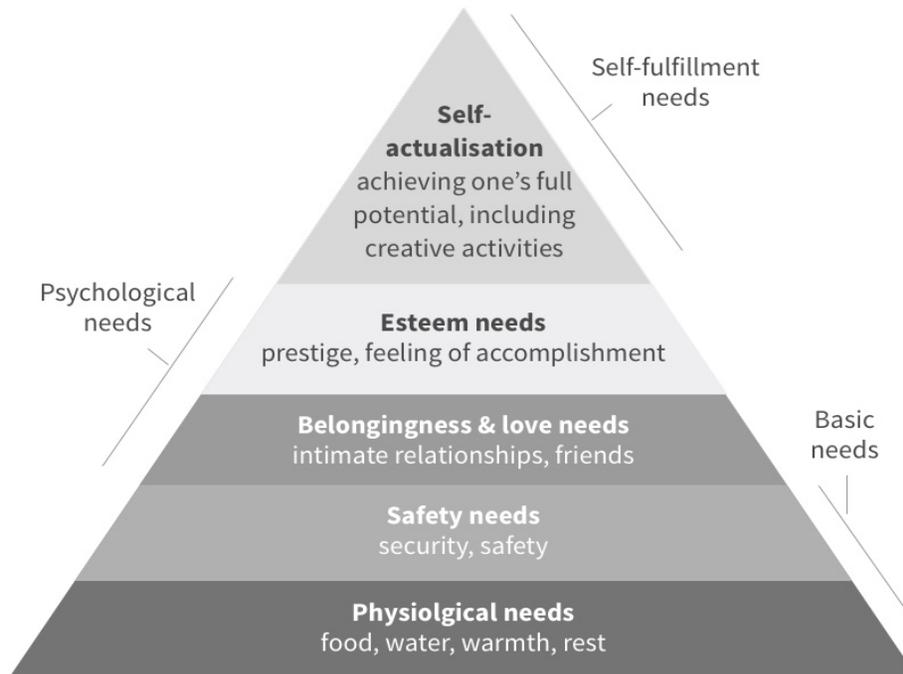
Two Basic Human Needs

- ❖ **Self Actualization**: the need to fulfill all of one's potential.
- ❖ **Positive Regard**: the need to receive acceptance, respect, and affection from others.

Positive regard often comes with conditions attached ("Conditions of Worth"): We must meet others' expectations to get it. This is called **Conditional Positive Regard**.

The Humanistic Perspective (cont'd)

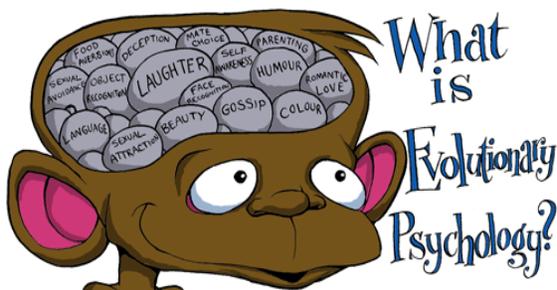
Abraham Maslow suggests that **self-actualization is a primary goal in life. Self-actualization is a state of self-fulfillment in which people achieve their highest potential in their own unique way.** (Feldman, 2000, p. 22). Self-actualization can only be achieved if foundational needs are fulfilled.



The Evolutionary Perspective:

According to evolutionary theories, **behaviour is strongly influenced by biology, is tied to evolution, and is characterized by critical or sensitive periods.** Evolutionary approaches grow out of the ground-breaking work of Charles Darwin (Feldman, 2000, p. 22).

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 (Feldman, 2000, p. 23).

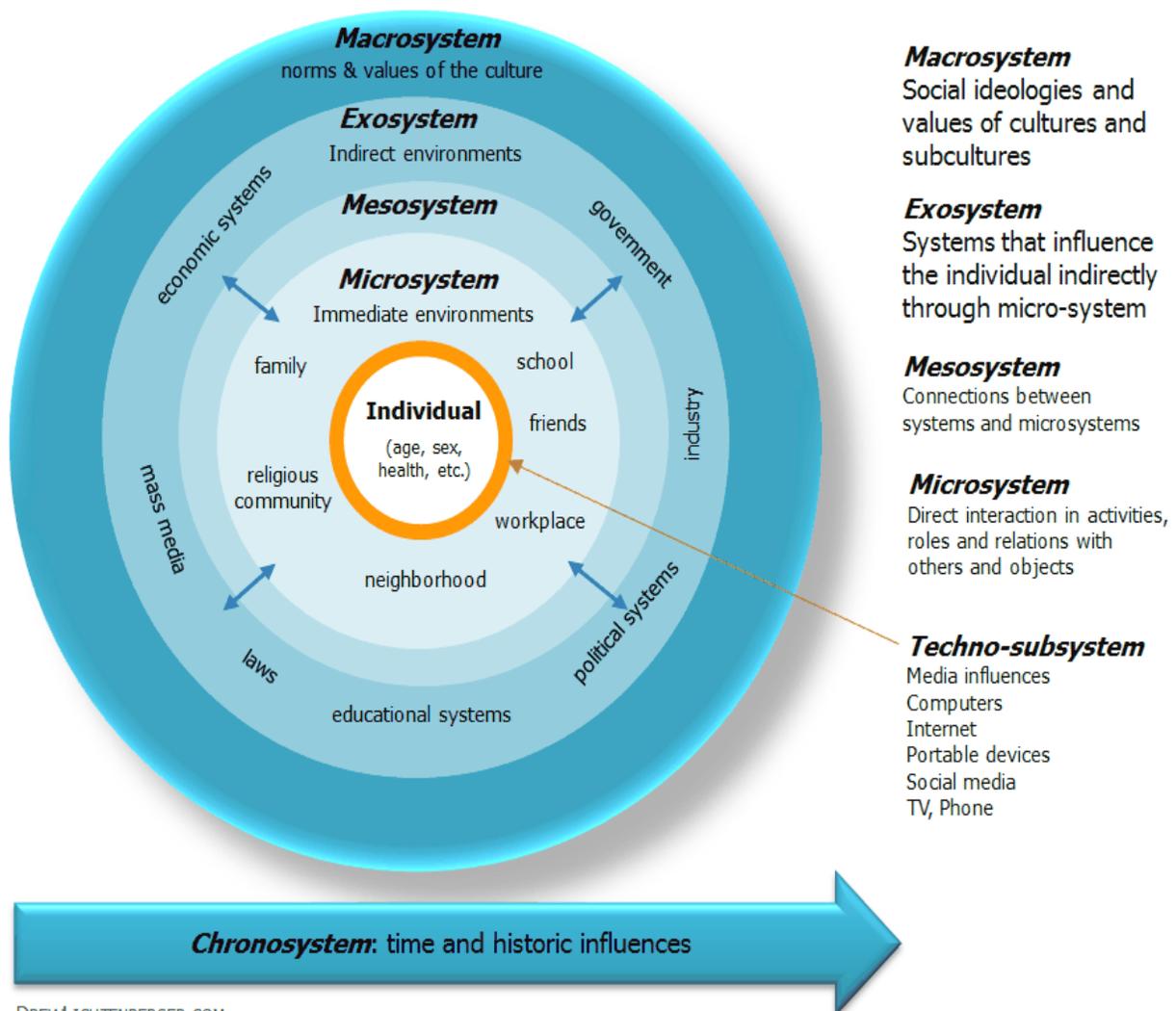


The evolutionary perspective encompasses one of the fastest growing areas within the field of lifespan development, behavioural genetics. **Behavioural genetics studies the effects of heredity and genetics on behaviour.** As technology improves, and researchers continue to map the human genome, there is an increasing understanding of the role and function of the genetic codes and their influence on development (Feldman, 2000, p. 23).

The Sociocultural Perspective:

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, p. 8).

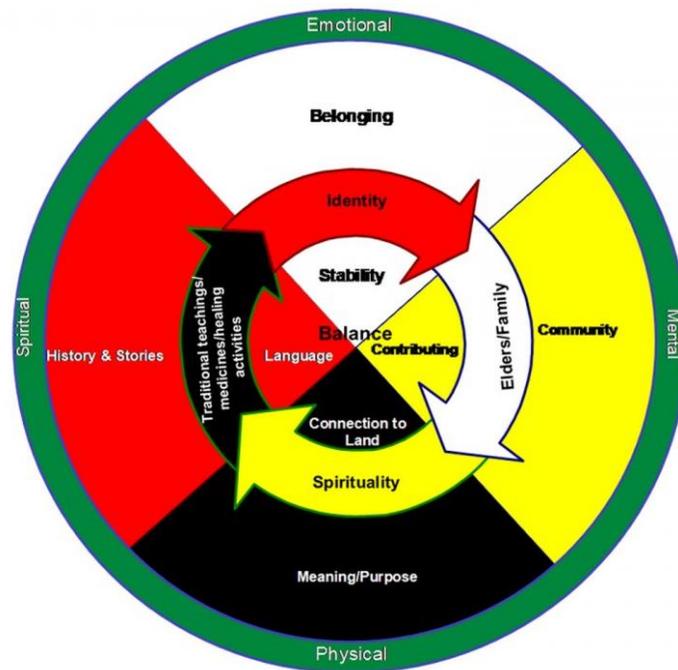
According to **Urie Bronfenbrenner**, **each person is significantly affected by interactions among overlapping ecosystems**. At the center of the model is the **individual**. **Microsystems** are the systems that intimately and immediately shape human development. The primary microsystems for children include the family, peer group, classroom, neighbourhood, and sometimes a church, temple, or mosque as well. Surrounding the microsystems is the **ecosystem**, 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, 1977, quoted in Berger, 2000, p. 7).



An Indigenous Perspective – A Code of Ethics:

In addition to the **sacred teachings concerning the nature of things**, the teachings of the *Sacred Tree* include a **code of ethics** to which all should conform their lives if they wish to find happiness and well-being. This code describes what wisdom means in the relationship between individuals, in family life, and in the life of the community. These are the sparkling gems of experience practised by Indigenous people everywhere:

- Each morning before rising, and each evening before sleeping, give thanks for the life within you and for all life, for the good things the Creator has given you and others and for the opportunity to grow a little more each day. Consider your thoughts and actions of the past day and seek for the courage and strength to be a better person. Seek for the things that will benefit everyone.
- Be truthful at all times, and under all conditions.
- Always treat your guests with honor and consideration. Give of your best food, your best blankets, the best part of your house, and your best service to your guests.
- The hurt of one is the hurt of all, the honor of one is the honor of all.
- Receive strangers and outsiders with a loving heart and as members of the human family.
- Observe moderation and balance in all things.
- All the races and tribes in the world are like the different coloured flowers of one meadow. All are beautiful. As children of the Creator they must all be respected.
- To serve others, to be of use to family, community, nation or the world is one of the main purposes for which human beings have been created. Do not fill yourself with your own affairs and forget your most important task. True happiness comes only to those who dedicate their lives to the service of others.
- Know those things that lead to your well-being, and those things that lead to your destruction.
- Respect the wisdom of the people in council. Once you give an idea to a council or a meeting it no longer belongs to you. It belongs to the people. Respect demands that you listen intently to the ideas of others in council and that you do not insist that your idea prevail. Indeed, you should freely support the ideas of others if they are true or good, even if those ideas are quite different from the ones you have contributed. The clash of ideas brings forth the spark of truth. Once a council has decided something in unity, respect demands that no one speak secretly against what has been decided. If the council has made an error, that error will become apparent to everyone in its own time.



An Indigenous Perspective – A Code of Ethics (cont'd)

- **Respect.** Respect means “to feel or show honor or esteem for someone or something; to consider the well-being of, or to treat someone or something with deference or courtesy”. Showing respect is a basic law of life.
 - Treat every person, from the tiniest child to the oldest elder with respect at all times.
 - Special respect should be given to elders, parents, teachers, and community members.
 - No person should be made to feel “put down” by you; avoid hurting other hearts as you would avoid a deadly poison.
 - Touch nothing that belongs to someone else without permission, or an understanding between you.
 - Respect the privacy of every person. Never intrude on a person’s quiet moments or personal space.
 - Never walk between people that are conversing.
 - Never interrupt people that are conversing.
 - Speak in a soft voice, especially when you are in the presence of elders, strangers, or others to whom special respect is due.
 - Do not speak unless invited to do so at gatherings where elders are present.
 - Never speak about others in a negative way, whether they are present or not.
 - Treat the earth and all of her aspects as your mother. Show deep respect for the mineral world, the plant world, and the animal world. Do nothing to pollute the air or the soil. If others would destroy our mother, rise up with wisdom to defend her.
 - Show deep respect for the beliefs and religions of others.
 - Listen with courtesy to what others say, even if you feel that what they are saying is worthless.
 - Listen with your heart.



Miss Foley

Psych 30: 1.3 Perspectives

Perspectives

The Wild Boy of Aveyron: A Case Study

Before dawn on January 9, 1800, a remarkable creature came out of the woods near the village of Saint-Sernin in southern France. No one expected him. No one recognized him. He was human in bodily form and walked erect. Everything else about him suggested an animal. He was naked except for the tatters of a shirt and showed no modesty, no awareness of himself as a human person related in any way to the people who had captured him. He could not speak and made only weird, meaningless cries. Though very short, he appeared to be a boy of about eleven or twelve, with a round face under dark, matted hair. During the night he had approached the lower part of the village, where the Rance River leaves a narrow-wooded valley and sweeps under a stone bridge. The boy had entered the terraced garden of a tanner and begun digging for vegetables. There the tanner caught him.

In an official report of the local commissioner written three weeks after the capture, we have our first eyewitness account:

The whole neighborhood learned about it quickly and everyone turned out to see the child. People referred to him as a wild savage. I hurried down there myself to make my own decision about how far to believe the stories. I found him sitting by a warm fire, which he seemed to enjoy, but showing signs of uneasiness from time to time, probably because of the great crowd of people around him. For a while I watched him without saying anything. When I spoke to him it didn't take long to discover that he was mute. Soon after that, when I noticed that he made no response to various questions I put to him, in both a loud and a soft voice, I decided that he must be deaf.

When I took him affectionately by the hand to lead him to my house, he resisted strenuously. But a series of caresses and particularly two hugs I gave him, with a friendly smile, changed his mind, and after that he seemed to trust me.

When we reached my house, I decided he must be hungry. To find out what he liked, I had my servant offer him on a big earthenware platter raw and cooked meat, rye and wheat bread, apples, pears, grapes, nuts, chestnuts, acorns, potatoes, parsnips and an orange. He picked up the potatoes confidently and tossed them into the fire to cook them. One at a time he seized the other items, smelled them and rejected them. With his right hand he picked the potatoes right out of the live coals and ate them roasting hot. There was no way to persuade him to let them cool off a little. He made sharp, inarticulate, yet scarcely complaining sounds that indicated the hot food was burning him. When he got thirsty, he glanced around the room. Noticing the pitcher, he placed my hand in his without any other sign and led me to the pitcher, which he tapped with his left hand as a means of asking for a drink. Some wine was brought, but he scorned it and showed impatience at my delay in giving him water to drink.

He relieved himself wherever and whenever he felt like it, squatting to urinate, defecating while standing.

Several days later, the "savage" was taken to an orphanage, or hospice in the town of Saint-Affrique. He was kept there for a month. During this time, reports were kept on his behaviour:

Accustomed to all the hardships of winter in the open air and at a high altitude, the boy would not tolerate any kind of clothing. He pulled his clothes off as soon as he had been dressed or tore them up if he couldn't get them off. When he arrived at the home, he showed a great aversion to sleeping in a bed. However, he gradually got used to doing so, and later on showed his pleasure whenever his sheets were changed.

Following a brief stay at the orphanage, the boy was taken to Paris under the protection of a local priest and naturalist named Bonaterre. The descriptions and accounts continued:

Outwardly, this boy is no different from other boys. He stands four feet one inch tall; he appears to be about twelve or thirteen years old. He has delicate white skin, a round face, long eyelashes, a long, slightly pointed nose, an average-sized mouth, a rounded chin, generally agreeable features, and an engaging smile. When he raises his head, one can see at the upper end of the tracheal artery, right across the glottis, a healed over wound about an inch and a half long. It looks like the scar left by a sharp instrument.

When he is sitting down, and even when he is eating, he makes a guttural sound, a low murmur; and he rocks his body from right to left or backwards and forwards, with his head and chin up, his mouth closed, and his eyes staring at nothing. In this position he sometimes has spasms, convulsive movements that may indicate that his nervous system has been affected.

There is nothing wrong with the boy's five senses, but their order of importance seemed to be modified. He relies first on smell, then on taste; his sense of touch comes last. His sight is sharp; his hearing seems to shut out many sounds people around him pay close attention to. Nothing interests him but food and sleep.

His constant need for food multiplies his connections with the objects around him and develops a certain degree of intelligence in him. During his stay at the orphanage, his sole occupation consisted of shelling beans, and he performed that job as efficiently as an experienced person. Since he knew that the beans were a regular part of his ration, as soon as he saw a bunch of dried beanstalks he went to get a pot. He set up his workspace in the middle of the room, laying out the different articles as conveniently as possible. As he emptied the pods, he set them down next to him in a symmetrical pile. When he had finished, he picked up the pot, put water in it, set it on the fire, which he built up by adding the dry pods. If the fire had gone out, he picked up the shovel and gave it to the worker, making signs that they should go find some live coals in the neighborhood. As soon as the pot began to boil, he demonstrated his desire to eat. And there was no alternative but to pour the half-cooked beans into his plate. He ate them eagerly.

When it is time to go to bed, nothing can stop him. He picks up a candlestick, points at the key to his room, and goes into a rage if he is not obeyed.

After several months of careful observation and experimentation, Bonaterre concluded:

All these little details and many others we could add prove that this child is not totally without intelligence, reflection, and reasoning power. However, we are obliged to say that, in every case not concerned with his natural needs or satisfying his appetite, one can perceive in him only animal behaviour. If he has sensations, they give birth to no idea. He cannot even compare them with one another. One would think that there is no connection between his soul or mind and his body, and that he cannot reflect on anything. As a result he has no discernment, no real mind, no memory. This condition of imbecility shows itself in his eyes, which he never keeps on any one object, and in the sounds of his voice which are inarticulate, and discordant. One can see it even in his gait – always a trot or a gallop – and in his actions, which have no purpose or explanation.

Name: _____ Date: _____

Psych 30: 1.3 Perspectives

Case Study

Making Sense of Our Behaviour

Science is fundamentally a rational process. In its simplest form, the rational model consists of these steps:

- Formulating a theoretical problem
- Translate problem into testable hypotheses
- Selecting the appropriate research method
- Designing and carrying out the study
- Analyzing and interpreting the results
- Using the results to confirm, deny or modify the theory (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 17).

The Scientific Method



Methods of Research in Social Psychology

Experimental Methods:

1. Came into being because of the need to draw causal inferences about how variables influence one another.
2. 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).

Interview:

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

Observation:

1. Involves direct observation of the spontaneous behaviour of an individual, or group of people in a natural setting. –
2. The observer may remain aloof and simply observe, or become a participant-observer (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 19).

Case Study:

1. 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.
2. Additional case-study material may be obtained through observation, experiments and standardized tests, such as personality inventories and intelligence tests.
3. Case studies can provide a wealth of detail, which makes them rich in possible insights. Many developmentalists prefer case studies precisely for that reason: the complexity of a human life is easier to understand through the rich qualitative, or descriptive, information of a case study than through a study involving sheer numbers, even though statistical significance depends on such quantitative or numerical data.
4. The interpretation of case-study information reflects the biases as well as the wisdom of the researcher; and, even when a case-study is carefully interpreted, the conclusions apply with certainty to only one person.
5. Nevertheless, the case-study has three important uses: to provide a provocative starting point for other research; to understand an individual very well; and to illustrate general truths.
6. Remember, that no confident conclusions about people in general can be drawn from a sample size of one, or even 10 or 20, no matter how deep and detailed the study is (Berger, 2000, p. 28).

Topical:

1. 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:

1. Involves going out and asking, or sending out, questions about the phenomenon of interest.
2. 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.
3. Survey methods do not provide cause-effect relationship data, and can be unreliable because of poorly constructed questions, interviewer bias, inaccurate reporting from respondents, and a poorly defined sample (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 21).

Research Methods Comparison

The **Ages & Stages: Research Methodologies in Developmental Psychology** (p.19-21) article outlines how we answer psychological questions. Rather than focusing exclusively on the answers themselves, this article focuses on the way's answers are discovered. Using this article, complete the chart below:

Research Method Description	Pros	Cons
Naturalistic Observation:		
Participant Observation:		
Structured Observation:		
Field Experiments:		

Research Method Description	Pros	Cons
Correlation Studies:		
Experiments:		
Interview:		
Research with Animals:		
Survey or Questionnaire:		

Methodological Issues in Research

Reliability

1. Reliability refers to the extent to which the research yields the same results each time they are applied to the same issue (Baron et al., 1998, p. 459).
2. 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.

Validity

1. Validity refers to the extent to which a research methodology measures what it is supposed to measure (Baron et al., 1998, p. 460).
2. Continuing with our example of the play behaviours of young children, is the observational approach a valid means of studying the topic?
3. 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.

Ethical Issues in Research

Confidentiality

1. This is the right of privacy for subjects concerning their participation in research. All steps must be taken to assure that subjects' participation is confidential.
2. If any possibility exists that someone other than the researcher may have access to the data, the subject must be informed of this possibility before they provide their informed consent to participate (Buskist et al., 2002, p. 42).

Informed Consent

1. This requires that potential subjects understand exactly what is expected of them during the research and that the investigator protects participants from physical and psychological discomfort, harm and danger (Buskist et al., 2002, p. 42).

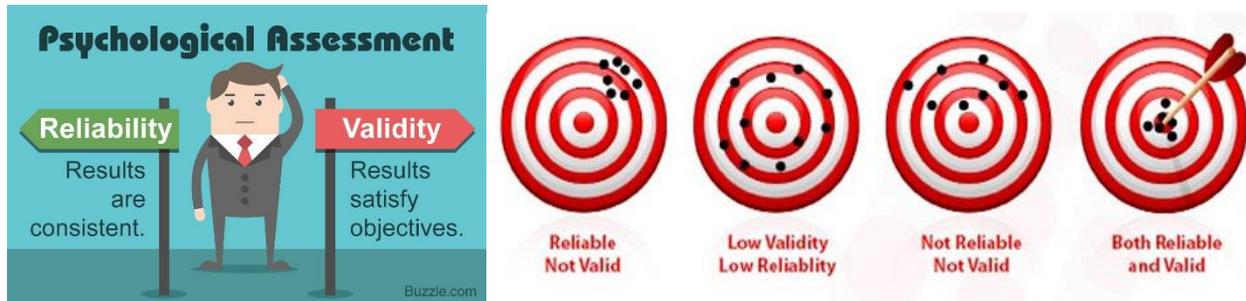
Debriefing

1. This 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).

Biases

1. 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).

Making Research More Valid & Reliable



Scientific investigation includes the possibility that researchers' procedures and/or biases may compromise the validity of their findings. Researchers can, however, use several 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, consist 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 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 must consider the possibility that the differences occurred purely by chance. Determining the statistical significance is a mathematical measure of the likelihood that a research result occurred by chance (Berger, 2000, p. 23).

