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Chapter 2: Theories of Human Development: Psychosocial, Sociocultural, Multicultural, Biological, and Learning Theories

Chapter Overview

I. Historical Perspectives

A. Childhood in the Middle Ages
   1. Children were viewed as miniature adults.
   2. Children during this period were expected to participate fully in all aspects of social life, including entering the workforce by age 7 and most girls marrying by age 12.
      a. This perspective on childhood was most likely related to the life expectancy of the time.
      b. Before the 17th century, the average life span was between 30 and 40 years.
   3. Due to high infant mortality rates and rates of fatal diseases, parents did not become overly attached to their children.

B. Children in the 18th and 19th centuries
   1. A growing perspective took shape that children are innocent and in need of adult protection and discipline.
   2. With the development of industry, commerce, and city swelling, the idea of education for children, rather than immediate entry into the workforce, began to build.
   3. The Puritan view on human development spread:
      a. According to religious leaders during this era, children were born into original sin, and it was the responsibility of parents and adults to provide strict discipline.
      b. Original sin is a Christian doctrine that states that all infants are born with the hereditary stain and propensity to sin left behind from Adam's sin.
   4. A shift occurred with the work of John Locke and the *tabula rasa*, a blank slate, meaning that we are born without innate ideas and that knowledge is determined by experience and perception.
   5. Influence of the Industrial Revolution on childhood.
      a. With the spread of the Industrial Revolution in the 1800s and the growing numbers of factories came the need for increased numbers of workers, including children, despite long hours and dangerous conditions.
      b. Child labor was often preferred over adult labor because children were more docile and cheaper to employ.

C. Children in the 20th century
   1. With the growing number of laws restricting child labor, children were no longer viewed as economic necessities.
   2. Emergence of the economically "worthless" (and expensive) but emotionally "priceless" child (1870s to the 1930s).
   3. In return for their expenses, children are expected to provide love, smiles, and emotional satisfaction and promote a feeling of being a family.

D. Children in the 21st century
   1. Children continued to be viewed as valuable and entitled to protection from harm.
   2. Children are viewed as deserving a life full of good emotional, mental, and physical health.

II. Psychosocial Theories

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A. Sigmund Freud
   1. Before Freud
      a. Irregularities in human development or variations in the expression of the human experience were viewed as demonic possessions or moral deficits.
      b. "Treatment" involved exorcisms, witch-hunting, imprisonment, or involuntary commitment to an asylum.
   2. Psychoanalytic theory
      a. Psychoanalytic theory is an intrapsychic, deterministic theory focusing on early childhood experiences, characterological change, the unconscious, and insight.
      b. The goal of psychoanalysis is to make the unconscious conscious by gaining insight into current patterns with the goal of changing personality, resolving underlying conflicts, and attaining freedom from the past.
   3. Intrapsychic
   4. Personality structure
      a. The id, ego, and superego
         (i.) The id is governed by pleasure and instinct (the pleasure principle).
         (ii.) The ego is governed by reality and logic (the reality principle).
         (iii.) The superego is governed by society and morality (the morality principle).
         (iv.) This structure assumes that people have inherent pathologies, spurred by unconscious drives, which they need to address and overcome.
      b. Psychosexual stages
         (i.) The oral phase lasts from birth to 18 months and centers on the pleasure of sucking and eating. Trust and security are major concerns.
         (ii.) The anal stage, from 18 months to 3 years, focuses on pleasure received from controlling one's excretory functions.
         (iii.) The phallic stage, from 3 to 5 years, attends to children's fascination with their genitalia and other bodily functions. The Electra Complex and Oedipal Complex are aspects of this stage.
         (iv.) The latent stage, from age 5 until puberty, is marked by calm.
         (v.) The genital stage begins at puberty and lasts through the remainder of the person's life. During this stage, conscious and unconscious behaviors manifest as a result of the culmination of early childhood experiences.
   5. Defense mechanisms
      a. People use defense mechanisms to protect themselves from unwanted anxiety, experiences, or pain resulting from the ego's inability to balance the id and superego.
      b. Examples include repression, denial, sublimation, projection, reaction formation, displacement, rationalization, introjection, compensation, acting out, and splitting.

B. Neo-Freudians
   1. Emphasis on interactions and interpersonal relationships, not simply intrapsychic events
   2. Still insight-oriented, primarily deterministic, and still focused a great deal on attention on intrapsychic disturbances
   3. Carl Jung
      a. Student and friend of Freud
      b. Developed analytical psychology

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(i.) Focused on the later years of an adult's life.
(ii.)The primary goal was for the client to achieve individuation, a balanced integration and expression of one's unconscious and conscious.
(iii.) Archetypes (persona, shadow, anima, and animus) to understand the unconscious

4. Alfred Adler
   a. Individual psychology
      (i.) Teleological (goal-directed)
      (ii.)Each individual has a private logic that consists of core assumptions, beliefs, and philosophies about life.
      (iii.) By examining faulty conclusions, clients make about private logic, clients would be able to overcome feelings of inferiority and live more meaningful lives.
   b. Key concepts: social interest, purposeful behavior, and belonging
   c. Popular methods: examination of birth order, sibling relationships, and early recollections
5. Karen Horney
   a. More responsive to gender dynamics
   b. Reworked Freud's notion of "penis envy"
   c. Three coping strategies (postures) to protect themselves and provide safety from anxiety
      (i.) Helpless, compliantly moving toward others
      (ii.)Aggressive, moving against others to dominate them
      (iii.) Detached, moving away to avoid hurt or abandonment
6. Harry Stack Sullivan
   a. Interpersonal therapy
      (i.) Sullivan believed that the relationships between and among people served to form the personality and were both the cause and the cure of psychological problems.
      (ii.)Each person's core self consists of "reflected appraisals" that are constructed through interpersonal relationships.
      (iii.) Parataxis distortions are the patterns of skewed or irrational perceptions people have regarding others' perceptions of themselves, based on childhood experiences. The danger is that these tend to yield self-fulfilling prophecies.
      (iv.) Methods used interpersonal relationships and group counseling settings to explore and reassess early experiences and the meanings they currently hold.
7. Erik Erikson
   a. Psychosocial stages
      (i.) People who successfully address these central goals move forward in a healthy and fulfilled manner, whereas those who do not are at risk for remaining stuck or regressing.
         (1) Trust vs. Mistrust: Infants develop trust with secure caregiver relationships when their basic needs are met.
         (2) Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt: Children explore the world and experiment.
         (3) Initiative vs. Guilt: The focus is on a basic sense of competence.

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(4) Industry vs. Inferiority: Focus is on goal-setting and achievement.
(5) Identity vs. Role Confusion: Individuals explore limits, boundaries, meaning, identity, and goals.
(6) Intimacy vs. Isolation: The major tasks are the development of and security within intimate relationships.
(7) Generativity vs. Stagnation: The focus is on transcending self and family and focusing on the next generation.
(8) Integrity vs. Despair: This deals with coming to terms with one's life.

8. Jane Loevinger
   a. Personality and ego development
      (i.) Examines interpersonal cognitive, and moral development across the lifespan
      (ii.)Progression through nine possible stages: presocial, impulsive, self-protective, conformist, self-aware, conscientious, individualistic, autonomous, and integrated
      (iii.) Growth and development relating to how individuals respond to new information or environmental stimuli
9. Arthur Chickering
   a. Identity development
      (i.) Seven vectors (areas that individuals navigate as they grow and develop)
         (1) These include developing competence, managing emotions, moving through autonomy to interdependence, establishing identity, developing mature interpersonal relationships, developing purpose, and developing integrity.
         (2) Vectors are not sequential, and people may negotiate multiple vectors simultaneously or revisit them over time.
         Case Example 2.1 Bianca

III. Sociocultural Theories

A. Lev Vygotsky
   1. Examined social processes occurring around children
      a. Zone of proximal development is the difference or distance between what children can achieve individually versus what they can achieve with adult guidance and support.
      b. Scaffolding is the process that helps children move from apposition of an inability to complete challenging tasks to a position where they can eventually complete the tasks independently.
      c. Private speech occurs when an individual talks aloud to him- or herself and not to others for the purpose of self-guidance; it aids in mental processing of challenging tasks
      d. Developmental problems occur when external support is insufficient or lacking.

B. Murray Bowen
   1. Multigenerational family systems
      a. Previous generations greatly affect the development of future generations' egos.
      b. Primary goal for family counseling is the differentiation of self, a process that includes separating oneself from one's family of origin and distinguishing one's emotions from one's cognitions. These systems avoid the fusion of individuals

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with one another, and each member's thoughts and feelings, which may result in impasse or stagnation.

C. Family lifecycle development (Betty Carter and Monica McGoldrick)
   1. Family processes and the family lifecycle
      a. Genograms are pictorial, symbolic representations that elucidate the structure and processes of multiple generations within a family system.
      b. Families navigate development and unexpected transitions over time by completing specific tasks:
         (i.) Leaving the home/young adulthood: Individuals accept emotional and financial responsibilities for themselves.
         (ii.) Joining of families/new couple: The couple becomes a new system.
         (iii.) Childbirth/childrearing: New members are accepted and incorporated into the system.
         (iv.) Middle marriage/families with adolescents: There is a need for more flexible boundaries as adolescents experiment with independence.
         (v.) Launching children/moving on: Marital dyad must be renegotiated.
         (vi.) Later life: There is an acceptance of new generational roles.

D. Uri Bronfenbrenner
   1. Ecological model of child development
      a. Individuals do not exist in a vacuum, but in a vast, complex, interwoven net of social structures including families, communities, local and global economies, political organizations, and historical eras.
      b. Different system levels include: microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem, and chronosystem.
      c. Case Example 2.2 Marcus

IV. Multicultural Theories of Development

A. White racial identity development (WRID, Helms).
   1. Because European Americans are a dominant and privileged group in the United States and because they outnumber other racial and ethnic groups, it is common for European Americans to experiences their lives oblivious to issues of their own racial identities and race privilege.
   2. Six statuses demonstrate an evolution in abandoning racism and developing a positive identity:
      a. Contact: Individuals are oblivious to issues of race and racial identity.
      b. Disintegration: Questioning of beliefs causes cognitive dissonance.
      c. Reintegration: This involves actively or passively believing in white superiority and dominance.
      d. Pseudoindependence: This is the beginning of defining a positive white racial identity emphasizing intellectual understanding.
      e. Immersion/emersion: Individuals replace old misinformation and stereotypes with accurate information.
      f. Autonomy: Whites are able to continue commitment to understanding and acknowledging racism and privilege.

B. Black racial identity development (Cross Nigrescence model)
   1. Pre-encounter: Whites are the primary reference group.

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2. Encounter: An event helps a person reflect on race/racial identity.
3. Immersion/emersion: Immersion consists of dichotomous thinking that rejects whiteness and embraces Black identity, whereas emersion represents a lessening of rigidity and reactivity.
4. Internalization: Black identity is based on appreciation, flexibility, and love instead of a hatred or rejection of others.
5. Internalization-commitment: There are increasing levels of social and political commitment.

C. Biracial identity development (Poston)
1. Biracial indicates a person conceived by people of different races.
2. Five-stage model addressed some of the complexities associated with being biracial:
   a. Personal identity is related to self-esteem, internalization of values and prejudices, and identification with reference groups.
   b. Choice of group categorization is the push to identify with a particular group, often accompanied by alienation and crisis for the individual.
   c. Enmeshment/denial often yields confusion and guilt about choosing a group to which to belong.
   d. Appreciation involves valuing and learning about multiple identities.
   e. Integration is the development of a secure, stable, integrated identity.

D. Multiple heritage identity development (MHID, Henriksen, & Paladino)
1. MHID integrates many facets of a person's identity such as socioeconomic status, gender, religion, language, national origin, and sexual identity.
2. MHID may better reflect the intersectionality of people's identities and the nuances of their lived experiences.

V. Biological Theories of Human Development

A. Darwin
1. The theory of evolution based on his assertion that all living species have descended over time from common ancestry.
   a. Natural selection—differential reproduction, or the process whereby certain traits or characteristics of a species that are more adaptable to the environment survive.
2. It is believed that observing children could provide important information related to the evaluation of the human species.

B. Ethological theory
1. Ethology is the study of the adaptive and evolutionary basis of animal behavior, particularly behaviors of species that promote their survival.
2. Proposes that species have inborn/instinctual responses shared by all members of that species, and these instincts guide individuals to similar developmental paths.
3. Ethology offered psychologists a methodology for studying human behaviors and a theory to explain instinctive behavior.

C. Attachment theory
1. Attachment is an emotional connection with important people in one's life.
2. Attachment leads to a sense of security and gives people pleasure as they interact with other people to whom they are attached.

D. John Bowlby
1. Development of attachment theory

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a. The first to apply the concepts of ethology to the infant-caregiver relationship.
b. While working in a home for maladjusted boys, Bowlby observed that disruptions in the mother-child relationship could lead to later child psychopathology.

2. Attachment theory
   a. According to Bowlby's attachment theory, infants are pre-adapted to respond to their caregiver and to exhibit behaviors that enhance the infant's chances of survival.
   b. The attachment behavioral system includes a cognitive component whereby individuals construct, at the subconscious level, mental representations of the attachment figure, the self, and the environment.
      (i.) Phase 1: Nonfocused responsiveness: The infants cry, smile, and make eye contact with anyone with whom they come into contact.
      (ii.)Phase 2: Discriminating attention: Babies begin to focus their social responsiveness to fewer people.
      (iii.) Phase 3: Proximity-seeking behavior: The attached figure becomes a base for the infant/toddler to explore.
      (iv.) Phase 4: Reciprocal relationship: The child begins to develop an internal model of the attachment relationship.
   c. Sensitive period—between 6 and 24 months, when the attachment relationship will develop more readily.

E. Mary Ainsworth
   1. Ainsworth believed that when individuals feel a strong attachment to each other, a proximity-seeking system engages, and individuals will want to be with the attachment object no matter the cost.
   2. The Strange Situation: Ainsworth recorded how children responded to their mother and a stranger as each entered and left the room.
   3. Attachment categories
      a. Secure attachment
      b. Insecure: Anxious-avoidant attachment
      c. Insecure: Anxious-ambivalent attachment
      d. Insecure: Disorganized-disoriented attachment, which can be both stable and changeable.

F. Maturation theory
   1. Maturation theorists believe that human development is biological and that development happens automatically and in predictable, sequential stages with few individual differences.
      a. Arnold Gesell
         (i.) Gesell believed that heredity was largely responsible for child development.
         (ii.)Children mature following an inherited timetable and develop skills and abilities in a preordained sequence.
         (iii.) Gesell described developmental milestones in the areas of motor characteristics, personal hygiene, emotional expression, fears and dreams, self and sex, interpersonal relations, play and pastimes, school life, ethical sense, and philosophic outlook.
            (1) Birth to 16 weeks: Newborns gain control of muscles and nerves in their faces.

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(2) 16 to 28 weeks: The baby gains control over her trunk and neck and begins to reach at objects.
(3) 28 to 40 weeks: The baby gains control over her trunk and hands, and begins to grasp at objects.
(4) 40 to 52 weeks: The baby gains control over legs and feet and begins to talk.
(5) Second year: Toddler learns to walk and run; language is developing with some words and phrases; the baby gains control over bladder and bowel movement; and the baby begins to develop a sense of personal identity and personal possessions.
(6) Third year: The child speaks clearly using words as tools for thinking and begins to control his or her environment.
(7) Fourth year: The child asks questions and begins to grasp concepts.
(8) Fifth year: The child is mature in large motor development, can jump and skip, can tell stories, and is self-assured in the home environment.

VI. Learning Theories

A. Learning theorists believe that development can be described in terms of behaviors learned through interactions with the environment, and propose that all behavior is learned.
   1. Behavioralism
      a. Stimulus-response: All behavior is a direct response to environmental stimuli.
      b. Learning is a passive experience, with the learner simply responding to external stimuli.
   2. Classical conditioning
      a. Ivan Pavlov demonstrated how he could train dogs to salivate at the sound of a bell after that bell was repeatedly presented to the dog immediately before the meat powder.
         (i.) Salivating is an unconditioned response (UCR) to the meat powder, which is an unconditioned stimulus (UCS).
         (ii.)The sound of the bell is a neutral stimulus until the dog learns to associate the sound of the bell with food when it becomes a conditioned stimulus (CS)
         (iii.) The conditioned stimulus produces the conditioned response (CR) of salivation.
      b. John Watson's experiment with "Little Albert" involved Watson conditioning Albert, an infant, to develop a fear of a white laboratory rat by pairing the white rat with a very loud noise. Watson and Rayner demonstrated that some phobias in humans could be caused by classical conditioning.
   3. Thorndike's Law of Effect
      a. After studying how cats learned to escape from puzzle boxes, Thorndike proposed that learning results from associating stimuli and responses.
      b. These associations become strengthened or weakened depending on the nature and frequency of the S-R pairing.
         (i.) Responses associated with a satisfactory outcome are more likely to be repeated, and those responses associated with unsatisfactory outcomes are less likely to occur again.

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(ii.)For example, in the cat experiments the cat learned to escape from the puzzle box by associating the pressing of the lever (S) with the door opening (R); this S-R relationship was established because it resulted in a satisfactory outcome (law of effect).

4. Operant conditioning
   a. In operant conditioning, individuals learn by associating a consequence with a behavior.
   b. B. F. Skinner believed that all behaviors could be explained by examining external, observable causes of human behavior.
      (i.) Reinforcements are consequences that strengthen or increase the behavior that they follow.
         (1) Positive reinforcements are favorable events or outcomes that follow a behavior, with the goal of increasing the frequency of that behavior.
         (2) Negative reinforcement involves the removal of an unfavorable event or outcome after a behavior, with the goal of increasing the frequency of that behavior.
      (ii.)Punishments are adverse events that decrease the frequency of the behavior they follow.
         (1) Positive punishment involves the presentation of an adverse event.
         (2) Negative punishment involves the removal or withholding of a pleasant event.
   c. Reinforcement schedules refer to how and when reinforcements are applied.
      (i.) Fixed ratio involves applying the reinforcement after a specific number of behaviors.
      (ii.)Fixed interval involves applying the reinforcement after a specific amount of time.
      (iii.) Variable ratio involves applying the reinforcements following a variable number of responses.
      (iv.) Variable interval involves applying reinforcements following a variable amount of time.
5. Social learning theory
   a. According to social learning theory, learning occurs through observation, imitation, or modeling.
      (i.) The following conditions must be present in order for observational learning to occur: attention, retention, reproduction, and motivation.
      (ii.)Reciprocal determinism—the mutual relationships among the psychological processes of the individual, the environment, and the behavior. Albert Bandura's "Bobo doll" experiment examined the effects of models of aggression on preschool children's aggressive behaviors and demonstrated that aggressive behaviors may be acquired through observational learning.
      (iii.) Self-efficacy—a person's belief in his or her capabilities, which determines how we feel and think and motivates us to behave.
   b. Social cognitive theory can be seen as a bridge between behaviorist and cognitive theory in that it includes attention, memory, and motivation, and because it emphasize the active role of the individual's psychological processing in the learning process.

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6. Psychoanalytic learning theory
   a. Dollard and Miller adapted psychoanalytic constructs for operationalization and testing in a laboratory setting.
   b. Drive, cue, response, and reinforcement combine to form the foundation of learning.
      (i.) Drive refers to a need that impels people to action.
      (ii.)Cues determine when, where, and how people will behave.
      (iii.) Cues are the discriminative stimuli that people notice at the time of the behavior.
      (iv.) Response refers to behaviors.
      (v.)Reinforcements are the consequences of people's responses and are connected to drives.
   c. People continue to try different responses until they find the reinforcement that reduces or satisfies the drive. When attempts to reduce drives are blocked or prevented, frustration occurs. When frustration becomes severe, it becomes conflict.
      (i.) Approach-avoidance conflict occurs when the same behavior produced feelings of approach and avoidance.
      (ii.)Avoidance-avoidance conflict occurs when one is forced to choose between two equally undesirable options.
      (iii.) Approach-approach conflict refers to situations when one has to choose between two desirable things.
      (iv.) Double approach-avoidance conflict occurs when one is faced with two choices that have both desirable and undesirable aspects.

Chapter Summary

Human development is cumulative, complex, and multifaceted. No one theory can adequately describe or explain how we grow and develop. In this chapter, a brief overview of some of the major human development theories is presented. Although these theories are grouped in broad categories, there are some overlaps among theories. In this chapter, human development theories are covered that view human development, ranging from a strict biological stance to theories of human development that are more sociocultural in nature.

More specifically, this chapter begins by examining human development from a historical context. Over the years, there has been a shift in how society views childhood and adolescence. In modern Western cultures, children are viewed as innocent and entitled to nurturance and protection. Additionally, children are viewed as fundamentally distinct from adults. This was not always the case. During the Middle Ages, children were viewed as miniature adults. In the 18th and 19th centuries, children were viewed as innocent and in need of adult protection and discipline. With the spread of the Industrial Revolution and the growing need for workers, children began to be viewed as a part of the workforce and an economic necessity. This view of children as laborers shifted with the emergence of child labor laws and the growing perspective that children are to be valued and fulfill our need for love.

The psychosocial theories of human development are based on the belief that human development is influenced by our unique life history, including our early developmental years and sociopolitical and environmental factors. The psychosocial theories explored in this chapter

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include Freud's psychosexual theory, theories by neo-Freudians (Carl Jung, Alfred Adler, Karen Horney, and Harry Stack Sullivan), Erikson's psychosocial stages, Loevinger's theory of personality and ego development, and Chickering's theory of identity development. Psychosocial theories are especially appealing because they emphasize the importance of understanding each individual's unique life history.

Sociocultural theories of human development emphasize the important role of the environment, interactions, and systems on the development of the individual. The sociocultural theories examined in this chapter are Vygotsky's zone of proximal development, Bowen's multigenerational family systems, theories that address the development of the family lifecycle (i.e., Carter and McGoldrick), and Bronfenbrenner's ecological model of child development. These theories view individuals within a contextual framework and support conceptualizing individuals in a dynamic, interactional manner.

Similar to sociocultural theories of human development, multicultural theories of development emphasize the importance of context. What distinguishes this group of theories is that they were developed to address the needs of diverse individuals in an effective, respectful manner. Multicultural theories addressed in this chapter include the white racial identity development model, the black racial identity development model, the biracial identity development model, and the multiple heritage identity development model. It is also noted that there are many more identity development models in the literature that focus on other marginalized minority groups.

The biological theories of human development include Darwin's theory of evolution, ethological theory, attachment theory, and maturation theory. Core to these theories is the belief that all behavior and mental processes can be explained by examining the human physiology and anatomy.

In contrast to the biological view on human development, learning theories propose that behaviors are learned through interactions with the environment. Learning theorists emphasize the influence of external factors on behavior. Learning theories explored in this chapter include behavioralism, social learning theory, and psychoanalytic learning theory. The major behavioral theories include classical conditioning, Thorndike's law of effect, and operant conditioning. In the next chapter, we continue to explore theories of human development.

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Chapter 2:

Theories of Human Development: Psychological, Sociocultural, Multicultural, Biological, and Learning Theories

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HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES

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Historical Perspectives

- Childhood in the Middle Ages
  - Children were expected to participate fully in all aspects of social life, particularly work
  - Infant mortality was extremely high, thus parents were less likely to become overly attached to children

- Children in the 18th and 19th Centuries
  - According to Puritan beliefs, children were born into original sin and it was the responsibility of parents and adults to provide discipline
  - This idea began to change with John Locke's idea of tabula rasa
  - The Industrial Revolution led to children working long hours under dangerous conditions

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Historical Perspectives Cont'd.

- Childhood in the 20th Century
  - Laws restricting child labor caused children to no longer be seen as economic necessities
  - Having children fulfills a desire for love and affection
- Childhood in the 21st Century
  - Children are valuable and entitled to protection from harm
  - Children deserve life full of good emotional, mental, and physical health
  - Children are fundamentally different from adults

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PSYCHOSOCIAL THEORIES

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Sigmund Freud

- Psychoanalytic Theory
- Personality Structure:
  - Id – governed by pleasure and instinct
  - Ego – governed by reality and logic
  - Superego – governed by society and morality
- Defense Mechanisms – used when people experience anxiety while attempting to keep the id and superego in balance
  - Examples: repression, denial, sublimation, projection, reaction formation, displacement, rationalization, introjection, compensation

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Psychosexual Stages

- Freud believed that the first few years of life determined how personality forms and created a model with five psychosexual stages:
  - Oral Stage – focuses on the pleasures of sucking and eating; the basis of trust and security are formed
  - Anal Stage – focuses on the pleasure received from controlling excretory functions
  - Phallic Stage – characterized by children's fascination with their genitalia and bodily functions
    - Oedipal and Electra complex
  - Latent Stage – calm, stable phase
  - Genital Stage – conscious and unconscious behaviors manifest from early childhood experiences

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Neo-Freudians

- Carl Jung
  - Analytical Psychology
    - Individuation – a balanced integration and expression of one's conscious and unconscious
- Alfred Adler
  - Individual Psychology
  - Private Logic – core assumptions, beliefs, and philosophies an individual holds about life

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Neo-Freudians Cont'd.

- Karen Horney
  - Broadened psychoanalysis to be more responsive to gender dynamics
  - Coping Strategies
- Harry Stack Sullivan
  - Interpersonal Therapy
  - Parataxis Distortions – patterns of skewed or irrational perceptions people have regarding others' perceptions of them

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Erik Erikson

- Psychosocial Stages:
  1. *Infancy* – Trust vs. Mistrust
  2. *Early Childhood* – Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt
  3. *Preschool Age* – Initiative vs. Guilty
  4. *School Age* – Industry vs. Inferiority
  5. *Adolescence* – Identity vs. Role Confusion
  6. *Young Adulthood* – Intimacy vs. Isolation
  7. *Middle Age* – Generativity vs. Stagnation
  8. *Later Life* – Integrity vs. Despair

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Jane Loevinger

- Growth and development relate to how individuals respond to new information or environmental interactions
- Theory of personality and ego development
  1. Presocial
  2. Impulsive
  3. Self-protective
  4. Conformist
  5. Self-aware
  6. Conscientious
  7. Individualistic
  8. Autonomous
  9. Integrated

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Arthur W. Chickering

- Theory of identity development
- Vectors – areas that individuals navigate as they grow and develop; non-sequential
  1. Developing competence
  2. Managing emotions
  3. Moving through autonomy to interdependence
  4. Establishing identity
  5. Developing mature interpersonal relationships
  6. Developing purpose
  7. Developing integrity

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SOCIOCULTURAL THEORIES

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Sociocultural Theories

- Lev Vygotsky
  - Zone of Proximal Development
  - Scaffolding
  - Private Speech
- Murray Bowen
  - Multigenerational family systems
  - Differentiation of self
- Uri Bronfenbrenner
  - Ecological Model of Child Development

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Family Lifecycle Development

- Genograms – pictorial, symbolic representations of the structure and processes of multiple generations in a family system

- Family Lifecycle (Carter & McGoldrick, 2005):
  1. Leaving home/Young adulthood
  2. Joining of families/New Couple
  3. Childbirth/Childbearing
  4. Middle marriage/Families with adolescents
  5. Launching children/Moving on
  6. Later life

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MULTICULTURAL THEORIES OF DEVELOPMENT

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White Racial Identity Development

- White Racial Identity Development (Helms, 1990)
  1. Contact
  2. Disintegration
  3. Reintegration
  4. Pseudoindependence
  5. Immersion/emersion
  6. Autonomy

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Black Racial Identity Development

- Black Racial Identity Development (Cross, 1995)
  1. Preencounter
  2. Encounter
  3. Immersion/emersion
  4. Internalization
  5. Internalization-commitment

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Multicultural Theories Cont'd.

- Biracial Identity Development (Poston, 1990)
  1. Personal identity
  2. Choice of group categorization
  3. Enmeshment/denial
  4. Appreciation
  5. Integration

- Multiple Heritage Identity Development (Henriksen & Paladino, 2009)
  - Integrates many facets of a person's identity including socioeconomic status, gender, religion, language, national origin, and sexual identity

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BIOLOGICAL THEORIES OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

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Biological Theories

- Darwin
  - Theory of Evolution
  - Natural Selection
- Ethological Theory
  - Ethology – the study of the adaptive and evolutionary basis of animal behavior
  - Species have inborn, instinctual responses shared by all members of the species to promote their survival

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Attachment Theory

- John Bowlby
  - Sensitive periods
  - Phases of Infant Attachment:
    - Phase 1: Non-focused responsiveness
    - Phase 2: Discriminating attention
    - Phase 3: Proximity-seeking behavior
    - Phase 4: Reciprocal relationship
- Mary Ainsworth
  - Strange Situation
  - Attachment categories:
    - Secure attachment
    - Insecure: Anxious-avoidant attachment
    - Insecure: Anxious-ambivalent attachment
    - Insecure: Disorganized-disoriented attachment

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Maturation Theory

- Arnold Gesell
  - Children mature and develop following an inherited timetable
- Developmental milestones occur in the areas of:
  - Motor characteristics
  - Personal hygiene
  - Emotional expression
  - Fears and dreams
  - Self and sex
  - Interpersonal relations
  - Play and pastimes
  - School life
  - Ethical sense
  - Philosophic outlook

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LEARNING THEORIES

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Classical Conditioning

- Ivan Pavlov
  - Trained dogs to salivate at the sound of a bell after the bell was repeatedly presented to the dog immediately before the meat powder
    - Unconditioned Response
    - Unconditioned Stimulus
    - Conditioned Stimulus
    - Conditioned Response
- John Watson
  - “Little Albert”

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Thorndike's Law of Effect

- Studied cats learning to escape from puzzle boxes
- Learning results from associating Stimuli (S) and Responses (R)
  - Cats learned to escape from the puzzle box by associating the pressing of a lever (S) with the door opening (R)
  - These associations can be strengthened or weakened depending on the nature and frequency of the S-R pairing

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Skinner's Operant Conditioning

- Reinforcements – consequences that strengthen or increase the frequency of the behavior they follow
  - Positive Reinforcement
  - Negative Reinforcement
- Punishments – adverse events that decrease the frequency of the behavior they follow
  - Positive Punishment
  - Negative Punishment
- Reinforcement Schedules:
  - Fixed Ratio
  - Fixed Interval
  - Variable Ratio
  - Variable Interval

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Social Learning Theory

- Albert Bandura – “Bobo doll” experiment
  - Four conditions for social learning:
    1. Attention
    2. Retention
    3. Reproduction
    4. Motivation
  - Reciprocal determinism
  - Self-efficacy – one’s belief in their own capabilities

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Psychoanalytic Learning Theory

- Drive, cue, response, and reinforcement combine to form the foundation of learning
  - Drive – a need that impels people to action
  - Cue – determines when, where, and how people will behave
  - Response – behaviors
  - Reinforcements – consequences of people's behaviors
- Four types of conflict:
  1. Approach-avoidance conflict
  2. Avoidance-avoidance conflict
  3. Approach-approach conflict
  4. Double approach-avoidance conflict

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QUESTIONS FOR PERSONAL REFLECTION AND CLASS DISCUSSION

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Reflection Questions

- Where might helping professions be at this time without the influence of Sigmund Freud? What defense mechanisms do you typically use?
- How well do the family lifecycle development stages fit diverse populations and lifestyles? How well do the stages apply to nontraditional families?
- What are the counseling implications for clients and professional counselors who may be mismatched in their racial identity development?

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