CHAPTER 1  
HISTORY, THEORY, AND RESEARCH STRATEGIES

CHAPTER-AT-A-GLANCE

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BRIEF CHAPTER SUMMARY

Child development is an area of study devoted to understanding constancy and change from conception through adolescence. It is part of a larger, interdisciplinary field, developmental science, which looks at all changes throughout the lifespan. Research on child development has been stimulated both by scientific curiosity and by social pressures to improve children’s lives.

Researchers often divide development into three broad domains—physical, cognitive, and emotional and social.These domains are not really distinct but, rather, combine in an integrated, holistic fashion. Further, researchers usually divide the first two decades of life into five age periods. In addition, researchers identify the transition from adolescence to adulthood for contemporary youths in industrialized nations as a distinct period: emerging adulthood.

Theories are orderly, integrated ideas, based on scientific verification, that guide and give meaning to our observations and provide a basis for practical action. All major child development theories take a stand on three basic issues: (1) Is development a continuous process, or is it discontinuous, following a series of distinct stages? (2) Does one general course of development characterize all children, or are there many possible courses, influenced by the distinct contexts in which children grow up?   
(3) Are genetic or environmental factors more important in development, and are individual differences stable or characterized by substantial plasticity? Recent theories take a balanced stand on these issues. Contemporary researchers realize that answers may vary across domains of development and even across individuals.

In the mid-twentieth century, a variety of child development theories emerged: Freud’s psychosexual theory, Erikson’s psychosocial theory, behaviorism and social learning theory, and Piaget’s cognitive-developmental theory. More recent theoretical perspectives include information processing, developmental neuroscience, ethology and evolutionary developmental psychology, sociocultural theory, ecological systems theory, and the dynamic systems perspective.

Research methods commonly used to study children include systematic observation, self-reports, the clinical, or case study, method, and ethnography. Investigators may use a correlational research design, which shows a relationship but does not allow inferences about cause and effect, or an experimental design, which permits cause-and-effect inferences. To study how participants change over time, investigators use special developmental research strategies, including longitudinal, cross-sectional, sequential, and microgenetic designs.

Conducting research with children poses special ethical dilemmas. Guidelines have been developed to determine whether the benefits of research outweigh the risks and to protect children’s rights.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to answer the following:

1.1 What is the field of child development, and what factors stimulated its expansion? (pp. 4–5)

1.2 How is child development typically divided into domains and periods? (pp. 5–6)

1.3 Identify three basic issues on which theories of child development take a stand. (pp. 7–11)

1.4 Describe major historical influences on theories of child development. (pp. 11–14)

1.5 What theories influenced child development research in the mid-twentieth century? (pp. 14–21)

1.6 Describe recent theoretical perspectives on child development. (pp. 21–30)

1.7 Identify the stand taken by each major theory on the basic issues of child development. (pp. 30–32)

1.8 Describe research methods commonly used to study children. (pp. 32–37)

1.9 Distinguish between correlational and experimental research designs, noting strengths and limitations of each.  
(pp. 38–40)

1.10 Describe designs for studying development, noting strengths and limitations of each. (pp. 40–44)

1.11 What special ethical concerns arise in doing research on children? (pp. 44–46)

LECTURE OUTLINE

I. THE FIELD OF CHILD DEVELOPMENT (pp. 4–6)

A. **Child development** is an area of study devoted to understanding constancy and change from conception through adolescence.

B. It is part of a larger, interdisciplinary field known as **developmental science,** which includes all changes experienced throughout the lifespan.

C. Domains of Development (p. 5)

1. *Physical:* Changes in body size, proportions, and appearance; functioning of body systems; perceptual and motor capacities; and physical health.

2. *Cognitive:* Changes in intellectual abilities, including attention, memory, problem solving, and language.

3. *Emotional and social:* Changes in emotional communication, interpersonal skills, and moral reasoning and behavior.

D. Periods of Development (p. 6)

1. *The prenatal period (conception to birth):* In this nine-month period, a one-celled organism is transformed into a human baby with remarkable capacities.

2. *Infancy and toddlerhood (birth–2 years):* Dramatic changes in the body and brain support the emergence of a wide array of motor, perceptual, and intellectual capacities.

3. *Early childhood (2–6 years):* Motor skills are refined, children become more self-controlled and self-sufficient, thought and language expand, and children establish ties with peers.

4. *Middle childhood (6–11 years):* Children master new responsibilities and develop improved athletic abilities, more logical thought processes, and advances in understanding the self, morality, and friendship.

5. *Adolescence (11–18 years):* Puberty leads to an adult-sized body and sexual maturity. Thought becomes abstract and idealistic, and schooling is directed toward preparation for higher education and the world of work.

6. *Emerging adulthood (18 years–mid- to late twenties):* For many youths in industrialized nations, this is a period of intensified exploration of options in love, career, and personal values.

II. BASIC ISSUES (pp. 7–11)

A.A **theory** is an orderly, integrated set of statements that describes, explains, and predicts behavior.

1. A theory’s continued existence depends on *scientific verification.*

2. All theories of child development take a stand on three basic issues:

a. Is development continuous or discontinuous?

b Does one course of development characterize all children, or are there many possible courses?

c. What are the roles of genetic and environmental factors—nature and nurture—in development?

B. Continuous or Discontinuous Development? (pp. 7–8)

1. If development is **continuous,** the difference between the immature and the mature being is simply one of *amount or complexity.*

2. If development is **discontinuous,** new ways of understanding and responding to the world emerge at specific **stages,** representing *qualitative* changes in thinking, feeling, and behaving.

C. One Course of Development or Many? (pp. 8–9)

1. Stage theorists assume that people everywhere follow the same sequence of development.

2. The field of child development is becoming increasingly aware that children grow up in distinct **contexts.**

D. Relative Influence of Nature and Nurture? (p. 9)

1. The **nature–nurture controversy** asks whether genetic or environmental factors are more important as underlying causes of development.

2. All theories grant roles to both nature and nurture, but they vary in emphasis.

a. Theorists who emphasize *stability* typically stress the importance of *heredity* and *early experiences.*

b. Other theorists see development as having substantial **plasticity** throughout life.

E. A Balanced Point of View (pp. 9–11)

1. Today, some theorists believe that both continuous and discontinuous changes occur; a growing number regard heredity and environment as inseparably interwoven.

2. The relative impact of early and later experiences varies greatly from one domain of development to another and across individuals, as demonstrated by research on **resilience.**

III. HISTORICAL FOUNDATIONS (pp. 11–14)

A.Contemporary theories of child development are the result of centuries of change in Western cultural values, philosophical thinking about children, and scientific progress.

B. Medieval Times (pp. 11–12)

1. In medieval Europe, childhood was already viewed as a separate period of life.

2. Religious writings contained depictions of children’s basic nature that foreshadowed later views of childhood.

C. The Reformation (p. 12)

1. In the sixteenth century, the Puritans believed that children were born evil and stubborn and had to be civilized through harsh child-rearing practices.

2. As the Puritans emigrated from England to the United States, they gradually adopted a balance between severity and permissiveness.

D. Philosophies of the Enlightenment (pp. 12–13)

1. The seventeenth-century Enlightenment brought more humane conceptions of childhood.

2. John Locke

a. British philosopher John Locke viewed the child as a *tabula rasa,* or “blank slate.”

b. Locke saw parents as rational tutors, molding the child through instruction, example, and rewards.

c. He regarded development as *continuous* and championed *nurture.*

d. Locke’s view of children as passive, doing little to influence their own destiny, has been discarded.

3. Jean-Jacques Rousseau

a. Eighteenth-century French philosopher Jean-Jacques Rousseau saw children as *noble savages,* naturally endowed with a sense of right and wrong and an innate plan for orderly, healthy growth.

b. Rousseau believed that adult training could only harm children’s built-in moral sense and unique ways of thinking and feeling.

c. Rousseau’s philosophy includes the concepts of *stage* and **maturation**—the idea of a genetically determined, naturally unfolding course of growth.

d. Rousseau viewed development as a *discontinuous, stagewise* process.

E. Scientific Beginnings (pp. 13–14)

1. Darwin: Forefather of Scientific Child Study

a. Darwin’s *theory of evolution* emphasized two related principles: *natural selection* and *survival of the fittest.*

b. Darwin’s emphasis on the adaptive value of physical characteristics and behavior eventually found its way into important developmental theories.

c. Other scientists attempted to chart parallels between child development and human evolution; this effort, though unsuccessful, paved the way for scientific child study.

2. The Normative Period

a. American psychologist G. Stanley Hall and his student Arnold Gesell devised theories based on evolutionary ideas. They regarded development as a genetically determined process that unfolds automatically.

b. The methods used by Hall and Gesell launched the **normative approach** to child study, in which age-related averages based on measures of many individuals are computed to represent typical development.

3. The Mental Testing Movement

a. This movement emerged from French psychologist Alfred Binet’s attempts to develop an intelligence test to identify children with learning problems in the Paris school system.

b. Binet’s test defined intelligence in terms of components that could be measured directly.

c. Binet’s results prompted research focused on identifying differences in intelligence test scores based on gender, ethnicity, and other characteristics.

IV. MID-TWENTIETH-CENTURY THEORIES (pp. 14–21)

A.The Psychoanalytic Perspective (pp. 15–17)

1. The **psychoanalytic perspective** assumes that children move through a series of stages in which they confront conflicts between biological drives and social expectations. How they resolve these conflicts determines their psychological adjustment.

2. Freud’s Theory

a. Sigmund Freud’s **psychosexual theory** emphasizes that healthy personality development is determined by how parents manage their child’s early sexual and aggressive drives.

b. In Freud’s view, an individual’s basic personality is determined by the relationships established among three parts of the personality—the *id,* the *ego,* and the *superego.*

c. Freud was the first to emphasize the influence of the early parent–child relationship, but he overemphasized the influence of sexual feelings; also, he did not study children directly.

3. Erikson’s Theory

a. In his **psychosocial theory,** Erik Eriksonemphasized the ego’s positive contribution to development and added three adult stages to Freud’s five stages.

b. Erikson recognized that normal development must be understood in relation to the individual’s cultural context.

4. Contributions and Limitations of Psychoanalytic Theory

a. The psychoanalytic perspective emphasizes the value of studying the individual’s unique life history by using the *clinical,* or *case study,* method.

b. Despite its contributions, this approach is no longer in the mainstream of child development research, partly because it focuses too exclusively on the clinical approach.

B. Behaviorism and Social Learning Theory (pp. 17–19)

1. Traditional Behaviorism

a. North American **behaviorism** began with psychologist John Watson, who wanted to create an objective science of psychology focusing on directly observable events—stimuli and responses.

b. Watson investigated whether adults could use *classical conditioning* to mold children’s behavior by controlling stimulus–response associations.

c. In B. F. Skinner’s *operant conditioning theory,* behavior is altered by *reinforcers* and *punishment.*

2. Social Learning Theory

a. Albert Bandura’s **social learning theory** emphasizes the role of *modeling* as a basis for development.

b. Because Bandura’s theory now stresses the importance of *cognition,* he calls it a *social-cognitive* approach.

c. In Bandura’s view, children gradually become more selective in what they imitate. They develop *personal standards* for behavior and a *sense of self-efficacy.*

3. Contributions and Limitations of Behaviorism and Social Learning Theory

a. **Applied behavior analysis** attempts to eliminate undesirable behaviors and increase desirable responses by observing relationships between behavior and environmental events and then making systematic changes in those events based on procedures of conditioning and modeling.

b. Behaviorism and social learning theory have been criticized for taking too narrow a view of important environmental influences and for underestimating children’s contributions to their own development.

C. Piaget’s Cognitive-Developmental Theory (pp. 19–21)

1. In Jean Piaget’s **cognitive-developmental theory,** children actively construct knowledge as they manipulate and explore their world.

2. Piaget’s Stages

a. Central to Piaget’s theory is the biological concept of *adaptation,* whereby a child’s mental structures develop to better represent the external world.

b. In Piaget’s *sensorimotor stage,* a baby uses the senses and movements to explore the world.

c. In the *preoperational stage,* these action patterns evolve into symbolic but illogical thinking.

d. School-age children, in the *concrete operational stage,* use more organized reasoning.

e. In adolescents and adults, thought becomes an abstract, systematic reasoning system in the *formal operational stage.*

3. Contributions and Limitations of Piaget’s Theory

a. Piaget convinced the field that children are active learners.

b. Piaget’s stages stimulated research on children’s conceptions of themselves, other people, and human relationships, and encouraged the development of educational approaches that emphasize discovery learning.

c. Research indicates that Piaget underestimated the competencies of infants and preschoolers, and recent findings challenge the assumption that discovery learning is better than adult teaching in fostering development.

d. Piaget’s stagewise account pays too little attention to the effects of social and cultural influences.

e. Today, many researchers accept a modified view of Piaget’s stages—one in which changes in children’s thinking occur more gradually than Piaget believed; however, others disagree with the stage sequence.

V. RECENT THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES (pp. 21–30)

A.Information Processing (pp. 21–23)

1. **Information processing** is an approach that views the human mind as a symbol-manipulating system through which information flows.

a. Information is presented to the senses at *input,* then actively coded, transformed, and organized until it emerges as a behavioral response at *output.*

b. Information-processing researchers often design flowcharts to map the precise steps used to solve problems and complete tasks.

2. Some information-processing models track children’s mastery of one or a few tasks; others are general models of the human cognitive system that focus on broad age changes in children’s thinking.

3. Information processing regards children as active beings who modify their thinking in response to environmental demands and views development as continuous.

4. Information processing has been better at analyzing thinking into its components than at recombining them into a comprehensive theory of development.

B. Developmental Neuroscience (pp. 23–24)

1. **Developmental cognitive neuroscience** studies the relationship between changes in the brain and a child’s cognitive processing and behavior patterns.

2. **Developmental social neuroscience** uses neurobiological measures that are sensitive to psychological state to study the relationship between changes in the brain and emotional and social development.

a. Areas of investigation include the negative impact of extreme circumstances and the neurological bases of *autism.*

b. Identifying experiences that support or undermine brain development contributes to effective interventions for children with learning and behavior problems.

3. The current interest in neuroscience poses a risk that overemphasis on brain properties underlying children’s behavior will be granted undue importance over powerful environmental influences.

C. Ethology and Evolutionary Developmental Psychology (pp. 24–25)

1. **Ethology** studies the adaptive, or survival, value of behavior and its evolutionary history.

2. Observations of *imprinting* behavior in baby birds led to the concept of the *critical period* during which the child is biologically prepared to acquire certain adaptive behaviors.

3. In human development, the concept of a **sensitive period**—a time that is optimal for certain capacities to emerge—is more accurate than the strict notion of a critical period.

4. British psychoanalyst John Bowlby applied ethological theory to the human infant–caregiver relationship, suggesting that development of attachment in human babies is a lengthy process that leads the infant to form a deep affectionate tie with the caregiver.

5. **Evolutionary developmental psychology** seeks to understand the adaptive value of species-wide cognitive, emotional, and social competencies as those competencies change with age.

D. Vygotsky’s Sociocultural Theory (pp. 25–26)

1. Lev Vygotsky’s **sociocultural theory** focuses on how culture is transmitted from one generation to the next.

2. Vygotsky believed that social interaction is essential for cognitive development, which he saw as a *socially mediated process* in which children depend on assistance from adults and more-expert peers as they tackle new challenges.

3. Vygotsky’s emphasis on culture and social experience led him to neglect biological contributions to development and deemphasize children’s capacity to shape their own development.

E. Ecological Systems Theory (pp. 26–29)

1. In Urie Bronfenbrenner’s **ecological systems theory,** the child develops within a complex *system* of relationships affected by multiple levels of the environment.

2. The **microsystem,** the innermost level of the environment, consists of activities and interaction patterns in the child’s immediate environment.

3. The second level, the **mesosystem,** encompasses connections between microsystems, such as home, school, and neighborhood.

4. The **exosystem** consists of social settings that do not include children but affect their experiences in immediate settings—for example, parents’ workplaces or community health and welfare services.

5. The outermost level, the **macrosystem,** consists of cultural values, customs, and resources.

6. An Ever-Changing System

a. In Bronfenbrenner’s system, the environment is ever-changing, as important life events modify existing relationships between children and their environments.

b. This temporal dimension, the **chronosystem,** includes both life changes that can be imposed on the child and changes that arise from within the child.

F. Development as a Dynamic System (pp. 29–30)

1. According to the **dynamic systems perspective,** the child’s mind, body, and physical and social worlds form an *integrated system* that guides mastery of new skills.

2. When change occurs in any part of the system, children actively reorganize their behaviors so the various components of the system work together again, but in a more effective way.

3. Dynamic systems theorists believe that within certain universal, broad outlines of development, wide individual differences exist in specific skills.

4. The perspective has been applied largely to children’s motor and cognitive skills, but some investigators have drawn on it to explain emotional and social development as well.

VI. COMPARING CHILD DEVELOPMENT THEORIES (pp. 30–32)

A.Theories of child development can be distinguished by the domain of development on which they focus and by their differing points of view about the development process.

B. Every theory has both strengths and limitations; an *eclectic position,* or blend of several theories, can take into account what each individual theory has contributed to our knowledge of children.

VII. STUDYING THE CHILD (pp. 32–46)

A.Research usually begins with a *hypothesis* followed by research conducted according to scientifically accepted procedures.

B. Researchers decide on a *research method*—the specific activities of participants—and a *research design,* an overall plan that will permit the best possible test of the investigator’s hypothesis.

C. Learning about research strategies allows us to separate dependable information from misleading results; individuals who work directly with children can conduct studies and make connections between research and practice.

D. Common Research Methods (pp. 32–37)

1. Systematic Observation

a. In **naturalistic observation,** the researcher goes into the natural environment and observes the behavior of interest.

(1) An advantage is that the observed behavior reflects participants’ everyday behaviors.

(2) A disadvantage is that not all individuals have the same opportunity to display a particular behavior in everyday life.

b. To make **structured observations,** the investigator sets up a laboratory situation that evokes the behavior of interest.

(1) An advantage is that the investigator can control the research situation.

(2) A disadvantage is that systematic observation tells us little about the reasoning behind people’s behavior.

2. Self-Reports

a. Self-reports ask research participants to provide information about their perceptions, abilities, feelings, and past experiences.

b. A **clinical interview** uses a flexible, conversational style to probe for the participant’s viewpoint.

(1) Clinical interviews permit people to describe their thoughts in terms that are close to the way they think in everyday life, and they provide a large amount of information in a brief period.

(2) A disadvantage is that participants may make up answers in an attempt to please the interviewer.

c. In a **structured interview,** each participant is asked the same questions in the same way.

(1) This method is more efficient than the clinical interview and provides briefer answers.

(2) Structured interviews do not yield the same depth of information as clinical interviews.

3. The Clinical, or Case Study, Method: The **clinical,** or **case study, method** brings together a wide range of information about a single child.

a. This method is well-suited to studying individuals who are few in number but vary widely in characteristics, such as *prodigies.*

b. A disadvantage is that investigators cannot assume that their conclusions apply to anyone other than the child studied.

4. Methods for Studying Culture

a. To study the impact of culture on child development, researchers may tap procedures specially designed for cross-cultural and multicultural research.

b. **Ethnography** is a descriptive, qualitative technique for understanding a culture or distinct social group through *participant observation.*

(1) The ethnographic method assumes that through close contact with a social group, researchers can understand the beliefs and behaviors of its members.

(2) Ethnographic findings cannot be generalized to groups other than those studied.

E. General Research Designs (pp. 38–40)

1. Correlational Design

a. In a **correlational design,** researchers gather information on individuals, generally in natural life circumstances, without attempting to alter their experiences.

(1) Correlational studies allow researchers to study conditions that may be impossible to arrange and control.

(2) However, finding a correlation does not allow researchers to infer a cause-and-effect relationship.

b. The **correlation coefficient** is a number with a value between +1.00 and –1.00 that describes how two variables are associated with one another.

2. Experimental Design

a. An **experimental design** permits inferences about cause-and-effect relationships because researchers use an evenhanded procedure to assign people to two or more treatment conditions.

b. In an experiment, researchers divide the events and behaviors of interest into two types.

(1) The **independent variable** is the one the investigator expects to cause changes in another variable.

(2) The **dependent variable** is the one the investigator expects to be influenced by the independent variable.

c. To control for participants’ characteristics that might reduce the accuracy of their findings, researchers engage in **random assignment** of participants to treatment conditions.

d. *Matching* of participants can be combined with random assignment to ensure that the experimental groups are equivalent on factors that might distort the results.

3. Modified Experimental Designs: Field and Natural Experiments

a. In *field experiments,* researchers randomly assign participants to different treatments in natural settings.

b. In *natural,* or *quasi-, experiments,* investigators research preexisting treatments, choosing participant groups carefully to ensure that their characteristics are as much alike as possible.

F. Designs for Studying Development (pp. 40–43)

1. The Longitudinal Design

a. In a **longitudinal design,** participants are studied repeatedly at different ages.

b. Researchers can identify both common patterns and individual differences in development, and they can examine relationships between early and later events and behavior.

2. Problems in Conducting Longitudinal Research

a. Common problems posed by longitudinal investigations include *biased sampling, selective attrition,* and *practice effects.*

b. The accuracy of longitudinal findings may be threatened by **cohort effects**—particular cultural–historical influences on one group that may make results inapplicable to other groups.

3. The Cross-Sectional Design

a. In a **cross-sectional design,** groups of people differing in age are studied at the same point in time.

b. Because participants are measured only once, the problems of participant dropout and practice effects are avoided.

4. Problems in Conducting Cross-Sectional Research

a. It does not provide evidence about individual change.

b. Cohort effects may still occur, especially when a study covers a wide age span.

G. Improving Developmental Designs (pp. 43–44)

1. Sequential Designs

a. In a **sequential design,** investigators conduct several similar cross-sectional or longitudinal studies, called *sequences,* at varying times.

b. This design detects cohort effects, permits both longitudinal and cross-sectional comparisons, and is efficient.

2. Examining Microcosms of Development

a. The **microgenetic design** captures the processes that produce change by presenting children with a novel task and following their mastery over a series of closely spaced sessions.

b. Microgenetic studies are difficult to carry out, and they are subject to practice effects.

3. Combining Experimental and Developmental Designs

a. Sometimes researchers can explore the causal link between experiences and development by experimentally manipulating the experiences.

b. This type of combined approach is increasingly common.

H. Ethics in Research on Children (pp. 44–46)

1. Because children are more vulnerable than adults to physical and psychological harm, special ethical guidelines have been developed to ensure that the quest for scientific knowledge does not exploit them.

2. The ethical principle of *informed consent* requires special interpretation when participants are children.

3. All ethical guidelines advise that special precautions be taken in the use of deception and concealment.

4. *Debriefing,* providing a full account and justification of research activities, should take place with children but may not work well because it can undermine children’s trust in adults.

LECTURE ENHANCEMENTS

LECTURE ENHANCEMENT 1.1  
Promoting Resilience in Socially Vulnerable Children: The Value of School-Based Interventions (pp. 10–11)

**Time:** 20–30 minutes

**Objective:** To consider ways that school-based interventions can promote resilience in socially vulnerable children.

In this article, Richaud (2013) considers the potential value of school-based interventions for promoting resilience in children who have experienced severe physical and/or emotional deprivation. As described in the text (Biology and Environment box, pp. 10–11), resilience depends on both genetically influenced characteristics (such as high intelligence or socially valued talents) and environmental influences, especially family life but also including school and community experiences.

Richaud suggests that ideally, “interventions should be incorporated into the child’s natural environment as formed by the family and then also by the school.” She notes that for many children from disrupted or chaotic family environments, school can serve as a “second home.” In addition to academic knowledge, schools can give these children information about ways of behaving and approaching life other than those they learn at home.

This article can be used in connection with classroom discussion of resilience to expand on ways that schools can help promote emotional maturity, provide opportunities for socially vulnerable children to make friends, and foster strong, caring relationships between children and their teachers and other adults in the school. Students can discuss school activities that might be especially valuable for promoting resilience in children of various ages, as well as approaches that might be used to train teachers to work effectively to promote resilience in children.

Richaud, M. C. (2013). Contributions to the study and promotion of resilience in socially vulnerable children. *American Psychologist, 68,* 751–758. doi: 10.1037/a0034327

LECTURE ENHANCEMENT 1.2   
The “U.S. Immigrant Paradox”: Implications for Research, Policy, and Practice (p. 37)

**Time:** 20–30 minutes

**Objective:** To consider changes in models of adaptation for immigrant youths, and the implications of these changes for research, policy, and practice.

This article examines implications of the so-called “U.S. immigrant paradox” in childhood and adolescence. It can be used to expand discussion of the Cultural Influences box on immigrant youths (p. 37), which cites evidence that children who are either first generation (foreign-born) or second generation (U.S.-born to immigrant parents) often have more optimal developmental outcomes—in terms of both academic achievement and psychological adjustment—than their agemates who were born in the United States to immigrant families or who have been living in the United States longer.

This phenomenon runs counter to a longstanding assumption that cultural assimilation is the model for optimal adaptation by immigrants. But these authors cite evidence that the cultural assimilation patterns established by earlier generations of immigrants are no longer the norm. They make the case that optimal models of adaptation for today’s immigrant youths may include biculturalism, rather than assimilation to the majority culture. Theoretical frameworks, however, have been slow to shift away from the assumption that immigrant youths will thrive as their families move toward full adoption of “American” ways.

The authors suggest that researchers should make use of bicultural models for optimal adaptation—focusing, for example, on the skills children need to coordinate their experiences in interacting settings, such as home and school. Such models, they maintain, are more relevant to today’s immigrant families and their U.S.-born children than are the older cultural assimilation models. To enhance in-class discussion of adaptation by immigrant youths, the instructor can use the ideas presented in this article to provide an overview of the ways in which research models may influence thinking about minority populations and, consequently, may affect policy and practice.

Marks, A. K., Ejesi, K., & Coll, C. G. (2014). Understanding the U.S. immigrant paradox in childhood and adolescence. *Child Development Perspectives, 8,* 59–64. doi: 10.1111//cdep.12071

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

LEARNING ACTIVITY 1.1  
What Is Your Stance on the Three Basic Issues of Human Development? (pp. 7–9)

To help students better understand the three basic issues of human development, present this exercise as an in-class assignment. The activity will help students express their own viewpoints on some of the controversies in the field of human development.

*Directions:* The following four pairs of statements relate to basic issues about human development. Read each statement carefully. Then select the statement in each pair that more closely reflects your own view.

1. A. Development is a continuous, gradual progression, with new abilities, skills, and knowledge gradually added at a relatively uniform pace.

B. Development occurs at different rates, alternating between periods of little change and periods of abrupt, rapid change.

2. A. All humans follow the same general sequence of development.

B. Each individual has a unique course of development.

3. A. Children respond to the world in much the same way as adults. The main difference is that children’s thinking is less sophisticated and complex than adults’.

B. Children have unique ways of thinking about and responding to the world that are very different from those of adults.

4. A. An individual’s personality is mostly determined by heredity.

B. An individual’s personality can be modified through caregiving experiences.

Next, have students break into small groups and discuss their answers. What is their stance on the three basic issues of human development? Which theories take a stance similar to their own? If students had to choose a theory that best represents their own view of development, would they choose a single theory or would they select certain components of several theories? What aspects of their chosen theory (or theories) make it more attractive than the others?

LEARNING ACTIVITY 1.2  
True or False: Mid-Twentieth-Century Theories and Recent Theoretical Perspectives (pp. 14–30)

Present the following exercise as an in-class activity or quiz.

*Directions:* Read each of the following statements and indicate whether it is *True* (T) or *False* (F).

\_\_\_\_\_ 1. According to Freud, in each stage of psychosexual development, parents walk a fine line between permitting too much or too little gratification of their child’s basic needs.

\_\_\_\_\_ 2. Both Freud and Erikson pointed out that normal development must be understood in relation to each culture’s life situation.

\_\_\_\_\_ 3. Behaviorism and social learning theory have been praised for acknowledging children’s contributions to their own development.

\_\_\_\_\_ 4. In Piaget’s theory, as the brain develops and children’s experiences expand, they move through four broad stages, each characterized by qualitatively distinct ways of thinking.

\_\_\_\_\_ 5. Research indicates that Piaget underestimated the competencies of infants and preschoolers.

\_\_\_\_\_ 6. Information-processing researchers view the human mind as a symbol-manipulating system through which information flows.

\_\_\_\_\_ 7. Evolutionary psychologists are solely concerned with the biological bases of development.

\_\_\_\_\_ 8. Vygotsky believes that social interaction is necessary for children to acquire the ways of thinking and behaving that make up a community’s culture.

\_\_\_\_\_ 9. The mesosystem consists of social settings that do not contain children but nevertheless affect children’s experiences in immediate settings.

\_\_\_\_\_ 10. Bronfenbrenner characterized the environment as ever-changing rather than a static force that affects children in a uniform way.

*Answers:*

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| 1. T | 6. T |
| 2. F | 7. F |
| 3. F | 8. T |
| 4. T | 9. F |
| 5. T | 10. T |

LEARNING ACTIVITY 1.3  
Keeping a Theory/Research Notebook (pp. 14–32)

Given the many developmental theories that exist, students are likely to find some more appealing and plausible than others. Encourage students to construct a systematic list of their theoretical likes and dislikes by keeping a theory/research notebook. For each theory, students should list the concepts and principles they find important and those they believe to be inadequate or incorrect. As they learn more throughout the course, they can revise their opinions, noting research that supports their changing views. At the end of the course, students should have developed a personal perspective on human development, which may emphasize one theory or blend aspects of several or many theories.

LEARNING ACTIVITY 1.4  
Applying Ecological Systems Theory to a “Hot Topic” in Child Development (pp. 26–29)

Ask students to form small groups and select a “hot topic” in child development, such as the effects of divorce, child abuse and neglect, quality of child care, the obesity epidemic, public policies for children, or use of the Internet and social media. Once students have selected their topic, ask them to consider how each level of the environment may affect development, including bidirectional influences and the role of third parties.

LEARNING ACTIVITY 1.5  
Thinking About Research Methods and Designs (pp. 32–46)

Pose the following scenarios to students. For each scenario, students should answer the following questions: What research method and design would you use for the study, and why? Would this type of study raise any special ethical considerations? If so, what are they?

1. An investigator is interested in determining whether infant child care leads to an insecure attachment bond between children and their mothers during the first year of life as well as into the preschool years.
2. An investigator is interested in determining whether sociability in children is related to school achievement and whether this relationship varies for children in preschool, grade school, and middle school.

LEARNING ACTIVITY 1.6  
Cross-Sectional, Longitudinal, and Sequential Research Designs (pp. 40–44)

Present the following exercise as an in-class activity or quiz.

*Directions:* Each of the following statements pertains to either the cross-sectional, longitudinal, or sequential research design. For each statement, determine which research design is being described.

1. The researcher studies groups of participants who differ in age at the same point in time.

2. The researcher is interested in whether frequent exposure to violent television in early childhood predicts aggressive and antisocial behavior in adulthood.

3. This design reveals cohort effects.

4. Age-related changes may be distorted because of biased sampling, selective attrition, practice effects, and cohort effects.

5. The researcher follows a sequence of samples (two or more age groups), collecting data on them at the same points in time.

6. This design does not permit the study of individual developmental trends. Age differences may be distorted because of cohort effects.

7. The researcher is interested in age-related changes in children’s problem-solving skills. The researcher selects three samples—preschool-age children, school-age children, and adolescents—and tracks them for five years.

8. To investigate how children of different ages process traumatic events, the researcher recruits children in grades 3, 6, 9, and 12 for the study and interviews them about a recent natural disaster such as Hurricane Sandy or Typhoon Haiyan in the Philippines.

9. The researcher studies the same group of participants repeatedly at different ages.

*Answers:*

1. Cross-sectional

2. Longitudinal

3. Sequential

4. Longitudinal

5. Sequential

6. Cross-sectional

7. Sequential

8. Cross-sectional

9. Longitudinal

ASK YOURSELF . . .

REVIEW: What is meant by a *stage* of development? Provide your own example of stagewise change. What stand do stage theorists take on the issue of continuous versus discontinuous development? (pp. 7–8)

A *stage* is a distinct period of development characterized by qualitative changes in thinking, feeling, and behaving. Stage theorists believe that development is *discontinuous*— a process in which new ways of understanding and responding to the world emerge at specific times. In this view, children undergo periods of rapid transformation as they step up from one stage to the next, alternating with plateaus during which little change occurs. For example, as young children begin to represent their world through language and make-believe play, they are entering a new stage of development.

CONNECT: Provide an example of how one domain of development (physical, cognitive, or emotional/social) can affect development in another domain. (p. 5)

Development is often divided into three broad domains: *physical, cognitive,* and *emotional and social.* Each domain influences and is influenced by the others. For example, new motor capacities, such as reaching, sitting, crawling, and walking (physical), contribute greatly to infants’ understanding of their surroundings (cognitive). When babies think and act more competently, adults stimulate them more with games, language, and expressions of delight at their new achievements (emotional and social). These enriched experiences, in turn, promote all aspects of development.

APPLY: Anna, a high school counselor, has devised a program that integrates classroom learning with vocational training to help adolescents at risk for school dropout stay in school and transition smoothly to work life. What is Anna’s position on *stability versus plasticity* in development? Explain. (p. 9)

Anna’s program reflects a belief in the possibility of *plasticity* in development—the view that change is possible and even likely if it is supported by new experiences. First, Anna takes the position that environmental influences, not just heredity, are important. Second, by devising a program for adolescents, she rejects the view that children’s early experiences establish a lifelong pattern of behavior that cannot be fully overcome by later, more positive experiences. Anna, taking a more optimistic view, believes that high school students who are at risk for dropout will benefit from the program she has developed, because it will provide positive experiences that will enable them to overcome the effects of the negative events of their first few years.

REFLECT: Describe an aspect of your development that differs from a parent’s or a grandparent’s when he or she was your age. How might *contexts* explain this difference? (pp. 8–9)

This is an open-ended question with no right or wrong answer.

REVIEW: Imagine a debate between John Locke and Jean-Jacques Rousseau on the nature–nurture controversy. Summarize the argument that each historical figure is likely to present. (pp. 12–13)

JOHN LOCKE: The child begins as a *tabula rasa,* or blank slate, neither good nor evil, whose character will be shaped entirely by experience. Parents act as rational tutors who can mold the child as they wish through careful instruction, effective example, and rewards (such as praise) for good behavior. In sum, nurture is the primary determinant of growth.

JEAN-JACQUES ROUSSEAU: Children are not blank slates, passively responding to environmental influences. Rather, they are *noble savages*, born with a built-in sense of right and wrong and an innate plan for orderly, healthy growth. Environmental intervention can only harm or delay a child’s genetically determined, naturally unfolding course of growth. In sum, nature is the primary determinant of growth.

CONNECT: What do the ideas of Rousseau, Darwin, and Hall have in common? (p. 13)

Rousseau, Darwin, and Hall all emphasized the importance of nature over nurture in development. Rousseau believed that children develop according to a genetically determined, naturally unfolding course of growth. Darwin’s theory emphasized the adaptive value of innate characteristics, which determine whether individuals will meet the survival requirements of their environment and, as a result, live long enough to reproduce and pass on their beneficial characteristics to future generations. Hall, inspired by Darwin’s work, saw development as a *maturational process*—a genetically determined series of events that unfold automatically.

REFLECT: Find out whether your parents read any child-rearing advice books when you were growing up. What questions most concerned them? Do you think the concerns of today’s parents differ from those of your parents’ generation? Explain. (p. 14)

This is an open-ended question with no right or wrong answer.

REVIEW: What aspect of behaviorism made it attractive to critics of psychoanalytic theory? How did Piaget’s theory respond to a major limitation of behaviorism? (pp. 17–21)

The early behaviorists rejected the psychoanalytic concern with the unseen workings of the mind. They sought, instead, to create an objective science of psychology that would study directly observable events—stimuli and responses. As psychologists wondered whether behaviorism might offer a more direct and effective explanation of the development of children’s social behavior than the less precise concepts of psychoanalytic theory, several kinds of social learning theory emerged. The most influential emphasizes *modeling,* also known as *imitation* or *observational learning,* as a powerful source of development.

Two important themes of behaviorism, modeling and reinforcement, were criticized for offering too narrow a view of important environmental influences and also for underestimating children’s contributions to their own development. Piaget maintained that children’s learning does not depend on reinforcers, such as rewards. Rather, according to Piaget’s cognitive-developmental theory, children actively construct knowledge as they manipulate and explore their world.

Besides investigating children’s understanding of their physical environment, Piaget explored their reasoning about the social world. He convinced the field that children are active learners whose minds consist of rich structures of knowledge.

CONNECT: Although social learning theory focuses on social development and Piaget’s theory on cognitive development, each has enhanced our understanding of other domains. Mention an additional domain addressed by each theory. (pp. 17–21)

Social learning theory emphasizes *modeling*, also known as *imitation* or *observational learning,* as a source of development. From its original emphasis on the emotional/social domain, the theory has evolved to stress the importance of *cognition,* or thinking. As a result, it is now known as a *social-cognitive* rather than a social learning approach. In addition to explaining children’s social development, social-cognitive theory provides insight into how children control their own learning and behavior in the cognitive domain through the attitudes, values, and convictions they acquire about themselves.

Piaget’s theory, best known for its emphasis on the stages of cognitive development, also explores how children reason about the social world. It has sparked a great deal of research on children’s conceptions of themselves, other people, and human relationships—all aspects of the social/emotional domain.

APPLY: A 4-year-old becomes frightened of the dark and refuses to go to sleep at night. How would a psychoanalyst and a behaviorist differ in their views of how this problem developed? (pp. 15–18)

According to the psychoanalytic perspective, children move through a series of stages in which they confront conflicts between biological drives and social expectations. In this view, fear of the dark reflects an unconscious motive or deep-seated anxiety within the child. A psychoanalyst might conclude, for example, that the child’s fear really represents anxiety about nighttime separation from the parent. Once the anxiety is resolved, the fear will subside.

In contrast, behaviorists look at the effects on behavior of directly observable events, not at the inner workings of the mind. From a behaviorist perspective, a child would be afraid of the dark as a result of previous negative experiences in the dark. Perhaps the child heard a sudden, loud noise at night or was frightened by the visual images of a nightmare. On the basis of these experiences, the child would be conditioned to respond fearfully to being in the dark.

REFLECT: Illustrate Bandura’s ideas by describing a personal experience in which you observed and received feedback from another person that strengthened your self-efficacy—belief that your abilities and characteristics will help you succeed. (pp. 17–18)

This is an open-ended question with no right or wrong answer.

REVIEW: Explain how each recent theoretical perspective regards children as active contributors to their own development. (pp. 21–30)

INFORMATION PROCESSING: Like Piaget’s cognitive-developmental theory, the information-processing approach regards children as active, sense-making beings who modify their thinking in response to environmental demands. In this view, the human mind is a symbol-manipulating system through which information flows. From the time it is presented to the senses at *input* until it emerges as a behavioral response at *output,* information is actively coded, transformed, and organized. When presented with a task, children perform a set of mental operations and experiment with various strategies in their attempts to solve the problem.

DEVELOPMENTAL NEUROSCIENCE: By analyzing brain activity while children perform various tasks, developmental neuroscientists investigate how genetic makeup combines with specific experiences at various ages to influence the brain’s growth and organization. A complementary new area, *developmental social neuroscience,* considers the relationship between changes in the brain and emotional and social development, including the negative impact of extreme circumstances—such as early rearing in emotionally deprived settings or child abuse and neglect—on brain development and cognitive, emotional, and social skills.

ETHOLOGY AND EVOLUTIONARY DEVELOPMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY: Both ethologists and evolutionary developmental psychologists are interested in the evolutionary history of behavior and its adaptive, or survival, value. For instance, newborn behaviors such as smiling, babbling, grasping, and crying are built-in social signals that encourage the caregiver to approach, care for, and interact with the baby. By keeping the parent near, these behaviors help ensure that the baby will be fed, protected from danger, and provided with stimulation and affection necessary for healthy growth. Evolutionary psychologists aim to understand the entire *person–environment system.*

VYGOTSKY’S SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY: Vygotsky’s theory focuses on how culture—the values, beliefs, customs, and skills of a social group—is transmitted to the next generation. According to Vygotsky, social interaction*,* particularly cooperative dialogues with more knowledgeable members of society, is necessary for children to acquire the ways of thinking and behaving that make up a community’s culture. Like Piaget, Vygotsky saw children as active, constructive beings. But whereas Piaget emphasized children’s independent efforts to make sense of their world, Vygotsky viewed cognitive development as a *socially mediated process,* in which children depend on assistance from adults and more-expert peers as they tackle new challenges.

ECOLOGICAL SYSTEMS THEORY: Ecological systems theory views the child as developing within a complex *system* of relationships affected by multiple levels of the surrounding environment. The child’s biologically influenced dispositions join with environmental forces to mold development. Life changes can be imposed on the child, or they can arise from within the child, since as children get older they select, modify, and create many of their own settings and experiences. How they do so depends on their physical, intellectual, and personality characteristics and their environmental opportunities. In ecological systems theory, children and their environments form a network of interdependent effects that, together, determine the course of development.

DYNAMIC SYSTEMS PERSPECTIVE: Much like ecological systems theory, the dynamic systems perspective maintains that the child’s mind, body, and physical and social worlds form an *integrated system* that guides mastery of new skills. The system is *dynamic,* or constantly in motion. A change in any part of it—from brain growth to physical and social surroundings—disrupts the current organism–environment relationship. When this happens, the child actively reorganizes his or her behavior so the various components of the system work together again but in a more complex, effective way.

CONNECT: Return to the Biology and Environment box on pages 10–11. How does the story of John and Gary illustrate bidirectional influences within the microsystem, as described in ecological systems theory? (pp. 10–11, 26–27)

The microsystem consists of activities and interaction patterns in the child’s immediate surroundings. Bronfenbrenner emphasizes that to understand child development at this level, we must keep in mind that all relationships are *bidirectional:* Adults affect children’s behavior, but children’s biologically and socially influenced characteristics—their physical attributes, personalities, and capacities—also affect adults’ behavior. In the example on pages 10–11, both John and Gary experienced similar environmental stressors during their childhood and adolescence. Gary was able to overcome the odds and create a happy, healthy, well-adapted life, but John fell victim to the effects of the adversity he had experienced in his earlier years. Gary’s personal qualities, such as his ability to make new friends and adapt to new surroundings each time his family moved, likely contributed to his resilience. In contrast, John responded to similar changes by becoming anxious and angry.

The story of John and Gary also illustrates how social support outside the immediate family can contribute to resilience. Gary’s close relationship with his grandfather may have helped him overcome the effects of a stressful home life while also providing him with a model of effective coping. This positive relationship made Gary more likely to establish supportive associations with rule-abiding peers who valued school achievement. Finally, unlike John, Gary had opportunities to participate in community life—for example, by volunteering for Habitat for Humanity—which further strengthened his resilience.

APPLY: Mario wants to find out precisely how children of different ages recall stories. Anna is interested in how adult–child communication in different cultures influences children’s storytelling. Which theoretical perspective has Mario probably chosen? How about Anna? Explain. (pp. 21–23, 25–26)

Mario has probably chosen an information-processing perspective. In this approach, he will break down the process by which children recall stories into the individual steps involved. Then he will analyze each step separately so that he can compare them in detail as they apply to children of different ages.

Anna is more likely to choose a sociocultural perspective, focusing on the ways in which culture—a social group’s values, beliefs, customs, and skills—is transmitted from one generation to the next through social interaction. For example, she might compare the ways children in different cultures engage in storytelling with adults and older peers and how these interactions help them develop the ways of telling stories that are valued within their culture.

REFLECT: To illustrate the chronosystem in ecological systems theory, select an important event from your childhood, such as a move to a new neighborhood or a class with an inspiring teacher. How did the event affect you? How might its impact have differed had you been five years younger? How about five years older? (p. 29)

This is an open-ended question with no right or wrong answer.

REVIEW: Why might a researcher choose structured observation over naturalistic observation? How about the reverse? What might lead the researcher to opt for clinical interviewing over systematic observation? (pp. 32–34)

In *naturalistic observation,* researchers go into the field, or natural environment, and record their observations of the behavior of interest. Researchers choose this approach when it is important for them to see directly the everyday behaviors they hope to explain.

In *structured observation,* the investigator sets up a laboratory situation that evokes the behavior of interest so that every participant has an equal opportunity to display the response. Structured observation permits greater control over the research situation than does naturalistic observation. It is especially useful for studying behaviors, such as parent–child or friendship interactions, that investigators rarely have an opportunity to see in everyday life. However, it may not yield observations that are typical of participants’ behavior in everyday life.

Systematic observation provides invaluable information on how people behave but says little about the reasoning behind their responses. Researchers who are interested in participants’ perceptions, thoughts, abilities, feelings, attitudes, beliefs, and past experiences often select a *clinical interview,* in which a flexible, conversational style is used to probe for the participant’s point of view. The clinical interview permits people to display their thoughts in terms as close as possible to the way they think in everyday life. This method also provides a great deal of information in a fairly short period of time—far more than could be captured by observing behavior for the same amount of time.

CONNECT: What strengths and limitations do the clinical, or case study, method and ethnography have in common? (pp. 35–36)

Both the clinical method and ethnography are descriptive, qualitative research techniques. Whereas the clinical method is a way of obtaining as complete a picture as possible of a single individual, ethnography is directed toward understanding a culture or a distinct social group through *participant observation.* A major strength of both methods is that they yield rich, detailed descriptions that offer insights into the multiple factors affecting development. A limitation of both methods is that investigators’ cultural values and theoretical preferences may lead them to observe selectively or misinterpret what they see. Another limitation is that findings cannot be assumed to generalize to other individuals or cultures.

APPLY: A researcher wants to study the thoughts and feelings of children who have a parent on active duty in the military. Which method should she use? Why? (pp. 34–35)

The *clinical interview* is best suited to investigating this research question, because the researcher wants to learn about children’s thoughts and feelings. The clinical interview permits children to display their thoughts in terms that are as close as possible to the way they think in everyday life. This method also provides a large amount of information in a fairly brief period.

The researcher might also consider using the *structured interview,* in which each participant is asked the same questions in the same way. The structured interview eliminates the risk that variations in children’s responses may reflect the manner of interviewing rather than real differences in their thoughts about the topic. It is also more efficient: Answers are briefer and can be gathered from an entire group at the same time. However, structured interviews do not yield the same depth of information as a clinical interview.

REVIEW: Explain how cohort effects can distort the findings of both longitudinal and cross-sectional studies. How does the sequential design reveal cohort effects? (pp. 41–43)

Both longitudinal and cross-sectional studies can be influenced by cohort effects—the particular historical and cultural conditions that influence individuals born in the same time period. Therefore, results based on one cohort may not apply to children developing at other times. For example, a longitudinal study of social development carried out around the time of World War II would probably result in quite different findings than a study carried out in the first decade of the twenty-first century, during the decade of the 1960s, or during the Great Depression of the 1930s. Similarly, a cross-sectional design that compares 5-year-old cohorts and 15-year-old cohorts—groups born and reared in different years—may not really identify age-related changes. Rather, the results may reflect unique experiences associated with the different historical time period in which each age group grew up.

In *sequential designs,* researchers overcome some of these limitations by conducting several similar longitudinal or cross-sectional studies, or *sequences,* at varying times. Sequential designs reveal cohort effects by comparing participants of the same age who were born in different years. If the samples do not differ on the measured variables, the researcher can rule out cohort effects.

CONNECT: Review the field experiment on the impact of the Family Check-Up on page 39. Why is it ethically important for researchers to offer the intervention to the no-intervention control group after completion of the study? (*Hint:* Refer to Table 1.6 on page 45) (pp. 39, 45–46)

One of the research rights established by the American Psychological Association states that when researchers are investigating experimental treatments believed to be beneficial, children in control groups have the right to alternative beneficial treatments (if available) or to the same treatment (if found to be effective) once the research is complete. In this case, families assigned to the Family Check-Up, but not controls, gained in positive parenting, which in turn predicted a reduction in child problem behaviors and improved academic achievement. Once this favorable aspect of the Family Check-Up was known, it was important that families in the control group be given an opportunity similar to the advantage provided to the experimental group.

APPLY: A researcher compares children who went to summer leadership camps with children who attended athletic camps. She finds that those who attended leadership camps are friendlier. Should the investigator tell parents that sending children to leadership camps will cause them to be more sociable? Why or why not? (p. 38)

No. This study uses a correlational design, in which the researcher looks at relationships between participants’ characteristics and their behavior or development. Although this type of design allows researchers to gather information on individuals in their natural life circumstances, it does not permit them to infer cause and effect. Therefore, the researcher cannot conclude that attending summer leadership camps will cause children to be more sociable. It may be that children who are more sociable choose to attend leadership camps over athletic camps. It is also possible that a third variable that the researcher did not even consider contributed to the research findings.

REFLECT: Suppose a researcher asks you to enroll your baby in a 10-year longitudinal study. What factors would lead you to agree and to stay involved? Do your answers shed light on why longitudinal studies often have biased samples? Explain. (pp. 41–42)

This is an open-ended question with no right or wrong answer.

MEDIA MATERIALS

For details on individual video segments that accompany the DVDs for *Infants, Children, and Adolescents,* Eighth Edition, please see the DVD Guide for *Explorations in Child Development.* The DVD and DVD Guide are available through your Pearson sales representative.

Additional DVDs and streaming videos that may be useful in your class are listed below. They are not available through your Pearson sales representative, but you can order them directly from the distributor. (See contact information at the end of this manual.)

*Child Development Theorists: Freud to Erikson to Spock…and Beyond* (2009, Films Media Group, 22 min.). Using historical footage and photos in combination with video shot at daycare centers, this program introduces the major child development theorists and discusses how practical applications of their theories can benefit parents, caregivers, and educators. The theorists presented include Sigmund Freud, Maria Montessori, Arnold Gesell, Lev Vygotsky, Jean Piaget, Erik Erikson, John Bowlby, Lawrence Kohlberg, and Howard Gardner. Educational resources are available online.

*John Bowlby: Attachment Theory Across Generations* (2007, Films Media Group, 39 min.). This program focuses on attachment theory as it explains many aspects of personality development, especially issues related to attachment. Therapeutic applications of the theory are illustrated, along with more recent findings in the field of neuroscience. Part of the series *Giants of Psychology.*

*Lev Vygotsky: One Man’s Legacy Through His Life and Theory* (2009, PHD Lowe Productions, 3 sections, 1 hr. 53 min. total). Using narration, archive photos, film footage, and interview commentary from family members and educators, this documentary examines the life and work of Lev Vygotsky. Key concepts are highlighted, including mediated learning, the zone of proximal development, and the role of collaborative dialogue. A short version (35 min.) is also available, summarizing Vygotsky’s life story and providing examples of Vygotskian practice.

*Nonexperimental Research Methods in Psychology* (2006, Films Media Group, 34 min.). Using three studies on the effects of cell phone use as examples of nonexperimental research methods, this program considers both the advantages and limitations of questionnaires, unstructured interviews, and naturalistic observation, respectively. Part of the series *Understanding Psychology.*

*Psychology Research in Context* (2008, Films Media Group, 29 min.). Divided into five sections, this program illustrates selected principles of science in the context of psychological research, including the hypothetical-deductive model, the analysis of statistics, the use of graphs to present data, the concept of statistical significance, and data interpretation. Part of the series *Understanding Psychology.* Educational resources are available online.

*Research Ethics* (2008, Insight Media, 21 min.). This program examines ethical issues in conducting and reporting research, including plagiarism, credits and citations, and falsification and fabrication of data.

*Research Methods in the Social Sciences* (2005, Films Media Group, 4-part series, each segment 23–46 min.). Focusing primarily on research in psychology, this series explores qualitative and quantitative research methods used in a wide range of disciplines. Hosted and narrated by students, each program demonstrates aspects of testing hypotheses, preparing experiments, and analyzing data. Instructors’ guides are available online.

*Study of the Child: Theories of Development* (2007, Films Media Group, 2-part series, each segment 16–27 min.). This two- part series presents the theories of some of the most influential thinkers in the field of child development. Examining models that focus on the mind, feelings, physical development, or social context, along with the ideas of early educational reformers, the programs emphasize the importance of drawing on ideas from several philosophies.