MODERN DEVELOPMENTAL THEORIES pdf

1: Child Development Theories

Child development theories focus on explaining how children change and grow over the course of childhood. Such theories center on various aspects of development including social, emotional, and cognitive growth.

Jean Piaget A Swiss theorist who has had a great influence on the way we understand children. He emphasised the importance of maturation and the provision of a stimulating environment for children to explore. He believed children were active learners. Sensori-motor stage â€" Birth to two years. Children are using their physical or motor skills and their senses to explore their world and develop their cognitive understandings. Pre-operational stage â€" Two to seven years. During this stage even though someone has shown them that two balls of dough exactly the same size and got them to agree that the balls are the same size, when one is flattened, children will usually tell you that one of them is now bigger. This inability to conserve is a feature of the preoperational stage. Concrete operations â€" Seven to twelve years. In this stage which aligns with middle childhood, children are beginning to be able to demonstrate much more logical thinking. They do though need concrete materials to help them reach the correct conclusions. Thus in this stage you will see children working on mathematical problems but using blocks or counters or even their fingers to help them work out the answer. Formal operation â€" 12 years on. This final stage encompasses the rest of our lives. We can deal with much more complex issues. Piaget believed that children think differently from adults. According to Piaget, their development is largely due to maturation of the brain and nervous system and active exploration of the environment. Piaget proposed that the following principles underpin all cognitive development. The child is an active learner. The child must be given opportunities to explore, discover and experiment. This is not because children know less than adults but because their thinking processes are different. That is, infants, toddlers, preschoolers and school-aged children have different thinking strategies and have quite different ways of problem-solving and exploring the environment. All children pass through the same stages of cognitive development and in the same order. The rate of progression through the stages is different for each child. Young children can perform complex, cognitive processes and their approaches support this understanding and foster opportunities for this to happen. If we understand how children think and learn, we can provide a stimulating environment that will support their learning. This will involve a good range of experiences and a free-choice approach so that each child will be able to follow their own interests at the level they are ready for. He was important because he saw children as active participants in their own learning. Jean Piaget categories of play Sensori motor play Here an infant up to two years of age will use various senses and motor skills to explore objects and their environment. Symbolic play In this type of play, symbols are much more evident. Children can pretend that one object is another, the cubby house becomes a rocket. Games with rules In this stage, children are able to follow rules of games, changing their understanding of the purpose of rules as they get older. Children in the concrete operations stage are usually also in this play stage Nixon and Gould Note that Piaget did not tend to see play as learning through the accommodation of new information, but rather the assimilation of new materials into existing cognitive structures. It is relaxed practice time rather than the challenging learning time for taking in completely new information. Piaget, along with socio-emotional theorists such as Erikson, believed that children could use play to act out unpleasant experiences or experiences where they had very little power. This explains why children entering school play teachers over and over again with younger children, acting out teachers who are ferocious in their ability to order and command. The child can imagine themselves in the position of power and this helps them to deal with being powerless. This is also common with children witnessing or involved in violent households. Piaget believed that children learn through play and hands on, concrete experiences. Emergent curriculum, developmentally appropriate practice, the project approach and even the Reggio Emilia approach all have this need for children to play, touch and learn through real experiences within the foundations of the program. Jean Piaget has been a significant influence on early childhood education and care. Think back to your earlier child development topics where you will have explored his theories in detail. He believed that children learn through play and that development, skills and knowledge occur in a particular pre-ordained manner. Children

move through the developmental stages at a set rate and cannot skip stages. Piaget also saw children as theorists â€" continually taking on board information, applying it to their situation and then adapting it in light of new information they had gained. This was his process of assimilation and accommodation. Piaget believed that children needed to have hands on, concrete experiences before they could progress to higher level or abstract thinking and that children learnt about the world and their place in it by exploring and acting on their environment. For more information on Piaget try these websites:

Super described his theory as "a segmental theory a loosely unified set of theories dealing with specific aspects of career development, taken from developmental, differential, social, personality, and phenomenological psychology and held together by self-concept and learning theory".

Observational, Empirical, and Theoretical. Theoretical Era can be subdivided into two categories labeled modern and postmodern. Modern theories began in the s with postmodern emerging in the late s and early s. According to Super, Savickas, and Super , these ideas originated in his interest in work and occupations, the developmental studies of Buehler , and the studies of occupational mobility by Davidson and Anderson In the early s, Super introduced the first outline of his theory in his presidential address to the Division of Counseling and Guidance now the Division of Counseling Psychology of the American Psychological Association, in part as a challenge by Ginzberg that vocational counselors lacked a theory to guide their work. In his address, he identified the elements that he thought made up an adequate theory of vocational development. These elements included individual differences; multipotentiality; occupational ability patterns, identification and the role of models; continuity of adjustment; life stages; career patterns; the idea that development can be guided; the idea that development is the result of interaction; the dynamics of career patterns; job satisfaction; individual differences; status, and role; and works as a way of life. In developing these 14 propositions, he drew upon fours diverse domainsâ€"differential psychology, developmental psychology, occupational sociology, and personality theory. Differential psychology provided a knowledge base about the various traits individuals possess and the variety of occupational requirements. Developmental psychology provided a knowledge base about the various traits individuals possess and the variety of occupational requirements. Developmental psychology contributed insights into how individuals develop abilities and interests and the concepts of life stages and development tasks. Occupational sociology offered new ideas about occupational mobility and the impact of the environmental influences. Personality theory contributed the concepts of self-concept and person-environment theory. The first three propositions emphasize that people have different abilities, interests, and values, and may be qualified for various occupations because of this. No person fits only one occupation; a variety of occupations are available and occupations accommodate a wide variety of individuals. The next six propositions focus on self-concept and its implementation in career choices, on life stages with their mini- and maxi-cycles, and on the concepts of career patterns and career maturity. The next four propositions deal with the synthesis and compromise between individuals and social factors and work and life satisfactions. The last proposition looks at work and occupation as the focus for personality organization and the interplay of life roles as worker, student, leisurite, homemaker, and citizen. The CPS began following eighth-grade boys and ninth-grade boys. Super and his colleagues theorized that the movement of individuals through life stages was a typical process that could be loosely tracked according to an aged-referenced timeline. The participants were followed briefly up until age 21, more intensively at age 25, and then again at age This system is represented by a Life-Career Rainbow model. Five stages are shown in the relationship to age ranges appear on the upper outside rim. The life stages are labeled growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline and are called maxicycles. Although they maxicycles are not linear, not everyone goes through these stages in the same way or at the same age. Transitions from one stage to the next often involves minicycles which is going back through various stages before moving on. Within each of the stages, developmental task are to be mastered before movement to the next stages occurs. Super identified six life roles in which individuals participate over the life span: Individuals often participate in multiple roles at the same time; the amount of time and effort varies by life stage and age. Some roles are more important during certain ages than others. As Super noted, life roles wax and wane over time. The general agreement of this term denotes a readiness to engage in the developmental task appropriate to the age and level at which one finds oneself. Maturity is never reached but instead the goal relative to where one is at any given time and helps to promote a life span notion rather than a static, irreversible pattern of career development. Later Super refined his notion of career maturity and suggested that the term for adults should be career adaptability and

included the constructs of planfulness including autonomy, self-esteem, and reliance on a time perspective , exploration, information, decision making, and reality orientation were in his formulation of career maturity adaptability. He was interested in applying his theoretical concepts to career counseling. He and a number of his colleagues developed the career development assessment and counseling C-DAC model. Then four phases of the assessment was undertaken, with the first phase being the assessment of the importance of the work role in relationship to other life roles. The next phase, attention is given to determining the career stage and career concerns of the client, followed by identifying resources for making and implementing choices and assessing resources for adapting to the work world. Interests, abilities, and values are assessed by the following trait and factor methodology are the next phase. Super summarized the status of his theory has been refined and extended over the last decade. Differential psychology has made technical advances. Operational definitions of career maturity have been modified, and the model has been modified with them. Recycling through stages in a mini-cycle has been refined but it is the same as it was when first formulated. Ideas about how to assess self-concepts have evolved as research has thrown light on their measurement, and knowledge of how applicable self-concept theory is to various subpopulations have extended but has not changed the model greatly. Life-stage theory has been refined but mostly confirmed by several major studies during the past decade. The role of learning theory has been highlighted by the work on social learning, but to the neglect of other kinds of interactive learning. The career model is in the maintenance stage, but health maintenance does not mean stasis but rather updating and innovating so midcareer changes are better recognized and studied. The concept of life stages has been modified from envisioning mainly a maxicycle to involving minicycles of growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline which is linked in a series with the maxicycle. Reexploration and reestablishment have attracted a great deal of attention, and the term transition denotes these processes. Links to Articles or Videos:

3: How Modern Management Theories were Developed

contemporary developmental theories Since the time of Erikson and Jung, theories of lifespan development have been largely concentrated on processes and outcomes in youth, but several have been applied to aging and successful aging.

Overview[edit] Modernization theory both attempts to identify the social variables that contribute to social progress and development of societies and seeks to explain the process of social evolution. Modernization theory is subject to criticism originating among socialist and free-market ideologies, world-systems theorists, globalization theorists and dependency theorists among others. Modernization theory stresses not only the process of change but also the responses to that change. It also looks at internal dynamics while referring to social and cultural structures and the adaptation of new technologies. Modernization theory maintains that traditional societies will develop as they adopt more modern practices. Proponents of modernization theory claim that modern states are wealthier and more powerful and that their citizens are freer to enjoy a higher standard of living. Developments such as new data technology and the need to update traditional methods in transport, communication and production, it is argued, make modernization necessary or at least preferable to the status quo. That view makes critique of modern difficult since it implies that such developments control the limits of human interaction, not vice versa. It also implies that human agency controls the speed and severity of modernization. Supposedly, instead of being dominated by tradition, societies undergoing the process of modernization typically arrive at forms of governance dictated by abstract principles. Traditional religious beliefs and cultural traits, according to the theory, usually become less important as modernization takes hold. As Kendall notes, "Urbanization accompanied modernization and the rapid process of industrialization. When modernization increases within a society, the individual becomes increasingly important, eventually replacing the family or community as the fundamental unit of society. Origins[edit] Sociological theories of the late 19th century such as Social Darwinism provided a basis for asking what were the laws of evolution of human society. By the late s opposition developed because the theory was too general and did not fit all societies in quite the same way. It is argued that globalization is related to the spreading of modernization across borders. Global trade has grown continuously since the European discovery of new continents in the Early modern period ; it increased particularly as a result of the Industrial Revolution and the midth century adoption of the shipping container. Annual trans-border tourist arrivals rose to million by and almost tripled since, reaching a total of over 1. Communication industries have enabled capitalism to spread throughout the world. Telephony, television broadcasts, news services and online service providers have played a crucial part in globalization. S president Lyndon B. Johnson was a supporter of the modernization theory and believed that television had potential to provide educational tools in development. Globalists are globalization modernization theorists and argue that globalization is positive for everyone, as its benefits must eventually extend to all members of society, including vulnerable groups such as women and children. Democratization and modernization[edit] The relationship between modernization and democracy is one of the most researched studies in comparative politics. There is academic debate over the drivers of democracy because there are theories that support economic growth as both a cause and effect of the institution of democracy. Latin America, argue that economic performance affects the development of democracy in at least three ways. First, they argue that economic growth is more important for democracy than given levels of socioeconomic development. Second, socioeconomic development generates social changes that can potentially facilitate democratization. Third, socioeconomic development promotes other changes, like organization of the middle class, which is conducive to democracy. Rostow, Politics and the Stages of Growth ; A. In the s, some critics argued that the link between modernization and democracy was based too much on the example of European history and neglected the Third World. One historical problem with that argument has always been Germany whose economic modernization in the 19th century came long before the democratization after Berman, however, concludes that a process of democratization was underway in Imperial Germany, for "during these years Germans developed many of the habits and mores that are now thought by political scientists to augur healthy political development". They argue the ideal social and cultural

conditions for the foundation of a democracy are born of significant modernization and economic development that result in mass political participation. They say political regimes do not transition to democracy as per capita incomes rise. Rather, democratic transitions occur randomly, but once there, countries with higher levels of gross domestic product per capita remain democratic. Contrary to Przeworski, this study finds that the modernization hypothesis stands up well. Partial democracies emerge as among the most important and least understood regime types. Technology[edit] New technology is a major source of social change. Social change refers to any significant alteration over time in behavior patterns and cultural values and norms. Since modernization entails the social transformation from agrarian societies to industrial ones, it is important to look at the technological viewpoint; however, new technologies do not change societies by itself. Rather, it is the response to technology that causes change. Frequently, technology is recognized but not put to use for a very long time such as the ability to extract metal from rock. Technology makes it possible for a more innovated society and broad social change. That dramatic change through the centuries that has evolved socially, industrially, and economically, can be summed up by the term modernization. Cell phones, for example, have changed the lives of millions throughout the world. That is especially true in Africa and other parts of the Middle East , where there is a low cost communication infrastructure. With cell phone technology, widely dispersed populations are connected, which facilitates business-to-business communication and provides internet access to remoter areas, with a consequential rise in literacy. Countries that are seen as modern are also seen as developed, which means that they are generally more respected by institutions such as the United Nations and even as possible trade partners for other countries. The extent to which a country has modernized or developed dictates its power and importance on the international level. However, rather than replicating the stages of developed nations, whose roots of modernization are found with the context of industrialization or colonialism , underdeveloped nations should apply proximal interventions to target rural communities and focus on prevention strategies rather than curative solutions. Additionally, a strong advocate of the DE-emphasis of medical institutions was Halfdan T. Related ideas have been proposed at international conferences such as Alma-Ats and the "Health and Population in Development" conference, sponsored by the Rockefeller Foundation in Italy in , and selective primary healthcare and GOBI were discussed although they have both been strongly criticized by supporters of comprehensive healthcare. According to Seymour Martin Lipset, economic conditions are heavily determined by the cultural, social values present in that given society. Critics insist that traditional societies were often destroyed without ever gaining the promised advantages if, among other things, the economic gap between advanced societies and such societies actually increased. The net effect of modernization for some societies was therefore the replacement of traditional poverty by a more modern form of misery , according to these critics. Criticism[edit] From the s, modernization theory has been criticized by numerous scholars, including Andre Gunder Frank â€" [22] and Immanuel Wallerstein born By one definition, modern simply refers to the present, and any society still in existence is therefore modern. Proponents of modernization typically view only Western society as being truly modern and argue that others are primitive or unevolved by comparison. That view sees unmodernized societies as inferior even if they have the same standard of living as western societies. Opponents argue that modernity is independent of culture and can be adapted to any society. Japan is cited as an example by both sides. Some see it as proof that a thoroughly modern way of life can exist in a non western society. Others argue that Japan has become distinctly more western as a result of its modernization. As Tipps has argued, by conflating modernization with other processes, with which theorists use interchangeably democratization, liberalization, development , the term becomes imprecise and therefore difficult to disprove. Modernization theory has also been accused of being Eurocentric , as modernization began in Europe, with the Industrial Revolution , the French Revolution and the Revolutions of Macionis and has long been regarded as reaching its most advanced stage in Europe. Anthropologists typically make their criticism one step further and say that the view is ethnocentric and is specific to Western culture. Dependency theory[edit] One alternative model on the left is Dependency theory. It emerged in the s and argues that the underdevelopment of poor nations in the Third World derived from systematic imperial and neo-colonial exploitation of raw materials. It is a central contention of dependency theorists such as Andre Gunder Frank that poor states are impoverished and rich ones enriched by the way

poor states are integrated into the " world system ". Dependency theory rejected this view, arguing that underdeveloped countries are not merely primitive versions of developed countries, but have unique features and structures of their own; and, importantly, are in the situation of being the weaker members in a world market economy.

contributed to the construction of modern theories of development in the s, stressing the role of the state. In contrast, critique from left-wing and liberal perspectives gave priority to the role.

Saul McLeod , published , updated Developmental psychology is a scientific approach which aims to explain growth, change and consistency though the lifespan. Developmental psychologists study a wide range of theoretical areas, such as biological, social, emotion, and cognitive processes. Empirical research in this area tends to be dominated by psychologists from Western cultures such as North American and Europe, although during the s Japanese researchers began making a valid contribution to the field. To describe development it is necessary to focus both on typical patterns of change normative development and on individual variations in patterns of change i. Although there are typical pathways of development that most people will follow, no two persons are exactly alike. Developmental psychologists must also seek to explain the changes they have observed in relation to normative processes and individual differences. Although, it is often easier to describe development than to explain how it occurs. Finally, developmental psychologists hope to optimise development, and apply their theories to help people in practical situations e. Developmental Questions Continuity vs. Discontinuity Think about how children become adults. Is there a predictable pattern they follow regarding thought and language and social development? Do children go through gradual changes or are they abrupt changes? Normative development is typically viewed as a continual and cumulative process. The continuity view says that change is gradual. Children become more skillful in thinking, talking or acting much the same way as they get taller. The discontinuity view sees development as more abrupt-a succession of changes that produce different behaviors in different age-specific life periods called stages. Biological changes provide the potential for these changes. These are called developmental stages-periods of life initiated by distinct transitions in physical or psychological functioning. Psychologists of the discontinuity view believe that people go through the same stages, in the same order, but not necessarily at the same rate. Nurture When trying to explain development, it is important to consider the relative contribution of both nature and nurture. Developmental psychology seeks to answer two big questions about heredity and environment: How much weight does each contribute? How do nature and nurture interact? Nature refers to the process of biological maturation inheritance and maturation. One of the reasons why the development of human beings is so similar is because our common specifies heredity DNA guides all of us through many of the same developmental changes at about the same points in our lives. Nurture refers to the impact of the environment, which involves the process of learning through experiences. There are two effective ways to study nature-nurture. Similarities with the biological family support nature, while similarities with the adoptive family support nurture. Change Stability implies personality traits present during present during infancy endure throughout the lifespan. In contrast, change theorists argue that personalities are modified by interactions with family, experiences at school, and acculturation. This capacity for change is called plasticity. For example, Rutter discovered than somber babies living in understaffed orphanages often become cheerful and affectionate when placed in socially stimulating adoptive homes. The notion of childhood originates in the Western world and this is why the early research derives from this location. Initially developmental psychologists were interested in studying the mind of the child so that education and learning could be more effective. Developmental changes during adulthood is an even more recent area of study. This is mainly due to advances in medical science, enabling people to live to an old age. Charles Darwin is credited with conducting the first systematic study of developmental psychology. In he published a short paper detailing the development of innate forms of communication based on scientific observations of his infant son, Doddy. However, the emergence of developmental psychology as a specific discipline can be traced back to when Wilhelm Preyer a German physiologist published a book entitled The Mind of the Child. In the book Preyer describes the development of his own daughter from birth to two and a half years. Importantly, Preyer used rigorous scientific procedure throughout studying the many abilities of his daughter. During the s three key figures have dominated the field with their extensive theories of human development, namely Jean Piaget , Lev Vygotsky and John Bowlby

Indeed, much of the current research continues to be influenced by these three theorists. Theories of Development Jean Piaget Piaget believed that children think differently than adults, and stated they go through 4 universal stages of cognitive development. A Biographical Sketch of an Infant. Die Seele des Kindes: Grieben, Leipzig, Preyer, W. The soul of the child: Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 22 4 , How to reference this article:

5: Children's services- Child development theorists

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The main purpose of theory in the study of aging is to provide a context for describing and explaining the regular transformations that occur with time to representative organisms living under representative conditions. Theories in general aid the process of articulating meaningful patterns from observations that would otherwise be disconnected pieces of a puzzle and less meaningful. In the study of aging, theories serve as frameworks for organizing research findings as well as general observations or intuitions about aging and the elderly. Aging is universal in that similar changes in human behavior occur at about the same age for all persons. Some of these age-related changes are controlled by a " biological clock ," and the term, primary aging, refers to the biologically based mechanisms that are responsible for breakdowns in particular organ systems. In contrast to the consequences of many disease processes that are relatively abrupt and that affect primarily one system or organ, primary aging eventually affects all systems within the organism, and aging occurs gradually and in a cumulative fashion. For example, it is known that all sensory systems become less acute and that the speed of processing information becomes gradually slower with advancing age. Further, there are predictable changes in physiological systems and in physical appearance with aging. Despite the ubiquity and universality of aging processes, one of the most remarkable characteristics of human aging is the wide range of heterogeneity in the expression of the consequences of aging. Secondary aging factors such as stress, trauma, exposure to toxins, and disease exacerbate the rate of primary aging. However, it is also the case that some individuals successfully avoid disease, maintain high levels of physical and cognitive function, and continue to be actively engaged in life. Individual characteristics as well as the circumstances and the sociocultural contexts associated with particular periods of historical time e. No one is born old, and individuals become more unique as they grow older in part because of particular histories of life experience. During the life course, the repertoire of individuals is shaped by how the person invested time and energy. The life-span approach to the study of aging is one way of conceptualizing many of the factors that affect how individuals change as they grow older, and how different individuals show different patterns of change with aging. Life-span theory Life-span developmental theory is usually considered to be a "meta-theory" in that it is a set of themes for approaching the study of development and aging. The life-span approach is not a set of empirically testable hypotheses; rather, it provides a broadened orientation to the study of aging. It should also be pointed out that life-span theory is not new, but has its origins in the work of several eighteenth- and nineteenth-century writers, especially Johann Nikolaus Tetens â€" and Adolphe Quetelet â€" The main themes associated with the life-span approach are summarized Table 1. The idea that aging is multidimensional and multidirectional is one of the basic themes of a life-span orientation to the study of aging. Consistent with evidence suggesting increased inter-individual differences with aging in healthy adults, the experience of aging seems to produce cumulative differentiation within individuals along multiple dimensions. Although it might seem obvious, the idea that gain or growth as well as loss or decline can be observed throughout the life span has not usually been appreciated in research that is narrowly focused on the study of age-related deficits or decline. For example, the study of the characteristics of wisdom and mature thinking, the maintenance or continued evolution of cognitive expertise in the later years, and the emergence of emotional maturity are areas receiving increased research attention. Although there are relatively few research investigations aimed at describing the positive aspects and potentials of late-life functioning compared with the number of investigations in the literature aimed at description and explication of age-related deficit, research inspired by a life-span approach helps to provide a more balanced and accurate account of aging. Life-span theorists seem to enjoy the challenge of chipping away at the prevailing views of aging in science and in society as monotonic deterioration, decrement, and loss. In their efforts to dispel overly negative views of aging, life-span researchers are skeptical about overly narrow conceptions of aging. The results of research describing ordinary lives in real settings often provides a contrasting picture of aging compared with the

results of research describing performance on tests and measures that are indigenous to youth and insensitive to the unique qualities of older adults. Another line of research evidence in support of a balanced view is derived from studies that distinguish between the characteristics of normal aging, illness-free aging, and successful aging. Research on successful aging has as one of its aims to identify the personal attributes and contextual characteristics of individuals who minimize or escape the negative consequences of aging and disease. Research methods and themes The description or analysis of simultaneous gains and losses along multiple dimensions across time or age requires sophisticated research methods. Perhaps one of the most important methodological issues derivative from life-span theory has been the distinction between age, cohort, and time of measurement as sources of influence in developmental research. In the study of aging, it is known that observations of age differences in behavior are attributable to both cohort factors influences associated with time of birth and to age factors. Further, observations of longitudinal changes across multiple times of measurement are attributable to chronological age change and to the influences of changing socio-historical circumstances. The significance of age, cohort, and socio-historical factors as distinct sources of influence was not really appreciated until development was conceptualized in a broad life-span framework. Another important methodological theme in life-span developmental theory has to do with the specification and meaning of the age variable. Although age-related change is usually described in terms of chronological age, years since birth provides a crude and unsatisfactory index of many aging phenomena. One theme of the life-span approach is to replace chronological age with index measures that more accurately capture the sources of time-related or age-related change. For example, the effects of aging on behavior are sometimes irreversible. The effects of aging on behavior can also be quantitative and continuous rather than qualitative, and reversible rather than irreversible. Further, markers of elapsed time are insensitive to the meaning of time as a relative and subjective dimension. Indeed, the experience of the passing of days is not likely to be the same for different aged individuals. There are "social clocks" based on culture-related age prescriptions as well as "biological clocks" based on physiological time. Because age and time are not causes of change per se, an aim of aging research is to identify the mechanisms that are primarily responsible for age-related change. Careful description of the social and biological processes that produce aging would enable researchers to replace the index variable, time since birth, with the variables for which it is proxy. For example, there is some evidence to suggest that measures of brain reserve capacity can serve as more accurate measures of the effects of aging than chronological age. Plasticity, reserve capacity, and resiliency Most developmental research describes what is normal, not what is possible. Referring to Table 1, another main theme in life-span developmental theory is associated with plasticity, reserve capacity, and resiliency. Plasticity refers to the potential for intra-individual change. Intra-individual plasticity is evident when there is variability in levels of performance across different kinds of tasks or when there is variability in performing the same task measured at different times or under different conditions. Even the mature adult brain retains considerable functional plasticity, and there is continued cortical reorganization based on adult experience e. Life-span researchers are interested in understanding developmental differences in the gap between observable behavior and actual or potential competence. The potential for optimization is present throughout the life course, although it is likely that it becomes increasingly constrained near the end of the life span. In other words, there appears to be diminished reserve capacity near the end of the life span, such that the individual is vulnerable to a variety of circumstances associated with mortality. Individuals also exhibit varying capacities to protect themselves from impairment and insult associated with aging and disease, and to adapt effectively to the demands of stressful situations. The term resiliency is similar in its meaning, and refers to a capacity for successful adaptation and recovery in response to stressful life events. Although the concept of resilience has been used mainly in reference to protective resources in children, recently some life-span researchers have argued that resilience is a useful concept for describing individual adaptation throughout the life span. The concepts of plasticity and reserve hold promise for providing a full understanding of the relationship between aging and behavior. Analogous to cardiovascular function, or muscular efficiency, healthy older adults usually function quite effectively in everyday nonstressful conditions, but their functioning is likely to be impaired under stressful conditions. That is, age-related deficits in behavioral function are most apparent when systems that are critical

to maintaining performance are challenged or stressed. The study of reserve capacity is useful for describing the effects of aging on a wide range of functions under challenged conditions. Along these lines, work by Baltes and colleagues has addressed how selected aspects of development can be enhanced or compensated for in situations or domains where there is optimal support. Biological and social processes Another main theme of life span developmental theory is the idea that aging is continuously and simultaneously influenced by a wide range of dynamic biological and social processes. Although it seems trivial to point out that aging has multiple causes, most theories of aging emphasize the nonmalleable aspects of aging. From a life span perspective, it is recognized that some of the antecedents of aging are universal and species-determined, and that some are idiosyncratic or cohort-specific, culture-specific, or specific to a segment of historical time. Further, some of the biogenetic and sociocultural aspects of development and aging are gender-specific, and some of the biological and social aspects of development and aging are gender-invariant. Some of the environmental influences on aging are or seem entirely unique to individuals. It seems that life span researchers also find it useful to look for conceptual linkages across disciplines. Occasionally, such linkages lead to major advances in how we think about aging processes. Significant advances in the study of aging often reflect multidisciplinary integrations of ideas. For example, recent work in the area of developmental behavioral genetics goes beyond the standard position on organism-environment interaction by calling attention to nonadditive synergistic effects. That is, there are unique combinations of nature and nurture that produce synergistic or optimal outcomes for development. As an example of a synergistic interaction between environmental conditions and heritability, it has been reported that there is a significant increase in the heights of second-generation Japanese persons raised in the United States compared with second-generation Japanese persons raised in Japan. Second-generation Japanese persons raised in the United States were over five inches taller than the American-reared sons of short Japanese fathers and the Japan-reared sons of tall Japanese fathers see Bronfenbrenner and Ceci. In conclusion, life span developmental theory provides a basis for describing both gains and losses associated with aging. From a life span developmental perspective, researchers tend to consider the potentials as well as limits of intra-individual change across the life span. Due to a combination of influences, many developmental outcomes are possible for each person, some outcomes are more likely than others, some outcomes can be made more likely, and some outcomes are not possible. From a life span orientation, the understanding of specific aspects of human aging are best understood in a larger context that encompasses the influences of biological and sociocultural factors across time and age. Theory and Application to Intellectual Functioning. Substrates for Cognitive Development. Is There Reason for Optimism? Cite this article Pick a style below, and copy the text for your bibliography.

6: Modern: Developmental Theories - Super

Modernization theory is used to explain the process of modernization within societies. Modernization refers to a model of a progressive transition from a 'pre-modern' or 'traditional' to a 'modern' society.

A Brief History Psychologists and other theorists have proposed a number of different theories centered on how children develop. Some of these theories are known as grand theories and attempt to explain almost every aspect of how people change and grow over the course of childhood. In other instances, these theories focus on a more narrow aspect of development. Some of the greatest minds in the history of psychology contributed a few of the best-known developmental theories. Throughout psychology history, a number of different child development theories have emerged to explain the changes that take place during the early part of life. In the modern study of child development, we simply take for granted the fact that children are fundamentally different than adults. Yet for much of human history, kids were simply seen as smaller versions of their adult counterparts. It has only been relatively recently that the field of developmental psychology has helped us understand the way children think is very different from how adults think. Thanks to the work of some pioneering psychologists and other researchers, we now have a much deeper and richer understanding of how kids grow. Psychoanalytic Child Development Theories The psychoanalytic theories of child development tend to focus on things such as the unconscious, and forming the ego. If a child does not successfully complete a stage, Freud suggested that he or she would develop a fixation that would later influence adult personality and behavior. During each stage, the pleasure seeking energies of the id drive for satisfaction based on a particular erogenous zone. During the oral stage, for example, a child derives pleasure from activities that involve the mouth such as sucking or chewing. Conflicts associated with stage must be successfully resolved in order to develop a healthy adult personality. Failing to resolve these conflicts can result in a fixation at a particular point in development. Freud believed that development was largely complete by age 5, while Erikson believed that people continue to develop and grow well into old age. At each stage of development, people face a crisis that they must master. Mastering the crisis leads to the development of a psychological virtue. For example, the primary conflict during the adolescent period involves establishing a sense of personal identity. Success or failure in dealing with the conflicts at each stage can impact overall functioning. During the adolescent stage, for example, failure to develop an identity results in role confusion. During this early stage of life, it is important for children to receive consistent care so that they can learn to trust the people in the world around them. Development continues as children grow, and at each stage the face new conflicts and learn new skills that serve them well throughout life. Behavioral Child Development Theories Behavioral child development theories center on how children learn through their interactions with the environment. Early in the twentieth century, the school of thought known as behaviorism took hold in psychology. The behaviorist believed that learning and development were the result of associations, rewards, and punishments. What Is Developmental Psychology? Two important behavioral processes that influence development are classical conditioning and operant conditioning. Classical conditioning involves forming an association between a previously neutral stimulus and a stimulus that naturally and automatically produces a response. After an association has been formed, the once neutral stimulus now produces the response all in its own. Operant conditioning involves learning as a result of reinforcement or punishment. The consequences of a behavior determine how likely it is for that behavior to occur again in the future. When a behavior is reinforced, or strengthened, then it is more likely that the behavior will occur again in the future. When a behavior is punished, or weakened, then it is less likely to occur again in the future. He was the first to note that children play an active role in gaining knowledge of the world. Early thinking tended to assume that the way kids think is pretty similar to the way adults think, but Piaget helped change this. He concluded that the way that children think is fundamentally different from that of adults. His cognitive theory quickly became one of the most influence child development theories. His approach focuses on four distinct stages that kids go through as they progress from birth to adulthood. Each stage of development is marked by distinct changes in how children think about themselves, others and the world. The Sensorimotor Stage, which takes place early

in life between the ages of birth and two. During this time, a child learns about the world through their sensory perceptions and motor interactions. It is a time of astonishing cognitive change as children gain a great deal of knowledge about the world around them. The Preoperational Stage, which occurs between the ages of 2 and 6, is also a time of rapid growth and development. A great deal of language development takes place during this stage. The Concrete Operational Stage, which takes place between age 7 and 11, involves the emergence of more logical thought. Kids are able to think rationally about concrete events, although they struggle with abstract concepts. The Formal Operational Stage, which lasts from roughly age 12 and into adulthood, is marked by the emergence of hypothetical thought. Kids are able to reason about abstract concepts and make systematic plans about the future. Some focus on how early attachment influence development, while others are centered on how children learn by observing people around them. A few examples of these social theories of child development include attachment theory, social learning theory, and sociocultural theory. According to this theory of child development, children learn new behaviors from observing other people. Unlike behavioral theories, Bandura believed that external reinforcement was not the only way that people learned new things. Bandura believed that behavioral processes alone could not account for how kids learn. How, he wondered, could we explain learning that occurred without any direct association or reinforcement? He noted that observation and modeling play a major part in the learning process. In his famous Bobo doll experiment, Bandura demonstrated that kids could learn aggression by watching the actions of an adult model. Observational learning can involve directly observing another person, but it can also take place by listening to someone else explain how to do something or even reading about it in a book. Final Thoughts on Theories of Child Development There are many different child development theories that have emerged to explain how kids learn and grow over the course of childhood. An Introduction to Child Development. The origins of intelligence in children.

Description. For courses in human development, theories of development and development over the lifespan. This text makes theoretical issues relevant and accessible to students going into professional practice, enables them to apply theory to case examples, and helps them see which theories are focused primarily on specific developmental domains.

How Modern Management Theories were Developed Management has moved a great distance along the continuum of development. The journey began at the very beginning of human civilization and even before that. Today, as an area of knowledge, management has a unique position that its influence is felt in all activities of our life. Management in Antiquity The need for the systematic study of management was not realized until the beginning of the 20th century and the study of management as a distinct discipline is a product of the twentieth century. However; management practice in some forms did exist among human in early generations. But the need for studying management and developing the theories is relatively new. We can see management or management methods are being used in the history of many great civilizations. The Egyptians applied the management functions of planning, organizing, leading and controlling to construct the pyramids. Alexander, the great; employed staffs to organize and coordinate activities during the military campaign. The Roman Empire developed a well-defined organizational structure that greatly aided communication and control. Management practices and concepts were discussed by Socrates in B. Plato described job specialization in B. These contributions centered on the fields of principles of specialization, selection and training of subordinates and effective use of staff in the performance of major activities. D, many civilizations contribute to the development of the human society to today we know. Management is no doubt a part of society, its universal in society. Egyptians used management practices to construct pyramids. Babylonians used the extensive set of laws and policies for governance. Different governing systems for cities and states were used by the Greeks. Chinese civilization made organization structure for communication and control. Romans are the one to use extensive organization structure for government agencies and the arts. Venetians used organization design and planning concepts to control the seas. Although the management function was practiced for thousands of years. But management was never considered an important field of study for several centuries. Earlier management functions were centered around political activities leading to expansion of empire and its maintenance. The Roman Empire was for example, essentially a governmental organization and had unlimited power of taxation. But it was not interested in maximizing sales or minimizing cost. Business management was then practically absent because, in the early days, there was hardly a large business organization until the 18th century when family business, first emerged. In the later periods of the 19th century, a few people began to concern themselves with business management. The pioneers in this respect are James Watt, Mathew R. Boulton, Robert Owen and Charles Babbage. The real development of management as a science was the work of Frederick Winslow Taylor and his associates during the Scientific Management movement that developed around Reasons for Late Development of Management Thoughts The basic reasons for the slow development of management thought and practice are: Non-recognition of business as an occupation until recently. Management was not considered as a subject worthy of theoretical analysis by well-known economists. Even businessmen did not develop a body of principles to guide management practice. Failure to treat management as a science and not merely an art by economists, psychologists, and sociologists. The development of management theory has been noteworthy only in the past eight decades. The main reasons were for this; attainment of an effective enterprise system, proper handling of a human factor was essential. Labor unrest at industries, trade union, manipulation of resources and the attack by government and other social groups on free private enterprises played an instrumental part in forcing managers to examine the nature of their job. The Second World War and the subsequent defiance and space programs also contributed to the development of management theories. Most of the theories emphasized upon the best use of limited resources to accomplish the goals. The changing commercial environment, increasing complexities of business activities, regional integration, and strategic alliances and also growing competition further provided the force for developing of the management concepts and principles. In addition to this, enterprises have been

faced with the problem of cost-price squeezes. Businesses which failed to use modern techniques of management were not in a position to cope up with this problem. The evolution and growth of management thought theories and principles can be divided into three well-defined channels. Investigation of shop level and workshop efficiency and industrial productivity: The pioneer in this field was F. Taylor in the USA. Developing management as a body of organized knowledge, Systematic principles, and conduct of universal applicability in industry, office, and administration. The undoubted leader in this field was C. Barnard and Henri Fayol in France. Henri Fayol Contribution to Management The third branch devoted itself to the study of the behavioral part of management and the control and motivation of the human resources for securing sustained and high-level of efficiency. This aspect of management shot into prominence with the now famous Hawthorne Experiments during the s. The pioneer in this field was Mary Parker Follett who was working in the U. Development of Modern Management Theories Both theory and history of management are useful for practicing manager. Theories help us by organizing information and providing a systematic framework for action. A theory also works as a blueprint or a roadmap for guiding the manager towards achieving goals. The history of management theories can help a manager to be aware of the many insights, ideas and scientific underpinnings that have gone into the making of modern management and the burgeoning of writings on management at the present day. We have already seen that although the practice of management started when man first attempted to accomplish goals by working together in groups, the systematic study of management began at the age of the Industrial Revolution which ushered in a new era of serious thinking and theorizing the management. At this stage, it is considered important and worthwhile to have some knowledge of the background of the evolution of modern management thought, for then the growth of modem thinking on management can be appreciated as the fruit of a long-going historical process and development. For the beginning, there is no single universally accepted or practiced management theory. Because management is not a knowledge body like physics, chemistry. However, to help put the different theories in perspective, we shall discuss them as representing different schools of management thought. It has come through a process of evolution when a lot of changes have occurred in nature and approaches and even in the understanding of Modern Management Theories. In fact, a host of scholars from various disciplines have profusely contributed towards the development of Modern Management Theories. It has reached its position through the efforts of men working on its behalf over centuries. It stands tall because it stands on the shoulders of past theoreticians and scholars in various fields. In the contemporary arena of management, every manager faces the challenges of the globalization of business, the importance of quality and productivity, ownership issues, ethics and social responsibility, workforce diversity, change, and improvement.

8: Modernization theory - Wikipedia

theories of human development. FREUD'S PSYCHOSEXUAL THEORIES, ERIKSON'S PSYCHOSOCIAL THEORIES, LEARNING THEORIES, PIAGET'S THEORY OF COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT, KAR Slideshare uses cookies to improve functionality and performance, and to provide you with relevant advertising.

Psychosexual development Sigmund Freud believed that we all had a conscious, preconscious, and unconscious level. In the conscious, we are aware of our mental process. The preconscious involves information that, though not currently in our thoughts, can be brought into consciousness. Lastly, the unconscious includes mental processes we are unaware of. He believed there is tension between the conscious and unconscious because the conscious tries to hold back what the unconscious tries to express. To explain this he developed three personality structures: The id, the most primitive of the three, functions according to the pleasure principle: The first is the oral stage, which occurs from birth to 12 months of age. The second is the anal stage, from one to three years of age. During the anal stage, the child defecates from the anus and is often fascinated with their defecation. During the phallic stage, the child is aware of their sexual organs. The fourth is the latency stage, which occurs from age five until puberty. Stage five is the genital stage , which takes place from puberty until adulthood. During the genital stage, puberty starts happening. He used Socratic questioning to get children to reflect on what they were doing, and he tried to get them to see contradictions in their explanations. Piaget believed that intellectual development takes place through a series of stages, which he described in his theory on cognitive development. Each stage consists of steps the child must master before moving to the next step. He believed that these stages are not separate from one another, but rather that each stage builds on the previous one in a continuous learning process. He proposed four stages: Though he did not believe these stages occurred at any given age, many studies have determined when these cognitive abilities should take place. The pre-conventional moral reasoning is typical of children and is characterized by reasoning that is based on rewards and punishments associated with different courses of action. Conventional moral reason occurs during late childhood and early adolescence and is characterized by reasoning based on rules and conventions of society. Mistrust" takes place in infancy. The second stage is "Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt" with the best virtue being will. This takes place in early childhood where the child learns to become more independent by discovering what they are capable of where if the child is overly controlled, they believe to feel inadequate on surviving by themselves, which can lead to low self-esteem and doubt. The third stage is "Initiative vs. The basic virtue that would be gained is the purpose and takes place in the play age. This is the stage where the child will be curious and have many interactions with other kids. They will ask many questions as their curiosity grows. If too much guilt is present, the child may have a slower and harder time interacting with other children. The fourth stage is "Industry competence vs. The basic virtue for this stage is competency which happens at the school age. This stage is when the child will try to win the approval of others and fit in and understand the value of their accomplishments. The fifth stage is "Identity vs. The basic virtue gained is fidelity which takes place in adolescence. The sixth stage is "Intimacy vs. Isolation", which happens in young adults and the virtue gained is love. In not doing so, it could lead to isolation. The seventh stage is "Generativity vs. This happens in adulthood and the virtue gained would be care. We become stable and start to give back by raising a family and becoming involved in the community. The eighth stage is "Ego Integrity vs. This happens during maturity and wisdom is gained. When one grows old and they contemplate and look back and see the success or failure of their life. This is also the stage where one can also have closure and accept death without fearing anything. The Model of Hierarchical Complexity MHC is not based on the assessment of domain-specific information, It divides the Order of Hierarchical Complexity of tasks to be addressed from the Stage performance on those tasks. The order of hierarchical complexity of tasks predicts how difficult the performance is with an R ranging from 0. In the MHC, there are three main axioms for an order to meet in order for the higher order task to coordinate the next lower order task. Axioms are rules that are followed to determine how the MHC orders actions to form a hierarchy. Ecological systems theory[edit] Main article: The four systems are microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, and macrosystem. Each

system contains roles, norms and rules that can powerfully shape development. The microsystem is the direct environment in our lives such as our home and school. Mesosystem is how relationships connect to the microsystem. Exosystem is a larger social system where the child plays no role. Macrosystem refers to the cultural values, customs and laws of society. The mesosystem is the combination of two microsystems and how they influence each other example: The exosystem is the interaction among two or more settings that are indirectly linked example: The macrosystem is broader taking into account social economic status, culture, beliefs, customs and morals example: Lastly, the chronosystem refers to the chronological nature of life events and how they interact and change the individual and their circumstances through transition example: As a result of this conceptualization of development, these environments—from the family to economic and political structures—have come to be viewed as part of the life course from childhood through to adulthood. This adult role is often referred to as the skilled "master," whereas the child is considered the learning apprentice through an educational process often termed " cognitive apprenticeship " Martin Hill stated that "The world of reality does not apply to the mind of a child. Constructivism psychological school Constructivism is a paradigm in psychology that characterizes learning as a process of actively constructing knowledge. Individuals create meaning for themselves or make sense of new information by selecting, organizing, and integrating information with other knowledge, often in the context of social interactions. Constructivism can occur in two ways: Individual constructivism is when a person constructs knowledge through cognitive processes of their own experiences rather than by memorizing facts provided by others. Social constructivism is when individuals construct knowledge through an interaction between the knowledge they bring to a situation and social or cultural exchanges within that content. Piaget proposed that learning should be whole by helping students understand that meaning is constructed. Evolutionary developmental psychology Evolutionary developmental psychology is a research paradigm that applies the basic principles of Darwinian evolution , particularly natural selection , to understand the development of human behavior and cognition. It involves the study of both the genetic and environmental mechanisms that underlie the development of social and cognitive competencies, as well as the epigenetic gene-environment interactions processes that adapt these competencies to local conditions. Attachment theory Attachment theory, originally developed by John Bowlby , focuses on the importance of open, intimate, emotionally meaningful relationships. A child who is threatened or stressed will move toward caregivers who create a sense of physical, emotional and psychological safety for the individual. Attachment feeds on body contact and familiarity. Later Mary Ainsworth developed the Strange Situation protocol and the concept of the secure base. Theorists have proposed four types of attachment styles: It is characterized by trust. Anxious-avoidant is an insecure attachment between an infant and a caregiver. Anxious-resistant is an insecure attachment between the infant and the caregiver characterized by distress from the infant when separated and anger when reunited. Some babies are raised without the stimulation and attention of a regular caregiver or locked away under conditions of abuse or extreme neglect. The possible short-term effects of this deprivation are anger, despair, detachment, and temporary delay in intellectual development. Long-term effects include increased aggression, clinging behavior, detachment, psychosomatic disorders, and an increased risk of depression as an adult. Attachment is established in early childhood and attachment continues into adulthood. An example of secure attachment continuing in adulthood would be when the person feels confident and is able to meet their own needs. An example of anxious attachment during adulthood is when the adult chooses a partner with anxious-avoidant attachment. Please help improve this article by adding citations to reliable sources. Unsourced material may be challenged and removed. April Learn how and when to remove this template message Nature vs nurture[edit] A significant issue in developmental psychology is the relationship between innateness and environmental influence in regard to any particular aspect of development. This is often referred to as " nature and nurture " or nativism versus empiricism. An empiricist perspective would argue that those processes are acquired in interaction with the environment. Today developmental psychologists rarely take such polarised positions with regard to most aspects of development; rather they investigate, among many other things, the relationship between innate and environmental influences. One of the ways this relationship has been explored in recent years is through the emerging field of evolutionary developmental psychology.

One area where this innateness debate has been prominently portrayed is in research on language acquisition. A major question in this area is whether or not certain properties of human language are specified genetically or can be acquired through learning. The empiricist position on the issue of language acquisition suggests that the language input provides the necessary information required for learning the structure of language and that infants acquire language through a process of statistical learning. From this perspective, language can be acquired via general learning methods that also apply to other aspects of development, such as perceptual learning. The nativist position argues that the input from language is too impoverished for infants and children to acquire the structure of language. Linguist Noam Chomsky asserts that, evidenced by the lack of sufficient information in the language input, there is a universal grammar that applies to all human languages and is pre-specified. This has led to the idea that there is a special cognitive module suited for learning language, often called the language acquisition device.

9: Nascargal WEEK 3 - MODERN: DEVELOPMENTAL THEORIES - SUPER

Some of the greatest minds in the history of psychology contributed a few of the best-known developmental theories. Throughout psychology history, a number of different child development theories have emerged to explain the changes that take place during the early part of life.

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